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YALF, Nigeria

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yaljod

YOUNG AFRICAN LEADERS JOURNAL OF DEVELOPMENT

A PUBLICATION OF

Young African
Leaders Forum

02

EDITION

www.yalf-africa.org/yaljod

The Institutional Reform of the African Union

Under the leadership of
H.E. Paul Kagame, President of Rwanda

BACKGROUND

“We have everything needed to succeed.
To fail Africa again would be unforgivable.”

Paul Kagame, President of Rwanda

Decision on the Institutional Reform of the African Union
Assembly/AU/Dec.606 (XXVII) (2017)

Realigned and re-energised African Union

PREVIOUS

- 2007 Adedeji Report
- 2016 Mekelle Report

4 Action areas:

1 FOCUS on key priorities

- Reduce priority areas to: political affairs, peace and security, economic integration, and Africa's global representation and voice
- Clear division of labour between AU, RECs, RMs, member states, etc.

2 REALIGN AU institutions

- Currently
- 8 Commission Directorates
 - 11 AU organs
 - 20 High-level committees
 - 21 Departments and officers
 - 31 Specialised technical agencies (STAs)
 - Increase AU relevance to citizens

Recommendations

- Re-evaluate structure
- Lean senior leadership
- Audit of bureaucratic inefficiencies
- Quotas for youth, women and private sector
- Establish African Volunteer Corps
- Implement African passport
- Review AU organs: NEPAD, APRM, Pan-African Parliament (PAP), etc.

3 MANAGE the AU efficiently

Recommendations

- Reform working methods of Summit
- Strengthen and enforce sanctions mechanism
- Competitive recruitment
- Role of deputy Chairperson > Chief Operating Officer

4 FINANCE the AU sustainably and by AU member states

AU budget more than 50% funded by donors

AU programmes 97% donor funding

A high-level panel of Heads of State and Government should be put in place to supervise the implementation process

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Vision Statement

To become a world-class organisation and the solution to Africa's underdevelopment.

Mission Statement

To move Africa to the First World by creating workable solutions to its developmental problems and strategically executing them.

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FOREWORD

In one of the recent Youth Consultations in Dakar Senegal, I had expressly stated that “Africa has so many success stories in the fight against corruption that we should be proud of. It is the responsibility of all of us to sell these stories to the rest of the world.” I commend the Young African Leaders Forum (YALF) because this is part of what they are trying to achieve with this historic journal, Young African Leaders Journal of Development (YALJOD). Our success stories as a continent should be told - and with pride - by our people before the rest of the world. Today, apart from the fight against corruption, many young leaders have joined to change the face of the continent by leading impact-filled projects across different sectors.

The involvement of today's youths in governance and leadership in Africa is a 21st century imperative - especially because we seek to achieve a target by 2063, which would eventually be realized in their dispensation. There is no doubt that this journal has aroused the social consciousness of our African youths. It has also given them a platform to try to contribute to the development of our continent through their critical thinking, problem-solving and creative suggestions. From YALJOD, we can all relate with the different needs, perspectives and expectations of African youths. What more can be done? It is time for all African leaders and stakeholders to take a more closer look at the biennial youth-led publication with the specs of sustainable development because noble ideas should be implemented.

All twenty-seven (27) papers in this year's edition of YALJOD were scrupulously written by these young people in their capacities. Whilst one young author tried to explain how we can reposition Africa through science and technology, another talked about the sustainable prosperity of Africa and her human potentials. Many outstanding suggestions from both the first and second editions of YALJOD can prove vital to the realization of the Agenda 2063 vision plan. And this is how we can create the Africa we all want.

The young Nigerian, Femi Royal, expatiated how we can leverage technology to provide food security in Nigeria. I strongly believe that this can be replicated in some other African countries. Another author, Tinashe Lenin from Zimbabwe, emphasized the need for a strengthened pan-African economic and social solidarity. Elmoanad Elsayad from Egypt also highlighted the nexus between education and market needs. From whatever angle we may look at it, there is no gainsaying that YALJOD 2018 is enriched with the tangible, workable visions of young people for Africa.

The journal is pertinent for two reasons. Firstly, it will sensitize young people - and keep them socially conscious whilst preparing them for their future roles in our development trajectory. Through YALF clubs in universities, this is even better achieved. Secondly, it is a great tangible materials for African stakeholders and policy makers to get hold on whenever they want to understand the needs, thoughts and concerns of our young people.

I must admit that YALF is a unique organisation that offers a great platform for Africa's youth participation in African issues. I hope that they would continue to work harder to ensure that their objective for initiating this pan-African project is successfully implemented - and that the journal remains vital to us all.

The official launch of this second edition of YALJOD will be done at the African Union headquarters - Ethiopia, in partnership with the African Governance Architecture in October.

Amb. Dr. Salah Siddig Hammad,

Ag Head, African Governance Architecture, African Union Commission

FOREWORD

The Young African Leaders Journal of Development (YALJOD) is a biennial journal and an official publication of the Young African Leaders Forum (YALF). The Journal is the first youth-led publication in Africa highlights the vision and concerns of Africa's youth in addressing issues of development, with particular emphasis on the African Union (AU) Agenda 2063 vision plan. Issues which predominantly affect the youth, women and children, such as inadequate health and education facilities and employment opportunities are given critical analysis.

In this second edition of YALJOD, the submissions by its young leaders and scholars draw our attention to issues which continue to constrain the continent's development. The six articles reviewed are very diverse, yet all share thought-provoking analysis and provide suggestions on how these challenges can be addressed.

“Challenges and the Pertinence of History,” the author notes that science of writing history is like a diary of events. It offers four key elements for the writing of history: functional in meeting the needs of the society; aids the progress of mankind; transmits culture and identity, and; its integration into other disciplines. The writing focuses on the importance of historiography in the study of African history and its inherent challenges, concluding that history is inescapable for both individuals and society as a whole.

“Youth Education, Unemployment and Entrepreneurship in Nigeria,” argues that that the current educational system is not geared towards self-sufficiency but towards securing employment. It calls for a refocusing of the educational system in order to produce more 'job creators' by including additional training programs, internships, and work/study programs.

“Foreign Direct Investment Regulations” argues that African states are at a disadvantage since they are not members of the World Trade Organization (WTO), which has relevant performance requirements, policies, and safeguards. The author is critical of the mandatory incentive-based criterion that most developing countries currently use and which is the preferred mechanism for foreign investors. It suggests improvements to the current system by adding a joint venture requirement and in limiting the percentage ownership of the foreign investor.

“Challenges of Sustainable Urban Governance in Africa: Urban Informality in Zimbabwe,” explores the use of urban space, which the author argues has become a contested constituency between the urban informal sector and the state apparatus. Using a case study of Zimbabwe, the author describes the ongoing impact of Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs) which accelerated the increase of the informal sector due to inadequate housing and employment opportunities. The result has been a rise in the number of urban poor and is reflected by the increase in street vendors and squatters, the rise of 'touting', the perception of this population as vagrants, social deviants and outcasts, and violent confrontations between the state apparatus and this population. The author recommends that instead of punitive actions the state should institute a mass public education program that includes registration, licensing and tax collection.

“Formal Education, Informal Education and Religion as a growth Mechanism in Africa,” proposes that religious education provides moral, ethics and standards that are formative for human existence and relations and that relationships with religious leaders can fundamentally improve security, increase the standard of living and better people's lives. The author states that these factors are important and should be integrated into both formal and informal education systems.

In “Non-Governmental Organizations in Africa (Solutions for Building Sustainable Development and Creating jobs for African Youth),” the author proposes that a new development paradigm is needed to curb food shortages, increased poverty and hunger that have been created and aggravated by internal conflict and military coups.

These The recommended solutions are for an increase in public investment in agriculture and rural development, in addition to the development of micro-enterprises to create new employment opportunities.

The views expressed in the papers represent some of the challenges observed by African youth. It provides an opportunity for the youth themselves, leaders and other stakeholders to engage with each other in order to find working solutions to these problems.

Patricia Rodney, PhD, MPH

Chair, The Walter Rodney Foundation

Adjunct Professor, Morehouse School of Medicine

Atlanta, GA, USA

FOREWORD

Our forefathers in Africa had a rich oral tradition that was passed down from generation to generation, shaping the lives of the people of our Continent. All our traditions, inventions, and social norms were transferred orally over the wide open plains and across the mountains and rivers that cut through our vast Continent.

In our recent history, the literary giants of Africa in the tradition of Cheikh Anta Diop, Wole Soyinka, W.E.B. du Bois, Ali Mazrui, Mahmoud Mamdani, and Steve Biko gave us a legacy that built on our rich oral tradition. Today, as you publish the second edition of the Young African Leaders Journal of Development, you open up a new chapter in our unfolding history. The importance of your initiative is two-fold. Firstly, it brings forth a new generation of writers whose lived experiences will be reflected in their writings and through their thoughts and analysis we will shape a new African ethos; one that reflects not just an African reality but an African reality in a globalized world. You are the most networked generation of all time and your global interactions will shape your thoughts and writings and this in turn will shape Africa.

Secondly, in examining the articles for this edition, and in reflecting on your objectives for the journal, Africa and Africans can be assured that a new generation of leaders are being molded with a social consciousness. Your journal will influence a new generation of young people to become more aware of their surroundings and to take action to address the challenges of poverty, unemployment, and inequality.

The growth of intellectual discourse and discussion among the youth of Africa is needed for there to be real and meaningful social change in all our societies. The Young African Leaders Journal of Development must be commended for initiating these discussions which are needed for a change in the mindset of young people. By providing a platform for their challenges, experiences and thoughts they are being forced to critically engage with society rather than remain passive members on the sidelines. When young people are armed with the skills to reason and the knowledge of the challenges and experiences of their communities then we have the beginnings of a generation with the ability to have a real impact on transforming our Continent.

ACCORD's new initiative, Global Peace, seeks to close the gap between peace and development. In this context Global Peace will be looking to work with partners like YALF to deliver concrete outcomes to Africa's developmental challenges. In this partnership we hope that YALJOD will play a crucial role in ensuring that the best ideas for development find their way from the journal to the ground!

Vasu Gounden,

*Founder and Executive Director, The African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Dispute (ACCORD)
Durban, South Africa*

INTRODUCTION

Africa's greatest assets are not its numerous mineral resources – but its young people. The youths are the very core of the hope that we all have. Whether Agenda 2063, a better tomorrow or Africa's sustainable development, everything boils down to the generation who will dominate the discussion, pioneer the movement and live the dream future that we all envisage. Irrespective of some of the negative reports that are given about Africa; there is one thing we can never take away from our continent – it is the fact that Africa is home to some of the most dynamic and industrious people on the planet.

A strategic focus should be on the constant empowerment of this clique of young people. Many organisations – including the African Union – are working committedly to empower young people to participate actively in their societies such that they can improve their own lives, represent and solve their needs whilst also instilling in them the power and skills to advocate for the needs of others. Our organisation, Young African Leaders Forum (YALF), also teaches young people to be proactive, responsible and independent. Through our development trainings and projects, many young people have developed critical thinking and problem-solving skills – making them some indispensable assets for our great continent.

This journal, Young African Leaders Journal of development (YALJOD), was established to host scholarly analysis and competing viewpoints about the development of Africa. Aside garnering the ideas of young people pertaining the development of our continent, YALJOD was initiated to orient and re-orient the average African youth especially. The journal has the ability to educate Africa's greatest assets on the ideals of pan-Africanism, the root problems of Africa's underdevelopment, the solution to these malaises and the essence of selfless leadership. Where the AU, YALF and many other development organisations are unable to directly impact, we are trusting in YALJOD to benefit and impact the entire African people.

What is even unique is that we are storing every edition of this formidable journal in the cloud. The eBooks of YALJOD are available and accessible for all Africans including those in the diaspora. It undoubtedly spreads the message and values farther – such that generations yet unborn would directly enjoy the legacies of this first youth-led African development journal. The vision is for YALJOD to become one of the most popular, most informative, most strategic and solution-filled journals all over the globe.

Africa can become a major player in global affairs. But to achieve this, our young people need to continually make full contributions for the advancement of our continent. Strategies for Africa's development will only be very effective if they are premised on the youth as vital actors in fostering economic growth and achieving a developed yet politically, socially and environmentally sustainable continent. They are the ones who will carry on the legacies and live the future that we all see now.

With more than 70% of Africa's population under the age of 30, the important role the youths can play in global development cannot be overemphasized. It is important that current leaders and young people alike partner to strengthen democracy, uphold human rights, eradicate corruption, expand economic opportunities, promote peace, enhance the quality of education, advance the use of technology, create a new class of entrepreneurs – and boost social development. Our continent needs this collaboration to be projected to the First World calibre.

In this edition of YALJOD, youth leaders carefully highlighted some creative ways through which we can achieve a prosperous African economy. In her systemically-written paper, the Moroccan, Sara Haddou Amar, explores the impact of human potential on reaching and achieving a high level of prosperity. Sensewell Chingwaramusee highlights that harnessing and utilising the youth adequately will ensure dominance through political, economic, environmental, social and technological development in Africa. Regina Mungwe and her

co-authors portray the unique potentials and actual contributions the youths of Africa have demonstrated in building peace in different African communities. The scrupulous Sudanese, Shawgei Salah Ahmed Ismaeil, outlines a roadmap for a better future for the next generations in Africa. Whereas, Ogbu Eke Eke PhD recommends that in order to improve the quality of education in Africa, teachers should be trained and versed on how best to develop and use KWL strategy so as to achieve their objectives of enhancing academic achievement in Reading comprehension.

In his paper, Femi Royal informs agricultural development practitioner about how technology can end hunger and achieve food security in Nigeria. The Egyptian, Elmohanad Elsayad, looks at some examples of employability education provision in the developed world and highlights the western trend to consolidate employability education through public policy and International Conventions. Whilst Merga Fikadu Angerasa advises African states to focus on regional cooperation than competition – and this cooperation should go to the extent of having common model investment treaty, Kamara Abdulsalam explained the impact of entrepreneurship education on self-employment initiatives amongst students – with particular emphasis to students in Fourah Bay College.

Many exciting articles – Tendaishé Tlou's paper, for instance, seeks to examine the impact of police brutality and explore the pros and cons of such attitudes and behaviours so as to recommend how Zimbabwe can mitigate police brutality and foster tolerance, co-existence, peace, development and human security. Peaceful Mathebula's paper then recommends that it is crucial for the policy-makers of developing mineral-rich states to begin channelling their policies (like trade, industrial, mineral policies) to divert their economies from being excessively dependent on minerals and other products with declining global prices and demand. Mercy Prince-Ifoh's article hints on the socioeconomic need to continually uphold the rights of the girl child and the average woman in Africa and emphasizes the important values, roles and inputs the girl child can add to one's country, continent and the world at large. Lenin Tinashe Chisaira wrote extensively on the Continental Free Trade Area and calls for vigilance against neoliberalism and argues for strengthened Pan-African economic and social solidarity.

YALJOD 2018 is enriched with ideas and suggestions which can help foster our communal progress. What is more important to us is the implementation and execution of the notable ideas penned down by young people in this reputable journal. As an organisation, YALF cannot achieve the execution of these visions alone; this is why we are presenting YALJOD before all Africans at the very strategic African Union headquarters in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. We hereby invite development agencies, government bodies, Policy Makers, Non-governmental Organisations and Civil Societies alike to find YALJOD a helpful resource material with clear ideas on development projects. The development ideas noted in both the first and second edition of this journal – when implemented – will undoubtedly contribute to the realisation of the Agenda 2063 vision plan and create that African continent we all want.

My dispensation holds the key to the envisaged future. And from now, we are beginning to trace Africa's development malaises to their root causes and proffering workable solutions to them. The implementation of these solutions should be a 21st century imperative for all Africans – and lovers of Africa. And at the centre of this great continent are youths who are ready to make a difference – let us harness their potentials.

Prince Ifoh,

Founder, Young African Leaders Forum (YALF)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

What precious thing can be said or done to organisations and companies alike who throw immense support to the development works that we do? Even if we say a thousand “Thank You”, would it suffice or equal the good input that they have deposited into the wellbeing and progress of the entire African people. Well, like I did two years ago on behalf of the President and the entire Executive Council of the Young African Leaders Forum, I will like to acknowledge and appreciate great individuals and organisations that have worked with us throughout 2018.

In collating papers and preparing this second edition of our reputable journal, four exceptional youth researchers played pivotal roles in editing and compiling articles to form this awesome work that you see. They worked with our editorial consultants – prestigious individuals from different academic and professional backgrounds – to package this journal. On this ground, I would like to appreciate all our youth editors and the editorial consultants who created time out of their busy schedules to help us realise this vision. Special thanks to Professor Patricia Rodney, Dr. Vasu Gounden of ACCORD, Dr. Chidi Achebe, Dr. Justina Mutale, Dr. Ferdinand Sango, Maureen Nkandu and Alice Mutesi.

Nothing would be more necessary than a formidable platform to launch this journal at the strategic African Union headquarters. This was gracefully provided by the African Governance Architecture headed by the scrupulous reformer, Amb. Dr. Salah Hammad. His actions and positive reactions to youth agenda have always motivated us to continue to work harder to achieve the Africa we all want. We want to specially thank Dr. Salah Hammad and the entire African Governance Architecture of the African Union (AU) for supporting us in hosting the official launch of YALJOD (Edition II). Indeed, because we are Africans, we are a part of the African Union. We hope that this partnership enjoys a long-term presence, and continue to serve benefits to the entire African people.

Under the direction of the Executive Council, I will also like to appreciate John Oparaji and Philglad Nigeria Limited for partnering with us in printing this second edition and making hard copies available. We also appreciate the management of Kennesaw States University and The Walter Rodney Foundation in the United States – for concurrently helping us spread the electronic versions of our journal to the African Diaspora – and the entire globe at large. We appreciate our local partners within the African environment as well.

Yes, we had an awesome year – as an organisation – in 2018. Through our Pan-African summits, we were able to empower young people to participate actively in their societies. We held this summit in three different regions – the East African edition held in Nairobi, Kenya, the South African edition held in Lubombo, Swaziland (now eSwatini) and the West African edition held in Lagos, Nigeria. We really appreciate Fahamu in Nairobi, Sword and Spirit in Siteki, GOKADA in Lagos, Posky Plus in Ghana, Trumpet Media and Hausa Television – amongst many others.

As an organisation, we are forever indebted to the partners that we have and the organisations that exude particular interest in working with us to foster Africa for the First World status. We are also very much open to receive more supports and partnerships as our vision is to play integral role in the eventual realisation of the African Union Agenda 2063 vision plan amongst others.

Thank you everyone for your contributions and support. I know that there are many more people that time wouldn't permit me to appreciate, we are eternally grateful to you too as much as you know. Let us continually do our best to project our continent forward – a First World status is possible.

Pafungeyi Gore,
*Vice President II, Young African Leaders Forum (YALF),
PE, South Africa.*

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EFFECT OF KNOW-WHAT-LEARN STRATEGY ON SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN READING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the effect of Know-What-Learn (KWL) on senior secondary school students' academic achievement in reading comprehension. The study adopted a quasi-experimental design – specifically a pretest posttest non-equivalent control group design. Two research questions and one hypothesis guided the study. The sample was made up of 80 students. The instruments for this study were 25 items multiple-choice reading comprehension achievement test. Mean and standard deviation were used to answer the three research questions while ANCOVA was used to test the hypothesis at $p < 0.05$. The result revealed that students taught using KWL had a higher academic achievement gain score than those taught using lecture method. Based on the findings, some recommendations were made which include that English language teachers should be trained and versed on how best to develop and use KWL strategy so as to achieve their objectives of enhancing academic achievement in Reading comprehension.

INTRODUCTION

Reading comprehension can be seen as the process through which the recognized words are transformed into a meaningful idea (Adeniyi, 2002). It is a highly interactive process that takes place between a reader and a text. Reading comprehension is an intentional, active, interactive process that occurs before, during and after a person reads a particular piece of writing. Individual learner/reader will bring different skills and experiences to these interactions. These include language skills, cognitive resources and world knowledge. The act of reading occurs within a particular socio-cultural and emotional context. This includes the readers' cultural background, their previous motivation, their view of themselves as readers, the purpose of reading the text, the cultural value placed on reading and the reading environments the reader experiences. These variables may determine comprehension in reading.

Comprehension, which is a "creative, multifaceted process" is dependent upon four language skills: phonology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics (Tompkins, 2011:45). Proficient reading depends on the ability to recognize words quickly and effortlessly (Keerian, Betjamann & Olsos, 2007). Comprehension is highly interactive, such that readers use variety of skill and processes in text reading. These processes are complex and consist of multiple components. Research has shown that comprehension involve decoding, fluency, vocabulary knowledge, knowledge of the ways text are organized, knowledge of the words and strategies for fostering and monitoring and comprehension (Mc Grew & Wendling, 2010 & Middleton, 2011). It is also determined by an individual's cognitive development, which is the construction of thought processes.

Poor skills in reading comprehension obviously affect a student's success in school. Academic progress depends on understanding, analyzing and applying the information gathered through reading. However, it goes much further than expected. Poor comprehension skills have been linked to poverty and crime (Primary National Strategy for Literacy and Mathematics, 2014). Reading comprehension empowers learners to take individual as well as collective action in various contexts of their everyday life, such as household, workplace and community. Also reading comprehension could contribute to broader socio-economic processes of empowerment in modern society as it is fundamental to informed decision making, personal empowerment, active and passive participation in local and global social community.

Reading comprehension is considered as a fundamental for successful academic endeavour as students need to read and comprehend in any subject in order to excel. Yet, in Nigeria many scholars observed that this aspect of language learning is

highly neglected and may have been one of the major reasons for students' poor academic achievement in secondary schools (Adeyimi, 2008; Agwamba, 2014). According to West Africa Examination Council State Committee (2016) statistics of result performance May/June West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) for Nigeria, the percentage of number of students that have five credit passes and above including English Language and Mathematics from the year 2012 to 2015 were 37.6%, 36.57%, 31.00%, 37.58 for 2012, 2013, 2014 & 2015 respectively. This shows a decline in students' performance.

The situation is that even among the senior secondary school students there are high levels of poor literacy yet the bases of literacy is reading comprehension (Nwigwe and Izuagba, 2011). This may have resulted in poor performance of students in West Africa School Certificate Examination (WASCE). The Federal and some State Governments have been providing funds for continuous teacher education and provisions of instructional materials for schools with the sole aim of improving the quality of education but the results of the past WASSCE have indicated that these governmental efforts are not yielding the expected dividends. The observed poor performance of students may be attributed to a number of factors, one of which is the use of poor and ineffective lecture method in teaching. Confirming the interrelationship between methods used in teaching and students' academic achievement. Nwigwe and Izuagba (2011:15) assert that:

Method used in teaching can stimulate interest and zeal to learn or kill interest. As a matter of fact, what a child learns depends not only on what he is thought, but how he is taught, though other variables like his/her developmental levels interest and experience are crucial. Method used in teaching is very crucial. This is why the teacher's effectiveness, rest on his skillfulness and creativity as well as selecting apt methods of presenting what he/she teaches.

Also, studies have indicated that teachers in secondary schools predominately use lecture method in lesson delivery (Onukaogu, 2003; Izuagba, 2011). Lecture method allows a great deal of information to be passed on. It is advantageous in handling large classes. In spite of this advantage, the lecture method does not stimulate students' innovativeness, critical thinking, inquiry and scientific attitudes. It encourages students to memorize facts which are often easily forgotten (Mbakwem, 2005). In addition, in lecture method, teaching is always emphasized rather than learning for mastery. It uses mechanical learning process where the teacher is the custodian of knowledge and information giver.

In the light of this general poor performance of students in English language in public examinations such as Senior Secondary Certificate Examination, it could be that appropriate teaching strategies that will make students proficient with the skills for reading comprehension have not yet been fully adopted in teaching in secondary school. This could perhaps be one of the reasons for students' poor performance as success in examination is determined by the extent the student could interpret meaning from the subjects. There is thus, an agitation for a paradigm shift where learning is emphasized and this has given birth to constructivism. Constructivism is the brain child of scholars like; Piaget (1950), Vygotsky (1978), Ausbel (1963) and Brunner (1975). Vygotsky posits that learning is an active, social process in which student constructs new ideas/knowledge based on his/her current knowledge. Constructivism is a view of learning based on the belief that knowledge is not given by the teacher rather it is constructed by learners through an active and collaborative process.

In other words learners are the builders, creators of meaning and knowledge and that knowledge is socially constructed. For the constructivist, knowledge is not transmitted from an expert or teacher to a passive recipient, the learner. Rather learning results from a cognitive activity of meaning–construction. The learner is engaged in the construction of mental representations of the material in which he or she is exposed to, and to make sense from it. Knowledge therefore results from the activity taken by the learner usually in a problem–solving activity, and also from reflections on those actions. The main feature of constructivist theory is that it focuses on the learner. The learners take responsibility for their learning, they become architects of their learning process in an environment that is learner– centered (Okudo, 2013). The teacher must mediate between learner's current and emergent understanding. He or she becomes a guide, a coach, and a facilitator.

Arguably, Ifegbo (2012) asserts that constructive approach and social constructive approach emphasize child's own construction of knowledge by understanding alone or in collaboration with others respectively. Know-what-learn (KWL) teaching strategy underline the core principles of constructivism.

Constructivist theorists posit that knowledge is not given but constructed by the learner. Hence, it is through interaction with people, environment and relating concepts to what the learners know that they experience things, reflect on their experience and by so doing they construct knowledge. KWL strategy is one of the teaching and learning strategies used mainly for information text. Ogle (1986) developed the strategy (access what I know, determine what I want to find out, recalling what I did learn) which combined several other elements of approaches. KWL instructional strategy adopts a three column format, requires students first to list what they already know about a topic (calling attention to prior knowledge). Second, to write what they would like to know about a topic (tapping students' interest and providing purpose for reading, and the third, after reading and discussion, to list what they learned and would still like to learn (making connections between questions asked and information encountered). KWL strategy has been found very effective in helping students elicit prior knowledge of the text, set purpose for reading and help students monitor comprehension (Fitiri, 2013).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to determine the effects of Know What Learn and lecture methods of teaching on Senior Secondary School Students' academic achievement and motivation in reading comprehension. Specifically the study sought to:

1. Find out the differential effect of KWL and Lecture teaching methods on senior secondary students' achievement in reading comprehension.
2. Find out the effect of gender on the mean achievement scores of senior secondary school students taught reading comprehension using the KWL teaching strategy and Lecture method.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions guide the study:

1. What is the differential effect of KWL and Lecture teaching strategies on Senior Secondary Students' achievement in reading comprehension?
2. What is the effect of gender on the mean achievement scores of senior secondary school students in reading comprehension when taught using the KWL teaching strategy and lecture method?

HYPOTHESES

To guide the study, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance:

H_{01} : There is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of Senior Secondary School students taught reading comprehension using the KWL and Lecture methods.

METHOD

This study adopted a pre-test, post-test, control group experimental design with a 2 x 2 factorial matrix to determine the effects of training in know-what-learn strategy and lecture method on students' academic achievement and motivation in reading comprehension. The experimental group adopted know-what-learn strategy and the control group used the lecture method. The population of the study comprised all the senior secondary school two (SS2) English Language students in all the Government owned co-educational Secondary schools in Abia State in the 2016/2017 academic session numbering 7,837 students (3,283 male and 4554 female students) in Abia State (Abia State Secondary Education Management Board, 2017).

The SS II Students of Ibeku High School was purposively selected as the sample. Ibeku High School is one of the coeducational public secondary schools in Umuahia Educational Zone. The sample of the study consist of 80 students comprising 40 students assigned to the experimental groups and 40 students assigned to the control group from the same school. One class for experimental group has 17 males and 23 females (KWL) while the other class for control group has 13 males and 27 females. The instrument used was the Reading Comprehension Achievement Test (RCAT) which consist of 25 multiple-choice questions. The Pre-test Post- test achievements test items was based on the unit topics that consist of reading comprehension in English language that was taught to the students. The face and content validity were established for the Reading Comprehension Achievement Test (RCAT) Forms 1 and 11. To ensure the face validity of the Reading Comprehension Achievement Tests (RCAT), they were presented to three specialists in Measurement and Evaluation and English language from Michael Okpara University of Agriculture, and an expert in Curriculum Studies from Alvan Ikoku Federal Collage of Education. The content validity of the Reading Comprehension Achievement Tests (RCAT) Forms 1 and 11 were ensured through the use of the test blue prints and item analysis. Thereafter, the test items generated were sent to experts in Curriculum Studies from Alvan Ikoku Federal College of Education, two experts in Measurement and Evaluation and the two experts in English Language from Michael Okpara University of Agriculture, Umudike for comments and suggestions.

The researcher in collaboration with some Senior Secondary 2 English Language teachers developed a 25 item multiple-choice achievement test that was based on the topics to be taught on reading comprehension. 10 questions out of the 25 multiple choice questions items were of low level cognitive domain while the other 15 questions were based on high level cognitive domain.

The reliability of the Reading Comprehension Achievement Test was 0.85. The instrument was subjected to trial testing. The Reading Comprehension Achievement Test (RCAT) instrument was administered to 30 students who were not sampled for the study. The scores obtained from the trial testing were subjected to Kuder-Richardson (KR-20) formular to determine the internal consistency of the Reading Comprehension Achievement Test. The Kuder-Richardson (KR-20) was appropriate for determining the reliability of the Reading Comprehension Achievement Test because the instrument required only one correct answer in every case. The following decision rules were applied for the analyses of research questions:

- Accept any variable which computed mean is from 2.5 and above and reject any variable that has below the cut-of mean of 2.5.
- For the testing of hypotheses:
- If p value is less than 0.05 the Null hypotheses was rejected but if P value is greater than 0.05 the Null hypotheses was retained.

Table 1: Pre-test and posttest mean score and standard deviations scores of students in Reading comprehension achievement test due to exposure to KWL and Lecture Method

Teaching Method	Number of Students	Types of Test				Achievement Gains
		Pre-test		Post test		
		$\bar{X}^{??}$	S.D	$\bar{X}^{??}$	S.D	
KWL Method	40	16.90	4.73	37.37	6.31	20.47
Lecture Method	40	15.95	4.27	23.00	4.27	8.05

The data presented on the table indicated that students taught using K.W.L strategy had a mean achievement score of 16.90 and a standard deviation of 4.73 in the pre-test and a mean of 37.37 and a standard deviation of 6.32 in the post-test with a pre-test post-test gain of 20.47. The data also showed that students taught using the Lecture method had a mean score of 14.95 and a standard derivation of 4.27 in the pre-test and a mean score of 23.00 and a standard deviation of 4.36 in the post test, making a pre-test posttest gain to be 8.05. The findings reveal that students taught English language reading comprehension with KWL teaching strategy had a higher mean achievement gain score than those taught with Lecture method of teaching.

The finding of this study is in consonance with Adam (2013); Youniss (2013); Hamdan (2014); Riswanto, Risnawati and Detti, (2014). The researchers observed that KWL strategy was effective in enhancing students' academic achievement.

Table 2: Pre-test and post –test mean achievement score and standard deviation scores of students in Reading comprehension achievement test due to teaching methods and gender.

Teaching method	Types of test	Gender							
		Male				Female			
		No. of Student			Achievement gain	No. of students			Achievement gain
			$\bar{X}$	S.D		$\bar{X}$	$\bar{X}$	SD	
1. KWL	Pretest	19	16.32	5.18		21	17.43	4.52	
	Post-test	19	36.16	6.22	19.84	21	38.48	6.35	21.05
2. Lecture method	Pretest	14	14.57	4.25	15.15	26	15.15	4.35	
	Post-test	14	22.57	4.53	8.00	26	23.38	4.33	8.23

The data presented on the table indicated that the male students in the KWL experimental group had a mean score of 16.32 and a standard deviation of 5.18 in the pre-test while in the post-test, the male scored a mean score of 36.1 and a standard deviation of 6.22, with achievement gain score of 19.84. The result also shows that the female student in the KWL experimental group had a mean score of 17.43 and a standard deviation of 4.52 in the pre-test of KWL experimental group which is higher than that of male students in the pre-test of KWL experimental group, while the female students also had a mean score of 38.48 and a standard deviation of 6.35 in the post-test of the experimental group with achievement mean score of 21.05 which is higher than that of the male students in the post-test score of the KWL experimental group.

The data presented on the table also indicated that male students had a mean score of 14.57 and a standard deviation of 4.25 in the pre-test of the control group which was lower than the pre-test of the experimental group, while in the post-test, the male students had a mean score of 22.57 and a standard deviation of 4.53, with mean achievement gain of 8.00 which was lower than the experimental group. The result also shows that the female students had a mean score of 15.15 and a standard deviation of 4.35 in the pre-test of the control group which is higher than that of the male students score in the pre-test of the control group, while the female students had a mean score of 23.38 and a standard deviation of 4.33, with mean

achievement gain of 8.23 which is higher than that of the male students in the post-test of the control group. This findings shows that statistically sex is not a significant factor in academic achievement of male and female students taught English language Reading comprehension with KWL and Lecture method though in every endeavour there is always gender perceptive. The finding is in consistent with Youniss (2013);Hamdan (2014); Riswanto, Risnawati and Detti (2014) who found that gender does not play significant roles on students' academic achievement when taught with KWL teaching strategy.

Hypotheses 1: There is no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of the Senior Secondary students taught using KWL and the lecture method.

Table 4: Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) for Reading Comprehension Achievement Test mean achievement scores of students when taught using KWL and lecture method

Sources of Variation	Type II sum of square	Df.	Mean sum of square	F.	Significance
Correlated model	4775.340 ^a	2	2387.670	114.824	.000
Intercept	2236.533	1	2236.533	107.556	.000
Pre-test	699.828.541	1	699.828	33.655	.000
Teaching method	3214.526	1	3214.528	154.588	.000
Error	1601.174	77	20.794		
Total	79521.000	80			
Corrected total	6376.488				

a. R square = .749 (adjusted R squared = 0.742)

The data on the table above shows that the teaching methods (KWL and Lecture method) is a significant factor in the mean achievement scores of the students in the Reading comprehension Achievement Test, this is because the p-value of 0.00 is less than 0.05. This indicates that we reject the null hypotheses which state that there is no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of students in Reading comprehension Achievement Test when taught using the KWL and lecture method. Thus, this implies that there was a significant difference between the mean achievement scores of students in Reading comprehension Achievement Test when taught using the KWL and Lecture method.

On the test of hypothesis presented on table 4.8 it was revealed that there was a significant difference in the academic achievement mean score of the students taught using KWL and those taught using Lecture method. The result revealed that KWL used learners' prior knowledge to enhance students' academic ability. This result is in agreement with Fritz (2002) argument in favour of KWL. The argument is based on the fact that KWL teaches students to read actively by engaging previous knowledge, asking questions, and recalling important information in the text to enhance comprehension.

CONCLUSION

This study was carried out to investigate the effect of KWL strategy and lecture method of teaching on Senior Secondary School students' academic achievement and motivation in Reading comprehension. The result of the study shows that students exposed to KWL strategy had a higher mean academic achievement score gain than their peers exposed to lecture method of teaching.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the following were recommended by the researchers.

- 1 Teaching KWL are different from that of ordinary traditional (Lecture) teaching. As a result of this, English language teachers should be trained and versed on how best to develop and use KWL strategy so as to achieve their objectives of enhancing academic achievement and motivation in Reading comprehension.
- 2 Teaching of English language Reading comprehension should be encouraged and emphasized among English language teachers. Teachers should not teach in isolation, rather strategy such as KWL should be adopted each time English language Reading comprehension is to be taught.
- 3 Efforts should be made by curriculum experts to incorporate KWL strategy into the teaching of English language Reading comprehension. There should be a review in the current instructional procedure to accommodate KWL into Senior Secondary teaching syllabus. This is to increase interactivity and reduce the recurrent mass failure in English language external examinations.

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SUSTAINABLE PROSPERITY AND HUMAN POTENTIALS

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ABSTRACT

Sustainable prosperity is a new concept combining various principals such as providing basic needs, dignity, life satisfaction and happiness. It is an indicator used to measure and evaluate social progress among communities. In fact, the purpose behind the aggregation between the terms of sustainability and prosperity is the rehabilitation of the environmental strength and health system while providing an effective comfort and welfare system to the human being. In this paper, we explore the impact of human potential on reaching and achieving a high level of prosperity. We discuss, also, the evolution and automation effect on the improvement of human potentials and driving the "thinking out of the box" concept in the youth and young generations.

INTRODUCTION

Global evolution and sustainable development consist, on a large scale, on human prosperity. The wellbeing and the improvement of life quality are considered an important criterion for achieving a better existence. The term "prosperity" has been the focus of various researchers due to its tight relation with the wellbeing of individuals; the concept has been constantly changing through the years, thus its difficulty to be defined. According to Cowling (2009), prosperity is the state of flourishing, thriving, good fortune or a successful social status [¹]. Traditionally, prosperity is related to wealth and often considered as an economic measurement or as an interpretation of economic growth. But the concept of prosperity should also include other factors related to spiritual satisfaction such as happiness and health.

In a different perspective, prosperity can be measured as the optimal balance between the economic power, health index and happiness or spiritual gratification of a population. According to Gottlieb, Roger S. (2003), human prosperity has different meanings regarding cultural and religious factors. For example, in Buddhism, prosperity is defined as a combination of collectivism and spirituality which is completely different from a capitalist perspective [²].

In general, human prosperity can be considered as multi-criteria defined concept. These criteria are difficult to measure due to their difference in nature and the metric system, in fact, the criteria have different features. Some are quantitative - example: economic growth - and others are qualitative - example: happiness. Moreover, the criteria have conflicting effects on the prosperity. For example, longer hours of work might result in an increase in certain measures of economic prosperity, but at the expense of driving people away from their preferences for shorter work hours.

Recently, prosperity is viewed from a different point of view. In fact, the new formulation is often linked to sustainability or sustainable development. The new concept is known by the name of "sustainable prosperity" which is based on the principal of providing basic needs, dignity, life satisfaction and happiness. The purpose behind this combination is to restore Earth's systems to gain full health and to prevent their degradation in the future.

This new form of considering human prosperity requires a big power and willingness to change; various modifications should be implemented to achieve the aim of sustainability. According to Fritz and Koch (2014), actions concerning economic, social and environmental development should be taken into consideration in form of a hybrid processing system. For example, refracting the global economy, shifting the distribution of wealth, changing the growth-centric system, prioritizing the creation of green jobs, rethink the basic management of vital sectors such as agriculture, transportation and urban planning.

POTENTIALS AND PROSPERITY

Recent research and academic studies regarding ecological economics and social sciences interpret prosperity beyond economic growth. It did even create a designed concept based on a three-dimensional perspective: *ecological sustainability, social inclusion, and the quality of life* [³]. In fact, economic growth and competitive force are not the only

goals perused by organizations. Nowadays, every company is required to follow and respect the international regulations concerning the environment and social development and prosperity. Sustainable development is becoming a reality which raises various questions about the potentials and capacities of organizations and communities to meet a sustainable prosperity.

The first step for an individual to achieve a sustainable lifestyle is to realize his or her potential to make the difference and start the change journey. The biggest problem, in my opinion, preventing humans, organizations and institutions to recognize and grasp the power of their potentials, is the lack of interest in self-discovery. In fact, organizations are always looking for different ways to develop their economic status and thinking about strategies that will help them achieve greater and higher level of success without looking first at their own human power and potentials [4]. The motive behind this search for improvement is often to survive in this fast-growing and dynamic market. But despite their efforts, some organizations lack the true sense of professional and social satisfaction.

In my opinion, there are several factors to consider that prevent and hold people back to realize their potentials. They can vary from financial to confidence problems or even cultural issues. In fact, since his first years of childhood, the human being starts a journey of discovery. The preschool and primary schools are rich environments filled with experiments and search for success and personal potentials but as an adult the spirit of creativity and adventure become absent. The responsibilities, life choices and pressure impact the ability and the curiosity of recognizing new potentials. Moreover, the professional environment, social conventions and cultural environment have a big influence on the way we accept our present state as a final one.

In another perspective, human prosperity can be imagined differently according to the cultural and financial background of each individual. For example, a person coming from a modest financial environment considers a job with a steady salary enough to reach satisfaction. There is always a comparison exercise between each generation regarding the quality of life. This index is usually the icebreaker that makes the human being decide if he/she should work harder to discover new potentials or to accept his/her current state.

The lack of a creative environment is also a huge barrier holding people from realizing their potentials. Many big companies that are now ruling the world did start with a couple of dreamers experimenting their hidden potentials. Hewlett-Packard Company (Created by engineers), Starbucks coffee chain store (Created by two professors), Facebook, Amazon, etc are products of ambition and creativity of their owners. This courage and perseverance is an outcome of a cultural spirit of research and development and also a state of mind accepting failure as a possibility and not the dead end of a path.

Other factors can be described as specific aspects of each case. The characteristics of an environment reflect on the wiliness of a human being as a subject to self-discovery and potential searching. In Morocco, for example, laziness is one of the factors impacting the discovery of potentials. The comfort of a stable salary is very appreciated in the society and it is even an index of success in life on both social and economic levels. There is a lack of desire for innovation and entrepreneurship spirit.

There are also other factors contributing in this recess and laziness such as lack of *confidence; Support and Justice; Financial aid; Guidance and good management; Planning and forecasting; Decision making.*

EVOLUTION, DEVELOPMENT AND THINKING OUT OF THE BOX

There is a noticeable difference between millennials (GenY) and other generation. Nowadays we observe a difference in the way of thinking. New technology has played a huge difference in the improvement and the evolution of the concept of prosperity versus quality of life and development. Various criteria have changed, creativity is becoming a source of wealth and success. Jobs such as Youtubers, Bloggers and Travelers, Community managers, App developers are becoming not only a reliable source of income but also a different way to practice a hobby as a job. This new way of business represents the perfect balance between economic success and happiness.

Of course, there is a difference between developed countries like European countries and USA and mid and low-income countries where the human force is still appreciated as the main base of economic growth. But the digital open source characteristic of the new way to do business is erasing boundaries between the two worlds. A community is no longer defined by race or geographical position but with a common interest and shared curiosity.

Technology and, more precisely, automation can also be considered a contributor to the degradation of prosperity due to its important role in causing job loss. In fact, the majority of the great inventions in the last centuries were created and designed to reduce and replace the expensive and inconsistent human labor [⁵]. For example, in agriculture industry, tractors were designed to reduce mechanical work of employees; in manufacturing, assembly lines aimed to enhance the irregularity of human handwork by introducing the perfection of algorithmic processing and in logistics, computer programmed processing (ERP software) has been deployed to cut costs and improve time management [⁶]. These inventions did get a huge success; organizations are no longer imagining work without an automated workplace. But, despite the rise of this new digital and automated era, the fraction of employment in the labor market is higher now compared with the rates in 1890 where the manufacturing was based only on human handwork. These two facts are creating a paradox situation, machines are increasingly eliminating handwork jobs but the employment index is still in good shape. According to Autor (2016), the atomization has generated the reduction of human labor. For example, the new arrival of ATM (Automated Teller Machines) did reduce the employment of human tellers, but in the other hand, banks realized that is cheaper to open new branches to reach more customers which did have a positive influence on the labor force. In fact, the nature of the job has altered from simple money exchanges to a specialized customer care and commercial services. This change influenced the economic value of the tellers' jobs and made it a crucial link to both sides: the bank and the customer. As a result, the implementation of the automation and the use of digital technology did enhance the importance of the human being as an expert, judge and a creative entity.

The automation generates the "thinking out of the box" principal. The effect of job loss urges the people to improve their skills and knowledge to be always in a superior state in comparison with the machine.

On a national level, the economic environment is divided into types of regimes. In general, the transition to an advanced a complete automation is not yet a reality. The cheap labor force and the local policy are still quality criteria and a steady factor influencing the national and the multi-national companies to invest in Morocco. The high price of machines and maintenance costs are still a barrier preventing small and medium organization to switch to fully automated process.

CONCLUSION

The fast-changing world has definitely an impact on human prosperity. The concept itself is a dynamic aspect constantly changing to adapt to the new needs and requirements of the market, the community and the society. Each generation has its own idea of prosperity and the meaning of life quality. The advancement of science and increased use of robots will definitely have an impact on the way we live and view happiness. It is a double-edged sword that may result in making human workforce obsolete.

In order to reach a decent life quality, humans are required to think out of the box and search for new ways to be productive and discover their hidden potentials.

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2063 PROSPECTS OF A DEVELOPED AFRICA: CAPE TO CAIRO'S CALL TO HARNESSING AND UTILIZING ITS HUMAN RESOURCE

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ABSTRACT

This paper shows a glimpse of Africa's current situation and a thorough analysis of the African perception, and how it can be changed by the year 2063. The researcher holds faith in the continent's youth in the transformative process as they are the equitable "human resource" of this time. Going back in history, Africa was enslaved and later on colonised, but today the situation of yesteryear is no longer as it was. Remarkably, this change was a product of the youth in the yesteryear who fought slavery and colonisation. Be that as it may, that generation of African heroes has either passed on or is aged and weary, while Africa today, suffers from neo-slavery and neo-colonisation which require a different mindset. Harnessing and utilising the youth well, will ensure dominance through political, economic, environmental, social and technological development in Africa.

Key Words: Transformative Process, Human Resource, Colonisation, Slavery, Youth, Development

INTRODUCTION

Africa has been declared a youthful continent after a continental census recording 40% of her citizens between the age of 15-35 years and 65% of African population under 35 years (African Union, 2016). Africa's state today is abysmal, with the eastern part languishing in poverty, her southern part enmeshed in bad governance, and the western as well as the northern part in messy spillover conflicts, the whole region having poor transport networks and being affected by environmental and climate change. Rich in natural resources, her hope lays in utilising and harnessing its human resource, i.e. its youth for Africa to take off towards development as enshrined in the Agenda 2063 (African Union Youth Division, 2017).

WHAT IS DEVELOPMENT?

Development is a complex issue, with many different and sometimes contentious definitions. An evolutionistic view of development is defined by "all-embracing and permanent process of cumulative, progressive change". Whereas in an Episodic view, "development is enlightenment enabling moving from bad life situation to a better one, to remove poverty (Gillner, 2002). Development is the modernisation of the traditional way of life (Amin, 1979)

In all these definitions Africa is not a blueprint of development since it is still to find its feet out of the traditional setup. No wonder it is stuck in poverty that affects the health facilities, high unemployment rates, high corruption, high human rights violation among other issues that challenge progressive change on the continent. However, there is hope as "no one is born a good citizen; no nation is born a democracy. Rather, both are processes that continue to evolve over a lifetime. There is need to get young people involved in national development processes. A society that cuts itself off from its youth severs its lifeline; it is condemned to bleed to death" (Annan, 1998).

THE CONDITION OF AFRICA TODAY

Africa is undeveloped and underdeveloped due to the exploitative worldly system of dependency, and the continent yearns for a significant facelift that reveals her beauty which is mostly hidden deep underneath as its natural resources and utilises its untapped human resource mainly consisting of her youth.

Poverty

Poverty precedes Africa's reputation. Most Africa nations suffer from military dictatorships, corruption, civil unrest and war, which have spilt over to underdevelopment and absolute poverty. The UN Food and Agriculture Organization reports

that 233 million people in sub-Saharan Africa were hungry/undernourished in 2014 to 2016. Out of 795 million people who were hungry worldwide, Sub-Saharan Africa was the area with the second largest number of hungry people, Asia had 512 million, principally due to the much larger population of Asia when compared to sub-Saharan Africa.” (World Hunger Organisation, 2016). In 2012, 501 million people, or 47 per cent of the population of sub-Saharan Africa, lived on \$1.90 a day or less, a principal factor in causing widespread hunger. (World Bank, Sub-Saharan Africa Poverty and Equity Data).

These statistics reflect Africa as a hopeless place stinking with poverty caused by conflict and population growth. To that effect, poverty has resulted in dilapidating health services in Africa hence the continent remains a victim of HIV/AIDS, TB, Ebola, Malaria and other diseases. Despite all this poverty, some believe that the continent is not doomed to perpetual poverty and economic slavery, Africa has immense potential. (Global Policy Forum, 2006)

Unemployment

A rising catastrophe world over has not spared the natural and human resource-rich Africa. The continent has some of the highest levels of unemployment globally. Northern Africa in 2015 had the highest unemployment rate in the world, at 12.1 per cent affecting most women and youth (International Labour Organisation, 2016). Adding on, the International Labour Organisation further notes that, over 70 per cent of workers are informally employed against the global average of 46.3 per cent in Sub-Saharan Africa besides the outstanding brains that come out of that part of Africa.

However, such poor quality employment expose workers to high exploitation with limited access to social protection schemes and are often confronted by low and highly volatile earnings. A recent survey show that new jobs in both the rural and urban areas are informal with a large part of comprised of females and youth as they try to contribute to their families incomes. (African Development Bank Group, 2013)

Poor Transport System

Economics rely on transport network that is effective to enable smooth movement of commodities from primary source to the secondary till it reaches the final consumer. It's also important to free human resource i.e. the people from one point to the other for effective and efficient production. Transportation is an inclusive extreme basic need and public service among employment, education, participation in decision-making, leisure, human rights, democracy, an egalitarian society, self-reliance, and clean water (Howe & Bryceson, 2000).

Unfortunately, Africa has a poor transport network regionally with a few countries to spare such as South Africa and Ghana. Administrative ineptitude has led to this unpleasant transport network system especially in road construction. In support to this, “the indigenous leaders fail to logically and meaningfully prioritize the socioeconomic needs, or judiciously utilize the scarce resources of their countries. Rather, more often than not, more grandiose projects such as the construction of aerodromes designed to 'showcase' their fledgling politics and impress the international community are given priority over basic development projects such as road building e.g. the case of Cameroon (Njoh, 2007).

Njoh further highlights, that “despite the fact that most areas in Cameroon remain disconnected from the rest of the country because of the absence of access roads. While, a large number of other areas are linked to the rest of the country by seasonal roads that are impassable most of the year” Cameroon government boost of Garoua, Yaounde and Douala, her three aerodromes yet her airline company is almost always in financial and other troubles concerning providing any domestic air travel services.

Environment and climate change

Globalization has directed the opening up of markets all over the world increasing a fight for markets among the global economic giants to the open markets in the global south. As a result of globalisation, the continent has become a colossal dumping site for China and other western countries' substandard products causing environmental damage to Africa. To validate this claim, one has to look at places like Agbogbloshie in Ghana are a case study to environmental damage caused

by unfair trade. Researchers understand that “sometimes-illegal and environmentally damaging practices plaguing Ghana are driven by low dumping prices in comparison to the cost of recycling in the countries where it comes from” (Akbar, 2015).

More so, in Zimbabwe, the country has witnessed an unprecedented rise of ex-Japanese vehicles on the “roads which has also increased road carnage and caused traffic jams in major towns and cities” (The Sunday News, 2014). Pollution of the air and water has risen in Africa due to inferior goods dump and imported electronic waste leaks lead, mercury, arsenic, zinc and flame-retardants to the environment causing climate change, for example, the recent El Nino and La Nina. It is but a sad reality that Africa is turning into a graveyard for e-waste and cheap goods which pose harm to its development by limiting its environmental potential.

Poor governance

Governance refers to the administration of a particular place be it a communal area, urban area, nation, region or even global. Global governance involves Poverty Reduction Strategy, sustainable development, and wealth creation among others listed in the Sustainable Development Goals. Nonetheless, rich developed countries continuously exhibit their greater performance due to good governance (Kaufmann, 2005). There is a solid stand that governance and institutions affect growth performance of Africa (World Bank, 2005).

In light of the above, Africa poor governance has led to some of the mentioned continental conditions thriving through corruption, political instability, ineffective rule of laws and institutions ending to reduced economic growth. Some African countries, e.g. Zambia “went through governance failures and corruption at some point in time but their governance capacity made them recover and ensure the maintenance of rapid growth performance through constant demands to improve government and reduce corruption. However, this could not happen if governance capacity was poor and non-sustainable” notes (Resta, 2005). Khan, (2006) understands the need to learn from other countries viable governance strategies that ensure restructuring to suitable African conditions to promote sustainable growth performance.

ROLE OF THE YOUTH IN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT

A glimpse of the dilapidated condition of Africa needs an eagle eyes' perspective to see beyond the mess since short-sightedness can leave Africans in despair. The world is evolving into the digital age thus a new mindset is required to proffer sustainable development. By large, it is the youths that have the technological know-how compared to the previous generation. Meanwhile, this is an advantage to Africa since most of its population is youthful and is surrounding by vast of untapped land that governments can use to develop agriculture and industries.

Moreover, the potential of youth in development has been recognised world over. The Youth Strategy (2014–2017) was developed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) to appeal to the youth encouraging them to grow into more involvement and commitment towards development processes. The strategy was called “Empowered Youth, Sustainable Future”, and it was in line with the UN System-Wide Action Plan on Youth (2013) which resulted in the publication of “Enhancing Youth Political Participation throughout the Electoral Cycle: A Good Practice Guide”. Indeed it was “UNDP's first review of programming strategies for youth political participation beyond the ballot box”. In the same line, UNDP launched a Youth Global Programme for Sustainable Development and Peace, i.e. Youth-GPS (2016–2020) to set a global appreciation of the youth in development than was before.

More so, the African Union's Agenda 2063 embraced the youth in development issues. In response, the 2017 AU theme, “harness the demographic dividend through investments in the youth” set precedence to prepare the African youth to develop the continent. However, it is worthy to note that they will not be anything to develop or lead tomorrow, if the youth of today sit, complain and do nothing about Africa's current situation today. The primary task African youth have, is to carry forward the unity which the youth of yesterday brought through political, economic and social independence that ensured the forming of Organization of African Unity (OAU) now African Union (AU). The youth today should focus on

political, economic, social and technological growth to make way for development possibly by 2063.

The youth are the under-utilised human resource of the rich continent. Undoubtedly, enculturation, i.e. fusing an American or European way of doing things have modernised the thinking of many youths especially those in urban areas. African culture suffers immensely to this arrangement, but the brighter side of it is that the first step to development is to change the way one thinks as unpacked by Jampolsky & Cirincione, (1994). The world is continuously modernising through globalisation thus a modernised mindset quickly adjust or even set the pace in the change henceforth with this development Africa has a chance to lead the world into modernity with the backing of its abundant natural resources.

Furthermore, a shift of political development is gradually getting into place. The youth, women and children have for years suffered through corrupt deeds, uncontrolled corruption and poor governance all these as a result of politics. However, recently, the clarion call has reached its apex with many youths getting involved in political activism as a way to be involved and change the political processes in Africa. For example, the Arab Spring in Northern Africa of 2011, #ThisFlag and Occupy Africa Unity Square in Zimbabwe as well as Le Balai Citoyen in Burkina Faso. Undoubtedly, Africa is about to have a generational evolution as it has experienced “Pan African generation” followed by “Nationalist generation” now the “Globalist generation” to the “Renascent generation” in its politics mainstay that has influenced Africa to be where it is at the moment (Moyo, 2004). Globalist and Renascent generations may lead Africa to an Africa it wants that sets a pace in economic growth.

Also, industry growth is a major boost to, and it is where the continent lags behind from Europe and America. According to Lewis (1960)'s two-sector model, economic development involves a shift from traditional (agriculture) to modern (industrialisation). Be that as it may, African economy is in the traditional setup whereas developed countries like Canada, America, Japan among others are industrial. However, the youth have the capability of industrialising by uniting efforts and innovations, e.g. African Development Bank that is meant to fund and invest in African entrepreneurs, thus creating a fusion of both the traditional and modern setup. Africa may become economically indomitable with all the untapped raw materials processed in Africa and the finished product being sold in each corner of the world, that way, Africa becomes a typical model of development.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Nonetheless, prospects of a developed Africa are impossible if the continent remains dependent to the global north, has high rates of human rights violation, poor governance and continuous ignorance to youth economically, socially and politically investment. Therefore, the researcher recommends that the regional bodies and countries per se should adopt youth and environmental protectionism policy to avoid its youth and the environment from being overexploited since these carry the hope of African development.

Moreover, political economy must fall under our system of governance as individual African countries cascading up to our regional bodies. The political economy becomes stronger due to the corruption culture that we have developed as Africans. Yes, Africa is in poverty, but the “Survival of the fittest” mentality makes her gullible to all sorts of oppression especially from the global north and better countries within the continent. Thus, the researcher recommends the need to end the system of governance that divides Africans especially its youth by adopting a transformative, merit and progressive based way of governance, i.e. is free from partisanship, nepotism, corruption and personal gain.

To conclude, Africa is not so far from becoming the modern example of the world. By investing and harnessing in its youth with the backing of the vast, abundant natural resources, the development prospects of Africa are high. However, the deplorable state of Africa today to some extent illusions Africa's vision of Agenda 2063 as a mere pipedream. By large, Africa needs to understand that “until the lion knows how to write, every story will glorify the hunter” insinuating that only Africans can determine their destiny.

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INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS-IDPS STEREOTYPES AND PERCEPTIONS IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

As Nigeria continues to grapple with the unprecedented rise in Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs), interventions for IDPs is now a humanitarian priority. This paper examines the social perceptions of IDPs, humanitarian responses bordering around building long term solutions, provision of specific needs for integration, voluntary return, fighting trauma, and economic isolation. It further recommends how responses should be better harmonized for sustained impact, with an ultimate goal to have IDPs return back home to normal or improved levels of life - providing safety and security, sustained livelihoods, employment, housing and shelter, as against settling perpetually in camps.

Key Words: IDPs-(internally displaced persons, perceptions), humanitarian response

INTRODUCTION

In Nigeria, internal displacement dates as far back as 1967, and is largely caused by conflicts relating to land rights, religion, ethnicity, herdsmen and farmers clashes and of recent the Boko Haram Insurgency in the Northeast of Nigeria. During the Biafra war (1967-1970), more than two million people died and ten million people became internally displaced due to the Nigeria's government attacks against the Biafra secessionists in the South east (ACLED, 2017).

In November 2016, an estimated 30,000 residents of slums in Lagos were displaced because of large-scale development projects (Aljazeera, 2017). And as of 2015, the Internal Displacement Monitoring Center (IDMC) estimates that there were almost 2,152,000 IDPs in Nigeria. This figure is based on an assessment conducted in 207 Local Government Areas (LGA) covering 13 states of Northern Nigeria: Abuja (13,481 IDPs); Adamawa (136,010); Bauchi (70,078); Benue (85,393); Borno (1,434,149); Gombe (25,332); Kaduna (36,976); Kano (9,331); Nassarawa (37,553); Plateau (77,317); Taraba (50,227); Yobe (131,203); and Zamfara (44,929). Of the total figure of IDPs, the assessment indicates that 12.6 per cent were displaced due to communal clashes, 2.4 per cent by natural disasters and 85 per cent as a result of insurgency attacks by Islamists. (IOM/NEMA, 2014).

STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Humanitarian response requires information on the social perceptions of the affected populations to deliver aid and respond to needs in a timely manner. The pattern of displacement in Nigeria is characterized by unplanned sudden movements of people seeking protection from violence. According to the International Organization for Migration (2016), the provision of aid, relief and humanitarian assistance to displaced populations is very dependent on the knowledge of the perception thresholds of IDPs in camps and host communities where they have found temporary refuge. The aim of the paper is to assess the general attitude of the local populations toward IDPs; examine stereotypes and prejudices, and evaluate the humanitarian response for IDPs with the objective of understanding the evolving needs of displaced populations. The results may be used to guide the response strategy of government, relief and aid organizations and other stakeholders.

THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

SOCIAL EXCLUSION THEORY

The theory used for the explanation in this study is the social exclusion theory. The theory argues that social exclusion subject individuals and groups to discriminatory practices that expose them to humiliations and deprivations. It confirms

that social exclusion detaches and alienates some groups of individuals from mainstream society with resultant negative effects on their citizenship and other socio-economic rights. These exclusions are not just limited to material resources but also to matters like social participation, culture and education, access to social services and power. The theory is associated with the works of scholars such as Pacione, 1997; Lee et al, 1997; Black and Muddiman, 1997; Walker, 1997; Hills, 1998 among others.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In Nigeria the causes of most internal displacements are closely interwoven with four other categories of causes: Religious conflicts, Agricultural policies, Administrative boundaries, Environmental issues and most recently terrorism. Religious clashes which lead to displacement occur mainly in the North between Muslims and Christians and are related to the introduction of the Islamic legal system, Sharia, in several northern states, but also involve an ethnic dimension as well.

Agricultural policies also have favoured large-scale agricultural projects but at the same time have forced farmers away from their land. This results directly in communal violence, often of an ethnic character, over borderlands and fishing waters. As a result of increasing desertification on Nigeria's northernmost fringes, many pastoral people or Fulani-herdsmen push southwards in search of grazing land, accounting to some extent for the conflict between farming communities, farmers, and the pastoral Hausa-Fulani people along grazing routes.

Conflicts related to the creation and recognition of new administrative boundaries like Nigeria's ceding of the *Bakassi* Peninsula to the republic of Cameroun following the judgment by the International Court of Justice (ICJ) ruling on 10th October 2002, (ICJ, 2002) led to tensions and waves of displacement to the natives. Such instances have been another major factor of displacement. Where new borders are created, the boundaries are often highly contested, especially where it has fueled tensions between various ethnic groups.

Others are conflicts relating to environmental issues from the oil exploration in the Niger Delta have also been a factor behind displacements in the communities, as the exploration has been associated with state violence, communal disputes, environmental pollution and a worsening economic and material situation in the communities.

PERCEPTIONS AND STEREOTYPES

Most Nigerians have come across IDPs at one time or the other either in camps or host communities. In natural disaster zones, urban renewal, conflict and post-conflict areas with large IDP populations, almost half of the local populations have had direct experience, while others might be influenced based on information gained from social media, and online news articles.

However, opinions of the general population are somewhat more favorable towards working IDPs in contrast to unemployed who greatly depend on government and aid agencies or benevolent individuals for relief. Most Nigerians do not know the provision of humanitarian assistance for IDPs is mandated by law. IDPs are still under the jurisdiction of their own government and may not claim any rights additional to those shared by their compatriots (Vincent, 2000). However, IDPs are often in need of special protection, because the government responsible for protecting them at times lacks the political will and commitments, or by its actions cause displacement. Despite the differences in legal status and entitlement to aid from the international humanitarian community, the causes and the experience of being displaced is often similar to both IDPs and refugees. Consequently, IDPs may not feel welcomed, despite sharing the same citizenship as the host population. The distinctive features are movement which is coerced, involuntary and resulting in displacement within national borders. Those internally displaced by conflict, natural and man-made disasters, including development related projects, require protection and assistance as they are forced out of their homes without adequate resettlement, compensation and respect for human rights. Significant developments in the field of internal displacement IDPs are 'at risk' populations around the world (Cohen & Deng, 1998). Thus, IDPs are perceived as citizens who have found themselves in an unfavorable situation who are in need of help.

IDPs are generally perceived as a population that is suffering, vulnerable and in need of help. Ordinarily, negative characteristics, such as aggressiveness, unwillingness to work, and misuse of aid are inherent to specific individuals, not to IDPs in general.

However, some maintain more negative stereotypes about IDPs from political views; unwillingness to work but depend on aid; aggressiveness towards locals; inability to quickly adjust to norms of host communities; to the desire for special treatment fitting their circumstances. And thus, people outside Nigeria's northeast are more likely to blame IDPs for the situation in which they find themselves. In Lagos State for example, many have the least direct interaction with IDPs, with many who have not spoken with a single IDP and are unaware of any IDPs living in the state, and therefore have less opportunity to make their judgment about IDPs based on personal experience.

Personal biases and stigma also play negative roles where IDPs are shunned away from public schools, utilities, and vendors charge them more than fair prices and they often find it difficult to secure job or accommodation.

Most IDPs feel that the quality and frequency of food distributions have been steadily deteriorating. Items routinely go missing from the food banks, the number of food coupons is reduced, and there are distribution delays or bureaucracies in the camps. They also report insufficient supplies of basic food items such as flour, oil, and vegetables.

NGOs have been known to distribute food items such as rice, maize, beans, and oil, but these items are not sufficient. So, people are forced to exchange their dry food rations, so that they can buy vegetables and meat as supplement.

HEALTHCARE

IDPs call attention to a general lack of adequate healthcare, with insufficient medical supplies at dispensaries mentioned multiple times. And problems of accessing medical assistance is also reported in urban areas, with IDPs in host communities lamenting the fact that, they cannot afford transportation to the hospital where need arises, nor would they be able to afford prescribed medication for some medical cases.

EDUCATION

The availability and quality of education for children is a serious cause for concern among IDPs, those in cities report that not all children have the opportunity to attend school and those in camps said that while schools are accessible, the teaching is very poor. And in camps, the education that is available is not always structured or consistent, and they described how many schools lack resources and qualified teachers. Also many parents outside of camps are often sad, because in some cases IDPs children are being shunned away from public.

EMPLOYMENT

For IDPs it is nearly impossible to find work, as there are very few jobs available usually in camps or host communities. Nonetheless, there is still a strong desire to work and be self-sufficient. They lament being unemployed and staying at home or in their tents all day.

Those who find employment are often those with some level of education, women, and those living in host communities. While for the women skills such as sewing, means they can earn an income without facing the barriers of leaving the camp and the male IDPs often face strong rejection from communities.

SHELTER

Families are usually overcrowded in small living spaces in dirty conditions, with very little, if any, privacy. A primary concern for them was the inadequacy of the shelter provided. Many IDPs said that the tents are too hot in the dry season, and will likely be too cold in the *harmattan*. IDPs feel that, they should be compensated for their homes that were

destroyed, and always appeal to the government as well as NGOs to help in rebuilding their homes and communities in order for them to be able to return home.

WATER AND SANITATION

Many IDPs reported a shortage of water in camps. With some pointing to a lack of potable water as well as the bad smell, color, and taste of available water, leading to increased health risks and financial burdens as people resort to buying sachet water. IDPs complained poor sanitation and waste disposal, poor hygiene is making their children sick.

ELECTRICITY

Access to electricity is a problem in some host communities and IDPs camps. Those living in host communities have access to electricity as the local population would, but face difficulties covering the cost. Food is also cooked in open fires, making cooking difficult. The lack of proper cooking facilities means that camp residents are often forced to cook over an open fire, which presents safety hazards, as the tents are extremely flammable.

CORRUPTION, BRIBERY & FAVOURITISM

Favoritism and acquaintances in camps between IDPs and officials were cited as factors which determine access to services, rather than need. There is discrimination in the distribution of food rations, medical supplies, and other non-food items with some having more than others, while some have barely enough to feed themselves and their families. In most cases, women and children are most vulnerable, with some instances leading to rape, food for sex and other forms of repeated violence by camp officials.

LACK OF MONITORING & TRANSPARENCY

IDPs prefer monitoring by aid agencies is needed to instill fairness and equality in the distribution of services. The fact that government reliefs and aid organizations are said to delegate these responsibilities, there is mismanagement of resources by camp officials which leads to anger and frustration by IDPs. This has strengthened the perception that most organizations are detached from the reality of the camps, have weak monitoring and evaluation structures and are primarily consumed with higher-level bureaucratic and administrative hurdles.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Displaced populations across Nigeria continue to rise and seek aid anywhere they can access. It becomes increasingly important to have a displacement fund by the Government. A displacement fund ought to help tackle resettlement, rehabilitation, re-integration and early recovery for internally displaced persons (IDPs) in camps and host communities. This will help provide the immediate and necessary recovery response, change perceptions and build resilience for IDPs, who are among the world's most vulnerable demographic.

Also IDPs' strong dependence on aid creates an easy avenue for exploitation, navigating a new culture away from home; living in regimented camps and unfamiliar host communities, the ability to adapt to displacement and come to terms with their new found social status has always been a major challenge which they face within the early phases of primary displacement, however, with the passage of time, they build resilience and adapt quickly.

The ultimate intervention is to have IDPs return back home and return their lives to normal or improved levels—providing safety and security, sustained livelihoods and employment, housing shelter, and not remaining perpetually in camps. By going this route, we ensure aid response becomes more effective, visible and impactful. Through advocacy and inclusive rehabilitation, we reduce stigma levels and create sustainable pathways of social integration for the displaced and other populations at risk.

CONCLUSION

We only know the plight IDPs suffer, due to sustained advocacy. While we agree these problems must be addressed solely by Nigerians within Nigeria, negative perceptions and stereotypes can continue to create another Boko Haram or future generations of terrorists unless we address them. Women and children are highly vulnerable and very likely to be re-victimized and recruited by terrorists and many IDPs in camps and host communities still feel neglected and abandoned. They continue to fight trauma, starvation, exploitation, rape, restrictions and other forms of violence – these which should be construed as crimes against their very humanity. There is not one solution to these problem, but solutions must be complex, integrating and must address the variable needs of IDPs. The government must take full responsibility, and must be quick to intervene to assure the physical protection of the rights and privileges of internally displaced persons as enshrined in the African union convention for the protection and assistance of internally displaced Persons in Africa 2009; and the proposed Nigerian National IDP Policy. Without these things in place, without a future for victims and survivors of Boko Haram, their choice is starvation or terrorism.

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EMERGING TRENDS OF AFRICAN WOMEN'S INVOLVEMENT IN POLITICS

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ABSTRACT

Women have been deprived from the structures of countries that determine legislative and political priorities. In the past years, Africa has experienced an increase in political representation of female. This paper emphasizes on the emerging trends that have been observed in women political involvement in Africa. These changes have resulted to the potential for the rise of women's entry to political post. The present trends of women involvement in politics have been successful by an amalgamation of various factors. This paper looked at the factors that have resulted to the optimistic changes in the political involvement of women. Africa Women have made tremendous trends in political involvement globally although a huge gap still exists. Women have a huge role before they can be recognized as full partners and equals to their male counterparts. The challenges to Women involvement will also be evaluated and lastly suggest recommendations to enhance women's empowerment.

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, women have been exempted from the structures of state that determines and decides on legislative and political priorities in Africa. In the present years, Africa has experienced swift rise in political representation of female as examined to the minimal rates that occurred in the 1960s.

Involvement of women in the process of decision making has greatly been positioned at the heart of the global goal. Necessary developments in African governance which have been defeated by the ever rising democracy consolidation in the globe have resulted to the rise in women's involvement in politics. Various successes have been witnessed in the advancement of women's empowerment, gender equality and various projects, policies as well as programs are in place to ensure women's empowerment and gender equality. These trends have engendered the capability for rising women's entry to political power. The current trends in Women's political involvement have been assisted by an amalgamation of various factors. Changes transpiring in the African region have optimistically conferred a greater advantage for more women to take up leadership positions. Regardless of the fact that, Africa Women have made tremendous trends in political involvement globally; a very large gap is still in occurrence. Women have a huge role before they can be observed as full partners and equals to their male counterparts. This paper tries to emphasize the new trends in the political involvement of Women's in Africa. The factors that have simplified these trends will be evaluated. The Barriers to Political involvement of Women's will also be evaluated and lastly suggests various recommendations to enhance women's involvement.

WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

The new trends in the political involvement of Women in Africa have been shown by the rise in the statistics of women in parliament. Women involvement in politics is essential for enhanced governance in Africa.

World Classification									
Rank	Nation	Election	Women	Seats	% Women	Elections	Women	Seats	% Women
1	Rwanda	92008	45	80	56.3%	92011	10	26	38.5%
2	Andorra	42011	14	28	50.0%	-	-	-	-
3	Cuba	22013	299	612	48.90%	-	-	-	-
4	Sweden	92010	156	349	44.70%	-	-	-	-
5	Seychelles	92011	14	32	43.80%	-	-	-	-
6	Senegal	72012	64	150	42.70%	-	-	-	-
7	Finland	42011	85	200	42.50%	-	-	-	-
8	South Africa	42009	169	400	42.30%	42009	17	53	32.10%
9	Nicaragua	112011	37	92	40.20%	-	-	-	-
10	Iceland	42013	25	63	39.70%	-	-	-	-
11	Norway	92009	67	169	39.60%	-	-	-	-
12	Mozambique	102009	98	250	39.20%	-	-	-	-
13	Denmark	92011	70	179	39.10%	-	-	-	-
14	Ecuador	92013	53	137	38.70%	-	-	-	-
15	Netherlands	92012	58	150	38.70%	52011	27	75	36.00%
16	Costa Rica	92010	22	57	38.60%	-	-	-	-
17	Timor. Leste	72012	25	65	38.50%	-	-	-	-
18	Belgium	62010	57	150	38.00%	62010	29	71	40.80%
19	Argentina	102011	96	257	37.40%	102011	28	72	38.90%
20	Mexico	72012	184	500	36.80%	72012	42	128	32.80%
21	Spain	112011	126	350	36.00%	112011	91	266	34.20%
22	Tanzania	102010	126	350	36.00%	-	-	-	-
23	Uganda	22011	135	386	35.00	-	-	-	-
24	Angola	82012	75	220	34.10%	-	-	-	-

Source: Inter-parliamentary Union (2013)

FACTORS THAT HAVE IMPROVED WOMEN'S MAXIMIZED POLITICAL INVOLVEMENT

There is no sole factor that has resulted to the optimistic trends in political participation of Women's. Various factors have worked collectively in ensuring women's political participation in Africa. This paper will concentrate on factors such as: Quota Systems, the rise in Women's movements, National and Global Agreements, Financing from International Agencies including Commitments and Conventions amongst others.

The Quota System

The optimistic trends in political involvement of Women in Africa have also been abetted by the rising number of Nations that have launched the Quota Systems for Women's representation in local government and in parliament.

Multiparty Systems

More so, the shift and democratization towards multiparty systems in African nations have greatly triggered the rise of political involvement of Women's. The Multiparty system has formed the different political parties to press for various ranging ideas which entail women's increased political involvement. An essential element of the shift towards the multiparty system has been the formation of various political parties by various women. The call for the formation of political parties have been triggered by the lack of willingness of existing male regulated political parties to set off political representation of women. In political parties set up by men; the role of women has majorly been through the women's wings. Evidence from different political parties has indicated that the women's wings are a relative toothless branch which majorly centers on ensuring that women are voters.

The Increase of Women Movement Groups

The official declaration of Women's Movement groups in Africa is a major factor which has resulted to a rise in the statistics of women participation in politics. These groups have been of great essence as they have ensured the political leadership of Women. The groups have been significant as they have pushed for constitutional and legislative transformations carried out as a result of the influence of the various Women's Movement Groups.

International Conventions and Agreements

A collection of international conventions and agreements have been significant in ensuring that women take up political positions as well as influence policy making of various African Nations. However, the propelling forces for these changes have been international norms and pressures and have provided an included impetus to these present demands. This emphasizes the role that has been carried out by the international conventions and agreements in ensuring internal motives from different angles. These Conventions have resulted to the forefront subject matter of Gender Rights and Equality which entail political involvement. This has gone interwoven with the provision of donor finance to back up women in politics. The accessibility of donor finance channeled through local and international Non Governmental agencies, embassies, religious bodies and international foundations has played a major role in triggering the increase of national level organizations that ensures political activities of women.

Civil Society

Political Participation of Women has also been improved by the rising drive from the civil society in ensuring women's involvement in leadership. The civil society has also played a major role in ensuring women's involvement in election and politics. This entails supporting policies that will maximize spaces for women's participation, ensuring that women vote and serve as observers in elections, encouraging women to stand as candidate and run for a campaign. The civil society has been very essential in promoting awareness of women's rights.

Economic Empowerment and Educational Opportunities

The improvement in Educational opportunities for Women and girls has influenced the involvement of women in politics. An enhancement in Girl's Education in most African Nations has resulted to the emergence of an increasing group of highly skilled women who are in a position to outperform with men for political position in different levels. Education is a major predictor of political involvement. Education has asserted various women to form political parties as well as join political parties so as to enable them to involve in political activities. Research Evidence has indicated that Education is one of the major necessary paths for ensuring that women speak out.

CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED BY WOMEN IN POLITICAL INVOLVEMENT

Regardless of the above described optimistic trends; there are some major issues which must be figured out for women to completely involve in decision making in respect to the structures of power. The issue of women's visibility and representation in leadership as well as in decision process remains a serious gap. The election of female president in some African Nations has not translated into a Maximized parliamentary Representation (Cole, 2011). This indicates that there are some gaps that must be handled as women in politics continually experience various challenges. The huge number of women in various offices have not completely transformed into resource and legislative gains. In respect to this; while quotas are essential in tackling the exemption of women from the public political condition, women has not completely gained from this system. In most African nations; women in the reserved allocations as a result of the quota systems have been like cheese pieces as they have been moved by men. Therefore; there are various issues which must be changed or improved for women who completely gain from the occurring trends in their political involvement. These entail revolutionizing religious and patriarchal beliefs as well as intensifying enhancement programmes and capacity building to boost women involvement in politics.

Religious and Patriarchal beliefs in Politics

The rising rate of women's availability in governance institutions has not primarily had serious transformative effect on the subtle patriarchal practices and cultures in Africa. Progression in opening locations for the political involvement of women's in Africa has not move along with the fall of the patriarchal power structures. As a result of the effect of patriarchy; men consistently at the helm of the state of affairs as well as exclusively makes all the decision even if the issues focuses on women. The few African Women who have gathered enough strength and courage to speak have gained a very less respect and attention. According to Tripp (1999; 6);

“The restrictive cultural behavior against women's participation persists among women and men. These are depicted in female politician media coverage, voting patterns as well as blatant motives to suppress women's assertion of their political ideologies and rights.

The political sphere is majorly andocentric making it challenging for women to actively involve in politics. Kellow emphasized that “the demands of household and family responsibilities usually prelude women from even considering involving in politics. This is reinforced by the women's fright of rejection or probably violence from family and husband if they intend to involve in politics” (2010). The uneven categorization of jobs, occupations as well as tasks in society environments makes it challenging for women to completely involve in politics.

Religious is a major instruments which has been applied by women in continuous servitude under representation in decision process and domination. The values and beliefs of major religions are patriarchal and sexist in character and structure as they continually intend to suppress women.

Embarking on Revitalizing Women's Abilities

The Non Governmental Organizations, Civil Society Organizations, Government and other Stakeholders should embark on enhancement initiatives and a vibrant capacity building for various women candidates. This should be interwoven with initiatives towards the provisions of a partnership or around a significant mass of competent and vibrant women in politics. In Africa; Civil Society Organizations continually play a significant role in enhancing women's involvements in elections and politics. Women low perspective of themselves makes it challenging for them to compete with men, voting for other women as well as involving in decision making process. According to the Economic Commission of Africa (ECA), “Collaboration with the Media, Non Government Organization (NGOs) and Traditional leaders raise awareness on the rights of girls and women through the necessary messages that would have the influence of accelerating changes in practices and attitudes that presently affect pessimistically their improvement in the society” (2009). This should majorly be carried out in Rural Africa where majority of women are situated and majority of these women are majorly

knowledgeable of the laws that enhances their legal freedom. The capacity initiative Building is very essential in ensuring that the rural women involve in politics. Rural Women are not fully aware of the basic knowledge of the role and the systems of Governments. And therefore; it restricts them from being aware of their rights as well as how to claim them and from valuing how much elections can assist them to use the opportunities that will be presented.

Handling Media Coverage in Politics

As previously noted in Women political involvement in enhancing Africa; tremendous challenges remain in the manner of ensuring that the electoral process is subverted by political violence so as to ensure that women freely involve in the election processes. Female candidates and their supporters have been confronted routinely with gender centered intimidation that results to a harsh climate as well as triggering some women to leave their campaigns. It is of greatest importance to condense the political violence after and before elections so that women can wholly involve in elections. According to the “Economic Commission of Africa (ECA); Africa Governments should “tackle violence through capacity improvement of enforcement authorities, sustained reformation of the law, public awareness initiatives (inclusive objectives to change and reverse the culture of silence pertaining violence), the impunity with which such crimes are carried out as well as its relegation as a private affair” (2009). Therefore; violence against women after and during elections should be tackled so as to ensure that women partake in politics safely. Carillo (2009) confirmed that even though women have advanced in their amount and qualify in political involvement in more or few very nations; women are still encountering gender based violence and harassment in politics and they are usually victims of violence and harassment. This has compelled some women in Africa to renounce their roles and positions thereby leaving men in the corridor of power. The transformation of the security sector is vital in reshaping the gendered relations that are currently attributed to African Security Systems and Institutions.

Media Coverage of Women in Politics

Media has a major effect in the life of human. Media serves as both a protagonist and executor in ensuring equal involvement of women and men in politics. Media can be a serious accomplice or danger to gender centered discrimination by displaying Stereotypical Sensational images of women (Anand). From the reports; it has been noted that there is the essence for a lot of task to be carried out for women politicians to be reported more regularly and in an optimistic manner; minimal changes has been experienced till present (Tsami, 2012). This is essential as a result of the fact that “Media Coverage is a major lifeblood of politics since it shapes the perspectives that form the reality in which political action is centered. Media do more than portray the political environment; they are the political environment” (Grabbler, 2011). This emphasizes that there is the need for an optimistic coverage of women in politics as media plays a significant role in reforming the political environ of any Nation. Efforts should be carried out so as to ensure that Media creates a balanced coverage that empowers and emboldens women. The effect of visual media is a very strong and vibrant tool for communicating images and ideas is significant. According to Matekaire:

The Media plays a major role in evaluating how women in decision making and politics are perceived and viewed by society as a whole. The media does not solely play a significant role in shaping the value of the society but it also depicts these values--- the media is an informer, a chronicler of events, an educator, a tool for societal change and also a transformative tool. Women in politics play a significant role towards ensuring the democratic governance of the Nation and thus their values to this processes need to be evaluated in the necessary context by the media (2003).

Campaigning Resources and Strategies

Restricted Knowledge of Policy Mechanisms and Political Systems prohibit Women's capability to plan a successful campaign platform. According to Kellow (2010) “Political inexperience makes it more difficult for women to have access to the existing and thriving power structures as well as been aware of how to influence them”. Therefore; there is the essence to back up women in acquiring the skill in public speaking, fundraising and campaign skills which are significant to run a successful campaign and gain public support. Women should be aided with financial resources so as to run a successful constituency campaign and to compete with established men in communities they dwell in.

CONCLUSION

There is no doubt that there has been progress in ensuring women's involvement in politics in Africa. The present trend in the involvement of women shows an optimistic enhancement in the involvement of women in Africa. This is an optimistic enhancement in the involvement of women in Africa.

This is an optimistic development giving that the rising number of women in politics is a tactical way of abolishing the structural background of inequality between women and men. The availability of women in the political offices will enable women to stand for their interests and needs on decisions that influence their lives. An amalgamation of factors has resulted to the positive changes. Quotas have been the appropriate and short term strategy for ensuring women into office.

Although; women have been restricted to lower house in the parliament and much work is yet to be carried out in the upper house in most African Nations. The rise in the number of women in political involvement in the lower house has not positively resulted to the demands of women. Even with Quotas; there has been a slow advancement in maximizing the number of women partaking in formal politics and additional plans are required to tackle this structural challenges. It is vivid that there is an urgent demand to revitalize the patriarchal systems which is attributed to their political spheres thereby restricting the influence of women.

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YOUTHS AND PEACEBUILDING IN AFRICA: SOCIO-POLITICAL & ECONOMIC EXCLUSION AND THE ROLE YOUTHS PLAY IN PEACE BUILDING IN AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

Peacebuilding consists of a set of physical, social, and structural initiatives that are often an integral part of post-conflict reconstruction and rehabilitation. It actively works to promote a culture of peace, intercultural dialogue and non-violent conflict transformation. Because of social exclusion, lack of opportunities, slow implementation of public policies that promote reparation and reconciliation, young people become exposed and vulnerable to armed or political recruitment, as a result, they are considered perpetrators of crime instead as peace builders. This paper portrays the unique potentials and actual contributions the youths of Africa have demonstrated in building peace in different African communities.

Key Words: Peacebuilding, conflicts, violence, youth exclusion

INTRODUCTION

There is no generally agreed definition of whom and what constitutes “youth”. Definitions vary between countries and organizations. In practice, “youth” is better understood as a transitional stage in life between childhood and adulthood, rather than as a rigid construct based on age. The United Nations General Assembly defined “youth” as the age between 15 and 24. The lowest age range for youth is 12 years and the upper age range is 35 in many African countries including Sierra Leone and Rwanda. The World Health Organization (WHO) and United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) use the term “adolescent” for those aged 10-19, “youth” for those between 15-24, and “young people” for those between the ages of 10-24 to reduce the differences.

Exclusion describes “a process by which certain groups are systematically disadvantaged because they are discriminated against based on their ethnicity, race, religion, sexual orientation, caste, descent, gender, age, disability, HIV status, migrant status or where they live” (DFID, 2005: 3). Exclusion can take place in several places such as public office, schools, workplaces, health sector and even in households.

Peacebuilding is broadly understood as activities that promote positive and negative peace. This means activities addressing root causes of conflict, prevention, and mitigation of all forms of violence, and to work towards healing and reconciliation. Peacebuilding encompasses all activities which aim to eliminate or mitigate direct, structural and cultural violence. According to Dr Murithi, “Peacebuilding is an ethical process that requires a close partnership, respect, and dialogue among all the actors”. Amongst these different actors include the youths who are considered future leaders. The United Nations Development Program's (UNDP) Youth Strategy 2014-2017 recognizes the involvement of young men and women in participatory decision-making and development processes as vital to achieving sustainable human development. In July 2016, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) launched its first Youth Global Program for Sustainable Development and Peace – Youth-GPS (2016-2020), a 5-years global programmatic offer on youth empowerment. Peacebuilding is designed to recognize, challenge, and change the thinking that has supported oppressive societal structure and moral exclusion.

Youth Inclusion in peacebuilding involves “empowering young people with the skills, attitudes, and knowledge to create a safe world and build a sustainable environment” (Harris & Morrison, 2003, p. 9). Even though young people are mostly regarded as perpetrators of violence and conflict in their communities, as members of a dynamic group in society, they still play a crucial role in positively transforming conflict situations and in building the foundations of democratic and peaceful societies. “Youth” is a very heterogeneous group encompassing people of various ethnicity, religion, race, gender, and class. Most youths in Africa are facing political, and socio-economic exclusion. This has created a tension between the aged population and the young population. The problem has always been on how to reconcile this conflict. The inclusion of young people in peacebuilding encourages young people's participation in the country's development. There is a growing body of literature on the roles of youth in participating as combatants in armed conflict and the effects of their involvement on development. In many different African countries, youths have been underestimated as the agents of change and peace builders because they are considered perpetrators of conflict.

This research explores the undiscovered roles of young people in peacebuilding. It explains how the social inclusion of young people in peacebuilding can reconcile and solve conflicts in our African communities. It also provides different ways in which peacebuilding can be effective and sustainable. This paper will portray youth's productivity when included in activities of peacebuilding and will present a practical implementation approach of peacebuilding by youths in Africa.

RESEARCH PROBLEM STATEMENT

African countries have failed in involving the youth in the development process (political, economic and social development) of their countries. There is a glaring evidence of the African country's underrepresentation of their youths in the development process (political, economic and social development). As such, “youth” ability to participate in different socio-political development activity (such as peacebuilding), remains undiscovered.

This research paper uncovers the different roles played by the youths in building peace (conflict and post-conflict) in Africa and highlights the major causes of such violence which can be attributed to socio-political and economic exclusion.

RESEARCH METHODS AND MATERIALS

This paper evaluates the Socio-Political and Economic exclusion of African youths. The research is explanatory in nature, adopting the qualitative method. A systematic search was carried out on electronic databases: EBSCO, SCOPUS and Google scholar, trying to identify research work and materials related to the domain.

The search terms include Peacebuilding, Violence and Conflict, Youths exclusion.

SOCIO-POLITICAL & ECONOMIC EXCLUSION

Youth's involvement in the decision-making process in developing countries (in Africa) is challenged by several factors: socio-political marginalization, corruption, dictatorship, and Unemployment. Having been excluding from political decision making and facing disproportionately, difficult economic contexts whilst ignored in peacebuilding potentials, youths have been unable to secure their own physical protection and wellbeing through lawful means, and this has made them more vulnerable to joining conflicts. At the global level youths are regarded as significant dividends of the global population such that they need to be included in every decision-making process in the country. However, in Africa today, the involvement of youths has been disrupted by their current geopolitical context and obstacles to opportunities.

Unemployment

Sub-Saharan Africa is experiencing a youth unemployment crisis of unprecedented magnitude. (World Bank, 2009). The high unemployment rate remains a rising problem in Africa, driving youths to violence and crime. Africa has a growing population of youths, the majority of which are unemployed. Ghana is the world's tenth largest and Africa's second largest gold mining industry, but unemployment still prevails. Ghana's real GDP growth reached about 15.2 percent when the country began its commercial oil production in 2011. Despite this strong growth performance, employment generation remains a challenge, with unemployment constituting one of the key labor market challenges in Ghana. The inability of job

seekers to secure gainful employment tends to create disaffection among these people and causes some of them, especially the youths, to resort to social vices such as criminal and political unrest.

Today in Southern Africa, over 51% of young women and 43% of young men are unemployed. This large unemployed population indicates lost potentials since communities and nations fail to benefit from what the young people can theoretically contribute. However, this high level of unemployment cannot be totally attributed to the rising population. Lack of investment in the infrastructure of high labor absorption sectors of Agriculture and manufacturing has created deep structural issues. For example, in many different African countries, the agricultural sector, employing millions of people today, is not subsidized by the government and is struggling to meet wage expectations. The inability of young people to gain employment opportunities excludes them in the socioeconomic development of their communities. Without access to employment or livelihood opportunities, most young people cannot afford the basic needs of life. Turning to menial jobs with little prospect for advancement coupled with the low income earned may also be a cause of youth frustration, embarrassment, and social separation. There are many studies that suggest that youth unemployment can cause conflict or lead to youth involvement in criminal activities such as the drugs trade, armed groups and other illegal trade that offer livelihood opportunities.

Socio-Political Marginalization (Poor Governance)

Youths in Africa remain very marginal in the political process. (AU, 2011 youth report). Excluding youths in the national and local electoral and consultation process is a means of denying them political participation. The absence of a youth-friendly environment that paves the way for one effective and meaningful youth political participation, creates the conflict of marginalization in the different African communities. Socioeconomic marginalization, unsound economic and social policies, corrupt government and political dictatorship are all evidence of youth's exclusion. Participation in political systems often does not provide an outlet for youths to express their needs, aspirations, and grievances. In many cases, young people grow up in African countries where rigidity, conservative power structures are the order of the day thereby excluding them from decision-making and do not meet their needs. Youths often turn to violence once they have the chance to just as a means of having their voices heard in a specific country. A recent example of an African country that is having the problem of marginalization is Cameroon found in Central Africa. In 2016 the English Lawyers from the English part of Cameroon (Northwest and Southwest Region) put up a street demonstration of marginalization in their courts. They complained of French Magistrates who had little or no knowledge of English common law system dominating their courts. This aroused conflict which led to some street demonstrations that was followed with the arrest of some renowned English Cameroon lawyers. Also, coupled with several factors such as unemployment, corrupt government and political dissatisfaction and dictatorship, the youths of the English regions of Cameroon and youths in the diaspora decided to join the struggle of the English lawyers to demand equal rights and inclusion. Boycotts, ghost towns and the use of the social media were all used in the struggle. Marginalization in all forms is a big challenge to youth inclusion in a community's development.

Another keynote example is the case of MENA. Youth policy in the MENA region is often neglected, lacking a “whole of government” approach, and young people often find themselves in “observer status” in policy cycles without much opportunity to shape political outcomes (2015 OECD Study)

Failure in Promoting Social Activities

Despite the international emphasis from WHO, UN, of the importance of social inclusion (sports) for child and community development, sport and play programs often remain on the margins of governmental support and attention. Resources allocated by national governments to give sport and play a chance as actors in development is usually limited in African Countries. Unlike the developed world countries such as Canada, Holland, USA, Norway, and Switzerland, that use sport in their foreign-assistance policies and provide targeted funding to a handful of sport-based initiatives, most African countries pay little attention using sports to develop foreign-assistance policies.

Insufficient and Unequal Education/ Training

Unequal and lack of access to education can become a source of tension, which can lead to violence, rebellions, and conflict led by disgruntled youths. Most youths in some African countries do not have access to education and even when they succeed in getting an education, having a job is not a luxury.

ROLE OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN PEACE BUILDING IN AFRICA

Youths have become an important instrument of peacebuilding work in communities experiencing severe conflicts. Even though the efforts of the youths in peacebuilding in certain African societies are yet to be discovered, other communities can justify the importance of youths in peacebuilding, restoration and rebuilding relationships. The United Nations Security Resolution on Youth, Peace, and Security (UNSCR 2250), passed in December 2015, acknowledges youths as activists of positive change and peace. It emphasizes the importance of inclusive environments for youth peacebuilding through economic, social, and development activities.

The next generation of leaders, facilitators, and stakeholders will emerge from among the current cohort of young people, therefore, their engagement in the peace process/peacebuilding and the shaping of their political attitudes and skills in the period will have important long-term implications. Whether the focus of concern is with technical conflict management or broader conflict transformation, youths are important in post-conflict peacebuilding. In different contexts, youths are moral guardians, amoral thugs, and in other places, they are a mix of both. According to Article 11(1) of the African Youth Charter, every young person shall have the right to participate in all spheres of society including peacebuilding.

Lederach argues that genuine conflict transformation requires more than attention to 'the technical task of transition' (1998, 186) but a shift 'away from a concern with the resolution of issues and toward a frame of reference that focuses on the restoration and rebuilding of relationships' (1996, 24). Most peacebuilding projects will look at the oppressed and work with them to get the society to understand their plight. Every young person shall have the right to social, economic, political and cultural development with due regard to their freedom and identity and in equal enjoyment of the common heritage of mankind. (Article 10(1) African Youth Charter, 2006)

Youth may be key actors in terms of negotiation and mediation. For example, youths played several roles serving as marshals and demonstration in South Africa. The Acholi Religious Leaders Peace Initiative (ARLPI) mediated violent conflicts between the Acholi and their Jie neighbors, between Teso and Karimojong rural communities, and between rebels and the government. Even though the IRCSL could not prevent the coup in 1997 and stop the violence completely, they acted as a bridge between the government and rebels throughout the peace talks in Abidjan in 1996. Youths have served and worked with different organizations that have enhanced peacebuilding in Africa.

Youths play a key role in promoting cultural diversity in their communities, promote the links between cultural minorities and engage in activities of political awareness in their different localities. Youths can also be international ambassadors of peace-promoting different exchange programs in science, technology, culture and even tourism. To eliminate ethnic conflict in Burundi, the youths of Bujumbura have engaged in sports development activities that promote inter-ethnic tolerance and understanding by bringing young people from different ethnic backgrounds together for sport related activities. The International Olympic Committee and the United Nations Development Program have actively supported this initiative launched by the young people in Bujumbura. Aside from the usual physical and health benefits that are usually attributed to sports, the youths of Burundi are using sports activities to promote peace building through teamwork, cooperation, and respect. This builds confidence by acquiring skills and encourages a meaningful connection to adults through positive coaching relationships. The youths of Burundi have used sports to effectively tackle stigma and discrimination between ethnic groups and to reach out to the most vulnerable populations including girls, adolescents, and street children. Sports have been an international language for peacebuilding. During the Nagano Winter Olympic Games in 1998, the UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan used his knowledge after observing the Olympic Truce intervene to seek a

diplomatic resolution to the crisis in Iraq. North and South Korea marched under the same flag of the Korean Peninsula at the opening ceremony of the Olympic Games in 2004. Today, football, (soccer) played by youths in Africa is a medium of Intercultural diversity between different African countries.

After 15 years of civil war in Liberia, women (young and old) came out in their numbers crying for peace. This caught the attention of International organizations (United Nations) who later intervened. The participation of these women was based on three key measures: reconciliation, re-humanization and re-establishing relations. Some women organizations performed several activities such as convincing ex-combatants to participate in Disarmament Demobilization Rehabilitation and Reintegration (DDRR) and assisting to re-integrate child soldiers in their communities. They destroyed small arms and light weapons, supported refugees and promoted non-violent conflict transformation within their communities.

During the civil war in Sudan, there was an ambiguous loss of some boys which led to their migration to three different countries namely: Kenya, United States, and Ethiopia. After 13.7 years of separation, families of the lost boys were found in Sudan. The youths (the lost boys of Sudan), played an important role in re-establishing relationships between the lost boys and their biological families. In the search for their missing families and relations, the lost boys of Sudan visited four different countries. They spent over a decade in Ethiopia during their search and were violently chased away following a change of regime. Interviews with over 147 lost boys in 1993 revealed that 72% of the boys were uncertain as to whether they would see their families again (Jeppsson & Hjern, 2005). Advanced communication technology in the United States enabled those who had migrated to the US to find and rebuild relationships with their lost families. The Sudanese refugee youth anxiety to reestablish their long-lost relationship with different family members was a great role they played in achieving peacebuilding.

One celebrated contemporary case of youth influence in peacebuilding is the role played by the nonviolent youth movement 'OPTOR' (Resistance) in Serbia, helping to undermine the Milosevic regime (NYT 2000; USIP 2000).

Muslims youths in Africa have used the Islamic religion (through non-profit organizations and other religious institutions) to act as peace builders in different Muslim communities. For example, Muslim Women's League in Southern Sudan, Kisima Peace and Development Organization in Somalia, Interfaith Action for Peace in Africa as led by Sheikh Mbacke, Interfaith Mediation Center, Nigeria, Coalition for Peace in Africa and Merhamet in Bosnia-Herzegovina are all organizations found in areas where Islam is the state religion and are led by a Muslim religious actors who use Islamic values, teachings, and practices to transform conflict and reconstruct relationships between Muslim communities. Even though the percentage of Muslims youths who actively participate in the activities of peace restoration is limited, their efforts usually go unrecognized because of the prevailing conflicts in Muslim communities. Religious texts are used to justify violence and hatred. As such today, some Muslim communities in Africa use the Islamic religion for conflict resolution and peacebuilding. The involvement of Muslim religious leaders in the Coalition of Peace in Africa (COPA) of Kenya contributed to the dissemination of democracy and human rights in the Muslim community. Through sermons, preaching and lectures, they connected various issues to Islamic values and principles and that influenced their constituents.

Education for peace is "education for the long haul, for the ongoing struggle" (Reardon, 1988, p. 47). "Peace education should be a necessity" (Ihejirika, 1996). Many African youths are engaged in conflict resolution through peace education. Two youth peace education groups created in Sierra Leon and Nigeria act as a good example of this study. "Concerned Youth for Peace in Sierra Leone" is an education for peace group that was created in 1996 by young men and women who believe in the promotion of international co-operation and peaceful solution of conflicts. They strive to unite organizations and individuals committed to the peace process through educational programming, materials, and a sharing of ideas and resources.

Another non-formal youth program in Nigeria that utilizes the arts to promote peaceful interaction and personal understanding (Ekwueme, 2001) The "Center for Conflict Resolution", and was founded by the South African youths and its Projects, works for a "just and sustainable peace in South Africa" (Dovey, 2000, p. 95). This project started with youth involvement and has now covered a wider population of the community. The expansion of this project created the "Peace Education Partnership Program", a service "that was more programmatic, long-term and implementation-focused". After the implementation of this program, peace education was incorporated into the school's curriculum and that paid attention to creative and constructive approaches to conflict and mediation analyses in South Africa.

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

It is necessary to put in place Policies and programs to address youth exclusion and violence. Lately, an increasing number of international organizations and NGO's (e.g. UNICEF, UNHCR, ILO, WHO, World Bank) and other donors such as DANIDA GTZ, USAID, have stipulated the importance of working with youths and have developed strategies, policies and programs in a variety of sectors in conflict-affected areas. Their experience suggests that the main first step in addressing the correlation between youth exclusion and violence is for an organization to recognize the importance of youth and the role they play as both partners in, and beneficiaries of, development and conflict prevention and to reflect this through a high-level policy statement. With this, it will be easier to structure specific policies that target youth and violence.

It is also a recommendation to include youths in programs/research for it is not possible to carry out studies on youths without having them tell the story and relate to the work being done about them. Youths should be encouraged to engage in technology which is the next springboard for Africa's socio-economic development. Youths are the next generation of leaders, stakeholders, and facilitators, so their engagement in the peace process/peacebuilding and the shaping of their political attitudes and skills in the period will have important implications in the long run (Miall 1999).

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YOUTH EDUCATION, UNEMPLOYMENT AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN NIGERIA: POINTERS FOR ACCESSING SDG GOAL 8

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ABSTRACT

There exist a link between the youth and education-employment-entrepreneurship. This link expresses an age-long interaction and futuristic tendencies. It is such that the education of the youth determines their employability. Youth unemployment has however pervaded the make-up of the Nigerian society as such youth have resorted to entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship or entrepreneurship education has gained general empathy as the solution to tackling unemployment. In the event of Sustainable Development Goal 8 which aims at promoting sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all men and women regardless of their capabilities and incapacities, how can the pointers of education, unemployment and entrepreneurship be used to produce a lasting framework that would lead to the achievement of this goal by 2030? This paper employs qualitative research methods in collecting data and analysis and concludes that achieving SDG goal 8 given these pointers requires a holistic approach.

INTRODUCTION

On the completion of my compulsory one year National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) programme and after 3 months of teaching in a primary school (a choice I made because I didn't want to sit at home) to apply for multiple job openings, not less than 5 every week (most of which I didn't qualify for), I landed a job at my Alma mater.

With this job, I no longer qualified as 'unemployed' but, maybe 'underemployed'. However, many of my friends who had graduated before, with, and after me still go from one interview panel to another, surf the internet all day and nights with no suitable position to apply for (as most require 2-5 years of experience), resort to learning a trade and become self-employed, take up jobs that they have no qualification for, take online courses and certifications, become depressed and give up on searching. The rich and affluent ones can't get suitable jobs due to relatives declaring "things are hard everywhere" while other groups resort to cybercrimes.

It is significant to know that the average Nigerian youth mind has, before this age, been construed towards the system of getting a 'good' white collar job after leaving the university. In the absence or limited availability of this job, the Nigerian youth is first destabilized and concludes the degree, he dedicated 4 to 7 years of his life to, is a waste and finally secures funds from friends and relative and starts a business.

Buist, (2014) wrote, "*we were told that education was a ticket to employment when really, it's more like vague directions to the station... the grownups insisted: education, no matter how apparently arbitrary, leads to jobs*". Realistically, getting a degree doesn't mean you'd be able to use that degree to secure a suitable job, as such, the school of thought subscribed by our parents that suggest that education is a ticket for employment is beginning to get moribund.

Nowadays, employers are in the business of requesting for years of experience and professional qualifications which most often what a "fresh graduate" wouldn't possess. As such, the system of going to school, getting a degree, and getting a job no longer works. This particularly is linked to a default in the educational system which aims at creating job seekers rather than job creators. In Obiageli Ezekwesili's words "*education that doesn't match the need of the society is the end result*". (Ikpefan, 2016; Yurchenko, 2018)

The above is the reality a higher segment of the youths in Nigeria find themselves. It is a condition that necessitates self-reliance amongst young adults which evolves an opinion that degrees don't get you employed and getting one is a waste of time and money.

This is construed in the minds of youths that get-rich-quick schemes are the way forward and that solutions lie beyond the shores of the countries thus resorting to illegal migration. The productivity of the present generation is not only challenged by this but is equally challenged by the possibility of a sustainable future for the Nigerian youth.

Resorting to entrepreneurship has been a consolation prize for most youths with an appreciation to various entrepreneurial schemes, scholarships, and programs that have facilitated youth interests in entrepreneurship.

Unemployment is a global challenge, an intractable problem (Pinelli, 2015). This is why the enactment of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) or Global Goals features as its number 8 goal: Promote inclusive and sustainable economic growth, employment, and decent work for all. It was premised on the realization that unemployment slows down economic growth and development of countries and that 'a continued lack of decent work opportunities, insufficient investments, and under-consumption lead to an erosion of the basic social contract underlying democratic societies: that all must share in progress'. (<http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/economic-growth/>).

It is particularly a national emergency for Nigeria and as such, higher institutions, particularly private universities, are inculcating various entrepreneurial training programmes into their curricula. While this initiative has been taken, it moves us to ask some questions; how well provided for is our future generation? How is the present generation being prepared for the future? Will this framework have a sustainable and lasting impact? Is entrepreneurship achieving the goal of a decent work and in economic growth? Does entrepreneurship salvage youths from the grip of poverty? It is based on these questions that this paper addresses the link between youth education and entrepreneurship and what it means for sustainable development goal.

UNDERSTANDING YOUTH, UNEMPLOYMENT AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

There exists a link between the youths and education-employment-entrepreneurship. This link expresses an age-long interaction and futuristic tendencies. It is such that the education of the youth determines their employability which is therefore important to understand each of these 'concepts' and their peculiarities to this discourse.

It is important that we understand that the concept 'youth' has no generally accepted clarification. It has been perceived as a question of age, physical development, and responsibility (in this sense, the ability to be independent). Given the framework within which we are considering this concept, it is important to look at various descriptions of the youths. The United Nations recognizes Youths for statistical purposes in measuring the rate of the unemployed and educated population as individuals between the age of 15 and 24. Youth is regarded as the transitional period between childhood and adulthood. That is the movement from the dependent formative years to the independent productive years.

Abbink (2005), however, regards the youth as people belonging to a 14-35 years of age; Pilcher insists that the concept of youth ... is a way of understanding the "growing up" stages in the life course. As such, she insists that youth is best understood as a stage of transition between childhood and adulthood (1995, 58); The African Youth Charter (2006, 3) however, regards the youth or young people as every person between the ages of 15 and 35 years. (Cited in Adesanya and Olominu, 2017).

For the purpose of this paper, the African Charter description will be our reference point given its consideration to the African character and conditions. Given this, the UN asserts in a report that the number of youth in Africa is growing rapidly.

In 2015, 226 million youth aged 15-24 lived in Africa, accounting for 19 percent of the global youth population. By 2030, it is projected that the number of youth in Africa would have increased by 42 percent. Africa's youth population is expected to continue to grow throughout the remainder of the 21st century, more than doubling from current levels by 2055 (UN, 2015). With this skyrocketing figure and prognosis, African nations are challenged with the problem of properly educating the increasing population and consequently providing enough job opportunities for them. In Nigeria, with an ever-growing population of over 182million lives, more than half of this population falls under the age of 30. (<http://population.gov.ng/nigerias-population-now-182-million-npc/>).

Increasing population, however, means inculcating the factor of the extra numbers into policy making of a country since it is known that rapid population growth as well may affect the achievement of educational goals. For instance, Joint Admission matriculation board (JAMB) registered 1.6 million students for examination into the tertiary institution, a critical situation because the aggregate of Nigerian tertiary institutions cannot cater for the bulk of these 'jambites'. (The Premium times, 2018). Bloomberg Markets (2016) commented that this population increase puts a severe strain on a nation like Nigeria which is suffering from a downward slope in the economy and a decline in revenue to provide enough schools and health facilities. This inability to provide enough schools is also prevalent in the inability to provide enough job opportunities for the large population. While a large youthful population entering the labour market can be an economic asset, they could also constitute a challenge in countries with economic troubles and therefore account for increasing unemployment rate.

What then is Unemployment? **Unemployment** generally can be described by people as the inability to get a paid job. Generally, the international community defines unemployment according to a resolution of International Labour Organization in 1982. One can only be called as “unemployed” if he/she is:

- “without work”, meaning he/she was not in paid employment or self-employment during a particular reference period;
- “currently available for work”, meaning he/she was ready for a paid employment or self-employment during the reference period;
- “seeking work”, meaning he/she had taken specific steps in a specific period to seek a paid employment or self-employment.

Summarily, The International Labor Organization (ILO) defines the unemployed as the number of the economically active population who are without work but available for and seeking work, including people who have lost their jobs and those who have voluntarily left their work. Uddin and Uddin (2013) assert that “unemployment exist when members of the labour force wish to work but cannot get jobs”. Adesina resonated thus “unemployment is an economic condition where an individual or individuals seeking jobs cannot manage to get themselves”. According to the Nigerian National Bureau of statistics, unemployment is the proportion of those in the labour force (not in the entire economic active population, nor the entire Nigerian population) who were actively looking for work but could not find work for at least 20 hours during the reference period to the total currently active (labour force) population. As such, you are unemployed if you did absolutely nothing at all or did something but for less than 20 hours during the reference week. (NBS report, 2017).

NBS (2017) equally noted the difference between unemployment and 'not working'; and unemployment and underemployment thus 'a youth may not be working but may not necessarily be unemployed. A youth not working will only be termed unemployed if he is willing and able to work and actively looking for work within the review period. It is also important to note the distinction between unemployed and underemployed. You are unemployed if you do nothing at all and underemployed if you still manage to do something for some money for at least 20 hours a week and not fully engaging relative to your skills, time, and qualifications'.

Oyebade (2003), cited in Uddin and Uddin (2013), classified Nigeria's unemployment into two categories: first, the older unemployed who lost their jobs through redundancy or bankruptcy and second, the younger unemployed, most of whom

have never been employed. Majority of Nigerian youth falling into the second category are often university graduates going from one job interview to another or those who have not been able to apply for a single job opening in four weeks because they do not have the skills and experience required for the position.

Statistically, the number of unemployed in the labour force, increased by 351,015 persons, resulting in an increase in the national unemployment rate to 14.2% in the 4th quarter of 2016. This unemployment rate increased to 18.80% in the 3rd quarter of 2017 compared to 16.20% in the 2nd quarter. Unemployment has been on the highest for those within the age of 15-24 which represents the youth population. In terms of age groups, the unemployment rate was highest for those between the ages of 15 - 24 (25.2% in Q4 2016, 25.0% in Q3, 24.0% in Q2, 21.5% in Q1, and 19.0% in Q4 2015). For the 25 - 34 age group, the unemployment rate also increased to 15.4% in Q4 2016 from 15.0% in Q3, 14.5% in Q2, 12.9% in Q1, and 11.4% in Q4 2015 (NBS, 2017).

The NBS (2017) report reveals also that there is higher unemployment amongst women than men. Given this figure, it is apparent that rather than have a productive youth population, Nigeria suffers from youth unemployment. (NBS, 2017) Uddin and Uddin thus declare thus; 'Youth unemployment, therefore, could be described as the conglomerate of youths with diverse background, willing and able to work, but cannot find any; or cannot find the type of job that they are trained to do, and which they will be proud to do as their area of expertise'.

Unemployment in Nigeria has been linked to several factors: first on the list being population increase itself without commensurate economic and social provision, rural-urban migration, corrupt practices, educational system that has failed to respond to the needs of the present, wrong impression about technical and vocation schools, poor enabling environment, adoption of untimely economic policy measure, for instance, Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) of 1986, poor teacher training, absence of adequate industries to absorb competent graduates, inconsistent public policies on employment, etc. (Adesina, 2013; Akande, 2014; Uddin and Uddin, 2013).

While all these causes seem to reside on the part of governmental parastatals, Kachi Ogbonna in his book 'How they started' pegged that 'An average Nigerian youth possess the entitlement mentality and indulges in blame game; both culminating in the inability to reach his/her full potential.' He portends that higher institutions must focus on curricula that aim at producing job creators rather than job seekers (Apeh, 2017). Mohammed Yunus speaking along this line declared "don't ask for a job, make your own. Everybody is an entrepreneur". This aphorism underlines the concept of Entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship or entrepreneurship education has gained general empathy as the solution to tackling unemployment. (Osunkoya, 2012; Apeh, 2017; the Vanguard, 2015). Oyelola et al (2014) describe that entrepreneurship education is the preferred instrument to create enterprise culture and sufficiently mitigate youth unemployment. This could be said to be the foundation of programs like Subsidy Reinvestment and Empowerment Programme (SURE-P), Youth Enterprise with Innovation in Nigeria (YOU-WIN), Osun State Youth Employment Scheme (O-YES), N-Power, and support foundations for emerging entrepreneurs like the Tony Elumelu Foundation and many others. It is based on the realization that in many developed countries of the world, small and medium enterprises employ more and contribute to the economy more than big multinational companies.

Pinelli (2015), writing for World Economic Forum, asserts that 'entrepreneurs play a vital role in job creation and providing opportunities for young people'. Greg Watson opined that 'Entrepreneurship is more than just starting a business. It is a process through which individuals identify opportunities, allocate resources, and create value'. Entrepreneur identifies the problem as opportunities, discover solutions to those problems, and then sell to customers who will pay for the problem solved.

Entrepreneurship is thriving in Nigeria with various start-ups at every corner you turn to, based on the realization that employment by government agencies and multinational companies alone cannot solve the problem of unemployment in

this country because of the prevalent large population.

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOAL (SDG) 8: STRATEGIES FOR YOUTH EMPLOYMENT

It is important that to understand SDGs, a clear definition of sustainable development be given. The most widely accepted definition of sustainable development is the one given by the Brundtland Report of 1987: “sustainable development is a development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs”. It contains within it, two key concepts:

- The concept of **needs**; sustainable development emphasises that overriding priority should be given to meeting the essential needs of the world's poor.
- The idea of **limitations**; **SD identifies that the environment's ability to meet present and future needs is often limited by existing technological use and social organization.**

As such, the long-term aim of sustainable development is the stability of the economy and environment made possible when economic, environmental, and social concerns are integrated into the decision-making processes and policies of countries. The Sustainable Development Goals, also known as Global Goals originated from the UN Conference on Sustainable Development in Rio De Janeiro in 2000. The SDGs replaced the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) of 2000-2015 as a mechanism for achieving global development since the MDGs were peculiar to third world countries.

On the 1st day of January 2016, the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development was adopted by world leaders in September 2015 at a historic UN Summit. The goals have a lifespan of a period of 15 years. The UN asserts that the uniqueness of the new goal is such that they call on all countries; rich, poor, and middle-income to promote prosperity while protecting the planet. They recognize that ending poverty must go hand-in-hand with strategies that build economic growth and address social needs such as education, health, social protection, and job opportunities while tackling climate change and environmental protection.

Of particular reference and importance to us in this paper is the SDG goal 8 which enunciates thus; Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all. This is such that by 2030, achievement of full and productive employment, decent work for all women and men, including young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value will become a reality.

This goal is premised on the reality that many youths across the world and particularly in Africa, as we discussed earlier, are incapacitated by unemployment and as such unable to give back to their national economy through a system of inclusiveness brought forth by employment. It is saddening that these classes of people have been invested on in terms of education and since education is like an investment that can help foster economic growth, contribute to personal social development and reduce social inequality.

Their countries are unable to reap the fruits of their labour personally, socially, culturally and broadly economically. This, therefore, creates a productivity gap and limits economic growth.

CONCLUSION/RECOMMENDATION

Having identified that youth unemployment has been growing in Nigeria and that entrepreneurship has been resorted to, I enunciate that SDG policies must put these areas into consideration.

It is for these reasons this paper proposes that Nigeria must put into consideration, the direct and indirect impact and relevance of education, employment, and entrepreneurship in achieving a nation where youths are an integral and inclusive part of the system.

First, the education systems that focus on the futuristic need of the country must be put in place. Policymakers must be aware of certain areas that are overcrowded with experts with no commensurate companies and industries to employ them. Other fields with little or no awareness/interest by students should be facilitated to cater for the future. Such educational system must also have at its core the main aim of creating intellectual individuals who, despite their limitations, can be job creators more than they can be job seekers.

Secondly, having established in this paper that entrepreneurship is the way forward for unemployment to elude the Nigeria youth, it is however important to declare that the mindset of Nigerian youths must be shifted away from the 'entitlement mentality' (given the peculiarity of our society/government) that is constantly waiting to be handed a job because he/she deserves the mentality as proposed by Muhammed Yunnas; 'constantly see yourself as an entrepreneur'.

Our national government must also support and engage youths in training programmes that propels them towards sustainable development. Replicating what is done in Uganda which ranks as the most entrepreneurial country in the world, would go a long way.

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FURTHER READING

United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

<http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/sustainable-development-goals/background.html>

THE AFRICAN HUMAN RIGHTS SYSTEM: AN OVERVIEW OF THE ADMISSIBILITY OF NGOS APPLICATIONS BEFORE THE AFRICAN COURT

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ABSTRACT

Rights are sacrosanct and one of the most cardinal functions/objectives of the African Union (AU), being a regional organization, is the protection of rights of citizens of member states. The African Court on Human and People's Rights is the channel through which the African Union entertains and determines complaints of human rights infringements/abuses within the region. Among other categories of applicants, relevant NGOs can invoke the jurisdiction of the Court upon satisfaction requisite pre-conditions. Adopting a doctrinal approach, this paper seeks to shed light on the extent of the admissibility of applications by NGOs before the Court. This paper however finds that a number of genuine cases of human rights abuses risk being shut out within the present context. This paper concludes that the preconditions NGO applications are subjected to, are restrictive/limited. This paper therefore recommends that such conditions be reconsidered to allow a wider NGO access to the Court.

INTRODUCTION

The African Charter on Human and People's Rights is an instrument of the African Union which guarantees the fundamental rights of the people of Africa just as the European Charter and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. In order to actualize the important objectives of the instrument and the rights guaranteed therein, the African Court on Human and Peoples' Right was established to complement the work of the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights. The court admits applications from, among others, Non-Governmental Organizations. This work will assess the admissibility of applications and the contributions of NGOs.'

THE AFRICAN COURT ON HUMAN AND PEOPLES' RIGHT ("AFRICAN COURT")

Establishment

The establishment of the African Court was conceived by the African Union (AU); then known as the Organization of African Unity (OAU) in 1994 as a result of the pressure from the academics and NGO on the relative ineffectiveness of the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Right (the Commission) (FIDH, 2010).and the need for a meaningful institution that could effectively protect human rights in Africa, It has been noted that due to the uncoordinated nature of the decisions of the Commission and apparent lack of jurisprudential thread, the Commission's decisions have left most complainants short of satisfaction from apparent poor enforcement and implementation.

The Protocol establishing the African Court; Protocol to the African Charter, was officially launched in Tunis in 1994 via a resolution adopted to set the preparatory work for the establishment of the African Court in motion. The cause was championed by an NGO based in Geneva, Switzerland; the International Commission of Jurists. The Protocol was adopted in 1998 at a Conference of Heads of State and Government of the AU wherein thirty (30) members signed the text, and came into force in 2004, thirty (30) days after the deposit of the fifteenth instrument of ratification by Comoros.

Due to the economic spate of the African Union, the Heads of State and Government decided in 2004 to merge the African Court with the Court of Justice; the Judicial organ of the AU and avoid having to finance two courts. This merger is to create the *African Court of Justice and Human Rights*.

It is important to note that the events identified above only deal with the establishment of the Human Rights section of the Court, the section will serve its purpose pending when the AU decide to establish the other part and merge them, at which point, the *African Court of Justice and Human Rights* will replace the *African Court on Human and Peoples' Rights*.

The Judges of the African Court were elected and endorsed by the Assembly of Heads of State and Government meeting in Khartoum, Sudan in 2006 and consequently sworn-in in the Gambia the same year. It was also agreed that the African Court be seated in Arusha, Tanzania, with the interim Rules of the Court adopted in 2008. The African Court met with the Commission in 2009 in Dakar, Senegal for the purpose of harmonizing their Interim Rules of Procedure on various issues

relevant to their areas of connect and synergy. The Court is however meant to be interim in its operational existence as it is meant to serve as the Human Rights section of the intended African Court of Justice and Human Rights when it is finally established.

Composition

The court is composed by eleven (11) judges who are elected in their individual capacities but with special regard for region and gender for a maximum of two (2) terms of six (6) years each. Out of this number, quorum is constituted by seven (7) judges of the court.

Control

Being a creation of the African Union, the African Court finances the court, elects judges and takes care of their allowances, expenses and oversees the implementation of the court's decisions and has the power to amend the Protocol to the African Charter on a State's request subject to the approval of an absolute majority of the Conference of Heads of State and Government. The African Court is a super-national judicial body with enough powers to ensure and/or compel respect for the rights guaranteed under the African Charter. The African Court's independence is guaranteed through special immunities and privileges of the judges under the Protocol in a manner similar to that of the European and inter-American Courts.

Jurisdiction

The core of the functions of the Court is to give advisory opinion on any legal matter concerning the African Charter or any other relevant instrument on human rights on the request of an AU member state, any organ of the AU or an AU-recognized organization as long as such opinion does not relate to a request pending before the Commission. The Court can be called upon to deal with cases relating to violations of the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, 1981. The court also interprets its own judgments for the purpose of execution on the request of any party in the case within twelve (12) months following the date of the court's decision, or even review its decision where fresh evidence outside the initial contemplation of a party is later discovered. This must however be done within six (6) months from the time the party became aware. Like any other court, the request for interpretation or revision of the decision of the court by a party does not ordinarily affect the execution or implementation of such decision unless the court otherwise rules. The court may also first attempt to arbitrate or take steps towards amicably settling the case submitted before it.

Locus standi

To invoke the jurisdiction of the African Court, an applicant; the Commission, the State party which has lodged a complaint to the Commission, the State party whose citizen is a victim of the violation, an African Intergovernmental Organization, Individuals or relevant NGOs with observer status before the Commission, must be sure of a proper standing; *locus standi* before the court. It must be made sure that the right of the person whose violation is alleged is covered by the African Charter or any other relevant instrument ratified by the state concerned, that the state or the violator of the human rights has ratified the instrument, that the perpetrator is an agent of the state or the state had the obligation to protect the right violated and that the violation was committed after the ratification of the instrument under which the Court's jurisdiction is invoked.

Enforcement of decisions

Based on the doctrine of political sovereignty of states, it is trite that judgments of a transnational organ do not have serious legal binding or overriding effect on the domestic legal order of the state it affects and domestic laws. The African court is not an exception; it is not a court of appeal for domestic courts and as such lacks the authority to override the decisions of domestic courts, only states can decide to abide by the decisions of the court based on *pacta sunt servanda*.

The mechanism of enforcement adopted for the court by the Protocol is to make the state parties bind themselves to comply with the judgments of the court, as well as to execute them. By the African Charter itself, state parties recognize the rights sought to be protected and undertake to adopt legislative or other measures to give effect to them. In other words, state parties undertake to abide by the decisions of the court and make them enforceable within their jurisdictions. In order to give effect to this, States may have to jettison their sovereignty and amend their Constitutions or other legislations to subject the decisions of their apex courts in human rights matters to that of the African Court or make that of the African court have overriding binding effect within their jurisdictions. This will mean that, in Nigeria for instance, the CFRN 1999 as amended and the Supreme Court Act will be amended to allow decisions of the Supreme Court in Human Rights cases be overridden by the decision of the African Court if any of the parties makes the move.

In addition, the National Human Rights Commission Act would have to be amended to create a special Tribunal/court where the commission will forward its report for possible prosecution in place of forwarding same to the President as we presently have it. The CFRN 1999 as amended and the Fundamental Rights Enforcement Procedure Rules would also have to be amended to confer exclusive jurisdiction in all Human Rights matters on the National Human Rights Tribunal/Court. By this, matters bordering on Human Rights violations and abuse will start from the Tribunal and may end at the African Court. Upon failure to do so however, there are no concrete provisional measures besides that which allow the court to annually submit a report listing defaulters to the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the AU, who in turn will issue a report publicly naming and shaming defaulters.

NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGOs)

To submit an application before the African Court, the applicant can either be the Commission, the State party which has lodged a complaint to the Commission, the State party whose citizen is a victim of the violation, an African Intergovernmental Organization, Individuals and relevant NGOs with observer status before the Commission.

The Court however devotes an important part relating to right of access to NGOs where states have explicitly accepted such right. The Protocol authorizes the African Court to issue advisory opinions upon demand by an African organization recognized by the AU, this is broadly interpreted by the Court to allow advisory opinions to be requested by NGOs, provided they are African.

Indirect access by NGOs

NGOs with observer status before the African Commission are allowed to submit a case before the court where it concerns human rights violations through the Commission for onward submission before the Court, and this cannot be opposed by a state party as long as the state is a party to the Protocol. Where this is done, the NGO becomes a party to the resulting case before the Court.

This is a serious limitation on the right of access of NGOs as it implies that referrals depend on the prior agreement of the state, and the willingness of the Commission to present such cases before the court.

Direct access

NGOs are also entitled to institute actions directly before the court. Subject to the prior acceptance of the state accused of the human rights violations, an NGO with observer status before the AU may refer human rights violations of a state to the Court. In doing this, those submitting the case may not necessarily have to be the victims of the violations complained of, or members of their family or group, but this can be a class action against a state.

Observer status

It is obvious that, be it the direct or indirect modes of submission of cases before the Court by NGOs, the issue of observer status is cardinal. In order to obtain observer status however, an NGO working in the area of human rights, and in accordance with the fundamental objectives of the AU and the African Charter, must submit an application to the Commission's Secretariat. This, together with other supporting documents is what the AU considers in granting such status.

ADMISSIBILITY OF APPLICATIONS OF NGOs

Admissibility is a critical part of the African Charter, and of the African Court, just like the test of *arbitrability in Arbitral Proceedings* and *Jurisdiction in suits before a national court*, it enables the African court filter the substantive violations that could fall within the prescribed guidelines. For an application intended for submission before the court to be valid, the court may follow relevant decisions of the African Commission; which practically applies the same conditions, with the need for a state against which the application is directed to make a declaration approving same being the basic difference.

Conditions

The general conditions of admissibility of communications before the African Court is the need for the application to be directed against a state party which has made a declaration authorizing direct access of the NGO with observer status submitting the application before the Court or their representatives. The application can also be submitted by the NGO to the Commission. In addition, the application must also involve circumstances which fall within the jurisdiction of the Accused state and must have occurred after the ratification of the Protocol by the state.

The violation, subject matter of the application must relate to a right protected by the African Charter or any other regional or international human rights document ratified by the perpetrating state. In addition to the general conditions of admissibility, applications are also subjected to the following specific conditions, to wit:

1. The court may request the opinion of the Commission in deciding the admissibility or otherwise of applications from NGOs,
2. The NGO must have exhausted every available local remedy as regards the application sought to be submitted before the Court,
3. The application must invoke the provisions of the African Charter violated against,
4. Disparaging and abusive words must not be used in the application,

The application must not be based exclusively on information disseminated through the mass media without properly verifying the veracity.

CONCLUSION

The African Court as an institution that compliments the work of the African Commission on the enforcement of the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights is a viable tool for the actualization of some of the core objectives of the AU in guaranteeing a better protection of Human Rights for the people of Africa. In this quest, NGOs have played important role in this quest, albeit with an imitating factor which renders their access and admissibility of applications therefrom hard to achieve.

One of the main weaknesses of the African Court is the fact that NGOs and individuals alike cannot access the court without first obtaining observer status with the AU and having the approval of the perpetrating member state. Based on this fact alone, the court risks shutting out the most ordinary and uninformed African from access to the court, and in consequence, treating only a few cases.

NGOs particularly should have unfettered access to the African Court without having to first secure observer status and should be allowed to submit cases directly to the Court without all the limitations.

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FURTHER READINGS

- See Articles of the African Charter
- See Articles of the Protocol
- See discussions on African Court of Justice and Human Rights infra

NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS IN AFRICA: SOLUTIONS FOR BUILDING SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND CREATING JOBS FOR AFRICAN YOUTH

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ABSTRACT

Everyone knows about the richness of Africa; the continent has an abundance of human and natural resources that is next to none. Unfortunately, it suffers from hunger and extreme poverty; most African countries suffer from inadequate infrastructure, poor education and health. Specific questions arise. Why are we in this situation? We have vast lands, multiple rivers and underground water. However, we import food, medicine and clothes. Where is the problem? How can we get out of this closed circle? This paper outlines a roadmap for a better future for the next generations in Africa. This task will be done by taking advantage of the United Nations development plans, namely, sustainable development goals and invent mechanisms for the African continent to implement development priorities. Taking into account the differences within each country in regards to population structures, needs and natural resources available in each nation.

Key Words: Sustainable Development, Non-Government Organizations, African Youth

INTRODUCTION:

The development in South-East Asia challenges Africa significantly. Why do we compare Africa to the Southeast Asian countries? It is because they were the worst in the world 100 years ago in regards to poverty and hunger. Now the African continent takes its place. Most of the long wars in the past five decades have taken place in Africa, and the continent has been affected by food shortages and military coups.

Most regions of the world have managed to use their precious resources to create a major development boom, based on what the majority of the population is doing. Take Japan, for instance, a country that had been destroyed by the Second World War; Japan was at that time worse than most African nations today but managed to rise from that situation by capitalising on its human resources. Another reason why African minds should work hard to find practical solutions to bring about development to the African continent. Using global technology and the plans issued by the United Nations and applying them in each country as per their natural resources and population.

If we succeed in implementing these strategies, I can say with confidence that the twenty-second century is Africa's century. Africa will lead the world, will feed the world, the Sahara will become a wheat and rice plantation, and forests in the middle of the continent become the biggest fruit producers. Africa's ports can become major trading centres around the world; we only have to believe in that dream and work to achieve it.

LITERATURE REVIEW:

Sustainable Development Goals draws a roadmap to the better future for the African Development

The concept of development means an event constituting a new stage in a changing situation. Development in this sense is the first stage, with respect to processing infrastructure and foundations which we will build on, in later stages, but it is not the ultimate goal. What we need is a continuation in development, which is the same definition of sustainable development, "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

The problem in Africa is not the lack of development projects at all, we have many development projects in the African continent, but the problem is how to make these projects sustainable in the face of changing of governments or the change in financial support.

This leads us to ask more questions when we start any development project such as:

- What is the future of this project after ten years, twenty years?
- What is the primary purpose of the project, is it just a quick profit for the investor?
- What is the future of the natural resources in the area, and what is the future of local communities?

We should answer these questions first; this knowledge must be clear and transparent.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:

What kind of development do we need in Africa?

To answer this question, we must think deeply about these three elements; economic development, human development and the urban development of the region. These elements must be present in every future development equation.

Regarding definition, we mean the following:-

Economic development: improvement of the way endowments and goods and services are used within (or by) the system to generate new products and services to provide additional consumption or investment possibilities to the members of the system.

Human development: people-centred development, where the focus is put on the improvement of the various dimensions affecting the well-being of individuals and their relationships with the society (health, education, entitlements, capabilities, empowerment etc.).

Territorial development: development of a specific region (space) achievable by exploiting specific socio-economic, environmental and institutional potential of the area, and its relationships with external subjects.

Then we need to create or construct a new platform that helps us to apply the development policies, figure 1 show the suggested mechanism to implement a deeply rooted development plan in our communities by establishing Intergovernmental Development Authorities to fill the gap that exists between government and communities, this shape is divided into three levels; governmental level to cover the running of the state and to build balanced sustainable development in the country, directed by expertise independent bodies funded and not funded by the government.

Figure 1: Intergovernmental Development Authority

Making independent, non-profit governmental bodies to direct the development

Institutionally, government organisations are typically organised into sector related ministries and departments. It works reasonably well until the system encounters something very comprehensive and highly integrated by nature, such as sustainable development. In practice, sustainable development requires the integration of economic, environmental, and social objectives across sectors, territories, and generations.

To achieve these goals, and to fill the gap between the government and local communities, we need to find new forms of supervision of development; characterised by the following objectives:

1. Establishing a development authority under the government, not the ministries, the members of this authority are a group of specialists in all fields of knowledge related to the development. Their first task is to supervise regional organisations specialised in agriculture, small industries, capacity building and skills.
2. These authorities are the advisory board of many local voluntary organisations, offering free services and sharing their expertise with the executive offices of the voluntary organisations to provide all the technical and scientific support required to implement the plans and programs of the regional voluntary organisations.
3. Authorities funded by the government. They have made decisions for non-governmental organisations. They have partnerships with ministries to implement the development plans approved by the government, and the relationship is co-operative between government agencies and non-governmental organisations to put plans and programs into effect on the ground.

Using non –governmental organization as a tool of development

These non-governmental organisations are concerned with the full definition in terms of tasks and objectives, as organisations that “attempt to improve social, economic and productive, conditions and are found both as small community-based organisations at village and district levels, characterised by the following objectives:

1. Establishing of non-governmental organisations, the members of these organisations are educated young people from the state-appointed territory and respected members of the local community. And representatives of the region in parliament and the legislative councils. The task of these organisations is to balance between the development plans adopted by the government and the actual needs of the local population.
2. The government and other supporters fund these organisations. The primary task is building partnerships between government agencies and local communities to implement development plans from planning to implementation with the assistance of the development authorities set up by the government by providing financial support and expertise in projects that meet the basic needs of local communities in agriculture, education, health and microenterprises.

The purpose of these organisations is to benefit from the ease of movement, decision-making and implementation of the particular plans and other advantages given by the law to the voluntary organisations. Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have become an essential ally in the development process of the Third World. Activities of NGOs serve to mitigate the cost of developing countries' institutional weaknesses which often include administrative shortcomings and an inability to carry out essential development tasks efficiently.

Sustainable development according to the needs of the regions

African governments need to increase public investment in agriculture and rural development substantially; this will boost productivity in the in demand-driven initiatives. Investments in agriculture should be monitored to ensure specific targets that benefit smallholder women and waged agricultural workers.

Rachel Emas, 2015, the Concept of Sustainable Development: Definition and Defining Principles, Florida International University

Norad. 2004. Swaps and civil society – the role of civil society organizations in Zambia's Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Programme. Oslo, Norway: NORAD. Retrieved 27 March 2008 from:

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United Nations Development Programme (1990) Human Development Report, Oxford University Press, New York p.136.

That is why we have to implement this system, by establishing independent expert governmental bodies to orient respected young volunteer organisations to apply these programs for development.

This system is designed to facilitate the implementation of different needs of development by regions, quality of population, natural resources and urgent needs of development according to the specific priorities. The system uses the available financial and human resources for development and through a well-managed administrative process that includes planning, organising, leadership, control the activities and financial funds to achieve the objectives of development efficiently and effectively.

Creating Jobs to ensure the sustainability of sustainable development

In the short run, given the importance of agriculture and microenterprises for new employment opportunities, improving the business environment in these sectors is a high priority.

It is important to know that this objective can be achieved by creating an economy within the local communities protected from global fluctuation and adopting policies to protect local production and finding markets for agricultural products to attract prices for small farmers, more jobs in agriculture and industries based on agricultural production.

All in collaboration with specialised groups of people selected from local communities to implement these programs.

CONCLUSION:

The biggest challenge of sustainable development remains the lack of management to the available resources and failure to develop appropriate plans for appropriate resources, and the biggest problem is the lack of practical and economic expertise to follow up the progress of development plans and programs in third world countries in general and particularly in Africa..

In conclusion, the critical recommendation is to study this system again and work on its application in Africa, at least for five years and then make a necessary evaluation.

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THE KEY CONSTRAINTS FACING AFRICAN COUNTRIES IN MOBILIZING THEIR RESOURCES FOR DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY ON GHANA AND ZAMBIA

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ABSTRACT

Domestic Resource Mobilization (DRM) is “the generation of government revenue from domestic resources, from tax and non-tax sources (royalties, licenses, levies or other income)” (European Commission, 2010). Major scholars have exchanged contrasting views on the barriers to resource mobilization in Africa. While Di John (2006) asserts weak state capacity to mobilizing resources and the need for reconstruction of a viable state, Von (2007) contends that neopatrimonialism has inhibited African state's revenue. Furthermore, Elbadawi (2000) maintains that low savings and investments are the impediments of resource generation and the declining performance of Africa. This paper therefore argues that the weak state capacity of African countries is the key constraint facing African countries in mobilizing their resources for development using Ghana and Zambia as case studies. The next sections of the paper are organized as follows: first the paper will accentuate on the weak state capacity, secondly it will argue how weak state capacity has led to key constraints in mobilizing resources. Finally the paper will make conclusions and recommendations.

INTRODUCTION

Weak Administrative state capacity: Colonialism (1920s-1960s)

The colonial project in Africa created a state system where administrators exerted their powers without institutionalized negotiations with civil society. Mandani (1996, p23) maintains that the fragile state capacity of colonialism created coercive capacity of the state where authorities extract state resources leading to what Cooper (2002) terms “the gatekeeper state”. In view of the weak regulatory capacity for the state, the political will to insulate tax administration from political incursions is lacking. Political leaders in Africa are able to exercise their authority to interfere in tax administrative systems due to lack of constraint on their behaviours. This interference from politicians has resulted in weak tax administrative capacity and tax compliance from citizens in Africa. With tax administrations in Africa lacking technical skills and equipment and little capacity to formulate policies and monitor performance, mobilization of tax revenue tend to be inefficient. There are also limited communication capacity of the tax administration in Africa and the resources to purchase machinery and equipment to facilitate revenue collection is lacking which leads to tax collection being directed to few scattered areas (Bird, 1989).

Also, given the political interference in tax administrations, tax policies and legislations tend to be complex to be interpreted by tax payers which sometimes tend to be at the discretion of tax officials which leads to corruption. The corruption and perception of corruption of the tax administration in Africa undermine legitimacy and given the low levels of education in Africa, tax compliance tends to be low. The state is characterized by fiscal crises in Africa. However, to create a viable and effective state, designing tax systems that can provide incentives for growth and meet distributional demands is vital (Di John, 2006). The work of Teera (2002) and Teera and Hudson (2004) maintained that state capacity in Africa is not fully exploited as tax revenue in developing countries are least responsive to policy changes and economic growth. The state capacity in mobilizing of tax revenue in Africa is low. An overview of Appendix 1 shows that Africa's tax revenue average (%of GDP) was 19.6 from 1985-87 and 19.8 from 1995-97 which is below the average of OECD countries 36.6 and 37.9 from 1985-97. Also, appendix 2 shows that Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) tax to GDP ratio was 17 and 19.1 in 1990 and 2005 respectively. Narrowing down to Ghana and Zambia, appendix 3 illustrates the state capacity for both countries is low in mobilizing revenue as the average of tax revenue to GDP from 1990 to 2011 was 15% to Ghana compared to 15.68% of Zambia.

Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP) and State Capacity (1980s-1990s)

The capacity of the state is the power of the state to raise revenue, enforce contracts and support markets through regulations (Tilly, 1985). It is also state's ability to implement policies “that are not simply reflective of powerful social groups” (Skocpol, 1985, p9). The capacity of the state does not only depend on its ability to formulate prudent fiscal policies but also the political will, administrative efficiency and culture of tax compliance play a crucial role (Fukuyama,

2005). In most states in Africa, there exists a weak capacity in mobilizing domestic resources which can be traced to the SAP introduced into Africa in the 1980s and 1990s. The SAP led to privatization of most state enterprises which led to limiting the state's role in owning and operating productive enterprises.

According to Mkandawire (2015) "one of the obvious errors of the SAP was the devastating erosion of state capacity produced by reckless downsizing of the state through formulaic retrenchment, demoralizing the civil service and massive interference by poorly coordinated donors and in the process undermines the legitimacy of local, political and bureaucratic action by assuming ownership". The SAP resulted in a weak regulatory capacity for the state creating state competition with the private sector and creation of monopolies (Mkandawire, 2007). The SAP introduced in Ghana in 1983 led to the reduction of the PNDC Government bureaucracy with donors dictating the reform process compared to the Kaunda Government of Zambia which implemented SAP in 1985 which engendered liberalization of the agricultural market, public sector reform and reduction in civil service employment (Callaghy, 1990 and Martin, 1991).

Constraints to DRM: Low savings (1999-today)

The loopholes in state capacity in Africa has 'disincentivised' savings (Lindbeck, 1994). Since the state in Africa lacks autonomy, the ability of the state to devise, implement and achieve social, economic and policy goals are lacking. Consequently, the state's ability to allocate resources to productive and welfare-enhancing sectors tend to be weak. This has led to critical market failures and poor enforcement of standards, regulations and delivery of programs. The policies made by states in Africa inhibit incentives for savings as they create a weak tax structure. Due to the low average incomes of countries in Africa, tax levies on incomes of citizens result in low disposable income impeding private savings (PS). For instance, PS in SSA declined from 11.4% of disposable incomes in the 1970s to 7.5% in the 1980s (Mansour, 2008).

The informal sectors in Africa is high and the tax structure often fail to capture these sectors. The informal sectors make up 60 to 70% of GDP in African countries (Moore, 2004). Moreover, the size of the informal sectors was estimated for 2002-2003 at 43% for Africa, 30% for Asia and 43% for South America (Schneider, 2007). Since the tax structures cannot cover the large informal sectors, public savings tend to be low. Public savings in SSA declined from 4.3% in 1980 to less than 3% in 1990 (Solimano, 2003). The inability of the state to promote environments that foster savings has engendered limited DRM as Elbadawi (2001) underlines declining savings and investments in SSA obstructs DRM. From appendix 4, SSA Gross Domestic Savings (GDS) averaged 19.2% of GDP from 1981 to 2015 compared to South Asia 22.92% and 23.68% for upper income countries. The GDS of SSA are low which amounted to 17.6% of GDP in 2006 compared to 26% in South Asia and 43% in East Asia (World Bank, 2007).

In Zambia, there are also barriers in mobilizing DRM as national savings have been low. From 2000-2009, GDS was 17.2% of GDP compared to 28.9% of East Asia and 16.3% of SSA. Though Zambia performed slightly better than SSA, there are high problems with savings in Zambia as small proportions of the populations have access to saving facilities as Zambians that are with banks are only 14% (Melzer, 2007). From appendix 5, Zambia's GDS plummets from 36.3% in 2010 to 32.76 in 2015 though higher than Ghana with 9.57% and 13.08%. The declining trends of savings in Ghana is due to the high government deficit financed through levies of higher taxes on citizens. Also, financial institutions in Ghana prefer to lend to governments than private sectors without channeling savings to poor sectors of the economy (Quartey, 2005)

Capital flight

Capital flight constitute a major barrier to effective DRM (Zheng & Tang 2009). The inability of states to control capital flight can be seen as the ultimate reflection of a country's failure to mobilize and retain domestic financial resources (UNCTAD, 2007). While the studies of Boyce and Ndikumana (2003); Ajayi,(2007); and Ndiayi (2011) assert that political and institutional instability drive capital flight. Hermes et al,(2002) contend that high external debt of Africa causes capital flight with Ndiaye (2011) arguing the weak capacity of states which allows elites to amass personal fortunes abroad. The weak capacity of states in Africa has led to high levels of capital flight hampering DRM (Fleischer, 2002).

With low constraints on the state in Africa, leaders are able to exercise their discretionary power to embezzle financial resources to save abroad. State policies in Africa often leads to tax crimes and money laundering leading to illicit financial outflows. The macroeconomic environment of most states in Africa are unstable and consequently, investors tend to save their profits abroad due to financial risks. States in Africa are also dependent on foreign aid which tends to create high external debts. In the process of paying external debts, financial resources flow to foreign states obstructing DRM. Capital flight is a setback to DRM in Africa as it undermines social contracts and damages good governance. The stock of Africa's capital flight for 1970-2004 was estimated at \$607 billion amounting to three times Africa's external debt (UNCTAD, 2009).

An overview of appendix 6 shows high levels of capital flight. There were high illicit flows from Africa of \$57 billion from 1970 to \$437 billion over the nine years 2000-2008. Also, trends of capital flight from appendix 7 shows that from 2008-2012 SSA average capital flight increased more to \$39 billion. This explains that capital flight is a matter of concern to Africa due to high capital outflows offsetting efficient DRM. Appendix 8 shows real capital flight from 2000 to 2005 for Ghana and Zambia. The average real capital flight of Ghana from 2000 to 2005 was \$240 million compared to \$682 million in Zambia. Though Ghana recorded higher trends of capital outflows from 2000 to 2004, in 2005 it recorded capital inflows compared to Zambia's increasing capital outflows throughout 2000 to 2015. In Zambia, there are high capital flights due to exploitation of natural resources, weak regulations and import dependency. Ghana's capital outflows are due to high taxes which increase rewards for evasion, corruption and huge budget deficit of government.

NEOPATRIMONIALISM

DRM is impeded in Africa due to neopatrimonialism where office holders embezzle state resources, centralize power or award favours to clients (Bratton & Van de Walle, 1997). While Clapman (1985, p48) argues that neopatrimonialism state is “a form of organization where relationship of a broadly patrimonial type pervade political systems constructed on rational-legal grounds”, Medard (1982, p165) contends “neopatrimonialism permits us to subsume not only clientelism, but nepotism, ethnicity and corruption” with Chabel (2002) emphasizing African states as neopatrimonial due to the inability to centralize rents. The state in Africa is characterized by lack of separation of powers of state institutions which weakens the states capacity. This gives state authorities the opportunity to influence other bureaucratic institutions. State leaders tend to abuse their powers to misuse state funds to secure loyalty from supporters (Soest, 2007). State institutions in Africa have few checks and balances which enable leaders to promote their private interest and engage in rent-seeking debilitating DRM capacities (Alence, 2004).

From appendix 9, tax revenue of GDP averaged 15.86% from 2003 to 2013 compared to 20.23% of Europe. The low levels of tax efforts in Africa is an indication of neopatrimonialism (Kohli, 2004). Comparing Ghana and Zambia from appendix 10 and 11, Ghana's tax revenue average 16.15% from 2001 to 2011 with corruption score average of 3.6 compared to Zambia's tax revenue of 14.6% and corruption which explains higher neopatrimonialism (Englebert, 2000). In Zambia, there are high levels of neopatrimonialism as state officials centralize power and favours and misuse state resources. For instance, President Kaunda who ruled 14 years refrained from strengthening domestic tax collection leading to elites seeking their own interests. Zambia in 2005 was rated HIPC and has constantly depended on aid (IMF, 2005). Neopatrimonialism is also pervasive in Ghana as leaders like Rawlings ruled 20 years. Leaders in Ghana design policies to satisfy ethnic, religious and regional considerations. For instance, President Rawlings rural electrification project in 1990, Kufuor's rice importation policy in 2004 and Mill's policy to impose tariffs on rice importation were populist politics to canvass for support (Gyimah-Boadi, 2005).

CONCLUSION

DRM is a dynamic strategy to addressing the financial obstacles of African governments. The importance of DRM cannot be overemphasized as it provides African governments with long-term flexibility to formulate and implement policies to tackle economic, social and developmental challenges. Strengthening DRM is vital as it will reduce dependency on external flows and reduce vulnerability to external shocks. Also, it provides African states with greater policy space to own

their development process and strengthen state capacity. This paper has argued that weak state capacity of African countries is a key constraint to DRM using Ghana and Zambia as case studies. In this paper, due to weak state capacity, key constraints to DRM were underscored as low savings, capital flight and neopatrimonialism. African governments should therefore widen their tax base to include the informal sector and avoid evasion for large tax payers, reduction of taxes and raising interest rates on savings and placing constraints on state administrations through consolidation of institutional structures.

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Appendix 1.

Comparative levels of Tax Revenue, 1985-1997(in percent percent of GDP)			
	1985-87	1995-97	
OECD Countries 1/	36.6	37.9	
America	30.6	32.6	
Pacific	30.7	31.6	
Europe	38.2	39.4	
Developing Countries/2	17.5	18.2	
Africa	19.6	19.8	
Asia	16.1	17.4	
Middle East	16.5	18.1	
Western Hemisphere	17.6	18	

Sources: Revenue Statistics (OECD); and Government Finance Statistics (IMF).

Appendix 2

Tax-GDP ratio across regions

Location	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
East Asia&Pacific	21.5	19.9	19.9	20.6	22.2	22.7	26.1	29.9
Latin America and the Caribbean	16.3	17.1	17.3	17.9	18.3	18.7	18.8	19.6
Middle East &North Africa	13.8	14.3	13	13.4	14.2	14.3	14.5	14.3
South Asia	11	11.5	10.4	10.7	10.8	10.7	11.4	12
Sub-Saharan Africa	17	15.8	17	17.2	17.5	18.7	19.7	19.1
Western Europe	37.5	38.2	40.4	39.8	39.4	39.2	39.4	40.7
United States&Canada	31.6	31.7	32.8	31.8	30.1	29.6	29.5	30.2
Source:IMF(2008)								

Appendix 3

Data Source: World Bank

Appendix 4

Data Source: World Bank

Appendix 5

Data Source: World Bank

Appendix 6:

Africa: Illicit Financial Flows(IFFs)1970-2008 (in millions of Dollars)

Total IFFs					
Group	1970s	1980s	1990s	2000-2008	1970-2008
Africa	57,291	203,859	155,740	437,171	854,061
North Africa	19,161	72,020	59,813	78,742	229,737
Sub-Saharan	38,130	131,839	95,927	358,429	624,324
Horn of Africa	2,354	14,131	5,108	15,603	37,197
Great Lakes	6,925	16,079	4,978	10,285	38,267
Southern	5,894	20,581	31,447	116,828	174,751
West and Central	22,956	81,047	54,394	215,712	374,109
Fuel-exporters	20,105	67,685	48,157	218,970	354,917
Nonfuel-exporters	7,867	26,517	22,375	23,342	80,102
Average IFFs					
Group	1970s	1980s	1990s	2000-2008	1970-2008
Africa	7,299	21,678	17,813	50,328	29,021
North Africa	3,097	7,754	6,316	9,166	6,866
Sub-Saharan	4,202	13,924	11,497	41,162	22,156
Horn of Africa	249	1,421	715	1,949	1,183
Great Lakes	745	1,778	580	1,286	1,142
Southern	811	2,412	4,659	13,388	9,635
West and Central	2,397	8,313	5,544	24,538	10,196
Fuel-exporters	2,239	6,922	5,105	24,806	9,878
Nonfuel-exporters	1,017	2,729	2,433	2,787	2,502

Source: Global Financial Integrity (2012)

Appendix 7

Source: Source: Ndikumana and Boyce (2012) and data sample expanded using data from IMF and WDI

Appendix 8:

Source: Ndikumana and Boyce (2012), and sample expanded using data from: World Bank

Appendix 9.

Source: World Bank Data

Appendix 10

Source: World Bank/ Transparency International Data

Appendix 11

Source: World Bank/ Transparency International Data

HISTORIOGRAPHY: CHALLENGES AND THE PERTINENCE OF HISTORY

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ABSTRACT

The concept of historiography has been defined, explained and analyzed by various scholars, as its meaning and scope is varying. Also, the concept of historiography within historical scholarship has been faced by differing challenges in the writing and reconstruction of Africa's historical past, hence, making the discourse on the pertinence of History as a concept and discipline, a subject of bickering. This paper aims to concisely explain the concept of Historiography in respect to the views of different scholars, stressing the various challenges associated with the reconstruction of Africa's past events, as well as, establishing the level of importance of the study of History to the entirety of an individual, society, state, continent and the world.

WHAT IS HISTORIOGRAPHY?

The concept of historiography has been defined, explained and analyzed by various scholars, as its meaning and scope is varying. However, the underlying explanation of the concept is; ***the art of writing history as well as; the body of literature existing on historical issues.***

Historiography is precisely '***the history of history***'. Typically, within historical scholarship, there is a focal attention on events and facts, thereby analyzing why they happened, the causes and consequences. Historiography however, focuses on the adopted methodology of historians and instead of tracking events, tracks the development of historical thought over time. It is philosophical to ask; '***what theoretical approaches have differing historians taken?***', '***how have these views changed over time and why?***' and '***why do they think that?***'

According to **Richard T. Vaan**, he expressed the concept of historiography as; *the writing of history, especially the writing of history based on the critical examination of sources, the selection of particular details from the authentic materials in those sources, and the synthesis of those details into a narrative that stands the test of critical examination.* It also refers to *the theory and history of historical writing.*

The concept of historiography relates to the *art of writing history*. It is also a process of ascertaining, recounting and reconstructing the course of history through the establishment of the knowledge of the past events. It is concerned with discovery of facts, analysis of historical sources, and reconstruction of the past, as well as, critical reflection of historical patterns. The focus is the evolution of historical writing. Specifically, the historiographer comments on the works of other historians, rather than, the actual historical events. The historians are concerned with ***what they wrote, why they wrote and how they wrote.***

Expressing what historiography precisely deals with; Erim stated that ***historiography is a discipline dealing with the methods of writing history and the techniques of the historical research and documentation.*** In the same vein, E.A. Afigbo submitted that, ***historiography is the science of writing history.*** In the assertion of Dike and Ajayi, they opined that;

“It is the discovery and critical assessments of historical sources, reconstruction and description of the past on the basis of facts available and to a large extent involved to allocate, conscientize the society or even assist in influencing aspects of contemporary public opinion, action or policy and reflection on the trends and patterns of historical writings”.

Historically, the discipline of historiography has experienced evolution over the century. In the Greco-Roman period, the view of history was cyclical. In the Christian era, it was linear in nature. In the 17th century, which was the age of the Erudites, it was in the form of diary of events. In the 18th century which was the age of interpreters, it was in form of interpretation. Since the 19th century, it has been in the form of a critique. Before the emergence of Leopold Von Ranke, history was not in form of an academic discipline. He led the campaign to write history differently and to spate history from religion, philosophy and literature. He was focused on stressing the point of stating what actually happened. His methodology was the collection of data, sieving of data and analysis as well as citing the source, hence the pretext for objectivity. He also stressed the need for writing papers, setting up history seminar, scientific analysis and the nature of controversy in history. He wrote a law in the 19th century which is currently been of great use in modern history. In any case, it is equally important to note that historiography is very holistic and critical in nature.

THE CHALLENGES IN THE RECONSTRUCTION OF AFRICAN HISTORY

It is important to express the vastness and diversity of African history. Hence, the process of writing and the reconstruction of African history will definitely pose diversity, thereby, exposing varying issues, shortcomings and challenges in the course of writing and reconstruction of African past. The writing of African history as simply put, *African historiography* is faced with several problems and issues. It should however be noted that, many of these challenges are contemporarily weightless, considering the differing efforts amassed by African historians and scholars to reconstruct the various historical events that took place within the continent, thereby establishing a valid arguments to justify the authenticity and legitimacy of African historical facts and events. It is crucial to concisely explain these challenges in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, of every challenge facing historians in the writing of African history is the erroneous view about African history postulated by many Europeans historians and scholars. They opined that, Africa has no history worthy of relevance and that the activities of the Europeans (traders, missionaries, explorers, administrators, etc.) summed the entirety of African history. Some of the European scholars noted for this assertion were; Hugh Trevor Rooper, Herbert Spencer, Harry Johnston, Endre Sik, Frederick Hegel. These biases and prejudices emerged due to the fact that, early historians were mainly Whites, hence, the reason for Euro-centric postulations. The resultant effect of this situation was the emergence of new African historiography in the 1950s and 1960s by prominent African historians and scholars such as; E.A Afigbo, J.F. Ade Ajayi, E.J. Alagoa.

Secondly, the writing of African history was also faced with the problem of the effective and efficient utilization of oral sources such as; oral tradition, oral evidence as there is disagreement on their reliability. Most of the time, transmission of the oral sources is done through story-telling, fables, myth, legend, song, popular history and proverbs by the elders. Knowing fully well that, Africa has a meagre writing culture, with infinitesimal exceptions in some parts of Africa where the Arabs influenced before the advent of the Europeans. A consideration of the unavailability and inaccessibility of written sources made oral sources the major source from which the reconstruction of African past can be achieved. However, the use of oral sources in historical reconstruction is embattled with difficulties of which the problem of chronology is outstanding. Logically, in traditional African history, accurate chronology was hardly taken seriously as sole emphasis was on specific events. Even when there are specific references to years, generations and periods, they may relate to 'structural' and not chronological time. Noted that early African communities lacked the culture of proper documentation of events from time to time, however, in the course of writing and reconstruction of African past, science has helped through archaeological process in ensuring accuracy in the dating of historical events, specifically through a specialized approach called, Radio-carbon dating and stratification. The pertinence of archaeology is anchored on the fact that, it supplement the very meagre evidence provided through oral sources, reconstruct the pre-history period of Africa inadequately covered. Again, frailty of human memory makes it difficult to chronicle events in specific detail for more than four generations. Distortion is yet another limitation of oral tradition (as with written sources too). The historian encounters this problem when two societies give an account of the same events, thus the given evidence might conflict, or

even contradict at many points (**Osarhieme, 1993**). Irrespective of the fact that oral sources are faced with several problems such as; bias and distortions, giving indefinite and uncertain answers, inability to give chronology, superficiality and subject to change in the face of several social attitudes, the authenticity and influential utility of the oral sources have been affirmed by several scholars such as; J.F. Ade Ajayi, E.J. Alagoa, Robert Smith, J.A. Atanda, K.O. Dike.

Thirdly, the writing of African history is faced with the belief that changes in the history of Africa are anchored on external motivation. This was massively expressed by many European scholars, as they criticized African achievements, as feats beyond the abilities and capabilities of Africans. Some of these accomplishments range from the remarkable and outstanding architectural structures in places such as, Zimbabwe, Meroe and other parts of Africa. The assertion is called, Hamitic theories or hypothesis. They further criticized that Africa was structured into units that were conquered and civilized, thereby proving Africa as a passive beneficiary of historical changes. They also ascertained that, history only begins when men take to writing, as expressed by A.P. Newton, thereby equating written sources with history, as the absence of such written sources meant no history. However, these Hamitic claims were disproved by African Historians and scholars in their writings, such as; Omer-Cooper, Dike, Alagoa and Ade Ajayi.

Closely related to the aforementioned is the phenomenon of explanation within the context of historical scholarship. Based on this, two dominant schools exist on the concept of explanation in historical scholarship. Some scholars are of the opinion that history is focally concerned with the analytical description of particular events of the past and therefore, historians must search for general laws which might govern those events. Scholars from another school of thought argue that it is the duty of the historian to logically explain events and situations. The scholars who believe in general laws contend that general laws is a crucial instrument of historical research and that they even entail the entirety of the social sciences in contradiction to the natural sciences. The logical historians believe that it is not desirable to adopt any general law in history. Vividly, history is different from the natural sciences which are concerned with abstractions; and seeks to describe and explain what actually happened in the past. Therefore, since laws govern classes of things and historical events are unique, it is not possible for the historian to explain his subject matter with the application of laws. Pertinent to the problem of explanation in history is the status of accidents in history. The centrality here concerns the degree of pertinence to be accorded accidents in explaining the historical process. Certainly, accidents do occur in the course of history.

In addendum, the problem of objectivity has been a constant phenomenon in the course of historical scholarship. The controversy over objectivity centres mainly on what constitutes objectivity and the possibility of objectivity in historical scholarship. Herodotus, Leopold Von Ranke, Jeremy White, R.S. Smith, Robin Law, J.A. Atanda, J.F. Ade Ajayi and E. H. Carr who are scholars of the positivists' school have postulated the desirability and possibility of objectivity in historical reconstruction, though in varying extent. On the other hand however, scholars such as, William Dray, Scott Walsh, Sir Isaiah Berlin, Karl Popper, R.G. Collingwood, Leroy Johnson, and others within the Orthodox Marxists School submitted that objectivity in history is impossible (**Alao, 2006; Dray, 1966**). An empirical review of literatures on historical objectivity truly express that, absolute objectivity in history is simply an illusion. It must be noted that both European and African Scholars are prone to subjectivity. It should be stated that there are differing limitations to achieving objectivity in the course of historical scholarship. First, the emergence of new evidences which limits the possibility of absolute objectivity in history. Second, the nature of the historical past in itself makes historical objectivity certainly difficult. Historical events happen and vanish, leaving fragmentary evidences about the past. Unfortunately for the historian, the events of the past cannot be entirely reproduced and verified compared to the way the physicist reproduces and verifies his specimen. Third, selection of certain materials among many by the historian constitutes subjectivity in itself. Fourth, personal biases and prejudices on the part of the historian also pose limitation against objectivity in history. Lastly, conflicting theories of historical interpretation (e.g. empiricism, Marxism, Post-Modernism, Feminism, etc) make objectivity extremely difficult in historical scholarship. The contemporary historian is faced with numerous problems, technical and non-technical. First, he has to contend with the massive amount of data at his disposal. This problem is the expanded by the considerable attention from journalists which often results in an over-abundance of documentation.

Second, it is the problem of perspective. Third, the challenge of getting reliable evidence, and sometimes the undue influence of the government are critical issues in contemporary historical research. Fourth, difficulty arising from handling sensitive issues which may amount to domestic or international tensions. Lastly, so crucial is the fact of perennial danger that the historian may address his subject with his mind preconditioned by his personal idiosyncrasies since he might directly or indirectly be involved in the issues at hand (Ogen, 2006).

THE PERTINENCE OF HISTORY

“Those who have employed the study of history, as they ought, for their instruction, for the regulation of their private manners, and the management of public affairs, must agree with me that it is the most pleasant school of wisdom”

.....John Dryden

“Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it”

.....George Santayana

There is no doubt that history is useful, as it contributes its own quota to the general advancement of the society, hence, its pertinence as both; account of the past and as a discipline. Many people tend to have regard for other disciplines, at the expense of questioning the pertinence of History. Many scholars have expressed their opinions as regard the rate of disregard for History, as compared to the respect and support given to science. Arthur Marwick, Prof. Michael Omolewa, B.O. Oloruntimehin, and many other historians have expressed their reflections as regard the usefulness of history.

“When history was no longer an instrument of the Russian Communist Party, the party was doomed to failure.”

.....David Remnick

“A nation that forgets its past has no future”

.....Winston Churchill

Having considered the aforementioned assertions, Arthur Marwick (1986) was emphatic of the utility of history when he remarked that; *the necessity for history has two aspects. History is functional in the sense of meeting the need which society has to know itself and to understand its relationship with the past and with other societies and cultures. It is also poetic in the sense that there is inborn in almost every individual a curiosity and sense of wonder about the past.* It is also because of the immense contributions of history to the progress of mankind that all shades of people make reference to history.

Peter Stearns in his 1998 work, published by the American Historical Association titled '**Why Study History?**' submitted that;

People live in the present. They plan for and worry about the future. History, however, is the study of the past. Given all the demands that press in from living in the present and anticipating what is yet to come, why bother with what has been? Given all the desirable and available branches of knowledge, why insist—as most American [and, in this case, British] educational programs do—on a good bit of history? And why urge many students to study even more history than they are required to?

In the words of Carl Sagan, he opined; '**You have to know the past to understand the present**'. It should be noted that the usefulness of history cannot be over-emphasized. A crucial justification for the usefulness of history, can be attributed to the needs of the society, it strives to accomplish. However, the justifications for the usefulness of History can be expressed in the following.

Firstly, history helps to give a clear understanding of the past in order to direct the present and prepare the society for the future. This means that, the society needs to learn from its successes and failures of the past, so as to correct the present and plan for the future. In effect, the usefulness of history is underlined in the fact that, no society can do without its history. Basically, history is said to be the study of society in time perspective. It is generally believed that, a society that abandons its history is just gone for good and thereby slips into obscurity. This was well articulated in the words of Robert Smith, ***“.....there lies the possibility of extracting from the past, lessons for the present and future, and therefore a means of helping humanity in the understanding and handling of its problems.....”***

Secondly, history is useful in the sense that, it has been a principal medium for the transmission of culture. Noted that, Africans transmit culture through institutions and ceremonies as well as, court historians or chroniclers who are carefully trained to transmit historical facts in the palace. More so, it is important to note that history helps to promote understanding among the diverse elements of the society. It also promotes respect for the institutions and practices of such a society. It is stated that, through history, the society is able to explain how it conceives of the world in which the society or community is an integral part. The society is able to explain origins of differing components, basis of different laws and customs, as well as, the differing nature of customs, traditions, religion and politics.

Furthermore, history is useful in the integration of other disciplines. It has been expressed that other disciplines can be understood through history. Hence, the reason for the necessity to study the history of various disciplines to have an in-depth understanding of the discipline. The general usefulness is immense, as several people make references to history. This is in line with the moralizing role of history in the course of public administration, as it rings the awareness that posterity will definitely put their actions on trials.

In addition, the usefulness of history can be attributed to the society, irrespective of its level of advancement. This is underlined in the fact that, reference is made to historical judgments. It is used in making comparative analysis by historians, political scientists and scholars. It should be emphasized that, knowledge can only be gotten through the knowledge of history. History provides coming generations analysis of the achievements of great men which tend to inspire them, thereby learning from the lessons of history. Hence, the reason for Arthur Marwick, Becon and the Italian Historian, Cicero emphasis on the importance of history.

Also, the usefulness is expressed in the fact that, history is an instrument capable of creating and maintaining a distinctive identity. It provides a national ideology for the country. History is used to promote national integration and national consciousness. It acts as a practical guide to the problems of human society and politics.

Peter Stearns in his work summarized the usefulness of history. He opined that ***history helps to understand people and societies; understand change and evolution of societies; contribute to moral understanding; provides identity; provides essentiality for good citizenship; develop the world of works.***

Harlan Davidson in his 2000 work concluded on the utility of history. He submitted that ***history provides a sense of our own identity; helps to better understand the present; corrective for misleading analogies and lessons of the past; enable understanding of the tendencies of humankind, social institution and aspects of the human condition; helps to develop tolerance and open-mindedness; provides the basic background for many other discipline; entertains; and teaches many critical skills.***

The usefulness of history at every discourse and fora is such that it is far above infinitesimal. A legitimate justification for the usefulness of history can be explained in its impact on general development of the society. Hence, the causative of General Ibrahim Babangida conferment of the 1986 Nigerian National Merit Award on Professor J.F. Ade Ajayi. It should

be concluded that, *there is no way by which the individual or society can escape from history, as life is closely associated with history. History is said to be a living and dynamic reality.*

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FEMINAL RIGHTS, EMPOWERMENT AND PROTECTION

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ABSTRACT

The rights of the girl child, her empowerment and protection have always been a major deliberation in the world – especially in Africa. The African cultures and traditions have greatly affected feminism; the woman's rights and her protection. Women and girl children residing in some northern parts of Africa are more affected because they have little or no protection at all. They also don't have access to education – whether quality or otherwise. There is the socioeconomic need to continually uphold the rights of the girl child and the average woman in Africa. My paper, above all, tries to emphasize the important values, roles and inputs the girl child can add to one's country, continent and the world at large.

FEMINAL RIGHTS

These are the basic rights ascribed to the woman and girl child all over the world. They are formed consensually from women's rights movements in different parts of the world. In some countries, these laws are carried out as they are enshrined in their laws, local customs and day-to-day behaviours. But in some other countries, women and girl children are either ignored or suppressed usually because of inherent, historical and traditional practices. In these kinds of settings, there is a bias against the exercise of rights by women and girls – in favour of men and boys.

Issues commonly associated with feminine rights include the right to vote, right to hold public office, right to enter into legal contract, right to fair wages, right to own a property, right to work, right to bodily integrity and autonomy to be free from sexual violence, right to education and reproductive rights.

FEMINALEMPowerMENT

I would like to state the fact that women empowerment is a basic right which is paramount for the promotion of human development and growth especially in developing African countries. Women empowerment inspires women to take charge of their circumstances, drive impactful actions and be leaders to support themselves, their families and communities. It does not just increase women's access to income and assets – it also instills in them discipline and control over themselves and their needs in all aspects of life. That dictum comes to mind, if you empower a woman, you have empowered a nation.

FEMINAL PROTECTION

This is about preserving and cherishing what is most delicate and easily destroyed. Upholding that which is mostly needed and deeply felt. A woman should be protected – the girl child should be supported. Every conscious individual would speak up and stand for feminine values.

FACTORS THAT AFFECT AFRICAN WOMEN

Today in Africa, different factors impede the rights and development of the girl-child whilst affecting the older women. Let us consider some of these factors:

1. Lack of Education and Skills Development Trainings: The role of education and skills building in empowering women cannot be overstressed. Despite growing evidence of the positive outcomes of women's economic empowerment, many young girls and early-aged women across the continent continue to experience unequal access to education and skills development. They also face barriers to securing decent employment and opportunities to thrive as entrepreneurs.

2. No Access to Quality, Decent Paid Work: Training force offers a number of skills programmes to help skill unemployed or under-skilled individuals so that they can leverage existing opportunities and sustain long-term employments. This will undoubtedly improve their quality of life and help them become active members of the family and economy. However, the issue of sexual harassment – that is, women seen as sex tools – has made many women settle for less paid jobs so as to keep their self-respect and dignity.

3. No Access to Property Assets and Financial Services: A viral decades-old statistics based on sketchy research says “women are half of the world's population, working two-thirds of the world's working hours, receiving 10% of the world's income, owning less than 1% of the world's property”. Traditions and cultures have discriminatorily stopped women from owning properties and assets – whilst also making women's access to finance and financial services constantly behind that of their male counterparts. Women's financial inclusion thus requires bold and sustained action to advance women's economic opportunity and rights to ensure that they can meaningfully participate in their economies without undue constraints and barriers that limit their progress.

4. Collective Action and Leadership: Despite the outcome and success of women in economic and social development in Africa, most African traditions and cultures still frown at women empowerment. Rather, these traditions insist that women should stay in their place in the kitchen and bedroom – as President Muhammadu Buhari of Nigeria implied in an international function.

5. Social Protection: The lack of social protection of African women has led to the high rate of sexual harassment and rape in Africa. Whilst the government tries to encourage women empowerment, education and finances, some highly-placed individuals and officials still use this as a medium to sexually harass women – convincing them to concur with the notorious saying: “Use what you have to get what you want”.

6. Gender Norms and Discriminatory Social Norms: Gender inequality has become too brutal to humanity. It births certain terrible norms like Female Genital Mutilations (FGM), child marriage, girl-child and women illiteracies. These barbarisms have taken away the voices of women in the society, led to premature deaths, fostered incurable diseases from female genital mutilations, and brought about early child births.

OBSERVATIONS BY RESEARCH

According to a research on African women, cases as women empowerment, rights and protection are more severe in the northern regions of most African countries. Under the guise of religion, different treatments have been meted towards women. Some cultures and traditions have also allowed men to marry as many wives as they can afford to have. Some see their wives as sex tools, child bearing machines, slaves – constrained strictly to house chores. There is also that erroneous belief that the more wives you have capable you are as a man. But how does the number of wives relate to a man's wealth and prowess?

Many women are seemingly abused, insulted when they fail to give birth to a male child – and this in turn brings shame to her family. Other young girls are betrothed or engaged at early age or even child birth.

ARGUMENT

It is argued that trying to allow women empowerment, rights and protection paves room for the abandonment of the “ways of their fathers” – that have been preserved from generations past until now. It is also argued that empowering women with rights and certain protection make women lose respect for their husbands and families – which also allows the increase in divorce and women not marrying at all because of career drive.

I am not saying that the traditions should be thrown away – but they can be amended in favour of everybody with equity. If well traced, we will realise that many traditions have been amended in some ways – common to all is the change in dress code following colonization. The best option will be to amend the traditions in favour of all.

SUGGESTION AND WAY FORWARD

Solutions to most problems are implemented gradually. There is no denying the fact that many African countries and governments are already working towards this... From my stand, the solution to this is actually the reorientation of the mind-sets. A reorientation or orientation has to be done for traditional rulers in rural areas across the African continent. This can be implemented by government agencies – and best by Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Civil Societies because they have no barrier to where they can reach. Projects like LEAD INDIA which was initiated by an NGO in India is doing well to sensitise the entire Indian people. Something similar can also be replicated in African countries.

These traditional rulers – when reoriented – can use their authority to, in turn, sensitise their people and impose on their men, elders, fathers, kinsmen, and the entire community an amended tradition which will gradually pave way for change we want in Africa. This is how we can also realise The Africa We Want.

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THE BATONGA TRADITIONAL DISPUTE RESOLUTION IN TONGA COMMUNITIES: LESSONS FROM LUSULU COMMUNITY

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ABSTRACT

The article explores traditional perceptions of dispute resolution practices and strategies in resolving conflicts amongst the BaTonga communities in Binga which is in the north-western part of Zimbabwe. The paper follows a realization that the BaTonga community has an interesting dispute resolution mechanism which is predicated on the idea of Africa finding solutions to their problems in Africa's wisdom. The study on Zimbabwe endogenous conflict resolution mechanisms has received scant attention. The nature of disputes within the BaTonga community emanate mainly from resources competition characterized by competition over grazing lands during summer season, water scarcity, community boundary conflicts on farm lands, conflicts over, migration, power disputes arising from succession disputes, gender violence cases, promiscuity, common crimes like murder, theft inter alia. The study observes that BaTonga people have unique mechanisms of solving conflicts predicated upon the values of community integration and oneness. Conflicts resolution in BaTonga community values the wisdom and long lived expertise of the respected elderly people. The study is qualitative in nature supported by key informant interviews such as traditional chiefs and elders and deploys, in a broad sense, the ubuntu philosophy as a theoretical framework. The methodological section of this paper was drawn from Lusulu area under Chief Sinamamgonde. The paper unpacks how BaTonga dispute resolution mechanisms protect women and help in strengthening family-community relations. It is observed that community is determined to use its endogenous methods of resolution despite the fact that this has been under threat and assault from globalization and modernization which to some extent has contributed to them losing faith in their dispute resolution mechanisms. It makes an observation that for Africa to develop it needs to harness its principles of conflict resolution in solving disputes which have contributed to Africa lagging behind.

Key Words: BaTonga, Dispute resolution, Resource scarcity, Ubuntu Philosophy

INTRODUCTION

The study is carried out in Lusulu area found within the Binga district which is in the North-Western part of Zimbabwe. Lusulu is found between the astronomical grades of 18°6'33" and 27°49'56"E. The area has a remarkably favorable climate conditions in terms of rainfall patterns and good fertile soils which favors high crop yields. According to ZIMVAC report (2014), Lusulu is ranked as being a section that belongs to regions three when the whole of other Binga districts falls under region five in terms of rainfall patterns. In as much as the area receives favorable rainfall it has challenges of water scarcity as a result of lack of big rivers to hold water for bigger periods and lack of dams built within the area. Therefore community members rely on boreholes and wells as the source of their water.

Furthermore, the research on the minority group's forms of dispute resolution and how they contribute to development in Zimbabwe has received scant attention resulting in the shortage of literature on endogenous conflict resolution approaches from the Zimbabwean perspective. Studies on endogenous conflict resolution have been carried at the continental level where a whole lot of literature exists. It is observed that most of these forms of traditional dispute resolution have a main goal of cementing community relations. Quite a number of African countries have resorted to their traditional methods of conflicts resolutions to solve conflicts affecting their communities and to deal with post-war situations as a strategy to promote community integration and prevent their communities in degenerating into violent conflicts again. Therefore, methods such as Gacaca in Rwanda, Mato Oputi in Uganda, Judiya in South Sudan, court systems in Kenya, Gadaa in Ethiopia amongst others have proven how well these forms of dispute resolution can be utilized in resolving conflicts in a

manner which leads to community integration. This study is mindful of how the modern forms of dispute resolution have been employed in a way that undermines the effective role of traditional forms of dispute resolution. Boerge (2006) posits that traditional approaches are conquered and usurped in the process as they are translated into the language of western peace and conflict studies and hence adjusted into the ways that make them fit that language. **What has been observed is that the modern forms of resolution focus more on the punishment of the offender. While the western traditional system is based on punishment; the African traditional system is more concerned with reintegration of the offender into the community (Utne, 2001). Therefore this paper sets out to explore how BaTonga adopt their endogenous dispute resolution mechanisms in order to promote community integration.**

Furthermore, there is a link in the nature and sources of conflict around African communities and the nature in which these are resolved. Most of these conflicts include, clash over scarcity of resources such as water and land for farming, misallocation of resources, pastoral conflicts, conflicts over borderlines amongst others and these are mostly visible in the horn of Africa (Muchie and Bayeh, 2005). These are visible within the BaTonga community in Binga. In the same vein, a plethora of similar strategies have been employed to resolve these cases. Traditional conflict resolutions are practices of attending to conflicts using mechanisms that are traditionally embedded in the cultures and lives of the local people (Dodo, 2015: xii). For this reason the study unpacks how BaTonga in Binga have utilized their traditional forms of dispute resolution as opposed to using modern forms of dispute resolution.

METHODOLOGY

The study uses qualitative methodology based on a largely descriptive design and relies on primary data. The qualitative paradigm is appropriate because it provides a detailed description of relations within the BaTonga community. Primary data was collected and gathered through observation and in depth interviews. A total of 12 respondents were interviewed and amongst them included traditional leaders in the form of village heads, elders including women, and other gatekeepers. The study collected data under chief Sinamagonde in Lusulu area. The knowledge of the chiefs and other community elders was important since their wisdom and experience is the one that informs the dispute resolution process, while academics provided a deep background of the BaTonga Culture and their relations based on their knowledge and analysis. The study adopted a purposive sampling technique drawing key respondents as discussed earlier on. Since the researcher was Ndebele, he used other Tonga people who could also articulate fluently both in Ndebele and English as there were some who could not articulate their views well in both Ndebele and English. The help received from the interpreter helped the researcher to yield more data as interviews were undertaken in the locally understood Tonga language.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

It has been noticed in past and recent history that African traditional methods of solving disputes are informed by love, care and kindness. This resonates with the BaTonga traditional dispute resolution mechanism as it is highly grounded on the same idea of love and care. In this regard, the paper employs Ubuntu philosophy as a main theoretical framework to help unpack how the BaTonga uses their traditional mechanisms in solving conflicts within their society. Using Ubuntu philosophy to explain traditional dispute resolution process and strategies within the BaTonga, one gleans that the philosophy is carefully chosen and befitting to be used as it deploys in it the major ideals of philanthropy and collective responsibility. Ubuntu is an endogenous perspective of South African peoples that connotes a collective responsibility among human beings to distribute naturally and spiritually the life force for common benefit (McCandles, 2007). For endogenous dispute resolution to be effective and successful, they need a broad sense of collectivism and togetherness amongst actors involved.

The *ubuntu* philosophy is used on a daily basis to settle disputes and conflicts at different levels on the continent and is therefore central to the idea of reconciliation (Nabudere, 2005). Ubuntu philosophy is a philosophy of reconciliation and cements crumbling society together. From this dimension, the BaTonga dispute resolution adopts an inclusivity approach to contradictions (McCandless et al, 2007). The conflict resolution is inclusive in the sense that when the BaTonga solves

conflict, there is full respect and participation and goal to cement the society together. The nature of conflicts in African societies have post repercussions which can degenerate into the crumbling of the community if it's not handled properly. As a result, solving disputes informed by Ubuntu philosophy is crucial as it helps to provide African communities with a sense of self identity, self-respect and achievement, (Nabudere, 2005). The success and importance of Ubuntu philosophy has been highly applicable and its results remarkably tested in recent African situations that were characterized by high contradictions. For example the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) was highly informed by this philosophy. On the same note, one does well to recall the words of Arch Bishop Desmond Tutu cited in Manda (2009) where he said that Africans have this thing called *Ubuntu* the essence of being human, It embraces hospitality, caring about others, and willing to go the extra mile for the sake of others". Using the Ubuntu philosophy, the study explores how BaTonga people solve conflicts using their endogenous processes and strategies.

THE NATURE AND SOURCES OF CONFLICTS IN BINGA COMMUNITIES

Just like other communities in Zimbabwe and Africa at large, the BaTonga communities are faced with challenges of different kinds of conflicts each with its own dynamics and dimension requiring a unique approach to resolving it. These conflicts have contributed to the backwardness of the African continent, for instance Africa is haunted by civil wars resulting in the loss of lives and destruction of property and infrastructure. Using primary data obtained during the field work, the study argues that BaTonga Community in Lusulu area experiences a multifaceted nature of conflicts. Using participant observation and views from key respondents, the study observes that conflicts arise over scarcity of resources in the area. The community is characterized by competition over water resources for human consumption and daily use as well as for livestock during the dry season, competition for grazing lands and farm land. The problems of resources scarcity in the community over mainly access to fertile farm land, grazing lands and water scarcity has posed challenges of community disintegration hence the community try by all means possible to adopt strategies that cement their society together using the community's own tested conflict resolution mechanisms.

Furthermore, there is a challenge of community boundary and conflict resulting from issues of spatiality. One of the respondents argued that, Lusulu Area is bequeathed by challenges of unclearly defined borderlines over farm land, grazing lands, homestead and boundaries (Respondent). This challenge has seen other community members crossing perceived borderlines to other community member's space. The challenges of lack of space result in other members forcing themselves into other people space demanding a portion of farm land, grazing land and space to build their homesteads. Key to note is the strategic location of Lusulu area which receives favorable rainfalls, good fertile lands resulting in high crop yields. This has attracted inward migration as people come to Lusulu in search of good climatic conditions in Lusulu community. The challenges of migration are arguably the most glaring factor that result in population explosions which in turn exert pressure on the available community resources posing problems of resource scarcity that has escalated conflicts in the community. Due to favorable condition, the community has received BaTonga People migrating from deep Zambezi valley where they lived as fisher men, and Shona people migrating from Gokwe who come in search of fertile soils for cotton crop production. Due to shortage of space these migrants have forcibly situated themselves in places reserved as grazing lands and game parks for the community. Upon forcibly situating in this area, the area assumed new name as *Makalanguzu (which means live in the area by force)*. Migrants have set up new homesteads in these areas and in the process creating a conflict between the Lusulu dwellers over their own reserved grazing lands and game parks. Ever since they began living in these areas, animals have migrated to deep *chizarira* game-park and only few wild animals are seen like hares, and antelopes. This was a community area which harbored a plethora of small and big wild animals. This entails the extent of the new kind of conflict between the people and wild animals as they lacked a space to live in.

BATONGA DISPUTE RESOLUTION MECHANISMS

Research findings and observations revealed that BaTonga community is largely maternal, but just like other African communities the male figure head is much revered and respected although women especially grandmothers and aunties maybe consulted from time to time with regards to counseling and healing of post traumatic disorders. Also the BaTonga

are viewed as one of the most dedicated groups to forms of traditional dispute resolution despite the fact that they are becoming educated and exposed to the western and modern forms of resolutions. Therefore conflicts are resolved using these mechanisms despite their complexity. One Village Head estimated that at least three quarters of the Tonga still employ their traditional resolution approaches in resolving disputes because of the realization that the western forms led to disintegration of families, community and continued conflicts.

Mediation is another key mechanism employed by the BaTonga. Adjabena (2007) posits that mediation is generally understood as an opportunity for parties in dispute to voluntarily select and invite a neutral third party to help or assist in communicating and exploring viable options to conclusively resolve their dispute amicably. This form of mediation is referred to as *Busingeda/Busitotombo*. Following this process the mediator does not judge or give a final ruling but he or she is there to facilitate smooth flow of communications between disputing parties and the parties remain in control of the outcome. The nature of conflict involves the disputes at family level with the mediator usually chosen from a distant relative known as *Basizilongo* whom the disputing parties perceive as neutral. The mediation helps both parties to achieve a win-win situation which will then inform the relationship building amongst disputing parties. The facilitation makes sure that the victims do not lose much and at the same time the offender does not gain much at the expense of the victim. In proceeding with the argument, it has been observed that the BaTonga have a unique traditional mediation process which takes an advisory form that aims at restoring relationships and salvaging the disintegration of families, society. Above all, this is characteristics of Ubuntu philosophy which is informed by love, unity, harmony and good relationship and not disintegration. As a result, the mediation is there to maintain the spirit of communitarianism and collectivism.

The BaTonga uses traditional courts as one of the key mechanism in resolving conflicts. This concept is known as *Inkuta* in BaTonga language. One of the village heads posited that the chiefs or village heads supersede disputes that have failed in family level and sometimes believed to be disturbing community peace. Cases that have been solved through this systems include conflicts over grazing lands and when another family's livestock eat the crops of another community member and that person requires compensation for the loss of their crops; borderlines in terms of farm boundaries and homestead boundaries, theft amongst others. Adjabena (2007) concurs with the above idea by arguing that when family fails, the clan head is called to help, the last resort is normally the chief who gives a final and a binding determination. During *inkuta* process the family members of disputing parties are silent only elders or the chief's elderly council plays a mediating role. Ijeomaononogbu (2012); postulates that elders are seen as the custodian of justice in the dispute resolution process. Elders are important because they are believed to know all through their wisdom and lived experience. Boerge (2006, p. 9) alludes that "elders are highly esteemed for their knowledge of customs, myths and the history of the community, their rich experience in conflict regulation, their skills in setting signs of reconciliation and their skills of oratory empowers them to negotiate a resolution to the conflict that is more acceptable to both parties. In solving the disputes, the court will ask the source of the problem from both parties and this will be followed by a systematic interrogation based on wisdom and experience. Therefore the quoting of wise words during the mediation process helped to make traditional dispute resolution successful. This is usually through the quotation of Tonga proverbs because this appeals to the senses and emotions which lead to forgiveness.

Central to the above, the offender pays compensation known as *luliyo lwankuta* which is paid in form of livestock. Compensation is a way of showing that the offender is sorry and the community accepts them back to the society (Muchie & Bayeh, 2015). The notion of Ubuntu sheds light on the importance of peacemaking through principles of shared destiny between people; it provides a value system for giving and receiving forgiveness. Therefore compensation provides a rationale for sacrificing or letting go of the desire to take revenge for past wrongs. Something to observe is that compensation is not punishment given to the offender but restitution as a way of reconciling the perpetrator back into the society.

The BaTonga also performs ritual ceremony as a way of dispute resolution. The occurrence of disputes such as clash amongst family members, domestic violence cases within the family or community is perceived as misfortune that require the consultation of ancestors or a sign that the gods or ancestors are angry thus, there is need to perform an appeasing ceremony. The BaTonga performs an appeasing ceremony known as *kupiila* where they appeal to the ancestors by the drinking of beer. The ceremony is conducted at both family and community level. The informant asserted that beer is usually put in a clay pot known as *inongo* and they drink it using the *lufulo* (gourd). At the family level the grand father is the one who oversees the ceremony. The drinking of beer is a symbolic agreement between the families in an effort to restore peace through forgiveness and forgetting. After the drinking of beer and consultation of ancestors the offender becomes accepted back to the community or family. As a result the ceremony is a tool for relationship building. The consultation of the ancestors makes the agreement to be legally binding because whatever their ancestors say is believed to be true and cannot be challenged by any human personality. Also, their strong devotion to their ancestors makes the performance and consultation of ancestors to be a successful traditional dispute resolution within the BaTonga. Others referred to it as a ceremony of purification and healing at the same time solving the disputes and often times carried out by customary healers and this is performed at a community level.

In addition, negotiation is another method that informs the BaTonga dispute resolution process. The parties in dispute will battle until middle ground is reached where proposals are made based on parties in compromise on issues in dispute. The term negotiation is known as *kwambulilana kuti mumvwanane* (negotiation so that we come to an agreement), this means that they will argue without a third party until they come out with a resolution which they perceive to be supporting to both parties. One of the informants emphasized that BaTonga tradition emphasized that negotiations between the disputing parties should come first, especially if the cases involve husband and wife or clash over spatiality problems before being taken either to extended family level or community level where there will be the services of the local chief or head of community.

The family extended system plays a central role in cases related to domestic violence. Domestic violence cases especially wife battering and substance abuse within the BaTonga has been resolved through the extended family system. The most consulted or those who inform the dispute resolution are the head of the family, the uncles and aunties and in some cases grandmothers. For that reason gender violence such as wife battering and other domestic violence acts are usually solved through this system. The head of the family usually is the one who makes the final ruling in such a resolution whilst the uncles and aunties are believed to be the ones closest and usually responsible for counselling post traumatic disorders. At the end of the dispute resolution if the men truly committed this violent act, men's family pays and the man would be compensated if the claims are found false.

CONCLUSION

Disputes within the BaTonga are viewed as a virus that can infect the whole community if not properly handled. As a result, it is the duty of the community to stop it before it contaminates the whole society. The BaTonga traditional forms of dispute resolution have been the most trusted in resolving conflicts of different natures within the BaTonga in Binga because they believe that the endogenous mechanism preserves the 'community order'. Furthermore the BaTonga believe in a sense of shared destiny therefore whenever disputes arise they search for consensus based forms of dispute resolution that are informed by a sense of collective responsibility, self-respect and shared destiny. The lack of BaTonga support to the modern and western forms of dispute resolution regardless of globalization is premised on the idea that western and modern approaches are more punitive which then leads to continued conflict and disintegration of families and distortion of community peace.

RECOMMENDATION

The paper recommends further research and exploration into minority groups' methods of conflict resolution. This recommendation is made as these minority groups have interesting dispute resolutions mechanisms that can be harnessed

by the state in nation building and cementing relationships which is pivotal in conflict management and transformation. The study further recommends that state, provincial and district bodies should put in place measures to educate people about the usefulness of utilizing their endogenous dispute resolution before looking for other forms of solutions that may end up tearing family and community relationships apart leading to disintegration. At the continental level, African governments should promote the use of endogenous conflict resolution strategies in solving disputes which in turn promote the development of the continent.

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BALANCING INWARD ORIENTED STRATEGIES WITH OUTWARD ORIENTED STRATEGIES: A CASE FOR NIGERIA'S INDUSTRIALIZATION

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ABSTRACT

The World Bank has over the years urged poor nations to adopt development strategies which emphasize export promotion. The first group of developing countries to shift from an inward-oriented to outward-oriented approach to development were located in the far east, specifically Taiwan, Singapore and South Korea. But, with export-led growth, firms produce according to their long-term comparative advantage. Nigeria in recognition of the importance of industrialization to economic growth and development has adopted various policies, incentives and schemes since her independence to promote industrialization. This paper therefore posited that there is more than one approach to the problem rocking Nigeria's economy as the nation could capitalize on its areas of comparative advantages. The paper concluded that primary products (food, commodities etc.) exports should be discouraged as products that are un-branded and homogeneous have low-added value and therefore low-price.

Key Words: Import Substitution; Export Promotion; Economic Development; Developing Countries, Industrialization

INTRODUCTION

Why do some countries develop more than others? Do their strategies in regard to international trade have a role to play or not? During the 1950s and 1960s, developing countries experienced a decline in world markets for their primary products, deterioration in terms of trade and growing deficits in their balance of payments. Similarly, classical economists brand the manufacturing sector an engine of growth. This sector relatively generates increasing returns in the long-run not only within the sector itself but also in the other major sectors, which is raising productivity as output expands (Weiss, 1999).

Given the general belief in the efficacy of industrialisation, less developed countries (LDCs) adopted two alternative strategies for achieving industrialisation: inward-looking strategies which has Import Substitution (IS) as key and outward-looking strategies which has Export Promotion (EP) at its core (World Bank 1987).

Inward looking strategies were typical of the general approach to development which dominated thinking after the Second World War. This approach is both interventionist and protectionist, and guided policy making in many African and Latin American countries. Thus, an inward oriented policy is often designated as the import substitution strategy which meant encouraging the development of domestic industry "under cover" of protective barriers, such as tariffs, quotas etc. Inward looking policies did generate some short term benefits, such as the protection of infant and declining industries; job creation; increased income and preserving traditional ways of life (Oxford Analytica, 2014).

The IS strategy is an attempt to replace commodities that are being imported, usually manufactured consumer goods, with domestic sources of production and supply by erecting tariff barriers or quotas on certain imported commodities, then, try to set up a local industry to produce these goods. In short, this strategy uses tariffs, import-quotas and subsidies to promote and protect import-substitute industries (Rodrik, 1995).

However, the consensus is that the challenges of globalisation require a more outward looking approach as inward-looking economies are likely to have overvalued exchange rates because imports have been restricted. A country which is seeking to enter the world export markets will have to devalue the currency to make its would-be exporters more competitive. Also, the initial costs of production may be higher than former import prices. The economic rationale put forward for the establishment of import substituting manufacturing operations is either that the industry will eventually be able to reap the

benefits of large-scale production and lower costs (the so-called infant industry argument for tariff protection) or that the balance of payments will improve due to imports of fewer consumer goods. Eventually, it is hoped, the infant industry will grow up and be able to compete in world markets. It will then be able to generate net foreign exchange earnings once it has lowered its average cost of production (Rodrik, 1999).

INWARD ORIENTED STRATEGIES

In the post-World War II (1939-45) period, many Developing Countries (DCs), after achieving independence, tried to reduce their reliance on imports, focused on IS policies, and a few, like Brazil, had a short period of success following this strategy. But, by and large, the countries following these strategies stagnated or grew very slowly. Import Substitution strategy is a strategy for economic growth and development which believes in protecting domestic producers from foreign competition by substituting domestic production of goods previously imported with domestic sources of production and supply and then substitute through domestic production for a wider range of more sophisticated manufactured items by levying tariffs and imposing quotas on some commodities then try and set up a local industry to produce those goods (Weiss, 1988).

The idea behind this is to raise the price for domestic substitutes of the imported goods and to protect infant industries as it was believed developing economies would grow faster if they forced their economies to expand their industrial sectors and will achieve faster growth which is well worth the short- run cost of lost international trade (Sunkel, 1990).

The economies that abandoned import substitution earliest such as Korea and Taiwan became the most rapidly growing, and now nearly developed economies. Those that held on to import-substitution policies the longest, such as economies in Africa and South Asia, have been the slowest growing economies of the world. As a result, the protected industries have failed to become competitive. Even more importantly, the protected industries have used much of their resources to accumulate political power allowing them to gain significant control over policy making (Shafaeddin, 2005).

An import substitution (IS) strategy has three main advantages:

1. The market for industrial product already exists, as evidenced by imports of the commodity. So risks are reduced in setting up an industry to replace imports.
2. It is easier for DCs to protect their domestic market against foreign competition than to force developed nations to lower trade barriers against their manufactured exports.
3. Foreign firms are induced to establish so-called tariff factories to overcome the tariff walls of DCs (Bhagwati, 1978).

Against these advantages are the following disadvantages:

1. Domestic industries can grow by being accustomed to protection from foreign competition and have no incentive to become more efficient.
2. Import substitution can lead to inefficient industries because the narrow size of the domestic market in many DCs does not allow them to take advantage of economies of scale. Moreover, after certain simple manufactured imports are replaced by domestic production, further import substitution of more advanced products becomes more and more difficult and costly in terms of requirements for technology and capital (Michaely, 1986).
3. After the simpler manufactured imports are replaced by domestic production, IS becomes much more difficult and costly (in terms of higher protection and inefficiency) as more capital-intensive and technologically advanced imports have to be replaced by domestic production (Weiss, 1988).

OUTWARD ORIENTED STRATEGIES

In late nineties, more countries changed their economic policies from inward looking to outward looking based on the experience of Brazil, Columbia and South Korea. Mexico also lowered its imports in the 1980s and joined the US and Canada in a free trade area in the 1990s. They achieved economic growth by focusing on increasing exports and thus

exports revenue is injected into domestic economy and increases national income (Weiss, 1999).

An outward oriented strategy is the one in which trade and industrial policies do not discriminate between production for domestic goods and foreign goods. It emphasises participation in international trade by encouraging the allocation of resources to export-oriented industries without price distortions. This strategy focuses on policy measure such as export subsidies, encouragement of skill formation in the labour force and the use of more advanced technology, and tax concessions to generate more exports, particularly labour intensive manufactured exports in accordance with the principle of comparative advantage (Rodrik, 1995).

Advantages

1. With export-led growth, firms produce according to their long-term comparative advantage. This is not current (static) comparative advantage, based on existing resources and knowledge. It is dynamic comparative advantage, based on acquired skills and technology, and recognition of the importance of learning-by-doing of the improvement in skills and productivity that comes from repetitive performance and production experience. With exports, the demand for the goods produced by DCs is not limited by the narrow size of their domestic market (Rodrik, 1995).
2. The advocates of export-led growth also believe that the competitive pressure generated by the export market is an important stimulus to efficiency and modernisation. The only way a firm can succeed in the face of intense international competition is to produce what consumers want, at the quality they want, and at the lowest possible costs (Oxford Analytica, 2014).
3. Export-oriented industrialisation overcomes the smallness of the domestic market and allows DCs to take advantage of economies of scale. The expansion of manufactured exports is not limited (as in the case of IS) by the growth of domestic market. This is particularly important for many developing countries that are both very poor and small (Osorio-Rodarte, 2013).

Disadvantages

1. It may be very difficult for LDCs to set up industries that can compete at international level because of the competition from the more established and efficient industries in developed nations (*The Economist*, 2000).
2. Developed nations often provide a high level of effective protection for their industries producing simple labour-intensive commodities in which LDCs already have or can soon acquire a comparative advantage (*The Economist*, 2000).
3. Protectionist Barriers: The expansion of manufactured exports, such as that attained by Hong Kong, South Korea, Singapore and Taiwan (the “four Asian Tigers”) can run into protectionist barriers in the industrialised countries. Since the labour-intensive manufactured exports pose a threat to well-established industries in industrialised countries (e.g., textiles-and shoes) (Rodrik, 1995).

IMPLICATION FOR NIGERIA

In recognition of the importance of industrialization to economic growth and development, Nigeria since her independence has adopted various policies, incentives and schemes to promote industrialization. Some of these policies include the import substitution that gained currency in 1960s, indigenization policy that started in 1972. Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) of the late 1980; in 2000, Bank of Industry (BOI) and small and medium equity investment scheme were established to reduce credit constraint faced by entrepreneurs. And in 2007, the Federal government adopted the National Integrated Industrial Development (NIID) blue print (Razzaque *et al.*, 2008).

Earlier in the decades of 1970s, 1980s and beyond, Nigeria sought to borrow from various bilateral and multinational donors in order to finance wealth creation and to promote the industrialization process which led to debt of billions of dollars. It happened that Nigeria economy accumulated a lot of debt to the tune of tens of billions of dollars. This debt crisis has the major impeding factor to the nation industrialization processes (Henning *et al.*, 2002).

The political maladies that are facing Nigeria have also acted as another impediment to industrialization process. It may also be observed that for most of Africa's post-independence period, the continent in general appeared to be a late comer as well as an inferior actor in the international political economy due to its inability to play a leading role as far as international trade and trading regimes are concerned. Throughout the 1960s through to the 1990s, the international trading system was under the control of the developed countries of the North under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) arrangement (Jha, 2008). This system generally failed to create a governable environment as far as the place of Africa and the rest of the Third World are concerned. The World Trade Organisation (WTO) formed in 1994 also failed which replaces (GATT). International market shocks, as well as international trade regimes beyond Africa's control have continued to act as a major setback to Africa's industrialization process (Bach, 1998).

Since 2001, the African Union (AU) sought to rejuvenate African's industrialization through a number of initiatives; the most outstanding was the New Partnership for Africa's Development otherwise known as (NEPAD) which was a product of the millennium partnership for the Africa Recovery Programme (MAP) and the OMEGA plan (Henning et al., 2002).

And finally, Nigeria ranks 154 out of 185 countries according to World Bank on the level of development of international trade. Nigeria has been experiencing economic famine (Razzaque et al., 2008). And according to naij.com, as a response policy, the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) recently issues a directive stopping some imported goods (Rice, Cement, Margarine, Palm kernel/Palm oil products/vegetables oils, Meat and processed meat products etc.) from the list of items valid for forex in the Nigerian Foreign Exchange Markets which implies that, importers of these items can no longer buy foreign currency from the official window to pay the overseas suppliers and has to rely on parallel market or Bureau De Change to pay for their imports which buttresses the fact that the nation has been ineffective in its policy approach.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite using several policies and strategies to address Nigeria's industrialization challenges, there are still a lot of controversies as to how industrialization should be achieved. It is against this background therefore that the way out of economic debacle for Nigeria is presented:

1. Primary products (farm produce, minerals etc.) exports should be discouraged as products that are un-branded and homogeneous, have low valued added, and therefore low-price. Also, primary products have low income and price elasticity, which means that, as world incomes rise, proportionately less income is allocated to primary products, and more is allocated to manufactured goods, and services. These analyses contribute to the general view that it is dangerous for Nigeria to rely on agriculture without value addition to secure growth and development. This means encouraging countries to stop importing goods with increasing terms of trade, and develop their own industrial base so that they can produce these goods for themselves.
2. If a government does not provide support to a steel industry then it is unlikely that an automobile industry that needs fabricated metals as its inputs would get it easily. According to Stiglitz and Charlton in *Fair Trade for All*, Japanese government initially cultivated heavy industries such as steel, aluminium, car and ship-building in the post-war period and then expanded credits to support more advanced industries including electronics and semi-conductors (Valdez and Zietz, 1980).
3. Newly established industries may benefit from favourable change in comparative advantages but they need to go through a period of learning before they can compete in the global market. Thus, protection is essential to help these industries to learn and acquire new know-how.
4. Increase in national incomes should be invested into maintaining and providing infrastructure, education, sanitation and healthcare as well as providing a means to distribute this increased income to the poor.
5. Trade liberalization cannot only ensure economic growth. It must therefore be complemented with investment in education, infrastructure as well as regulatory effectiveness (Stiglitz and Charlton, 2003)
6. Nigeria could capitalize on its comparative advantage by:
 - Cooperating with other developing countries; this could be done through regional cooperation such as in the case

of Asian Free Trade Area

- Joining and carrying out workable international commodity agreement, (e.g. to avoid low commodity prices)
- Securing greater access to markets in developed nations through bilateral agreements with EU or through multilateral agreements through WTO
- Cooperating with other developed countries to use Nigeria resources as part of local content requirements

CONCLUSION

There is more than one approach to the problem ravaging Nigeria's economy. While protectionist policy will work for some sectors, others may require export subsidy, but it is vital to craft new industrial development policies within the context of the present realities as was done in the United States, during the so called financial crisis.

Although countries that have built their development efforts around import substitution have experienced grave problems, it is still possible to pursue the policy in a more satisfactory manner while at the same time promoting exports as the need for the both are not mutually exclusive (Jha, 2008). As Masina (2006) indicated, the East Asian countries that became economically successful used a combination of selective import substitution and export promotion policies tailored to their national industrial strategies.

The overall lessons from countries reviewed suggest that neither strategy can bring desired results when pursued in isolation. Rather, strategies have to be fine-tuned to economic, social and political reality of the country in question (Bruton, 1998).

And finally, Nigeria has so far lacked vision and there are doubt whether the current government has one or know how to implement same if it does. The question has continued to be what does Nigeria want to be known for? Does Nigeria want to become a tourist centre? Does Nigeria want to become the West and Central Africa's central manufacturing capital? Does Nigeria wish to become the food basket of Sub-Sahara Africa? Does Nigeria wish to become the information technology giant of the continent? Or does Nigeria wish to become a combination of these, or some of them and others?

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AfCFTA 2018: THE CONTINENTAL FREE TRADE AREA, NEO-LIBERALISM AND AFRICA'S RESOURCE CURSES

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ABSTRACT

In March 2018, 44 Member States of the African Union signed up to the African Continental Free Trade Agreement (AfCFTA) in Kigali, Rwanda. There are many legal, social and policy issues to consider whenever Africa discusses either free trade or resource governance. There have been grave economic miscalculations in Africa's history. The article argues for a central emphasis on Pan-African economic and social solidarity and takes a frank look at some of the fundamental principles guiding contemporary neo-liberal economic institutions and critiques how these have treated Africa and African resources. The article describes some of the challenges and opportunities presented by free trade agreements and proffers some recommendations. This article also outlines principles guiding international trade in light of the relationships between such trade and the exploitation of Africa's resources. Above all, the article calls for vigilance against neoliberalism and argues for strengthened Pan-African economic and social solidarity.

Key Words: AfCFTA, African Union, free trade, resource curse, Pan-Africanism

INTRODUCTION

The African Continental Free Trade Agreement (AfCFTA), has just been signed and it is still too early to evaluate whether the agreement offers tangible progress to societal development, environmental justice, small businesses and the ordinary peoples of Africa. After all, there had been neo-liberal 'free trade' agendas that have not been helpful in the past. The AfCFTA, adopted in March 2018 in Rwanda has been said to present a forward leap in continental economic and trade policy and law formulation. At least 44 African Union (AU) member States signed up to the idea of a continental free trade area, following up on a plan envisaged by the 1991 Abuja Treaty for the Establishment of the African Economic Community. The AfCFTA requires members States to remove tariffs from 90% of goods and to encourage free access to products, services, and commodities. At the same Summit, 47 States also signed up to the Kigali Declaration and 30 States to a Free Movement Protocol. The summit indeed presented interesting ideas on Africa's future economic and social direction.

But is the continental free trade area just another 'free-trade' idea in the full concept of neo-liberal free market systems, and what exactly is in store for the never-ending resource curse problem? Africa is a continent that is heavily reliant on natural resources, in the form of agricultural produce, energy sources, and precious minerals. Investments in the sectors have left legacies of disempowerment, environmental damage, injustice, economic crisis and human rights violation. Major conflicts have also raged over resource control. The agreement, signed in accordance with Article XXIV of the World Trade Organisation's General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT) is therefore supposed to present opportunities for terminating resource curses on the one hand and developing Africa according to the dictates of Pan-African economic and social solidarity on the other.

African leaders must be on the lookout for the loopholes that cause resource curses dilemma in such significant economic landmarks. Resources can be blessings or curses depending on the mindset of leaders (Van der Ploeg, 2011). The laws governing trade and investment in Africa have been mainly influenced by Western institutions which in turn were mostly inspired by the *laissez-faire* philosophy of Adam Smith. Hence the concept of 'free trade' means minimising governmental interference in the business sectors, and this usually benefits multinational investors. Neoliberalism and the free market have manifestly failed to provide solutions for inequality, exploitation, environmental damage, and conflict. This paradox

led scholars to coin the concept of the resource curse. In simple terms, a resource curse occurs when a State has abundant natural resources but, instead of economic, political and social development, undergoes massive severe underdevelopment and usually tyranny. Richard Auty (1993) is the first person to coin the term 'resource curse' when he highlighted that 'new evidence suggests that not only may resource-rich countries fail to benefit from a favourable endowment, they may actually perform worse than well-endowed countries.' (Auty, 1993, p 2). Scholars have come up with various theories for the anomaly, including the rentier state theory where States get revenue from resources and provides basic goods for the people and on that basis, expects the people to be subservient. (Bearce & Laks Hutnick, 2011, p 690).

A preferable economic agreement is one with Pan-African principles of economic and social solidarity. There is need to ensure that the continental free trade area will not perpetuate the economic and social inequality currently evident in African society. The dire situation of the continent is apparent from the reports of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Life expectancy indexes show that at least 35 of the 40 states classified as having 'very low human development' are African. (UNDP, 2016). This position necessitates the need for credible safeguards in future economic and social planning and trade agreements to move the continent away from the poverty and 'race to the bottom' tragedies of the past.

THE NATURE OF THE CONTEMPORARY INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC SYSTEM

The insatiable needs and exploitative nature of modern economic system usually drive the creation of international economic and trade institutions. The past 250 years of the human race, saw the development of the current economic system of capitalism. Under capitalism, Africa has been on the receiving end of imperialism, slavery, colonisation, and neo-colonialism. These forms of economic and political exploitation served to nurse the insatiable needs of the capitalist mode of production, namely markets and raw materials.

International economic laws and institutions, like other fields of international law, are supposed to be based on the concept of State sovereignty, which means States have the right to shape their economic and political destinies (Charter of Economic Rights and Duties of States, art 1). Bilateral and multilateral trade agreements are supposed to abide by the same principle. This concept has unfortunately proven to be a lie since poor States usually find themselves with just token political sovereignty and zero economic independence. The full wrath of capitalist sanctions can meet those who resist.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE INSTITUTIONS AND AFRICA'S RESOURCES

In the midst of Africa's plenty resources, there have been problems regarding strife, autocratic rule, and poverty which is the resources curse described above. The story of Africa's resources and international trade has almost been an absurdity, at least since the advent of colonialism.

With the coming of the AfCFTA, critical questions to ask are: What has changed from the past? Or instead what change is coming with the AfCFTA?

The way individual African states have been dealing with investors have proven detrimental to their revenue bases. Shared experiences may be one of the ways of lifting Africa from the quagmire of underdevelopment. To take the example of Zimbabwe, the State recently faced a lawsuit when its revenue authority tried to impose a more beneficial tax rate rather than the peanuts contained in an ill-advised contract from the 1990s. (*ZIMPLATS v ZIMRA & Another*; 2015).

This article will go on to examine the impact of the leading economic and trade institutions and their impact on Africa and Africa's resources. International economic and trade institutions are primarily concerned with the profit, rather than people, in this case, ordinary Africans.

The World Trade Organisation (WTO)

The WTO is the top neo-liberal global body tasked with facilitating trade relations between States. The body is a product of the Uruguay Round of trade negotiations held between 1986 and 1994. The WTO considers itself to be more democratic than other international economic institutions such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). The body bases the claim on having Member States making decisions without delegating power to executive boards as is the case with the World Bank and the IMF. However, the WTO serves the interests of investors since they are the primary beneficiaries of open markets and free trade. Furthermore, the policies of the WTO rarely cater for social and environmental needs. Abumere (2015) rightfully dismisses the presumed innocence of the WTO and argues that: 'Just like IMF and World Bank, the World Trade organisation (WTO) has the capacity to cause its own fair share of damage especially.' (Abumere, 2015, p 85).

The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)

The GATT outlines the purpose of free trade agreements to be 'increasing freedom of trade by the development, through voluntary agreements, of closer integration between the economies of the countries parties to such agreements' (GATT, art XXIV (4)). Under the WTO, GATT contains the primary rules that govern international trade. It is in this scenario that the GATT provides guidance on the creation of customs unions and free trade agreements.

The main shortcoming of GATT is that, beyond its Article XX, it does not provide safeguards for environmental protection. The GATT/WTO system does not concern itself with people welfare and the eradication of environmental injustice or resource curses. The only slight concession a little space given for States to make exceptions on global trade measures when it is 'necessary to protect human, animal or plant life or health' (GATT, art XX (b)). This Article XX (b) provision is the sole exception that the African States can rely upon to protect the free trade area against environmental damage and climate injustice.

The Cotonou Agreement

The Cotonou Agreement is probably the best known recent trade agreement in Africa. The Cotonou Agreement is concerned with relations between members of the African, Caribbean, and Pacific Group of States (ACP) and the European Community. The treaty opened the space for the African States to enter into Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs) with EU states. The positive aspect of the Agreement is that it acknowledged the need for sustainable development. The agreement declared that 'cooperation on environmental protection and sustainable utilisation and management of natural resources shall aim at mainstreaming environmental sustainability into all aspects of development cooperation and support programmes and projects implemented by the various actors' (Cotonou, art 32 (1)(a)).

However, Hurt (2010) describes the partnership as a form of coercion rather than cooperation. Indeed, the Cotonou Agreement has an underlying patronising attitude. Its objectives are stated as to 'promote and expedite the economic, cultural and social development of the ACP States (added emphasis), with a view to contributing to peace and security and to promoting a stable and democratic political environment.' (Cotonou, art 1). Provisions like this run throughout the agreement and seem to imply that the European Community will help handhold African, the Caribbean and the Pacific States towards the attainment of economic, cultural, political and social development.

Africa's Regional Economic Communities (RECs)

These are eight RECs at the moment, namely: the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), Arab Maghreb Union (AMU), Southern African Development Community (SADC), Community of Sahel-Saharan States (CEN-SAD), East African Community (EAC), Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS) and the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD). The RECs are the centres of trade and economic regulation and coordination within Africa's regions.

There is a need for better coordination and capacity building for these RECs as Africa transforms into a continental free-trade area. Almost all the RECS have experienced cases of resource-based conflict and can be said to be still learning to deal with such. ECOWAS, SADC, and EAC have historically had problems with containing minerals-related conflicts in Sierra Leone and Nigeria (ECOWAS); Angola and the DRC (SADC) and South Sudan (EAC). Lack of efficiency at regional levels does not bode well for the continental level.

ON THE QUESTION OF OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES

In the aftermath of social destructive neo-liberal Economic Structural Adjustments (SAPs) from the IMF and World Bank, there is a need for continued scrutiny of Africa's economic initiatives to identifying opportunities and outlining challenges associated with them. Like on any other economic activities of this magnitude, there is bound to be scrutiny on what the continental free trade area seeks to promote for the ordinary people of Africa. Africa cannot afford to go back to the ill-calculated SAPs that tried to push the hegemony of Western free-market capitalism following the collapse of the Soviet Union. The SAPs were disastrous and led to reversals of social and economic development across Africa. Hence we need to take time and examine the continental free trade area.

Opportunities for Pan-African Economic and Social Solidarity

Benefits from continental economic policies must accrue to the ordinary people, small business, small-scale farmers, and workers rather than to business elites. The continental free trade area offers some economic opportunities if implemented in the spirit of pro-people and Pan-African economic and social solidarity.

Fairer Economic Competition with the Developed World

A continental free trade area can be a respite for the continent's small businesses and producers who have not been a match for developed countries' big business. Granted that a fair economic system is a pipe dream under the capitalist mode of production, the removals of tariffs and free movement can, however, be a helpful step. Goods may even be more affordable for the poor and ordinary classes.

A Unified African Currency and Financial Integration

A unified continental currency, financial integration, are some of the planned fruits of the continental free trade area. With proper implementation and safeguards against financial crimes and a Pan-African monetary policy planning system, a unified currency can assure business and ordinary people and ease exchange rate uncertainties. The concept has improved trade and also had its setbacks within, amongst nineteen States in the Eurozone of the European Union. In Africa, currency unions are not new. There have been currency unions at regional levels. For instance, the West African CFA franc, the Central African CFA franc and to some extent the rand union. A monetary union and a unified Pan-African currency system can indeed be a panacea to the problem of inflation in the many States.

Free movement of the ordinary African people

Free movement of goods, people, and services is one of the acceptable outcomes of the Kigali summit. Just as the Schengen zone in Europe has made travel more accessible and improved connection, the time for Africa to shed colonial-era borders has been long overdue. Customs usually frustrated trade and cultural exchange. Free movement of African people will encourage the sharing of cultural and economic ideas.

Narrowing the space for 'race to the bottom' deals

There is a need for the opening up space for African institutions and non-governmental organisation to play watchdog roles in ensuring that States and leaders adhere to the principle of Pan-African economic and social solidarity. United voices on economic and monetary policies and trade negotiations will go a long way in eliminating unnecessary, destructive 'race to the bottom' competition.

THE CHALLENGES

Lukewarm support by African 'Super-Powers.'

The major drawback of the continental free trade area idea so far has been the weak support from some of the most industrialised States on the Continent, namely South Africa, Egypt, and Nigeria. This lukewarm support may end up influencing an amended trade agreement that suits the more significant powers at the expense of the lesser economically developed African States, and this will turn the clock back to the fiefdoms era.

Lack of Efficiency and trust in Institutions

The historical failure of African democracy and human rights institutions as well as of Western-funded economic initiatives attempts, such as the New Economic Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), highlight that there may be trust issues with continental economic initiatives from either the people or within the leaders themselves. The AMU, for instance, has had frosty relations with the African Union due to the historical disagreement between its member Morocco and the AU over the former's continued annexation of Western Sahara.

The possibility of financial crimes and wrongdoing

Financial regulation and collaboration in the fight against financial corruption are critical in eliminating the resource curses. Financial crimes and other forms of illicit financial flows such as money laundering and externalisation have been the blight of many African States. There is a need for efficient continental institutions on transparent economics and on enforcing deterrent regulations against financial criminals and economic saboteurs.

SOME RECOMMENDATIONS

This article gives three main recommendations:

A Continental-Wide Plan for Diversification of Skills and Resources

States with abundant natural resources should be harnessed together with those with excellent academic and research institutions through a progressive continental vision. There should be a new economic approach towards diversifying industries. A continental free trade area in Africa requires continental Pan-African solidarity.

There is the need for utilising revenue from such sources into capacitating skills on renewable energy and clean energy at a continental level and a committed movement away from the devastating use of fossil fuels for energy and industry in Africa.

Environmental and Social Assessments

There must be continental mechanisms to monitor and regulate international trade. Investor relations based on strict implementation and rehabilitation of the environment and local communities will go a long way in developing Africa. Ecological and social impact assessments on both domestic and foreign business investments will ensure the prior consultation of people in resource-rich areas before governments sign up agreements with investors in faraway capitals. In the past, the arrangements and contracts signed by African states with multinational companies have been glaring in their lack of safeguards against environmental and social injustice.

Pan-African Economic and Social Solidarity

A continental free trade area, with adequate safeguards will go a long way towards ensuring solidarity and eliminating the history of unnecessary civil strife, destructive competition, conflicts, and xenophobia. This aspiration is not novel. Africa's leading institutions grew out of the desire to achieve anti-colonial and economic solidarity. These include the then Organisation of African Unity and then anti-colonial blocs such as the Frontline States. There is a need for a return to Pan-African economic, social and political planning.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the continental free trade area poses many benefits for Africa if done in a spirit of Pan-African economic and social solidarity. Economic and social opportunities are possible from financial integration, unified currencies and free movement of goods, people, and services. Cooperation will also reduce destructive 'race to the bottom' competitions in trade negotiation with foreign multinationals. The free trade area must permanently protect environmental and social justice. African leaders and institutions must strive for solidarity, diversification, and justice in their trade relations with each other and with foreign multinationals.

There is a great need for a continental system that develops and enforces treaties outlining the responsibilities of multinational and domestic investors to desist from interference in political processes and to respect human and environmental rights. It would be amiss for the AU to come up with another neo-liberal trade agreement that does not ensure mandatory obligations on big businesses and foreign investors.

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ESCAPING ON UNCERTAIN TIDES TO UNCERTAIN JURISDICTIONS: EXPLAINING ROOT CAUSES OF A PERSISTENT TREND ACROSS THE MEDITERRANEAN

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ABSTRACT

Thousands have died in their quest to cross the Mediterranean to some countries in mainland Europe. These voyages have been attributed to many believable reasons: escaping violence or economic hardship according to reports by transnational non-governmental organizations and intergovernmental organizations. Can we attribute these voyages, wholly, to economic factors and conflicts? What is the root cause of these travels that defy rationality? I argue in this paper that accounts by migrants is just like showing us a storey building standing at its basement. And that the root cause of escaping on uncertain tides to uncertain jurisdictions is fundamentally the politics of political leaders and stakeholders. The nature of politics in most Sub-Saharan African countries is chasing people away. How the grounds can be prepared for good politics will be discussed.

INTRODUCTION

The headlines are frightening and the facts are easy to comprehend but for their sourness. Should we restructure African states along lines that are consistent with the plight of migrants or can we look beyond stories and concentrate on political reality? “Migrant sea route to Italy is the world's most lethal” (Dehghan, 2017), “More than 8,000 lives lost crossing the Mediterranean in the two years since Alan Kurdi's death” (Ensor, 2017). “Over 40 people 'die of thirst' in Sahara Desert” (British Broadcasting Cooperation [BBC], 2017). Disregarding real reports, migrants still try their luck as though it is a game of football where losing means they have another chance. This is no game but migrants still travel on uncertain tides, sustained by the strength of less seaworthy vessels and their fortitude within. Many works attribute their forced movement mainly to economic and political reasons – failed development, uncontrollable inflation, ineffective institutions, ethnic, political or religious conflict and poverty among others (Bakewell 2008; Collier 2013). Is this the whole story? What fuels these economic, political and developmental reasons?

Conventionally, migrants are seen as people who move from one country to the other for a settlement that is often permanent, yet some are temporary. Some of them are forced to leave, whilst others leave their former jurisdiction voluntarily. In this essay, migrants are to be seen as emigrants who forcefully migrate from one political community to other owing to the politics of a said political community. Migrants who settle permanently are those who see the benefit of staying at their current location to outweigh the benefit of keeping close ties with family and friends in their initial location (Akopkari, 2000). Both categories – permanent and temporary – show the element of force in their migration. Those who settle permanently will never go back because conditions that precipitated their movement is something they never want to engage. Those who settle temporarily either come back to their former residence or plan to come back in order to better the conditions that they left behind. If one has enough food and wine in her house, why will that person go to another's house in search of food and wine? That person will be forced to leave her initial zone if she seeks something that is non-existent at her current place.

BAD POLITICS: EMIGRATION FUEL

Dependency theorists may be right by opining that the external influence of the international political economy retards the growth of developing states. But they fail to recognize that domestic politics determine domestic outcomes. Good politics is the irreducible foundation of developed states. Citizens are forced to leave most African states because of bad politics. And as a result of bad politics, institutions and systems of governance that are to engender economic growth, political

development and social transformation are also weakened. Politics concerns “all the activities of cooperation, negotiation and conflict in the course of taking decisions about the use, production and distribution of resources” (Leftwich and Hogg, 2007). According to Leftwich and Hogg (2007), there are two levels of politics. At the first level, rules – institutions that are humanly devised to constrain human interaction – are made to guide the actions and inactions of political actors and the citizenry. And at the second level where there is contestation regarding the rules of the political game, political elites or those who affect the making of binding authoritative decisions are made to engage in political activities according to the codes of the political game or are made to adhere to the provisions of the institutions or rules that emerge from political processes. Therefore, we can talk of good or bad politics manifesting at two levels – at the level where rules of the political game are made and the level that demands the playing of games within the rules according to the tenets of the rules of the game. Clientelistic networks and neo-patrimonial corruption are used to explain how bad politics give rise to unfavourable economic, political and social conditions that support emigration on tumultuous tides.

Clientelism: Foiling developmental coalitions

As emphasized above, the first level of politics involves the making of rules of the political game. For these rules to be instituted, there is the need to build proper coalitions. Coalitions are formed when elites and leaders from public and private sectors, modern political authority and traditionally established systems coalesce their effort and set clear rules regarding how conflicts will be negotiated, and how state resources will be managed for development. Coalitions can be developmental or fraudulent. Developmental coalitions support the making of legal frameworks that support economic activity, resolve conflicts amicably, ensure egalitarian economic opportunities, establish processes for equitable redistribution of state resources and provide a fair playing field for political competition. Developmental coalitions further ensure that state resources – power, taxes, human capital, social capital etc. – are properly managed for the state to move from an undesirable state to a desirable state. The country that most migrants escape to is Italy. Although suffering a deep recession, “Italy is recovering” according to OECD economic survey (2017: 10). Recognising that there are still administrative irregularities and economic hiccups, the report acknowledges that Italy's government has “made significant progress on tackling structural impediments to growth and productivity” (ibid.). The concerted effort by elites from various sectors of the political community has contributed to the inroads that they are making. Mario Monti's technocratic cabinet did its part after taking over in 2011 to provide medicine for the ailing economy but could not build sufficient rapport with the electorate, and connection with elites in Italy because of the technical composition of the cabinet. But subsequent governments and the current cabinet of Paolo Gentiloni are trying their best to build developmental coalitions with political actors, businesses, cultural and other interests which is ensuring the gradual healing of the economy and the subsiding of internal infighting. Government and all stakeholders are making efforts at building strong state institutions that can deliver sustainable development. In 2012, the Governor of Sicily filed a lawsuit against a journalist for defamation (Freedom House, 2017). In spite of the controversy surrounding this suit, it is significant for one reason: major political elites are dissociating themselves from unworthy coalitions as they want to be seen as building significant coalitions that will contribute to progress. Before the recession in 2008, 23.08 million people were registered to be working in Italy as of October 2008 according to Italian National Institute of Statistics (Istat) (The Local, 2017). In September 2017, Istat reported that 23.06 million people are registered to be working. Strong institutions and tailored policies have paid off, and living standards and the economic environment has improved significantly (Nadeau, 2012). These economic and political improvements are a result of good politics which cause the citizenry to tarry regardless.

Coalitions that exist in most African countries are fraudulent, with their activities shrouded in conspiracy. These fraudulent so-called “partnerships” exist to milk the states of its resources. They are not established for the public good but to feather the nests of those involved. Flatly, the collusive coalitions that exist in most African countries have clientelistic elements inseparably characterising the total fabric of their formation. These networks are formed to benefit participants and those connected to these participants only. The rules they set up to guide their negotiation do not inspire the making of binding decisions that ensure equity and egalitarianism. Businesses that are inundated with contracts and traditional areas that enjoy development projects are those that supported the government to win political power or those that are helping the

government to cover its trails of unworthy deals. The wider citizenry, businesses, traditional authorities, other political elites and coalitions which are outside the clientelistic clique are only contacted when there is need to show political sympathy or gain political capital to win elections. In November 2017, US investigators accused Chad's President Idriss Derby of receiving \$2 million from former Senegalese Foreign Minister and Hong Kong's Ex-Home Affairs Secretary in order to grant a multi-million oil licence to a Chinese oil company (The Independent, 2017). Why would the President of a country, one who is the embodiment of the aspirations of the people of Chad, engage in such a frivolous transaction? It became evident in April 2004 that Nigeria's Ex-President Goodluck Jonathan's daughter received 80 luxury cars as traditional wedding gifts, others were speculating that the cars were 175 (Myjoyonline, 2014). Why somebody connected to the President? Two weeks before elections in March 2015, President Goodluck Jonathan met key religious and traditional leaders in Adamawa State and asked for their support. What will these traditional leaders demand and what will the president promise? In August 2016, Ghana's Ex-President John Dramani Mahama gifted Boling-Lana Mahamadu Abdulai, a paramount chief in the Northern Region (Abudu Regent), a Toyota Fortuner in an election year for the ridiculous reason of facilitating his movement (Adogla-Bessa, 2016). After leaving the North as of that time, the President received several endorsements from chiefs in that area to an extent that, he was enskinned a sub-chief in the Tatale Traditional Area after a warning from the National House of Chiefs that traditional leaders must desist from endorsing political party candidates (ibid.). What a coalition! And sometimes when they are confused as to how they should loot the state, clientelistic elites engage in superfluous conflicts which plunges the whole state into unnecessary chaos. Those are not wars or civil conflicts. They are fights over how to steal the resources of the state. Generally, people cannot thrive when clientelistic coalitions abound. They will leave these countries which are not favourable for their personal development and economic progression. These networks create fear and panic that have no justifiable bases. And if people are not able to break into these fraudulent networks, they look at other places where they will be well off. Therefore, clientelistic networks that are formed to just benefit a few chase many others away. People do not care running away from these conspiracy-filled environments, and in spite of the United Nations High Commission on Refugee's (UNHCR) report and many other detailed reports that an estimate of 3,538 out of 216,054 people died or were missing crossing from one shore to the other, the number of people embarking on this deadly voyage increased by 369.8% to 1,015,078 and out of that, 3,771 people journeyed to the lifeless side (UNHCR, 2017). It is better to die in the cool of the sea than to shamelessly die in one's own land as a result of bad politics.

Neopatrimonialism: Corrupting obedience

Again, I argue that neopatrimonial corruption in many African states chase many people away. The second level of politics, as discussed earlier on, is adherence to the rules of the political game. Political leaders and elites in many African countries do not adhere to the rules that make them rule. Most of the things they do, regarding the management of state resources for development, are not consistent with supreme frameworks that constrain and regulate social, economic and political interaction. State resources – authority, money, human resources – are expended in a parochial fashion. A neopatrimonial state is one whose leaders and officials do not see or deliberately disregard the distinction between the public realm and the private realm (Wade 2006). Serving national interest and the public good is out of question.

No doubt, Africa is the richest continent as far as mineral resource endowment is concerned. According to the 2017 World Mineral Production book by the British Geological Survey, excluding the data for Central African Republic, Africa produced 46.9% (59,319,239 Carats) of the world's industrial diamond (126,600,000 Carats) in 2015. It can also be inferred from the same source that 20.7% (645,072 kilograms) of the world's gold (3,110,000) was produced in Africa as of 2015. But if you have cats in charge of fried marinated fish, they will eat them up. Political elites and stakeholders (cats) are not able to manage the resources of the state (fried marinated fish) according to provisions of laws that be. They corrupt due process and become state made wealthy people. Botswana is one of the few African countries that is using its diamond endowment to enrich the state. But Nigeria which is blessed with the largest oil industry in Africa remains one of the most impoverished polities in the Sub Sahara, and states in which oil deposits are found is nothing to write home about. The UNHCR reports that as of October 2017, the most common nationality of those travelling across the Mediterranean Sea is

Nigeria, forming 11.3% of total migrants. Since 1951 when it started drilling oil with test wells in Owerri area, no government in Nigeria has been able to turn the fortunes of the people around as yet. Rather Nigeria is constantly plunged into conflicts because political elites are confused as to how they will loot states resource. This headline says a lot, “Abacha loot: Switzerland to return \$320m to Nigeria” (BBC, 2017). In April 2017, Nigeria's National Intelligence Agency Director-General, Ayodele Oke, was found to have warehoused a total of 13 billion Naira (\$41.3 million) for engaging in secret operation without the President's knowledge (Soyombo, 2017). In the southern part of the continent where a polity leads in gold production, its president, Jacob Zuma, failed to uphold the constitution and used £11 million to renovate his Nkandla private residence. With all these lootings, secrecy and outright disregard for supreme laws, how much will be left to support small-scale enterprises, strengthen the economy, develop developmental infrastructure and ensure equitable development of all areas in the political community? Owing to neopatrimonial politics, the state will be marking time regarding democratic development, the economy will stagnate, poverty, unemployment, and inequality will soar.

THE WAY FORWARD: FOUNDATION OR CHANGES?

Definitely, something must be done to curb the normalisation of bad trends that have formed part of our dominant political culture. Scholars and aid agencies have advocated restructuring and building strong institutions, political elites having the good of the people at heart, creating developmental policies, leaders acting decisively to ensure the manifestation of proper vision among others (Magstadt, 2013: 305 – 332; Ohno, 2004; World Bank, 1989). But how do we get all these if we do not have developmental leaders to begin with? Is a vibrant civil society and organizations within them important? We should have good leaders before we proceed because good leaders can create regimes and institutions that will engender development. Civil society and its organizations should be vibrant in order to contribute meaningfully to good politics and good state-society relationship. If state-society relationships - do not change, the story of the state and society will remain the same. How do we get developmental leaders? What should the civil society do? Does the international community have a role to play?

Leaders chosen

Leadership is important in every state because it affects its governance systems and development. Considering the state of politics in most African states, leaders who are elected or appointed to leadership positions is very crucial. Leadership is a serious business and it is not just anyone that should be allowed to practice, trial and error. Developmental and transformative leaders are needed because they can serve the national interest, build developmental institutions and mobilize people and resources to achieve set national goals. The way leaders are selected must be changed if a restructuring of the economy and society is desired. Ridding our politics of clientelism and de-politicization of ethnicity in the face of ethnic politics helps in socio-political cohesion and eventual development. Ayatse and Akuva (2013) found that “ethnic sentiment has gradually crept in to find a place in every facet of Nigerian political activity”. The Ghana Centre for Democratic Governance's (CDD) findings indicate that 84% of Ghanaian registered voters vote based on personal and material benefits from politicians (Ullo, 2016). If the games within the rules in politics feeds on this solidarity, political discourse is riddled of nationalism and everything becomes who gets what from the state. Politicizing ethnicity can be dangerous and if all resort to gain resources from the state becomes futile, it sometimes turns into violent conflicts between major ethnic groups like what happened in Rwanda from 1990-1993 between the Hutus and Tutsis, the Nigerian Biafran war from 1967-1970 and the painful Sudanese Civil War from 1983-2005. Ghana is gradually becoming an ethnopolitical state as Ewe's and Ashanti's have consistently served as 'world banks' for the National Democratic Congress and New Patriotic Party respectively (Bossuroy 2011). Politicking should be based on addressing and proposing solutions to issues that affect the state as a collectivity because no state can thrive on sectarian politics. If the various ethnic groups choose national leaders based on competence to be infused into the administration of the state, they can more easily coalesce to support developmental programmes and projects for the public good.

Demands Made From the Political System

“If men were angels, no government would be necessary”, wrote James Madison in Federalist 51 (2008, [1788]). Those in government are from us, human beings, and are bound to err. Private behaviour is not used as court evidence because left to our own means, our folly will be incredible. That is why the civil society and organizations within them – the media, pressure groups and think tanks among others – should demand accountability and transparency from the government. Freedom of Information laws are a step in the right direction. These are laws that allow access to government information because public things must stay public. If the laws are non-existent, civil society stakeholders must demand its enactment. If they are existent, they must not be left in a vegetative state. Demands from the political system should not be things that will benefit a particular sector or area over the other like budget increase, skewed infrastructural development and the like. It should be things that will cause political actors and state elites to strictly adhere to the provisions of regulatory frameworks that support collective improvement in current conditions.

The International Community

The international community is fond of issuing sanctions or demanding that sanctions be issued if some countries are not complying with some conditions that support human development. Others support huge donations and grants. These methods do not have solution capacity as the situation in Central African Republic, South Sudan, Mozambique, Ghana, Nigeria and many others remain, if not worse. Sanctions and donations are just like taking psychotropic drugs; the problems remain. Rather, the international community should support the building of leadership capabilities that will cause states to harness their human, administrative and extractive capacities. If the leadership capabilities of a state are built, proper visions will be formed and decisive actions, taken. The international community should also support developmental coalitions in African states that are forward-looking. The warm relations that existed between Zaire's former despot, Mobutu Sese Seko Kuku Ngbendu Wa Za Banga, and the United States of America should not be encouraged. Forward-looking coalitions are needed, not those that cause havoc and strife.

CONCLUSION

Clientelistic networks and neo-patrimonial corruption are the root cause of citizens embarking on journeys whose certainty is determined by uncertainties. Economic, political and social explanations for emigration are valid but for its depth. Owing to bad politics, most African states cannot move from their current status to provide opportunities for people to thrive. With development-minded leaders selected, enabled civil society and relevant input from the international community, the necessary foundation will be laid for good politics to unfold and African citizens will voluntarily travel in fastened plane seats not lifejackets.

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WHEN THE STATE TURNS AGAINST ITS OWN CITIZENS: REVISITING POLICE BRUTALITY AS AN OBSTACLE TO PEACE AND DEVELOPMENT IN ZIMBABWE

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ABSTRACT

This analysis comes at a strategic yet uncertain period in Zimbabwe when the nation is going through a political transition. A lot of uncertainty surrounds the outcome of this transition. Since the 1980s, Zimbabwe has been entrenched in a plethora of crises including vast human rights abuses hinged on pervasive police brutality. The police have increasingly become predatory against the Zimbabwean populace, followed by disappearances of human rights defenders and activists. Elections have always been marred by political violence perpetrated by both State and non-state actors to the detriment of human rights and good governance. Whilst the leadership in the governing party has aged, the mantra 'Save Zimbabwe' has become vibrant. Efforts to thwart democratic movements have failed in Zimbabwe. Given the oncoming 2018 elections in Zimbabwe, this paper seeks to examine the impact of police brutality and explore the pros and cons of such attitudes and behaviours so as to recommend how Zimbabwe can mitigate police brutality and foster tolerance, co-existence, peace, development and human security.

Key Words: Police brutality, democracy, bill of rights, use of force, civil-political rights, human rights and violence.

INTRODUCTION

State-sponsored violence and police brutality in violation of fundamental human rights, which are an integral part of democracy, has been at centre stage for most, if not all post-independent States. Establishing accountability for State/police brutality (which I will use interchangeably because the State uses the police to exercise its authority, power and control) remains an uphill task, whilst in most cases, it is on the rise. To make matters worse, the State has made tremendous efforts to conceal evidence, obstruct justice and attribute violence to other players before, during or after mass demonstrations, abduction of human rights defenders/activists and towards elections. It is important to assess how State-sponsored violence can affect development either positively or negatively, especially in a country that is trying to emerge out of political and economic challenges towards peace and development.

Against such a bleak background, this paper seeks to embark on an analysis focusing on police brutality in Zimbabwe under the auspices of the new Constitution which was adopted in 2013 and the events which ensued thereafter, including the unprecedented transition. Between July and August 2018 Zimbabwe is having elections and it may be vital to critically examine police brutality in a period of much uncertainty and scepticism of the new government. The discussion will essentially focus on the experiences, plight and needs of Zimbabwean citizens who encounter violence and bear the brunt of brutality at the hands of the police, unabated in a country which has experienced political and economic decomposition for over a decade to the detriment of democracy and good governance.

DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

Police brutality: Bruce (2002) defines it as a situation which occurs when members of the police service use force unlawfully. In essence, brutality is the (unlawful) abuse of the capacity to use force in violation of human rights. By implication, police brutality is generally deliberate violence and actions which amount to criminally negligent use of force.

Human rights are the inherent recognition of the dignity and equal, inalienable rights of all members of the human family" (Basu, 2004). They are claims that one has against the State...they are equal rights as everyone else is born equal to the other" (Donnelley, 2003), enshrined in the Bill of Rights such as Freedom from torture, intimidation, assault, physical harm and death among others. Hence, in this way, police brutality and human rights are intertwined in this discussion.

SOCIO-POLITICAL DEVELOPMENTS IN ZIMBABWE: 1980-2000

Traditionally, incidences of police brutality have been popular in Matebeleland; however recent developments relating to the emergence of opposition politics and vast disgruntlement perpetuated by socio-economic decomposition in Zimbabwe

has led to the spread of police brutality across the country, especially in the capital, Harare and the rural areas. Zimbabwe, a country which promised both economic and social stability after independence in 1980, went under scrutiny following high cases of police brutality directed at protesters and demonstrators from the 1990s into the new millennium which was characterised by gross human rights abuses and the reluctance of the State to implement the constitution.

At independence in 1994, issues pertaining to Black empowerment, health and education for all became key matters, whilst forgiveness and reconciliation took precedence as espoused by the outgoing Prime Minister Ian Smith and the incoming Robert Mugabe. However, real issues which needed reform were neither interrogated nor debated, thus deepening the roots of structural violence which were inherited from the Smith regime. Consequently, the governing party's 'top brass' retained colonial ranks and policies governing police conduct, unaltered. The police force was inherited as it was without any sound reforms in 1980. The overarching belief of the new government in 1980 was that if control was not exercised, powerful institutions would fall into the wrong hands, thus promoting sectarian interests (Mabika, 2005). Not surprisingly, this did not augur well with the Black masses who anticipated the removal of a White hegemony which would be replaced by a new people-driven democracy.

Moreover, the 1980s saw the emergence of an elite and middle class which retained strategic and powerful political-economic institutions in the country including the police force. Any gesture of security sector reform implied socio-economic insecurity for the elite minority. The result was that after ten years into "democracy", reviewing draconian colonial legislation, security sector reform and extensively cultivating the Bill of Rights were not prioritized and "not requiring any major concern at that time." According to Pigou (2003), in transitional situations issues of reform and accountability for past abuses are all too often sacrificed as part of the negotiated political "deal". This was the case in the controversial Gukuruhundi massacres which occurred between 1982 and 1987 mainly in Matebeland and the Midlands for which no one wants to take responsibility.

The police and the army were at the centre of this and other operations which came later. Indeed, establishing accountability for human rights violations in Zimbabwe is often portrayed as an unrealizable and distractive ordeal and an obstacle to transition, antithetical to the objectives of "national reconciliation and nation-building." Hence, Nyong'o (1991) argues that one of the most inspiring ideals of independence movements was democracy, "but with the social tragedy of Africans, it was not consolidated nor have societies been reconstructed in a positive way" (Emerson, 1960) to promote development. Incidences in the 1980s into the new millennium stripped the Zimbabwean government of its legitimacy and credibility in the international community.

The lack of consolidation and reconstruction of national institutions and systems has translated into immense human rights abuses in the Zimbabwean community by the Zimbabwe Republic Police (ZRP) in the same way as it was during the Smith's regime. The reality in Zimbabwe remains in acute contrast to the stated intent of the protective regime of rights and remedies set out in the Bill of Rights of the Zimbabwean Constitution. According to Burger (2013), the decision to demilitarize the police, moving away from its history of brutality, was a key transformation goal after 1980, but it never happened.

THE NEW MILLENNIUM UP TO DATE: 2000-2017

Despite the State's efforts to curb any opposition by forming a one-party State, the soaring prices and decreasing standards of living in the late 1990s, dissatisfaction expressed by the trade unions and the referendum in 2000 to reinforce Presidential powers among other things, culminated in the formation of a resilient civil society movement led by the National Constitutional Assembly and an opposition party, the Movement for Democratic Change (Raftopolous, 2010), which entirely changed the face of politics in Zimbabwe altogether in the new millennium.

Despite these democratic developments, the larger sector of the Zimbabwean population was (is) still gripped with fear to engage in politics. The ongoing and recurrent crackdowns and arrests by the police have caused socio-political paralysis in Zimbabwe. Since 2000, police brutality is on the rise in Zimbabwe. Between the period 2000 and 2016, human rights activists such as Jestina Mukoko, Itai Dzamara and Evan Mawarire have been incarcerated, abducted, disappeared, charged with treason or forced to leave the country, opposition legislators sent death threats and rallies violently disrupted. This approach has kept many autocracies in power, including the one in Zimbabwe which has ruled for 37 years with an iron fist, the police force being at the centre of instigating fear and violence among the masses.

However, the police department has never been charged with violating the law or Constitution. Police arrogance is still paraded and force being used up to date in Zimbabwe openly. In essence, after the fall of an authoritarian regime it is vital to embark on profound structural reforms so as to break the cycle of impunity and repression, yet President Mugabe in the ensuing years after 1980 failed. The police are one major instrument that the State uses to exercise its power and control, yet still, the police were ignored and slowly it gathered momentum to abuse its power. In a 'democratic' South Africa just like in Zimbabwe most of the colonial legislative laws covertly remained the same whilst the governing party is caught-up in consolidating its power.

Hence, Themba Lesizwe (2003) argues that violations remain widespread and remedial mechanisms impotent, despite a new Constitution and consensus around conventions dealing with human rights. The machinery that is supposed to be protecting human rights is as good as defunct in Zimbabwe. In my own considered opinion, it is the command which instigates violence, preventing low ranking police officer's obligation under the Independent Police Investigative Directorate to arrest or report human rights violations by fellow police officers (Petros, 2013). Besides, it is difficult for most junior officers to report senior officers due to fear of being sacked. In light of the recent videos that went viral on the internet, of officers assaulting and arresting women, men and children following the protests which gripped Zimbabwe in August 2016 onwards, I am of the view that the chances that these violations are going to be investigated by the police are very slim. No one is going to be accountable or responsible.

Due to concealment of evidence and fear to report other officers by fellow policemen, most reported cases just disappear into the thin air without getting a chance to be heard in the court of law. Thus, Human Rights Watch argues that there are severe cases of police torture a year that are reported in Zimbabwe, yet there are many more that are not reported (Human Rights Watch, 2016). This implies that Zimbabwe's incumbent rulers and colonial predecessors have inculcated a culture of impunity and a lack of accountability that spawns police violence and brutality that has shielded many from liability and continues to do so.

My intuitive view is that police brutality in Zimbabwe is a top-down approach that is being instigated by the top brass in political offices so as to maintain the status quo and remain in power through fear. Suddenly those who are compelled to exercise the responsibility to protect have resorted to the responsibility to abuse. Hence, new police officers adopt a culture of diabolic impunity that they find in existence, thus the cycle is proving unbreakable for the government of Zimbabwe. It is easy to learn, yet it is very difficult to unlearn.

In as much as the *Gukurahundi* massacres are an unfortunate milestone in assessing human rights violations in Zimbabwe, sporadic violence against the citizenry denotes a systemic crisis, when combined will claim more lives than the massacres. Petros (2013) notes that too many police officers are not abiding by the code that is supposed to regulate their behaviour. In this way, negligence is propagated by some sort of 'assimilation' that perpetuates a belief that 'Smith style' violence is the only way to crush voices of dissent. Unfortunately, the police (not vigilante groups) are the protagonists of human rights abuses which indicates that the Zimbabwe Republic Police (ZRP) must be expeditiously reformed in a bid to save the public from further persecution.

The diabolical character of the police in Zimbabwe has indefinitely precipitated a volatile relationship between the ZRP and the masses so that during protests citizens retaliate violently en masse. There is a serious lack of trust between the State and the people. Usually, the confrontation culminates in the Hobbesian state of nature wherein "every man is against every man." Violent disruption of protests in Zimbabwe illuminates an arrogant State which abuses its power to the extent of turning against its own citizens. It seems that the State no longer cares for the needs, rights and well-being of the people but for its own survival.

There is not a Social contract between the State and the people in Zimbabwe anymore. It died many years ago. If there was, Zimbabwe would have recorded a decrease rather than an increase in police brutality after 37 years of "celebrating independence." Emerson (1960) was probably right when he predicted that "democracy in Africa would bleed and die on the altars of national consolidation and social reconstruction" and South Africa is not an exception. In the same vein, Nyong'o (1991) decried why Africa has trodden this rather tragic path in her post-independence history and what has happened to the inspiring and heroic 'democratic' struggles waged by the nationalists.

Democracy entails respect and observance of human rights, good governance and the rule of law yet the ZRP violates human rights and practices the rule by law which is in stark contradiction to the Constitution *in toto*. So my question is *whither* goes Zimbabwe after 37 years of independence? The ambiguous narrative of “national unity,” is underlined by a lack of political will to initiate a comprehensive police reform. To many, the government has become nothing more than a 'paper tiger' promising a lot but delivering little. Contradictions between the ZRP, the masses and the Constitution are more conspicuous and complex in Zimbabwe now more than before.

Recent events in Zimbabwe indicate that there is a possibility of an escalation in the use of a heavy hand to repress any uprisings. Even though people celebrated that Mugabe was removed from office through a military intervention, I am of the view that the military used this opportunity to show its power. The transition of power from Mugabe to Mnangagwa was peaceful simply because the police and military which instigated violence in past years led the takeover of power. My fear as a citizen is that people en masse endorsed and revived the governing party and military such that in the near future both might justify violent interventions against democratic protests and uprisings against the masses. On the day of inauguration, 24/11/2017, when Emmerson Mnangagwa officially assumed office as President, controversial characters such as Chihuri, the Commissioner of the police and army Generals were reinstated. In my own view, the leadership changed at the executive level, but the system remains the same. When the music stops, the State might revert to its old ways and State/police brutality might continue to the detriment of peace and development in Zimbabwe. I do not envision a scenario wherein ZANU-PF will reform itself out of power; it will protect its turf through any means possible.

However, Bittner (1990) argues that the central thread that runs through police work is that it frequently “consists of coping with problems in which force may have to be used. . . force inevitably has to be used in some situations.” In situations where members of the police use force, it is necessary for them to carry out their responsibilities (Bruce, 2002). The use of force is concomitant with the State's obligation to maintain public order and self-defence given the salience of crime and the culture of violence in Zimbabwe. In International relations, the State is the only entity that has the right to use force against its own citizens.

Whilst the force of force is heavily contested, I am of the view that it is erroneous to mistake the use of force for police brutality. The State is also in violation of the Constitution when it uses the military/ police apparatus to quell citizens of Zimbabwe from exercising the rights to express themselves, mobilise, demonstrate, demand accountability from duty bearers, coerced to do things they do not want to and exercise other constitutional rights. It is also unjustifiable to use excessive force against an unarmed or non-resisting people, as is usually the case in Zimbabwe.

CONCLUSION

The writer maintains that the use of force should not be mistaken for police brutality. Force must be the last resort, whilst brutality is not acceptable. Evasion from the rule of law must be vehemently condemned by the civil society, security sector, media and others in a 'democratic' society. All these must collaborate and cooperate to thwart State/police brutality and replace fear with non-violence, coexistence, dialogue, respect of human rights, tolerance and democracy so as to rebuild confidence and trust between the community and the State which is obligated to protect not persecute them. Respect for human rights guarantees the legitimacy of the government in the eyes of the international community and promotes nation-building and development in any country due to the prevalence of peace.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE WAY FORWARD

Deducing from the discussion above, one would like to recommend that;

- Police reform is essential. Accompanying Demonopolization, Democratisation, Demilitarization and Reintegration (DDDR) must be implemented.
- The police should undergo intensive human rights training courses in line with the Bill of Rights which espouses freedoms and liberties of the individual. In doing so, the police force is equipped with the normative functions of human rights so that they know their limits and obligations in the field.
- Assuming the police go in the field stressed, under the influence of drugs, bitter or angry, officers should go through regular Counselling and Rehabilitation Programs which ensure sober-mindedness in the line of duty.
- Perpetrators or at least those who instigate police brutality must be brought to book and be rehabilitated so that others learn from their mistakes. Some rogue elements that are still in office must be relieved of their duties.

- The community must be educated about their rights so that when they are violated they know when, why, where and how to report or file a case at court. so that when they are violated they know when, why, where and how to report or file a case at court.

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HYDROPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND REGIONAL INTEGRATION IN THE GREATER HORN OF AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

Inadequate and poor regional infrastructure networks posed an impact for escalation of insecurity and political instability in the greater horn of Africa. To deal with such problems, filling resource gaps through sharing resources in the way that maximizes mutual benefit is the major approach to be implemented. In this respect, fostering interdependence through infrastructural development of power interconnections is a best mechanism for energy led integration in the region. The purpose of this article is to analyze the major roles that Ethiopian hydropower development is playing in regional integration schemes. To this end, qualitative research methodology is employed to investigate the project in question. In addition to assessing and interpreting secondary sources, experts and government officials who have close proximity to the issue were used as key informants. Hence, the study recommends that energy linkage leading to economic based integration would open doors for more concrete and justified institutional and political integration in the region.

INTRODUCTION

Africa has a number of rivers with excellent hydropower development potential. However, the distribution of hydropower potential in Africa is concentrated in eastern and central Africa of which this region accounts 12% of world's hydropower potential. Sub-Saharan region Ethiopia and Democratic Republic of Congo take the lead both in potential and developing the sector of hydropower. Due to this fact hydropower is regarded as a pillar in East Africa energy production mix which accounts for 79% of the total energy consumption in eastern Africa (EAPP, 2010). However, eastern Africa energy mix varies from country to country. Particularly in the greater horn, all countries except Ethiopia are arid and semi-arid which stifles the development of hydropower sector.

In the sub region of greater horn of Africa the potential of hydropower production is concentrated in Ethiopia which is followed by Sudan, Uganda and Kenya. In this regard, Ethiopia takes the lead in production and distribution of hydropower with aggressive measures to export power in the region. For example, Ethiopia is exporting around 220KV to Djibouti and 220KV to Sudan. In addition, 500KV power will be underway in the future interconnection plans. Despite this, the region is facing a strong challenge in generating sufficient power to unlock its economic potential. Efforts to develop the economies in the region are being stifled by lack of reliable energy supply. With increasing population and expansion of industrialization, the demand for clean energy increases particularly since the last decade. Given the increasing demand for clean energy the role of hydropower is gaining importance for poverty reduction and ensuring sustainable development in the region.

Ethiopia's suitable geography with large number of rivers suitable for hydropower development coupled with its political stability makes Ethiopia a center of the power sector in eastern Africa. According to USAID (2009) Ethiopia's path towards development is constrained by its limited range of natural resources. The country's only economically exploitable resource is hydropower, which offers the potential for generation of more than 45,000 MW which is Africa's greatest hydropower potential, second only to Democratic Republic of the Congo. As the water tower of Eastern Africa, Ethiopia offers a great deal of opportunity for clean energy production which has become vital in the current global environment with a relatively lower production cost compared with its neighbors.

The energy to be generated will not only supply for the increasingly growing demand for energy in the country but will have surplus production to be marketed to neighboring countries. According to Ethiopian Water Resources Policy (1994)

the hydropower resource is estimated to have a potential in the order of 161,000 Gwh/year. However, the country's current generation capacity in all categories is around 2,000 MW, or 4.4% of the 45, 000MW potential installed capacity (UN, 2012).

HYDROPOWER DEVELOPMENTS IN THE GREATER HORN: REGIONAL OVERVIEW

Hydropower is a renewable energy source based on the natural water cycle. It is the most mature, reliable, cost effective, and environmentally friendly energy source available (Brown in IRENA, 2012). It is the largest renewable energy source that produces 16% of the world's energy demand. According to International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA) 2011 statistics, Africa has an abundance of renewable energy where hydro, solar and wind supply the entire demand. With respect to regions in hydropower potential eastern Africa ranked second next to central Africa with the potential to generate 578 TWH/year. Currently, the major source of electricity in eastern Africa is hydropower where 95% of East African countries' current consumption is dependent on hydropower generations (AUC, 2013). Hydropower represents 97% of it where Ethiopia alone expected to contribute 64% (all of it is from hydropower). The remaining 18% Uganda, 11% Tanzania, 4% DRC, and 3% Rwanda (Infrastructure Consortium for Africa, 2011).

Ethiopia has exploitable capacity of 45,000MW hydropower potential. Large potential for small hydropower projects also exist. So far, more than 600 traditional hydro mills that could be used for hydropower have been identified (Ministry of water and Energy 2013). With this potential Ethiopian Government plans to produce 25,000 MW clean energy by 2030 (UNIDO, 2013) and wants to satisfy domestic demands as well as to export power to neighboring countries. On the other hand, the overall hydropower generation capacity of Kenya is estimated 6,000MW installing capacity. Over half of it is attributed from small scale hydropower developments (UNIDO and ICSHP, 2013). The demand for electricity in Kenya shows upward trend in the last 6 years. The average annual demand growth is recorded as 8.7% (Kenya Vision 2030, 2011). According to Kenya Vision 2030 Least Cost Power Development Plan (LCPDP), Kenya's demand will increase from 1,302 MW in 2011 to 15,026 in 2030MW. In line to meet these demands are targets to build 5,110MW from geothermal, 1,039 from hydro, 2,036 from wind, and 2,000 from imports.

Sudan's energy consumption mix is dominated by oil. Energy power infrastructure at the moment is developed only among urban centers most of it from hydropower. Sudan's 2,000 energy law opened for the expansion of energy sector and tripled power generation from 800MW in 2005 to 2,687 in 2007 (UNIDO, 2013). Sudan has an overall estimated potential of 4,920 MW hydropower generation capacities where 10 % of it is currently utilized. But due to political unrest, social problems, regulatory and policy constraints, Sudan's hydropower development is still at its lowest stage. Similarly, in south Sudan though it has a potential of 5,583MW hydropower generation; political crisis, social unrest, lack of renewable energy policy, poor institutional and technical capacity, hinder development of the sector. Thus, even though it has sufficient potential to satisfy domestic needs, large hydropower development plants to be built along the river Nimuri to juba may take decades to be commissioned. According to UNIDO (2012) report the current total installed capacity is 62 MW in contrast to the total electric requirement of 450 MW. The current population with access to electric is only 1%. To increase access to electricity the major options are either developing small scale hydropower developments or importing from neighboring countries particularly from Ethiopia and Uganda.

On the other hand, Djibouti, Eritrea and Somalia, the major option to satisfy their needs is from imports. Though, studies show as these countries have a potential to produce wind and solar energy, still they are at the lowest level of energy production (AU statistics, 2013). The united Nation Energy Development organization (2013) stated the complete or part desert climate coupled with recurrent drought hinder the development of hydropower generation in these countries.

¹.GWh/year- refers Giga watt hours per year is a measure frequently used for electric generator output of a certain country.

².TWH/year = terawatt=114MW ³.UNIDO- United Nations Industrial Development Organization ⁴.ICSHP-International Center for small Hydropower

HYDROPOWER DEVELOPMENT AS A TOOL FOR REGIONAL INTEGRATION

With the asymmetric distribution of rivers suitable for hydropower development, power integration and trade has begun. In the western hemisphere, electricity integration is common. For example North America has the most active and integrated electricity market in the hemisphere, with 51 multinational electricity transmission lines connecting USA, Mexico and Canada (US department of Sustainable Development, 2007). In South America, hydropower plants helped the integration of cross-countries interconnections between Venezuela, Colombia and Brazil with more than 15 interconnection lines. In Europe too, interconnections between the various national systems have been designed largely to promote security of supply. In line with this, during the last decades, the European Union has worked intensively towards building the most integrated, competitive and sustainable common energy market of the world. The EU has worked Projects of Common Interest (PCI) to bring its electricity interconnection level to 10% by 2020 on its way to create a resilient energy union with a forward looking climate policy (European Union Commission, 2015). Furthermore, the countries of Central America have pooled resources and expertise to build infrastructure and create institutions to increase cross-border power trading. This provides an example of how decisions can be reached on critical, often contentious, trading issues such as pricing principles and transmission investment (ibid).

Regional Integration through electricity is also getting a great attention in Africa. Recognizing limitations of national energy markets, Africa is experiencing a shift towards regionally integrated energy markets. Regional Economic Communities (RECs) like Economic Communities of Western African States (ECOWAS), East African Community (EAC) and South African Development Community (SADC) are already working on regionally integrated power pooling, policy planning and development and energy access programs. In line with this, there are primarily five power pools acting as specialized agencies of their respective regional economic communities (RECs): the Central Africa Power Pool, the Eastern Africa Power Pool, the Southern Africa Power Pool, and the West Africa Power Pool established to facilitate cross boarder power trading (World Bank, 2011). According to African Development Bank Infrastructure Consortium for Africa Division (2012) report the northern African Region is connected to a regional electricity network in the Maghreb Region (Morocco-Algeria-Tunisia-Libya). There are presently a number of connections between Spain, Morocco, Algeria and Tunisia, and connections between Algeria-Tunisia-Libya and Egypt. Furthermore in Central Africa, Congo and Zambia; Congo to Burundi are interconnected through grid lines.

HYDROPOWER HUB IN THE GREATER HORN OF AFRICA: ANALYZING ETHIOPIAN'S ROLE

Ethiopia offers a great deal of opportunity for clean energy production and distribution. It has the potential to export energy to the region and beyond. Furthermore, Ethiopia boasts a regional comparative advantage, ecologically and economically, in hydropower production and distribution. According to Mr. Chekih a senior energy analyst in African Union, Ethiopia's hydro-electric potential is enough to meet most of sub-Saharan Africa's current demand. Within Africa, Ethiopia's capacity is surpassed only by that of the Democratic Republic of Congo. With this potential, Ethiopia envisioned selling at least 4,000 MW of power to regional partners in the next decade. Such a role, a veritable hydraulic mission, would transform the perception of Ethiopia from that of a poor country, dependent on outside assistance, to that of a leading state with resources that are valuable to the entire region (Verhoeven, 2011).

Stretching its capacity of exporting power to its neighbors and beyond, Ethiopia tries to influence others. In this respect, Ethiopia's foreign policy also clearly started regional cooperation as one strategic objective of the nation. According to Ato Tesfaye from Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Ethiopia such hydropower integration is believed to bring the nations of the region under a closer community. Furthermore, assuming, Ethiopia as a regional player, the Ministry of Water and Energy prepared a road map for possible regional interconnections in east, west, south and north directions. In this respect the eastern roadmap extended to Yemen, in the south Somalia, Kenya and Uganda, in north Eritrea and Egypt and in the west South Sudan and Sudan. The map below shows such interconnection plans.

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Tesfaye Yitayeh is Former Chief Executive advisor to the Minister of Foreign Affairs on the Affairs of IGAD and currently the director of IGAD affairs I n the Ministry of Foreign Affairs

HVDC- refers high voltage direct current (preferred for long distance transmission network)

Map1-Possible Interconnection lines in IGAD region

Source: Ethiopian Ministry of water and Energy (2013)

In line with this, Regional Integration through hydropower development in Eastern Africa with particular emphasis to the greater horn of Africa has a great prospect for success. However the questions like: Could integration through hydropower sustain for long? What factors could promote interdependence in exchange to power export? Must be explained. The following section intends to explain these and other questions.

Mutual benefit

Hydropower integration promotes mutual benefit to the countries of the region. This is because all countries in the region are dependent on each other in that while Ethiopia exports power at some other point she also requires other services and products. For example Sudan's oil-Ethiopia's power (Black Gold with Blue Gold) shows one aspect of mutual benefit. Ethiopia has no proven oil resources. All fuel consumption in one or another is imported from other countries. In this respect, Ethiopia has a comparative advantage importing oil from Sudan than other countries. Oil and water resources or 'black and blue gold' could contribute to sustainable growth and more harmonious relations between the two countries if they were managed with an explicitly regional perspective. According to Verhoeven (2011) there is a strong case for building regional economic interdependence around an energy deal exchanging Sudanese oil for Ethiopian electricity and thus providing a new framework for political relations. Joint energy initiatives could provide a greater, cleaner and more reliable power supply for both Sudan and Ethiopia as each country grapples with providing jobs for burgeoning populations and services to marginalized areas.

On Ethio-djibouti perspective, Ethiopia's Power- Djibouti's Port complements well. In line with this, the port of Djibouti is the first viable option. In this respect Ethio-Djibouti power integration will help to promote deep political and economic integrations. As a power sector development helps to expand investment in both countries, this will help in further promoting other infrastructural developments like road, railway, building of huge industries and agricultural investments.

Furthermore, other than the port, Djibouti will benefit Ethiopia as the latter use the former to export power to the Middle East.

Ethio-Kenya integration will also be strong as Kenya will serve as a transit state to export power via Kenya's territory. In this regard according to east African power integration program study (2012) that was conducted, in the first phase Ethiopia-Kenya (500KV) interconnection will be finalized. In phase two of the program the interconnection will be done via Kenya-Tanzania double-circuit 400 KV line. Furthermore, in the third phase of the program, Tanzania-Rwanda and Tanzania-Uganda interconnections will be established. In this regard the two countries will be mutually integrated as both are directly affected by the interconnection projects.

Ethio-Eritrean perspective, even though Ethio-Eritrea relation is not favorable at the political level, and if the two countries relation is still impossible to be reversed, Eritrea has a chance to get electric power from Ethiopia via Sudan. In this regard, Verhoeven (2011) stated Sudan and Eritrea agreed to export 200MW hydropower to Eritrea. On the deal to energy linkage Mr. Zelalem, director of Eastern Africa Power Pool, stated that the most viable, cheap and simple interconnection is between Ethiopia and Eritrea as their historical people to people communication and geographic proximity would be much feasible than any other country in the region.

Seasonal Demand

The other major factor of the regional interdependence is seasonal demand varying from country to country. In this respect the countries of the region power demand considerably varies from season to season. For example, Ethiopia, which has a strong Orthodox Christian tradition, consumes less power during its weekends, leaving a surplus for export to Muslim neighbors Djibouti and Sudan, where Sunday is a working day. The countries of IGAD region also have hot climate where they require more energy at night to mitigate heat and temperature, while Ethiopians need more during the day.

Different energy mix

The nature of energy production in the region is different. Some countries have ample amount of solar and hydropower energy potential, while others have fuel energy reserves. For example, Sudan has a huge exploitable actual and potential of fuel energy while Kenya has a good potential of geothermal energy. Thus, Sudan's oil, Ethiopia's hydropower and Kenya's geothermal power can complement one another. In this respect to complement one's country demand on different energy mix integration is not only necessary but also becomes mandatory. Furthermore, different energy mixes will only be complementary only if the integration process is strengthened.

Its spillover effect

Regional integration through hydropower not only satisfies energy demand but also it has other spillover effects. It helps to smoothen regional conflicts, mitigates climate and drought prone areas, expands consumption of technological products and further promotes innovation and advancement of technology. Hydropower development is unique in that, it is environmental friendly, renewable and no proven disadvantage except its high cost of construction at the beginning. The most unique nature of hydropower development for regional integration is its spillover effect for mitigation of climate change and environmental protection. In line with this, the horn of Africa has a comparative advantage in fostering hydropower developments and interconnection projects so as to mitigate the overly increasing drought, climate change, and conflict and security challenges.

Comparative advantage

Hydropower is cheap source of energy compared with other sources of energy. Furthermore, the life span of hydropower is 50 years which is advantageous than other sources. The countries of the horn have a comparative advantage to buy Ethiopian energy because it is cheap. For example Kenya will buy Ethiopian hydropower with 7 US cent per kilowatt which is too cheap compared to generating geothermal energy which has a production cost of more than 10 US cents per

Mr. Zelalem is the Current director general of Eastern African Power Pool

kilowatt. Furthermore those countries with huge diesel energy potential like Sudan costs 20 US cents per kilowatt which is too expensive than importing from Ethiopia. Furthermore, compared with Ethiopia's hydropower site distribution with that of DRC, Ethiopia's hydropower is simple for interconnection as most of hydro plants are distributed in different parts of the country while in DRC most hydropower sites are concentrated in Western DRC which makes the distribution more difficult and costly.

Lower Cost of Production

Ethiopia not only has a huge potential of hydropower development prospects but also minimum cost of production compared to other east African countries. According to World Bank Eastern Africa highway integration project appraisal document (2012) Ethiopia has vast hydropower potential estimated at 45,000 MW, of which less than four percent is currently developed. The long-term marginal cost of developing this generating capacity is around US\$0.04-US\$0.05 per kilowatt-hour, significantly below that of neighboring countries. If there were no barriers to developing and trading Ethiopia's hydropower, the country would have the potential to export more than 55 terawatt Hours (TWh) of electricity per year, or about a third of the total demand in Eastern African Power Pool countries by 2030 (excluding Egypt). The cost of producing hydropower in Ethiopia is much less costly than producing geothermal energy in Kenya or other east African countries.

CONCLUSION

In the greater horn of Africa, water is becoming the most important domain for future cooperation, linked as it is to both energy and agriculture. Energy serves as essential catalyst to economic and social development. This is so because if there is energy production and distribution based linkage, there can be a better opportunity for economic cooperation and consequently a strong and direct interest of one state on the conditions of the other, which is more practical and real than a concern borne out of sentiment or fraternity. Hence, energy linkage leading to economic based integration would open doors for more concrete and justified institutional and political integration, drawing a collaborative effort in tackling problems and effectively utilizing opportunities.

Poor hard and soft infrastructural developments accounts the lion's share of a barrier to regional integration in the greater horn of Africa. The hard infrastructural factor hinders the interconnection between the countries, while the soft infrastructural factor provides a fuel to restrict integration schemes. Infrastructural developments stimulates integration through bringing together economic spaces, reduces physical barriers and upscale and facilitates relation between countries. Hydropower interconnection developments has a spillover effects to promote regional trade, attracting investments, provide reliability of supply, reduces regional uncertainties and promotes cooperation in regional commons. In line with this, it has no question that expanding such infrastructural developments will promote regional linkage and interaction. When these interactions are supported by harmonized policies, standards and norms, it will ultimately lead the formation of one regional community.

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POLICY IMPLICATIONS OF THE DISRUPTIVE IMPACT OF CHINA'S SLOWDOWN ON COMMODITY TRADE WITH THE DEVELOPING WORLD

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ABSTRACT

The economic relations between China and developing mineral-rich countries have primarily been on the bases of the mineral resources of these developing countries. Hence, China's rapid economic growth of recent had positive disruptive impacts on these developing States. Conversely, China's economic decline more recently has had adverse, disruptive effects on these developing States. Based on the findings of the spillover effects of this decline in SA's mineral export value to China, this paper aims to instigate the policy-makers of these developing States (including SA) to see the need for their current policies to be re-assessed. This re-assessment is for determining whether their policies are capable of enabling their economies to handle the disruptive changes that can occur in their trade relations with a superpower like China. The result should be restructuring their policies so they would have buffers for changes in global mineral prices and demand, as well as make them better prepared to enter more beneficial engagements with China when its economy grows stronger again.

Key Words: Trade Policy; Disruptive; Mineral Products; China; Developing Mineral-rich States; South Africa

INTRODUCTION

From the colonial era to most part of the recent post-colonial era, the status quo for commodity trade from developing countries was majorly with developed countries. This status quo was 'disrupted' of recent due to China's bullish, aggressive and rapid industrialization drive. With China needing energy and minerals to drive its rapid industrialization, it looked to many mineral-rich developing countries that have these resources in abundance as its major source of its industrialization raw materials inputs (ASPI, 2012). With the 'less stringent' trade terms and conditions that China offered many developing mineral-rich countries coupled with their massive infrastructure deficits, China's relations with these countries have been hailed as the answer to their key economic challenges. During the past two decades, developing mineral-rich countries have become increasingly dependent on the fast-growing economy of China, which has managed to maintain an average growth rate of about 10% over the last two decades. In turn, the mineral and metal exports of these developing mineral-rich countries have risen sharply as a percentage of Gross Domestic Product (IMF, 2015). This China's strong appetite for mineral resources presented a positive disruption to economic conditions of many developing mineral-rich States, as it inevitably powered their economies over the recent years. However, some had and still consider China's trade relations as being disadvantageous to these developing States, especially with the negative disruptions caused by the more recent economic decline of China.

According to Anderson et al (2015), the linkages between China and other developing countries such as in sub-Saharan Africa for instance, have become stronger where the developments that occur in China spill over into this region. The spillover effects of China's growth can be either positive or negative depending on the production structures and comparative advantages of its trading partners (World Bank, 2015). Unfortunately, many developing mineral-rich countries lack the physical infrastructure and institutional frameworks that is important for the facilitating of the functioning of their economies in the midst of growth spillovers (Bandara, 2012).

According to DTI (2010), trade policy is not the sole determinant of trade performance of both commodity and non-commodity products, but it is an important element to the growth paths and industrial policies of countries, and hence, requires acute attention. In giving special attention to trade policies of countries, it should be noted that policy priorities

vary in developing economies, which are dependent on the diversity of their conditions (WEO, 2016).

This paper aims at determining how and to what extent China's economic slowdown has upset its mineral commodity trade relations with developing mineral-rich countries. It also aims at determining whether these developing States possess well-constructed trade policies that position them to be able to handle the economic dynamics of China's continued appetite for their mineral resources. In this paper, the disruptive impact of China's decline on the performance of South Africa's mineral export and its overall economy is used as a reference point or proxy for its developing counterparts.

CHINA'S ECONOMIC GROWTH AND DECLINE STORY

According to Nielsen (2015), there are increasing signs that China's current economic model has been exhausted. For many years, China experienced significant economic growth rates because of three main factors – its investment in infrastructure, low labour wages and rapid productivity growth (Igbinoba, 2016). Its global exports, State-funded fixed asset investments in infrastructure and real estate were China's primary focus mechanisms to grow its economy. According to Edwards and Lawrence (2012), China's demand for metals, oil and other primary commodities contributed to the strong commodity price increases of years 2000 – 2007. Coal and iron ore prices in particular are said to have increased the most in the metal and minerals industry. This was a well-accepted and needed positive disruption to global commodity price performance.

China had been experiencing an average growth rate of 10% annually from 1979, but started experiencing a steady decline in growth rate from 2011. The growth rate of the Chinese economy dropped from 10.6% in 2010 to 6.9% in 2015 (CCS, 2016). The recent economic slowdown witnessed in China is mainly due to the Chinese government's political decision to undergo a transition (Garg and Kozhikade, 2012). This transition involved China's recent shift toward a new growth model, which aims at the country becoming more dependent on domestic consumption and technology innovation, instead of its exports and fixed asset investments for the provision of new revenue streams for China's economy (Garg and Kozhikade, 2012).

It is stated that the slowdown is a clear indication that an investment –driven model no longer can function as the matrix for China's development (Nielsen (2015). Therefore the main concern for China is not the slowing of the economy but the cost to the government of managing the consequences of an economy that has spent a lot of wealth into fixed investment (Lee, 2015).

China's mineral trade involvement with developing mineral-rich States is expected to continue to grow in the long term. Hence, there is indeed a need for the policymakers of these developing States to structure their (trade) policies in a manner that enables them not to be disadvantaged in their trade dealings with China.

TRADE POLICY IMPLICATIONS OF MINERAL TRADE RELATIONS BETWEEN CHINA AND DEVELOPING MINERAL-RICH STATES: CASE STUDY OF SA'S TRADE POLICY

Since the liberalisation of trade and the dismantling of international sanctions, South Africa has restructured its economy substantially. At the time when the economic sanctions placed against the Apartheid regime got lifted, this allowed South Africa to reinvent its foreign relations, thereby becoming more open, more productive and more outward-oriented (Flatters and Stern, 2007). South Africa thus realigned its foreign relations to new partners and opportunities, including changing diplomatic relations from Taiwan to China (Grimm et al., 2014). With South Africa opening up its economy more rapidly after it became a democracy, this has led to the export growth that the country has been experiencing over the years (Gonzalez-Nunez, 2008). The endless appetite for South Africa's mineral resources and its open market made South Africa an attractive trading partner to China (Alves and Sidiropoulos, 2010). Currently, China sits as the number one trading partner of South Africa.

For example between 2000 and 2012, the prices of iron ore increased by about 1,000% and that of coal by 300% (Lichtenstein, 2013).

The bilateral trade relations between South Africa and Peoples' Republic of China dates back to 1992 following the opening of China's Ministry of Foreign Trade and Economic Cooperation in South Africa (Grimm et al., 2014). This trade relationship between the two countries has been growing since then and continued to expand. The relationship between South Africa and China is labelled as a 'comprehensive strategic partnership', which finds strength as a result of two primary reasons (Xiong, 2012).

These reasons are:

- Firstly, South Africa's diplomatic and political support to China has provided the Chinese economy with a base in the international community. This diplomatic relationship between South Africa and China has fostered the current trade flow and investment between the two countries (Grimm et al., 2014);
- Secondly, South Africa's endowment of natural resources is key to China's economic output and growth.

The growth of China's economy and the increase in demand for natural resources of past years has been hugely beneficial to South Africa's export market for many years (Gonzalez-Nunez, 2008). However, the recent warning of China's economic growth accompanied by the decline in its demand for commodities has posed a challenge to the global mining industry, and that of South Africa in particular (Oyejide et al., 2009). The recent economic decline in China has contributed to South Africa's current position of vulnerability, characterised by slow-moving economic growth and accompanied by a high unemployment rate of about 25% (IMF, 2016), this is because minerals constitute a significant percentage of South Africa's export revenue (Oyejide et al., 2009). Additionally, many issues such as the volatility in the exchange rate, increasing trade deficits and political crisis have affected South Africa's ability to achieve its growth objectives over the years (Gonzalez-Nunez, 2008). To prevent any more problems arising from the impact of China's declining economic performance on SA's mining industry and its economic growth, South Africa needs to have policies that position it to manage vulnerabilities and rebuild resilience against potential shocks during the continuation of the commodity cycle (Edwards and Lawrence, 2012).

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

To facilitate the discussions highlighted by this paper, secondary data collation and the analysis method was used to review existing information, in this case, government-related and other statistics on mineral commodity exports of South Africa and China. The rapid rise in China's demand for minerals led to an increase in mineral prices worldwide. This mineral price increases experienced resulted in the global mining sector and demand for commodities growing significantly. As mentioned previously, SA's mining sector benefited from this commodity boom, which in turn reflected in the value of its mineral exports to China. Table 1 shows how the value of SA's mineral exports to China has performed from the commodity boom era of the early 2000s till recent years.

As indicated in Table 1, the increase in the value of SA's mineral exports to China of US\$ 0.76 billion in 2004 from US\$ 0.29 billion in 2001, corresponded with an era of increase in China's demand for mineral and metals (WITS, 2017). According to ASPI (2012), in the early 2000s, the global markets were taken by surprise by the sudden increase in China's demand. China's metal consumption began to soar during this time, and this is correlated strongly with industrial production (World Bank, 2015).

Table 1: Trends in the mineral commodity trade relations of South Africa and China, as evidenced by SA's value of exports to China.

Year	Value of SA's mineral exports to China
2004	The value of mineral and metal exports to China from South Africa was approximately US\$ 0.76 billion.
2008	In 2008, the value of the mineral and metal exports to China from South Africa was approximately US\$ 3.36 billion.
2011	In 2011, the value of mineral and metal exports to China from South Africa was at a peak at US\$ 9.44 billion.
2012	In 2012, the value of mineral and metal exports to China from South Africa was at a peak at US\$ 8.01 billion.
2013	The value of the mineral and metal products exported from South Africa to China was US\$ 8.07 billion.
2014	In 2014, the value of exported mineral products to China from South Africa slowed from US\$ 9.44 billion in 2011 to US\$ 5.97 billion.

Source: Adapted from (WITS) (2017) and National treasury (2015).

Year: 2004

Figure 1: Export share of products exported from SA to China in 2004. Source: Adapted from WITS (2017).

Based on China's significant, minerals and metals consumption in terms of the value of mineral products exported from South Africa to China, its export product share for mineral products in comparison to the total products was 34.60% in 2004. The export product share of the metal products exported from South Africa to China in 2004 was 37.16 % (see Figure 1). This period saw the prices of iron ore rising nearly ten-fold, and prices of metallurgical coal four-fold as China got incorporated into the World Trade Organization (ASPI, 2012). Iron ore was the highest exported metal commodity by South Africa to China during the time at 19% even though it dropped from highs of 28% in 2001 (OEC, 2017). Additionally, this increase in the value of SA's exports to China coincided with the time that Pretoria was upgrading to a strategic partnership with China, which was followed by negotiations to create a Free Trade Agreement (FTA) that was initiated by Beijing in 2005 (Alden and Wu, 2014). Foreign investment in South Africa was increasing rapidly at the time as well, corresponding with the period of high metal prices. In turn, the capacity in the sector increased substantially (IMF, 2015). In 2008, the value of the mineral exports to China from South Africa increased from US\$ 2.46 billion in 2007 to US\$ 3.36 billion in 2008, as indicated in Table 1.

During this time, iron ore and manganese ore both managed to increase by 7% even though South Africa's economic performance was deteriorating. South Africa's deterioration was accompanied by significant losses in production and employment in the mining industry as a result of the global financial crisis of 2008 (Edwards and Lawrence, 2008). According to Nielsen (2015), after 2008 it became clear that China's economy had become exhausted and that the fundamental rebalance had become imperative. During this time, China's capital – the intensive economy went into a higher gear, and many imbalances in the system began to manifest.

In 2011, China started to experience a steady decline in its growth rate. However, even though the year represented a period of decreased exports globally following the financial crisis of 2008 – 2009, it was in this year that China became South Africa's biggest trading partner (National Treasury (2015); CCS (2016)). The decline of China's growth rate that started in 2011, correlated with the gradual decline of foreign investment in South Africa generally in that same year (IMF, 2015). The export share of Iron ore (the highest imported metal by China from South Africa) started to reduce from 48% to 20%, from the year 2011 to 2014 respectively. Large flat-rolled stainless steel, manganese ore, chromium ore and ferroalloys imported by China from South Africa also showed a cognitive decline starting from 2011 (OEC, 2017). According to CCS (2016), 2011 represented a time in which China's policy-makers were mindful that double-digit growth was unsustainable in the long run. Hence, its policy-makers started to implement measures that would alter China's growth structure towards a more sustainable model. As indicated in Table 1, the value of minerals exported by South Africa to China decreased from a peak of US\$ 9.44 billion in 2011 to US\$ 8.07 billion and US\$ 5.97 billion in 2013 and 2014 respectively.

The year 2013 saw the value of the mineral exports to China at a peak again following the mining industry's decline in 2012, where the value of the minerals and metals exported was US\$ 8.01 billion. As shown in Figure 2, regarding the value of the mineral products exported from South Africa to China, its export product share was 67%, and that of metals was 12.69% in 2013. In this year, the value of the minerals and metals exported from South Africa to China was at a high in comparison to the other produces, e.g. wood, textiles and clothing.

Year: 2013

Figure 2: Export share of products exported from SA to China in 2013. Source: Adapted from WITS (2017).

In 2014, South Africa saw a 37% decline in mineral product exports since 2011. The value of exported mineral products to China from South Africa slowed considerably with China's rapid economic slowdown. As shown in Figure 3, the value of the mineral products exported from South Africa to China had an export product share of 64.55%, and that of metals was 17.31% in 2014. The value of the minerals and metals exported from South Africa to China was still at a high in comparison to the other produces, e.g. wood, textiles and clothing.

Year: 2014

Figure 3: Export share of products exported from SA to China in 2014. Source: Adapted from WITS (2017).

The export value of minerals and metals continued to decline from US\$ 5.97 billion in 2014 to US\$ 4.5 billion in 2015. As indicated in Figure 4, the value of the mineral products exported from South Africa to China had an export share of 59.55% and that of metal products was 18.05% in 2015.

Year: 2015

Figure 4: Export share of products exported from SA to China in 2015. Source: Adapted from WITS (2017).

Furthermore, observations show that these variations in export product shares of mineral and metal products corresponded with the performance of South Africa's growth rate, GDP revenue and the unemployment rate, as illustrated in Table 2. Giving clear indication that as the rate of GDP growth decreased from 2011 to 2015, it coincided with the increase in unemployment and the decrease of GDP revenue. The decline in the economic growth rate of South Africa coincided with the decline in the economic growth rate of China which went from 9.5 per cent in 2011 to 6.9 per cent in 2015 (see Table 2). South Africa's mining industry showed vulnerability to the fluctuations in the import share of China's metal and mineral imports from South Africa. Between 2013 and 2015, the mineral imports from South Africa to China in US\$ billion dollars showed a substantial decrease further indicating how South Africa's economy is dependent on metal and mineral exports. Supporting Cashin et al.' statement of how any slowdown in the composition of China's real GDP growth can have serious implications for South Africa's economy as an emerging market commodity exporter.

Table 2: South Africa v/s China's economic indicators

Year	SA's GDP growth rate (%)	China's GDP growth rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)
2011	3.2	9.5	25.7
2012	2.2	7.8	24.9
2013	2.3	7.7	24.7
2014	1.6	7.3	25.1
2015	1.3	6.9	25.3
2016	0.6	6.7	26.6

Source: Adapted from <http://data.worldbank.org/country/south-africa> and www.focus-economics.com/countries/south-africa.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is without a doubt that the mineral commodity trade relations between developing countries and China are still growing, and expectations are that the growth will continue in the future. However, the trade relations can be used more advantageously as a platform for the exchange of information and strategies to increase the opportunities between countries. For example, China's strategy on Research and Development expenditure is commendable; assumptions are that it accounts for 15% of the world's total spending on Research and Development (WEF, 2016). Although poverty and high levels of inequality are some of the challenges that China still faces, it is still a world leader in poverty reduction and healthcare, especially considering its immense geography and large population size (WEF, 2016).

Additionally, as the trade relations between China and its developing partners strengthen, these countries should use these trade relations to expand their knowledge on how they too can develop their other sectors of the economy such as agriculture, Industry, Science and Technology. It is essential, as there is evidence to show (using SA's example) that for many developing countries, there is now a negative relationship in the export share of metal and minerals.

Therefore, this paper recommends that it is crucial for the policy-makers of these developing mineral-rich states to begin channelling their policies (trade, industrial, mineral policies for instance.) to divert their economies from being excessively dependent on minerals and other products with declining global prices and demand. Also, these policy-makers should restructure their policies in ways that provide buffers for them to handle unexpected and certain global economic changes as well as the aggressive nature of China's approach to its trading partners in preparation for another cycle of China's economic advancement.

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GIRL CHILD EDUCATION FOR INCLUSIVE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

The socio-economic marginalization of females derived from gender disparities, lack of access and quality education leads to subsequent youth unemployment, working poverty, poor standards of living, diminished career choices, unequal salaries and economic exclusion. It is therefore imperative for leaders and governments to invest in girl-child education for Africa's development by castigating gender-based violence, sexual discrimination, gender stereotypes and obliterating early-child marriage. The blatant repudiation of girl's fundamental rights to access equal and quality education is the indictment of a continent that has failed young women and their broader continuous struggle for emancipation, equality and power. This paper lays out some of the problems that girls face and presents an outline of how girl child education is critical to fostering inclusive sustainable development in Africa.

Key Words: Agenda 2063, Africa, girl-child education, early-child marriage, African Union

INTRODUCTION

“These aspirations reflect our desire for shared prosperity and well-being, for unity and integration, for a continent of free citizens and expanded horizons, where the full potential of women and youth are realized.” – Agenda 2063.

The above quote emanates from the African Union's (henceforth the AU) Agenda 2063 which proposed human-centered development approach that caters for gender equality and youth empowerment. The reasons why there are gender imbalances in education is due to policy factors that contribute to gender gaps such as lack of government funding for schools and teacher salaries; lack of free and compulsory primary education; poor financial incentives for girls' education and discrepancies between policy and practice in girls' education discussions. Such gender inequalities with regards to fair access and enrollment are therefore impediments to the vision that young African females deserve. Consequently strategies must be carried out in order to ensure that girls' education policy programs receive sufficient funding and consideration so as to reduce the gap between policy and practice. Inclusive prosperity and socio-economic progress should be availed to all without discrimination on the basis of race, gender and geography hence education is a fundamental right for both boys and girls. Education itself represents the means to social mobility and access to innovation which will propel Africa's industrialization. The premise of this paper maintains that educating girls freely and fairly across Africa is indeed crucial to Agenda 2063 therefore there needs to be a strategy developed in alignment with the United Nations (UN) Agenda 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). This is especially true for goal number four which aims to “ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning opportunities for all” (UN, 2016). As well as goal number five for achieving gender equality and empower all girls and women thus acknowledging that gender inequality is a persistent reality and an impediment to progress in inclusive sustainable development. In order to attain inclusive sustainable development, it is important for African leaders, civic and private sectors to collaborate with both local and regional organizations to tackle the challenges that girls face in school enrollment, learning environments, infrastructure, curriculum and social barriers.

Poverty, early child marriage, gender-based violence and sexual discrimination are some of the hindrances that lead to the girls dropping out of schools. In areas where menstruation is a taboo, girls can stop going to school to avoid embarrassment and social stigma during their menstrual cycle. The worst cases involve areas where sharia law is instigated and girls are completely barred from getting an education or where practices such as Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) are encouraged. For example, Sudanese law discriminates against women and girls through the application of Sharia (Islamic) law penalties for “morality crimes,” such as adultery or dress code violations according to the World Report by the Human Rights Watch (2018). Hence taking into account that eight of the ten countries in which child marriage is most common worldwide are located in Africa (UNICEF, 2017), it does not suffice therefore for African countries to declare that, “All forms of violence and discrimination against women and girls will be eliminated...All harmful social practices (especially FGM and child marriages) will be ended and barriers to quality health and education for women and girls eliminated”

(Agenda 2063). There needs to be subsequent policies and independent working groups to monitor progress in quality of education, access and national development taking into account the factors in the subsequent section which hinder access to fair and quality education for girls.

IMPEDIMENTS TO EQUAL AND QUALITY EDUCATION

The concept of equity in education denotes the ability of children to reach their full cognitive, physical and social development without discrimination based on gender, race, ethnicity or where they live (UNICEF, 2013). According to UNESCO (2004) quality and equality in education are intricately linked. Thus neither of these factors should therefore be overlooked when introducing programs that support girl-child education across the continent.

Kendall (2006) posits how in Malawi, researchers discovered that teacher behavior and the availability of desks affected girls more than boys. Whilst according to UNICEF (2017) the percentage of young women who married before turning 18 years old is above 30 per cent in Central, Southern, and Eastern Africa and above 40 per cent in Western Africa. Another hindrance to keeping girls in school is the fear of violence from male teachers, classmates and community members on their way to school. UNODC (2013) states that increasing gender-based violence disproportionately affects women, youth and children and takes place mostly in rural areas where concentrations of poverty, marginalization, exploitation and violence exist. The other factors that account for gender disparities in education include socio-cultural issues like religion, gender stereotypes, fears of teenage girls becoming pregnant at school, ignorance, prejudiced attitudes and patriarchal social norms that affect how girls learn. Jones (2011) adds that some of the issues that impede girls' access include inadequate sanitation, poor school facilities, the predominance of male teachers and lax school management.

Some instances exist whereby teachers are often severely underpaid; schools are situated long distances away from where girls live; dilapidated school buildings; not enough text books or school furniture and increasing sexual harassment of girls by their teachers or classmates. All of these challenges must be taken into consideration since the learning environment is generally not conducive to learning or retaining knowledge. Provisions must also be made for girls who are refugees, displaced children from fragile states, asylum seekers, migrants and those abducted by militants like the Boko Haram.

When families are faced with extreme poverty, limited resources and lack of funding for sending girls to school, relegates females to unpaid labour, caregiving duties, household chores, farming and child rearing thus depriving them of their capacity to innovate and excel in academia. Furthermore, this is aggravated for girls who are orphans and vulnerable children (OVC), conflict areas and girls with physical or learning disabilities. It is important to involve boys and men in deliberations pertaining to patriarchal cultural and societal practices such as early-child marriage that hinder girl-child education. Early-child marriage is a huge deterrent to gender-inclusive development as child brides are much more likely to drop out of school and complete fewer years of education than their peers who marry later. Ultimately, this affects the education and health of their children, as well as their ability to earn income.

SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

This section describes gender-inclusive innovation policy considerations and proposed solutions to the issues raised in the preceding section that can contribute to promoting girls' access and right to education.

1. The abolition of early child marriage by instigating punitive measures for religious sects, communities or families who perpetuate the practice.
2. Safety and security for girls who live in conflict areas, protection from militants and violence. Safe spaces, separate toilet facilities for girls, sanitary ware provision and social protection systems to protect girls in school.
3. National government incentives for improving teacher salaries; training and allocating qualified teachers for remote rural areas; increasing female teachers and quality school facilities for girls with special needs like physical or learning disabilities from poor families.
4. Government initiatives to upgrade public services and improve infrastructure such as school electricity; lighting; proper ventilation; accessible and clean drinking water; proper waste management; school lunches; ablution facilities; proper school furniture; equipment and a manageable student-teacher ratio for classrooms.

5. Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) scholarships at tertiary institutions, grants, mentorship programs for girls and increased female teachers in those subjects to bridge gender gaps in science and math subjects. Affordable or free primary school education and stipends to improve primary and secondary school completion for girls.
6. Use of big data and girl child education statistics to measure and monitor school enrollment based on gender as well as upgrade national statistics databases on unemployed youths, school leavers, skilled and unskilled youths based on age, location and gender.
7. Gender sensitivity awareness training and capacity-building programs for all those working with and for children and families.

CONCLUSION

Conclusively, the tutelage of girls is perhaps the most peaceful form of justice in order to address deep-rooted educational gender imbalances which relegate females to second-class citizens across Africa and usher them to poverty. The penalties for early child marriage, discrimination, violence against girls and unfair practices should be so severe to deter their perpetrators. There are innumerable factors to address gender inequalities in education such as enrollment policies and practices, curriculum relevance, teacher deployment, gender-inclusive learning environments, security in fragile states or conflict areas, innovative e-learning technologies and resource allocation. It is essential to examine how precise educational programs and policies will affect boys and girls differently by considering their different roles, responsibilities and needs as well as the degree to which their culture or society treats them. The goal is to ensure that girls enter and stay in school, access the same quality academic resources afforded to boys, learn safely, study STEM subjects and achieve academically. It is only when no girl child is left behind in education that inclusive sustainable development becomes a reality.

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EMPLOYABILITY EDUCATION: THE NEXUS BETWEEN EDUCATION AND MARKET NEEDS

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to focus on the literature of employability skills education. The research done investigates the compelling reasons behind the need for employability skills education as a means to achieving economic development. First, the research shows us evidence that there is a gap between education and market needs. It uncovers how the phenomenon of a massive increase in enrollment rates did not actually achieve the desired outcomes in terms of economic development. Following this, the research shows us that the need for a new strategy to connect studying with reality has become pressing. Next, the research further digs into the meaning of employability, employability education, its importance, and the need for its provision. It also looks at some examples of employability education provision in the developed world and highlights the western trend to consolidate employability education through public policy and International Conventions. Finally, the research sheds light on some critiques of employability education as well as further discussion and recommendations for ways to measure and apply the concept of employability.

THE NEED FOR A NEW MODEL OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Strategies of development for international education policies are mostly driven by a focus on educational stages, whether it is primary, secondary or tertiary education. Most development efforts are concerned with increasing enrollment rates at schools, providing the so-called “good quality” education, ensuring equality in terms of access and provision of education, etc. However, there is still a profound need to bridge the gap between education and economic needs within various countries, especially developing countries (Mohamed Bhai, 2014). The policy emphasis on schooling has become controversial because measuring education quality by the number of years attained at school has not guaranteed any improvements in economic conditions (Hanushek, 2013). Hanushek further argues that, even though education does not directly cause economic development due to the effect of other confounding factors that contribute to the equation, he believes that the relationship between economic prosperity and education systems is strongly correlated (2013). The need for integrating education with employment through employability education is crucial for economic development.

Although a number of developing countries are achieving better results in the gross enrolment rates of students in all education phases, they still confront exacerbating development issues such as unemployment and declining GDP (Mohamed Bhai, 2014). According to Bhai, enrolment rates in Sub-Saharan Africa and West and South Asia doubled within approximately a decade in the period from 2000 to 2011. In Central Asia and Eastern Europe, enrolment increased by 25%, in Latin America and the Caribbean by 19%, and in North America and Western Europe by 17% (Mohamed Bhai, 2014). This massification of education, however, had severe negative consequences on graduate employment. One of the reasons for this increasing unemployment is the lack of skilled graduates. Mohamed Bhai (2014) further emphasizes the close relationship between the proportion of skilled workforce laborers and economic development.

This investigated imbalance between education and workforce needs has made it crucial to foster employability skills education to meet the pressing needs of the economies in the developing world. The challenges faced by developing

countries require a behavior and orientation toward work that go beyond step-by-step mission performance. Workers at all levels, not only managerial, are expected to solve problems, generate ways to improve the procedures they use and engage effectively with their associates to diminish poverty (Overtoom, 2000). Problems manifest themselves differently each time. The solution cannot only be provided by high-level managers, it needs all levels of employees and worker's inclusion. In order for all-level employees to solve problems, however, they should be prepared to do so through employability education. The next section of this paper will take us through the meaning of employability from researchers and employers perspectives.

THE DEFINITION OF EMPLOYABILITY

There is no one common or a single universal definition of employability. Yet, there is a consensus or an agreement that the concept is positioned around work and the aptitude to be employed or create employment opportunities through entrepreneurship (Moore, 2009). A person's capability to gain employment is defined as employability and depends on the knowledge, skills and attitudes of this person (Lindh, Jan & Gunilla, 2012). Employability skills are transferable core skill groups that represent essential functional and enabling knowledge, skills, and attitudes required by the 21st century workplace. (Overtoom, 2000). They are essential for any career success at all levels of employment and for all levels of education. In the global university employability survey 2016, a sample of more than 800 global employers and recruiters were asked to state whether they agree or not with the different definitions of employability that they had to choose from. According to the survey, 90% of the respondents' strongly agreed with defining employability as a set of job-related aptitudes, attitudes and behavior; around 65% of respondents agreed with defining employability as the graduates' capacity to land a job immediately after graduation with a sufficient salary (Minsky, 2016). Scholars and professional experts tend to agree that the concept of employability is centered around the graduate's ability to get hired within a short period after his/her graduation. This ability to get employment is not an innate quality that some people are privileged with over others. Yet, it is a set of employable skills that students acquire through employability education. This next section will discuss how schooling and university education should help students acquire these skills. It will also present the importance of employability education to overcome the problem of unemployment and match economic needs.

EMPLOYABILITY EDUCATION

Swings in economies throughout the world, promoted by globalization, rapid change in technological advances, amplified competition, and the increasing sophistication of consumers and clients mean that recruiters are constantly looking for a set of common skills to complement technical skills. Researchers at the University of Nottingham (2007) stated that this combination of generic and technical skills is sought as a means of developing a workforce that is able to cope with progressively complex work practices, greater job flexibility, increased interaction with consumers and minimal work supervision.

The importance of education does not lie anymore on equipping students with technical knowledge and theoretical information about subjects. The need for teaching students the necessary soft skills, such as communication, business-oriented and flexibility skills, shall be solidified through policy to ensure education compatibility with market needs (Greatbatch & Lewis, 2007).

Employability education should not be exclusive to tertiary education, it should be integrated into the curriculums of high school systems and vocational schools. By assessing students' needs based on their skill levels, they can be given structured learning programs tailored to their needs that will help them secure sustainable employment after graduation. Greatbatch & Lewis (2007) developed a guide-set of skills that students should learn in certain stages in their life in order to

become employable upon graduation. Students aged between 14-16 years should learn communication skills, working to deadlines, project planning and improving their own learning (Greatbatch & Lewis, 2007). Students who are aged 16 plus years, should learn interviewing skills, problem-solving skills and how to manage others. Following this strategy in learning outcomes, this model expects that graduates will increase their chances of getting the job they want after graduation (Greatbatch & Lewis, 2007).

Moore (2009) also developed a framework for employability education attainment. Moore believes that there are four basic broad interlocking constructs that distinguish employability education. First, students should be taught to understand how the world works through doing capstone projects in their senior years at university in partnership with professional companies and organizations (Moore, 2009). They should follow a set of interdisciplinary skillful practices in context. They should also be exposed to efficacy beliefs (under which are subsumed a range of personal qualities and attributes), as well as practicing metacognition (including the capacity for reflection and self-regulation) (Moore, 2009).

Having explained the concept of employability education and its application, these next two sections will discuss the impact of employability education on a micro and macro level analyses.

EMPLOYABILITY EDUCATION IMPACT ON A MICRO LEVEL

The need for employability education is a priority for economic prosperity and individual well-being as well. A study made by Jessie, Ute-Christine & Annelies (2014) showed that the most important factor to help unemployed people find job opportunities is that they should have internalized motivation. This motivation could be acquired by receiving employability education training. If people were given the chance, without having a prior perceived usefulness of this chance, results would be detrimental. For this reason, instilling the culture and education of employability raises people's awareness of the perceived usefulness of jobs and this, in turn, helps decrease unemployment rates.

EMPLOYABILITY EDUCATION IMPACT ON A MACRO LEVEL

A number of studies found that the skills acquired by students during their schooling years are much more important than the number of years they spend at school (Guison, 2012). The importance of these skills is reflected and measured by the increase in a country's GDP and the decrease in unemployment rates. The results of the Innovative Secondary Education for Skills Enhancement (ISESE) project found that the national returns to skills are notably larger than those of quantity of schooling and adding cognitive skills to econometric models helped explain a larger variance in cross-country growth gaps (2012).

EMPLOYABILITY EDUCATION PROVISION IN THE DEVELOPED WORLD

There has been a laudable movement by governments in the west for emphasizing the importance of employability skills education and entrepreneurship. In the UK, the government has placed greater emphasis on the wider scope of higher education to encourage entrepreneurship (Crayford, Fearon, McLaughlin & Vuuren, 2012). The following decade, according to Crayfor, et al, (2011), saw an increase in number and frequency of policy initiatives at both UK national and European levels which have influenced the provision of entrepreneurial education across the sector.

The European Initiative "Euro-Education: Employability for all (EEE4all)" inspired by the United Nation's Slogan "Education for All", to eradicate illiteracy, places equal importance of employability education with primary education. The overall evaluation of the EEE4all project by the EU commission showed that the project had thrived in creating

innovative educational models that may be of great support to institutions and practitioners throughout Europe (Lindh, et al, 2012). Hence, it is crystal clear that employability education has become a necessity of equal importance and value to eradicating illiteracy, as a required effort to overcoming socio-economic and development challenges.

The world declaration on Higher Education in the twenty-first century emphasizes the importance of higher education institutions as main providers of skills for populations. The declaration implies the importance of employability education to bridge the gap between developing and underdeveloped countries. Article 1 under the framework for priority action for change and development of higher education states:

Consideration should be given to making budgetary provisions for that purpose, and developing mutually beneficial agreements involving industry, national as well as international, in order to sustain co-operative activities and projects through appropriate incentives and funding in education, research and the development of high-level experts in these countries.

CRITIQUES OF EMPLOYABILITY EDUCATION

The objective reality is that not everybody is in favor of employability education. Skeptics of this type of education believe that it is meant to make people qualified enough to get job offers but not knowledgeable enough to innovate in the business world. Lakes (2011) believes that vocational and employability education are sort of a conspiracy made against the working class for those in control to remain powerful. In his article, “Work-Ready Testing: Education and Employability in Neoliberal Times”, Lakes stated, “Times have changed, but the basic principle remains: Capitalism needs workers who are clever enough to be profitable, but not wise enough to know what's really going on” (2011, P.22).

There still are critiques against employability education that accuses it of working for the interest of those in power to maintain a social working class that is sufficient and able to work properly without the proper academic education. Yet, the fact that employability education shapes the nexus between education and market needs, places huge significance on researchers and policy makers to develop a solid strategy to improve graduates' knowledge as well as their employability.

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

National priorities and economic needs of any country always influence how education policy is shaped. The link between education, employability skills, and economic growth has been studied through a large body of literature in the past decades. The need for employability education, especially in the developing world, appears to be significant for confronting the current challenges. Graduates shall learn how to be flexible against the changes that occur in the economy. Also, at times when the market requires certain skills, graduates shall be ready to adapt to market needs.

For the reasons mentioned above, research and policy making shall be directed towards investigating effective ways of providing employability education. There is a decisive need for accurate data gathering across developing countries to encompass inter-related aspects between employability skills and economic progress. It is also tremendously important for researchers, policy makers, educators, government officials, parents and all stakeholders within countries to form an employability education commission to discuss the necessary skills that students should learn. These discussions about the necessary skills development strategies need to include not only an exhaustive reflection around the type of skills needed but also effective ways of pedagogical methodology for them.

There is also a need for international organizations such as UNESCO to adopt and develop a tangible framework for how employability education should be applied. On a large scale, countries have to agree upon the most important skills students have to learn in schools and that shall be solidified through an international convention or policy.

Since one of the main aims of education systems is to prepare a skillful workforce and good employees who can perform job tasks efficiently, one of the questions that need more research is whether employers shall have their input in curriculum making. And if they are allowed to have a significant input in preparing the curriculum, specifically for tertiary education, what ramifications and implications could be anticipated to manifest?

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FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT REGULATION: SHOULD AFRICA AVOID PERFORMANCE REQUIREMENT?

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ABSTRACT

This article assesses how African states should regulate **Foreign Direct Investment** (FDI). In particular, it focuses on whether African states should employ or avoid performance requirements as mechanism of regulation of FDI. The imposition of performance requirements, also known as operational requirements, in IIAs remains controversial. There is no consensus either on their effectiveness in helping countries to promote development, or in their distorting effects. Some host developing countries consider performance requirements to be an effective policy tool for enhancing the benefits of FDI and consider their disciplining to be undue interference with their policy space. In this paper argues that African states should use performance requirement in the course of their investment regulation with due care than avoiding it at all. The paper is doctrinal, thus, many literatures relating to the topic and the practice of some countries are analyzed. The paper concludes that the usage or imposition of such measures should be in manner that it cannot deter the future FDI inflow. African states should focus on regional cooperation than competition and this cooperation should go to the extent of having common model investment treaty.

Key Words: FDI, performance requirement, African States and Investment Regulation

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BITS	Bilateral Investment Treaty
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
TRIMs	Trade Related Investment Measures
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
WTO	World Trade Organization

FDI REGULATION IN GENERAL

FDI can play significant roles in the development process of the host country, in addition to the capital inflow which improves its balance of payment and earns foreign hard currency. It is occasioned by new technologies and advanced managerial skills (UNCTAD, 2003) which are all decisive for the development of a given country. As host countries are getting advantages of FDI, the investors are also not far behind in terms of the benefits to be earned from the same (TARUN, 2012). However, FDI's effect on the host country is not always positive. It depends on how the host country regulates it. Currently, Africa became very import destination for foreign direct investment. Many African countries are very busy for promotion and attraction of FDI. There is fierce competition among African states in this regard. While they are in such competition it seems that they have forgotten;

➤ Firstly, in this connection, cooperation is better than competition. Cooperation is better; not only to regulate FDI, but also to increase its inward flows. This is because regional integration and cooperation among states develop the market size which in many cases is determinant factor for FDI flows. Secondly, that FDI has negative effects like its “crowding out” effect on domestic investors (AUGUSTINA, 2007, p.67) which can be major factor for unemployment, environmental degradation, excessive exploitation of natural resources, and its effect on trade balance and potential contribution to social disorder and civil war which emanates from corruption and competition for subsistence among the victims of illegal eviction.

➤ Finally, that the optimal benefit to be earned from FDI depends on how the host country regulates them. The assumptions for promotion of FDI include, transfer of new technology, creation of employment opportunities, bringing

foreign hard currency and development of the domestic investors through competition. Unless host countries regulate FDI by crafting best policy which balances its promotional side and controlling side, these assumptions become mere wish. This is to say that African states should also give attention to effective regulation or controlling of FDI to obtain the said advantages of it.

Investment regulation has controlling and promotional sides. Investment promotion comprises of a wide range of activities that are aimed at creating favorable conditions for attracting foreign investment (UNCTAD, 2008). The means of attracting foreign investment includes the provision of incentives, advertisement and publicity campaigns, and the setting up of investment promotion agencies to facilitate the establishment of foreign investors (UNCTAD, 2008). In addition to grant of fiscal and financial incentives, arrangements and facilitation of the determinant variables of foreign investment is the ideal mechanism for promotion of FDI. These determinant variables include improvement of access to input, establishment and development of export processing zone, facilitation infrastructures, developing cheap and skilled labor (Elena, 2014). The role of investment promotion agency to have the good policy and strategies which is capable of attracting FDI is indispensable (UNCTAD 2008, p.37). Generally, we promote and encourage the inflow of foreign investments to reap their potential benefits and although it differs from state to state and factor to factor, African states are perceived to be doing their best on this regard.

The controlling side of investment regulation can have forms of complete prohibition by the host state or certain investment sector or it may have a form of imposing contingent conditions on foreign investors (NEPAD/OECD, 2005 p.5). In other words, the controlling aspect of investment regulation can have the exclusionary or restrictive effect on foreign investors. Moreover, the regulation can be implemented before foreign investment is established or during the time when the foreign investor is operating its investment after its establishment in accordance with the law of the host country; pre- and post- establishment regulation or requirements.

Generally, countries control foreign investment to have enough policy space for their economic and political development concern, to reduce foreign investment drawbacks and to maximize the benefits thereof. As already mentioned, we can use various mechanism of controlling FDI among which the main concern of this paper is performance (operational) requirement.

PERFORMANCE REQUIREMENTS AS REGULATION OF FDI

Performance requirements are stipulations, imposed on investors, requiring them to meet certain specified goals with respect to their operations in the host country (UNCTAD 2003). That means they are measures requiring investors to behave in a particular way or to achieve certain outcomes in the host country. It may tell the investor to use locally produced goods for its production in the host country or it may prescribe a specified percentage of products to be exported to a foreign market by a foreign investor.

Noncompliance by the investor of this requirement may result in different sanction by the host country which may include revocation of investment permit. Some requirements are mandatory requirements, in which non-compliance by foreign investor may lead to the revocation of investment permit (IISD, 2012). However, there are some requirements the application of which entitle foreign investor to incentives (IISD, 2012). This depends on the way the host country uses them; some countries impose the mandatory requirements while others provide the foreign investors incentives. The non-compliance of such requirements by investor might not result in the revocation of investment permit rather the investor loses the incentive that could have obtained if requirements were followed.

There are divergent views regarding employment and performance requirements on FDI and their effect on the economy. While scholars regard them as an essential instrument in a country's FDI policy Package, others tend to argue that they are counter-productive.

Firstly there is an approach that supports for non-use of performance requirement as a restriction on FDI by the host state. This view, mostly, is the view of developed countries, especially US and members of EU. They argue that the imposition of performance requirements is less effective and counter-productive. According to the developer of this view, it is less effective because there are other policy instruments which can be used instead by host country and that can be easily implemented for the purpose for which they are designed. And it is counter-productive because, the imposition of some performance requirement affects not only the investors but also the host country itself. It seems that this view is more or less inherited from the classical economic theory of FDI.

Secondly, there is an approach which advocates the usage of performance requirement for they are important in case of policy guidelines. This as opposed to the first approach is the position of developing countries. This position of developing countries is manifested at the Uruguay Round Agenda of WTO. They argued that the effectiveness and productivity of performance requirement is proved from the experience of developed countries as they extensively use them for their development policies (NAGESH, 2003). Chang in this regard strongly argued that now developed countries systematically discriminated against foreign investment by employing performance requirement and other instruments (CHANG, 2004). The historical experiences of today's developed countries show that a well-devised set of restrictions and performance requirements on foreign investment has been a key ingredient in their recipes for success (CHANG, 2003).

To sum up the above discussion, performance requirements have been employed extensively by developed as well as developing countries to improve the quality of FDI and to maximize its contribution to their development (NEGASH, 2003, p. 72). As it can be evidenced from some literatures, developed capital-exporting states are against performance requirements. Developing countries are also more or less against the mandatory performance requirements. Many developing countries including African states employ incentive based performance requirements. This comes from the fear that impositions of such measures deter the future FDI. This is the result of lack of cooperation among developing countries. If at least majority of them use these measures in similar manner, they will be benefit from it. Imposition of all these requirements can be counterproductive but using specific measure in specific circumstances can greatly benefit African states. The following points are some list of performance requirements.

Export performance

Export performance requirement is the host country's regulating instrument towards the FDI, in which the former determine that the foreign investor should export the prescribed percentage of its product or service to foreign markets. A host country employs the export requirement to preserve the local markets for the domestic enterprise or to earn foreign hard currency from the export by the foreign investor (SORNARAJAH, 2000) Since the big TNCs (transnational corporations) come with huge capital and resource, allowing them local market in equal bases with the domestic enterprises has a crowding out effect on the latter from market. It is for the protection of domestic enterprise that the host country employs the export requirement. Further, the host country imposes the export performance for the purpose of ensuring that more foreign exchange is earned for the host state than profits made for the foreign investor through sales on the local market, because there is a fear that the profit will be repatriated (SORNARAJAH).

There are other measures by host country which have the same effect and are used side by side with export performance requirement and they are sometimes used as incentive for the investors who export their product (UNCTAD, 2003). These measures include various incentives, tariff cuts, and facilitation of infrastructures (UNCTAD, 2003). It has been argued that imposition of this requirement will affect not only the foreign investor but also the host country. If a firm is able to export competitively, it will do so on its own initiatives to maximize its profits (NEGASH, p.67) requiring it to export beyond what is commercially viable on the other hand will be a loss, this in turn affects the host countries future FDI inflow and its competitive capacity at international market. However, we can still use this requirement within what is commercially viable by seeing the potential and nature of specific investor on case by case grounds.

It is clear that performance requirement is among the trade related investment measures because its imposition has more or less an effect on trade. But export performance requirement are not prohibited under TRIMS agreement. As will be dealt with in following sections, articles of TRIMS agreement dealing with performance requirement cross refer to the article III and XI of the 1994 GAAT, under which export performance requirement is not prohibited. Indeed, it was one of the debating points between the developed and developing countries whether it should be prohibited in TRIMS agreement for its effect on trade. Thus, African states including those who are members of WTO can use this requirement.

Local content requirement

It is a requirement whereby a foreign investor will be required to purchase a certain percentage of raw materials from the market or locally produced goods. Local content requirements could be an important means of deepening the commitment of TNCs entering an economy and of generating local value-added, hence employment is created and the related spillovers of knowledge and technology (NEGASH). It promotes a value addition. For example, in case of agriculture, export of processed agricultural product is better in value than export of agricultural raw materials. In some cases it becomes difficult for foreign investors to get the raw material from the local market of the host country in terms of the cost and quality of the raw material or the foreign investor may need the product which has some specifications and designs which are patented. In such cases, local content requirement obliged them to license these patented products to the host countries producer (NEGASH) which in turn create the employment opportunity and increase the knowledge and technology diffusion to the domestic enterprises of the host country (NEGASH, p.65). Since the use of this requirement will ensure that local products are utilized in the manufacture of products made by the foreign investor and not imported from abroad (M.SORNARAJHA), it is also used for the import substitution purpose. Local content requirement is prohibited under TRIMS because it is supposed to have the trade distortive effect. Imposition of this requirement is considered as counter-productive for it affects the decision making power of the investor and this becomes worse when foreign investors could not find the products of good quality at fair price. This means if the price of the raw materials produced in the host country are of lesser quality or\and high price, it affects the export capacity of the investor and even it can affect the export capacity of the host state. The experience of some countries like Canada, Korea, Japan and Taiwan becomes a case in focus on how they have strategically used the local content requirement to increase the benefit of the FDI in their economic environment (HA- JOON CHANG, 2004). African states which are not members of WTO can use this requirement. This requirement can be used in better manner if states identify and arrange the specific nature of the local products that particular investment needs.

Local employment requirement

As it has been said so far, one of the FDI's advantages is the transfer of managerial skills and creation of employment opportunities. On the other hand, there is the reasonable fear on the side of the host states in materialization of this benefit as the investors always tend to come up with their personnel who are to be employed at different post or positions. It is this fear that initiates the host country to impose local employment requirement. Local employment requirement is not confined to the employment of the personnel of the host country; it sometimes includes the training of these personnel by the foreign investor (UNCTAD 2003, p.30). The argument against the imposition of this requirement assert that it affects the foreign investors where there is no skilled man power required for running the business and where trainings costs much. Hence, this makes the foreign investors uncompetitive in the international market. This requirement is not prohibited under TRIM, but it can be prohibited under other international investment agreements like incase of BITS or regional investment treaties. In short, African states can effectively use this requirement by producing skilled man power or increasing the quality of education to be given their nationals.

Technology Transfer requirement

Studies show that FDI is among the major means of international technology transfer beside trade (AMY & SAGGI, p.1). Foreign investors, usually the MNEs or TNCs, *are the developed world's most important source of corporate research and development (R&D) activity, and they generally possess a higher level of technology than is available in developing*

countries, so they have the potential to generate considerable technological spillovers in the host country (OECD 2002, p.12). Technology transfer requirement is the host country's regulatory policy which requires foreign investors transfer and diffusion of technology.

This requirement however is criticized for its ineffectiveness. The evidence on the effectiveness of technology transfer requirements is scarce and, where available, does not suggest much success; For instance in Japan and South Africa, the studies by UNCTAD show that the imposition of this requirement on FDI was of little importance in bringing of technology transfer and diffusion (UNCTAD 2003, p.30). Ineffectiveness of this requirement is attributed to different factors such as its dependence on the host state's absorptive capacity of the technology and the difficulties in determination of the extent and kind of desirable technology to the development (UNCTAD 2003, p.30). This means the host country should be able to have the educated man power that are ready and have the potential to absorb the new technology transferred in and then use in their local enterprises. Moreover it is difficult for the host states to control the implementation of the requirement by the investors, for the investor can transfer technology which is less desirable for the development of the former. The investor may transfer very little amount of technology, because usually the extent of technology to be transferred is not determined by the host.

Because of this reason some suggest the usage of local content, export and joint venture requirement for better transfer of technology in the host state than technology transfer requirement (NEGASH, p.70). However, there is no reason why the host state cannot impose the effective technology transfer requirement as far as they could increase their absorptive capacity and objectively identify type and extent of technology transfer they need. The absorbing capacity is increased with the increase in level of education, Even if there is lack of skilled man power what developing countries should do, to increase their absorptive capacity is, to increase the level of education of their citizens and then, limiting the extent and type of technology they want for their development to be transferred. African countries, as a developing and FDI control seekers, it is better for them to regionally integrate against capital exporting countries than competing with one other for their attraction at the expense of one another which may finally compel the TNCs to invest despite the use of technology transfer requirement and other performance requirement.

Joint venture requirement (JV)

The joint venture is a collaborative arrangement between two or more businesses to achieve a particular objective or to participate in another fresh project which may be more successfully pursued as a result of their pooling of resources or technology (SORNARAJHA). In this case the collaboration is either between government and foreign investor or between private, domestic and foreign investors. What the host country need in imposing the joint venture requirement is to limit the foreign ownership and ensure the indigenization of foreign capital. The collaboration increases the technology diffusion and the indigenization of the share helps to reduce the repatriation of the profit. This requirement is also advantageous for foreign investor since the domestic investor knows the situation of local market and other situation in the country which the foreign investor does not know. Therefore African states should use this requirement especially in areas of the technology and managerial skills they want.

These are not only the performance requirements which can be imposed by host state on foreign investment. As performance requirement are imposed for economic, political, environmental and other reasons too numerous to mention.

Some African associate the FDI as new form of colonization. This assertion may be true to some extent, so long as Africans remain divided and compete for the attractions of FDI to the extent of lifting all restrictions than cooperating and uniting the situation. This is no different from the divide and rule of the colonial system. Especially in mining industry where FDI come with little or no foreign capital and extract, exploit and degrade African minerals. For the sake of FDI attraction, some African countries lifted the minimum capital requirement. Cooperation and integration is a must. In this regard,

African Continental Free Trade Area (AFCFTA) which is signed on 21st March 2018 is a very good progress. Such progress should also include the FDI policy of states and should bring investment treaty model for regions.

CONCLUSION

FDI can play significant roles in the development process of the host country. FDI's effect on the host country is not always positive. It depends on how the host country regulates it. This shows regulation of investment is a determinant factor of FDI proper workability. Performance requirements are stipulations, imposed on investors, requiring them to meet certain specified goals with respect to their operations in the host country. It is one of the instruments of FDI regulation. The imposition of performance requirements, also known as operational requirements, in IIAs remains controversial. There are two ways of using these requirements, the mandatory and incentive based ways. Most developing states use the latter approach. Since the incentive based usage of performance requirement is a matter of choice for investors, they may lack commitments towards this requirement. Therefore, African states should use some mandatory requirements for regulation of FDI. When they use these measures states should take in to consideration first, their international commitment especially under WTO for some performance requirements have trade distortive effect and are prohibited under TRIMs. Secondly, they should also take into consideration the specific nature of these requirements in line with the nature of the FDI. States should reconsider their policies of performance requirements. Finally, African states should cooperate and at least have common investment treaty model which may avoid competition between them in FDI attraction.

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THE IMPACT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION ON SELF-EMPLOYMENT INITIATIVES AMONG FOURAH BAY COLLEGE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurship education is a catalyst for the diminution of unemployment in Sierra Leone. The study evaluates the causal nexus between entrepreneurship education and self-employment initiatives among Fourah Bay College students. Using regression analysis, data collected were primary data through the administration of questionnaires and simple percentage ranking techniques were used to analyze the questionnaires. The result shows that entrepreneurship education is an important policy and it has positive effect on self-employment initiatives. From the study, the following are some of the recommendations: The University of Sierra Leone should establish a center for entrepreneurship and innovation that will offer degree programs in entrepreneurship education. Entrepreneurship education facilitators should be people who are not only qualify academically but have the practical experience as well. Business competitions should be held for students. This will accelerate the self-employment initiatives among students.

Key Words: Unemployment, Sierra Leone, Economic Development, Entrepreneurship, Initiatives.

INTRODUCTION

Unemployment among youths is a social problem that is hang gliding in developing countries especially Sierra Leone. In economics, it is believe that government does not create jobs but the enabling environment for the private sector to flourish. It is an affair of accuracy that entrepreneurship education is an accelerator in the diminution of unemployment in Sierra Leone. However, while most Sierra Leone universities and other tertiary institutions have initiated entrepreneurship courses in their curricular; little research is available to assess its impact and to know whether a relationship exists between student entrepreneurship education and their self-employability capacity.

Entrepreneurship education focuses on the development and application of an enterprising mindset and skill in the specific contexts of setting up a new venture, developing and growing an existing business, or designing an entrepreneurial organization (Jiddah, 2016).

The oxford dictionary defines self-employment as working for oneself, as being an independent business person. According to **Ekundayo and Babatunde (2014)** entrepreneurship education in Nigeria seems to be pursued largely in tertiary institutions with a number of polytechnics, colleges of education, professional institutes and universities offering one or few entrepreneurship courses. The prolonged and heightened interest in the field of entrepreneurship is impelled by several factors: some being, as a means of revitalizing stagnated economies; stimulating developing economies and coping with unemployment problems by providing new job opportunities for graduates and the likes.

For instance, Nwangwu (2007) in his view supported entrepreneurial education and also argued that graduates with adequate skills and training will be creative and innovative in identifying noble business opportunities.

Hence, this study is to see whether entrepreneurship education acquired from the university by students will increase their level of business start-ups, which meant to increase graduate business birth rate after graduation in Sierra Leone.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Unemployment is a precedence of dissertate in Sierra Leone in recent years with the churning out of graduates overloading further the already saturated labour market. The current education system does not appear to be producing graduates with the required skills and this leads to the continuous increase in the rate of unemployment. It is evident that government has

initiated many programmes that are fantastically amazing on paper to alleviate this problem but the problem still remains dissonated as unemployment rate is still very high in Sierra Leone. Could it be that entrepreneurship education can help solve this problem that will make graduates self-employed? It is in line with this that this study tries to probe the relationship between entrepreneurship education and self-employment initiatives, using Fourah Bay College, University of Sierra Leone as a case study.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What is the relationship between entrepreneurship education and self-employment initiatives?
2. What factors that determine the employability of students of Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone?
3. In what ways can the employability of Sierra Leonean graduates be enhanced?

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The general objective of this study is to examine the relationship between entrepreneurship education and self-employment initiatives in Fourah Bay College, University of Sierra Leone.

Specific objectives

1. To analyze factors that determine the employability of students of Fourah Bay College in Sierra Leone
2. To examine the ways in which the employability of Sierra Leonean graduates be enhanced

HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

H₀: There is no significant relationship between entrepreneurship education and self-employment initiatives.

H₁: There is a significant relationship between entrepreneurship education and self-employment initiatives.

LITERATURE REVIEW (CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK)

Entrepreneurship Education

Oguntimehin and Olaniran (2017) explained entrepreneurship education as pragmatic and meaningful interaction between learner and instructor developing the ability of the learners to identify, evaluate and generate ideas and solving business problems in a unique way. Entrepreneurship education is a catalyst for economic development and job creation in any society. This is because it seeks to provide students with the knowledge, skills and motivation to encourage entrepreneurial success in a variety of settings (Okafor, 2014).

Entrepreneurship education is the kind of education given to people with a view if developing entrepreneurship qualities properly followed-up with support services for smooth take-off and successful running of business (Varela and Jimenez, 2001). According to Mauchi *et al.* (2011), entrepreneurship education is defined as the process of providing individuals with the ability to recognize commercial opportunities and the knowledge, skills and attitudes to act on them. Adebayo and Kolawole (2013) described entrepreneurship education as a specialized training to the students or trainees to acquire skills, ideas, managerial abilities and capabilities for self-employment than employed for wage pay.

In a similar vein, Ekankumo *et al* (2011) stressed that entrepreneurship education seeks to provide students (especially those in tertiary schools) with the knowledge, skills and motivation to encourage entrepreneurial studies in a variety of setting. From these assertions, it is obvious that a well implemented entrepreneurship education will climax in economic empowerment and development. The above views show that entrepreneurship education in scope, nature and characteristics is a rebranding education culture meant to guarantee a comprehensive educational system re-engineering obvious deficiencies of the existing education system. It aims at equipping the students with requisite skills and capacities needed for the global workforce.

Self-employment

Self-employment defines as a form of employment where a person is his/her own boss, creates a new venture and makes all the decisions. According to Abdulkarim (2012) self-employment is an art of working for oneself. Self-employment is the act of generating one's income directly from customers, clients or other organizations as opposed to being an employee of a business or person. When one is self-employed, it means one is carrying on one's own business rather than working for an employer. This implies that self-employment is a situation in which an individual works for him/ herself instead of working

for an employer that pays salary or wages (Afolabi et al, 2017).

THEORITICAL REVIEW

Risk Taking Theory (RTT): Another theory that supports entrepreneurship education is the risk taking theory of Richard Cantillon and John Stuart Mill.

The theory perceives entrepreneurship as a mental education that stimulates individuals to take calculated risk for which future stream of benefits are guaranteed and people taking big risk have to contend with a great responsibility (Alam and Hossan, 2003).

Human Capital Theory (HCT): This theory exponent that human capital development that will lead to labour productivity can be enhance through education. In the words of John F Kennedy the progress of a nation can be no swifter than the progress in education the human mind is our fundamental resource. Therefore, human capital theorists encourage investment in nation's workforce because expenditure on training and development is a productive investment like investment on physical assets (Olaniyan and Okemakinde, 2008). Furthermore, human capital enhancement through quality education is a critical factor that promotes economic prosperity in industrialized nations (Olaniyan and Okemakinde, 2008).

EMPIRICAL REVIEW

Oluwakemi and Adedapo (2017) in their paper titled: Assessing Nigerian graduate employability examined the employability of Nigerian University outputs in the labour markers in South-Western, Nigeria. The findings revealed that the employability of Nigerian University outputs is low and the rating of these Universities outputs were insignificantly different with respects to their sex, type of organization where they work and their educational qualification.

Segal et al., (2005) stated that self-employment is a function of entrepreneurship knowledge and it is reasonable to assume that participation in entrepreneurship education and previous entrepreneurial experience would increase an individual's entrepreneurial knowledge. Students with high entrepreneurial self-efficacy may be drawn to self-employment's desirable benefits in comparison with the benefits obtained through employment.

In another study carried out by kumara (2012) from Sri Lanka, has revealed that students who have received entrepreneurial education often develop positive attitudes and beliefs towards self-employment and entrepreneurship intention to a large extent. Students who passed through entrepreneurship education expressed interest in starting their own business in the future.

Furthermore, Owusu-Ansah (2004) in his study revealed that entrepreneurship education serves a medium of increasing students' interest in entrepreneurship career. In addition, some previous studies have reported findings on the impact of entrepreneurship education on career intentions and aspiration of tertiary students in Ghana. It was found that most people were motivated to a large extent to start-up a business by virtue of their exposure to entrepreneurship trainings. A large mismatch appears to exist between university outputs and labour market demands.

Methodology

The study adopted descriptive survey research designed to examine the relationship between entrepreneurship education and self-employment in Fourah Bay College, University of Sierra Leone. The population of the study is 100 students which comprised of students from four faculties from different departments drawn from Fourah Bay College, University of Sierra Leone. In order to achieve the research objectives, purposive sampling technique was employed.

This study was analyzed using SPSS statistical instrument. The analysis was done using regression analysis, descriptive statistics which include frequency count, percentage and graph. Correlation analysis will permit us to estimate the relationship between entrepreneurship education and self-employment initiatives of university students. Also, an online questionnaire was also structured using google form and the questionnaires were administered via social media such as facebook, whatsapp, email and others.

RESULTS

Table 1: Descriptive analysis of demographic data

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	64	64.0
Female	36	36.0
Total	100	100.0
Age		
<20	23	23.0
20 – 30	74	74.0
31 – 40	2	2.0
>40	1	1.0
Total	100	100.0
Faculty		
Arts	26	26.0
Social science and law	51	51.0
Pure and applied science	11	11.0
Engineering and architecture	12	12.0
Total	100	100.0
Level of study		
Certificate	11	11.0
Diploma	2	2.0
Degree	87	87.0
Postgraduate	-	-
Total	100	100.0
FBC Entrepreneurship course		
Yes	24	24.0
No	76	76.0
Total	100	100.0
Level of professional attraction		
Salaried work	33	33.0
Self-employment	52	52.0
Liberal profession	15	15.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Field survey (2018).

Analysis in Table 1 reveals that there were more male participants compared to female. Majority of the participants were still young in age as 74% of them fell within the ages 20 to 30.

76% of the participants said no they have not taken any entrepreneurial course in the university. Only 24% said yes they have. Also, 33% preferred salaried work, 52% self-employment and 15% prefer liberal profession.

Table 2: Computation of data collected

S/N		SD	D	N	A	SA
1	In my university, people are actively encouraged to pursue their own ideas	14 (14)	8 (8)	9 (9)	28 (28)	41 (41)
2	In my university, you get to meet lots of people with good ideas for a new business	11 (11)	10 (10)	11 (11)	35 (35)	33 (33)
3	Starting my own business sounds attractive to me	4 (4)	4 (4)	6 (6)	2 (2)	58 (58)
4	Self employment is the best way for me to take advantage of my education	5 (5)	10 (10)	6 (6)	32 (32)	47 (47)
5	I am confident that I would succeed if I start my own business	3 (3)	1 (1)	7 (7)	37 (37)	52 (52)
6	It would be easy for me to start my own business	6 (6)	16 (16)	27 (27)	34 (34)	17 (17)
7	Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality	3 (3)	4 (4)	3 (3)	22 (22)	68 (68)
		TD	D	N	A	TA
8	I love challenges	4 (4)	2 (2)	12 (12)	34 (34)	48 (48)
9	I am creative and innovative	2 (2)	1 (1)	9 (9)	39 (39)	49 (49)
10	I enjoy taking calculated risks	3 (3)	11 (11)	20 (20)	36 (36)	30 (30)
11	I am discipline and hard working	3 (3)	-	6 (6)	24 (24)	67 (67)
12	I love to challenge the status quo	2 (2)	1 (1)	15 (15)	40 (40)	42 (42)
13	I like to try new routes, new foods, new places and totally new experiences	1 (1)	-	4 (4)	37 (37)	58 (58)
14	To start a firm and keep it working would be easy for me	9 (9)	16 (16)	22 (22)	29 (29)	24 (24)
15	I can control the creation process of a new firm	3 (3)	5 (5)	17 (17)	48 (48)	27 (27)
16	I know the necessary practical details to start a firm	4 (4)	21 (21)	19 (19)	35 (35)	21 (21)

17	I know how to develop an entrepreneurial project	4 (4)	16 (16)	23 (23)	31 (31)	26 (26)
18	If I start a firm, I would have a high probability of succeeding	2 (2)	1 (1)	11 (11)	33 (33)	53 (53)

Source: Field Survey (2018).

Note: SA, A, U, SD, D, TD and TA denote strongly agree, agree, undecided, strongly disagree, disagree, totally disagree and totally agree.

Test of hypothesis

In testing the hypothesis, questions 1 and 4 as contained in table 2 were used.

Table 3

Response Required	Responses from question 1	Responses from question 4
Strongly disagree	14	5
Disagree	8	10
Neutral	9	6
Agree	28	32
Strongly agree	41	47

Source: Field Survey (2018).

Table 4

Responses to question 1 (X)	Responses to question 4 (Y)	X ²	Y ²	XY
14	5	196	25	70
8	10	64	100	80
9	6	81	36	54
28	32	784	1024	896
41	47	1681	2209	1927
100	100	2806	3394	3027

Source: Author's computation (2018)

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{n(\sum x^2) - (\sum x)^2} \sqrt{n(\sum y^2) - (\sum y)^2}}$$

$$r = \frac{5(3027) - (100 \times 100)}{\sqrt{5(2806) - (100)^2} \sqrt{5(3394) - (100)^2}}$$

$$r = \frac{15135 - 10000}{\sqrt{14030 - 10000} \sqrt{16970 - 10000}}$$

$$r = \frac{5135}{5200.72} \quad r = 0.9689$$

Table 5: Interpretation of the size of correlation

Correlation	Negative	Positive
None	-0.09 to 0.0	0.0 to 0.09
Weak	-0.3 to -0.1	0.1 to 0.3
Strong	-0.1 to -0.5	0.5 to 1.0

Source: Authors' computation (2018).

This shows that (0.9689) of the participants' response is positive, that entrepreneurship education has strong positive relationship with self-employment initiatives.

Test of Hypotheses

In testing the hypothesis, questions 1 and 4 as contained in table 2 were used.

The t-statistics was also estimated in table 6 below.

Table 6: t-statistics coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	3.399	.326		10.412	.000
1 Entrepreneurship education and pursuing ideas	.177	.082	.214	2.165	.033

a. Dependent Variable: Self-employment is advantageous for my education

The estimated result for entrepreneurship education and self-employment initiatives derived is presented in table 6 above examined the effect of entrepreneurship education on self-employment initiatives among Fourah Bay College students. The table reports entrepreneurship education has a positive and significant effect on self-employment initiatives in Sierra Leone. In magnitude, a unit change in entrepreneurship education enhances self-employment initiatives by 0.177 units. The t-statistics shows that entrepreneurship education was significant at 5% critical level with self-employment initiatives.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper examines the impact of entrepreneurship education on self-employment initiatives among Fourah Bay College, University of Sierra Leone students. Using the regression analysis, the findings revealed that entrepreneurship education is an important policy and it has positive impact on self-employment initiatives. Furthermore, it shows that entrepreneurship education has influenced students' interest in entrepreneurial activities and building their choice of business. This further confirms the results of Afolabi et al (2017) that entrepreneurial education equipped students with adequate skills and training that are useful in identifying business opportunities.

This research work recommends that to encourage Fourah Bay College students in embracing entrepreneurship education, and make the course a source of self-employment initiates for students, the following recommendations should be considered:

1. The University of Sierra Leone should establish a center for entrepreneurship and innovation that will offer degree programs in entrepreneurship education.
2. Entrepreneurship education facilitators should be people who are not only qualify academically but have the practical experience as well.

3. Business competitions should be held like the Freetown pitch night for students and soft loan be given to the best ideas.
4. The teaching of entrepreneurship courses should go beyond social and management sciences student but also to the pure and applied, engineering science students and arts students.
5. There should be a special ministry of business development that will help spur business acumen.
6. The central government should establish entrepreneurship hub across the country.

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LEVERAGING TECHNOLOGY TO ACHIEVE FOOD SECURITY IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

In Nigeria today, hunger prevalence is on the rise and in paying attention to the country's food production level, the difficulty experienced in meeting domestic food needs and the challenge in exporting our local products, it is easy to conclude that Nigeria is food insecure. The petroleum based economic model of the Nigerian economy has made it lose its force as an export led economy and as the government makes effort to diversify the economy towards achieving food security, it is important to learn about how technology can help achieve this objective. This paper reviews recent attempts by some Nigerian innovators to leverage technology to disrupt the food production and Agriculture sector and examines how public private partnership can foster holistic development in the sector. It is hoped that this study will inform agricultural development practitioner about how technology can end hunger and achieve food security in Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

The United Nations Committee on World Food Security defines Food Security as the condition in which all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life and like International Food Policy Research Institute, economic growth is only sustainable if all countries have food security.

This paper intends to explore food security issues and how technology can end hunger in Nigeria and to start with, we must understand that from the outset, Nature favors Nigeria with rich soils, good temperature and evenly distributed rainfall for the ease of Agricultural production making her less prone to extreme natural disasters that could threaten lands, crops and livestock except for recent trends including and not limited to desertification, erratic rainfall all caused by climate change.

Climate change is a threat to global food security, others are growing global population, rising food prices. The world population will reach 9.1 billion by 2050 (FAO), and to feed that number of people, global food production will need to grow by 70% on the 60% World's Arable land. Africa itself will double her population attaining about 2.1 billion people, the world will depend on Africa to meet her food needs because she has the youngest population in the world.

As food insecurity rises, hunger prevalence also rises globally. According to projections from FAO, about 795 million people worldwide-roughly one in nine-are estimated to be chronically undernourished in 2014-2016 (FAO, IFAD and WFP 2015). As of 2013, 161 million children-approximately one in four-were stunted, and 51 million children suffered from wasting (UNICEF, 2015 b).

In Nigeria, the population growth rate is at a geometric progression and yet food production is threatened by low farm productivity worsened by climate changes, crude farming, rural-urban migration that deprives farming communities of young people. The combined effects of climate change causing aridification in the Northern part of Nigeria has induced the herdsmen to move southward looking for pasture for their cattle.

According to FMARD, Nigeria still imports about \$3 to \$5 billion worth of food annually, especially wheat, rice, fish and sundry items, including fresh fruits. Nigeria is no longer a major exporter of cocoa, groundnuts (peanuts), rubber, and palm oil. The Cocoa production is stagnant at 180,000 tons (approx.) annually which used to be 300,000 tons (approx.) some 25 years ago. There has been a huge decline in groundnut and palm oil production even in poultry production, it has reduced from 40 million birds annually to about 18 million even the land tenure system of Nigeria does not encourage the long-term investment in technology or modern production methods. As a result, Nigeria is not food secure. Wastage levels remain high in production areas, reducing supply of feedstock to processing factories, requiring them to keep importing supplies.

The net effect is limited job growth across the agricultural value chain from input production to market systems, and continued use of limited foreign currency earnings to import vast quantities of food.

Ultimately, Nigeria is facing two key gaps in agriculture today: an inability to meet domestic food requirements, and an inability to export at quality levels required for market success. The former problem is a productivity challenge driven by an input system and farming model that is largely inefficient. The latter challenge is driven by an equally inefficient system for setting and enforcing food quality standards, as well as poor knowledge of target markets. (FMARD, 2016)

KEY ISSUES THAT AFFECTS THE NIGERIA'S AGRICULTURE SYSTEM

Climate Change: Climate change, also known as Global warming is a threat to food security and it is an increase in average global temperature. It has been scientifically proven that global warming is caused by release of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases into the air. Agriculture and deforestation contributes 30% of greenhouse emission. The effects range from persistent droughts and floods, off season rains, drying of lakes, reduction in river flow in arid regions, desertification.

Information Gap: Smallholder farmers are very important, one-third of the world's 7.4 billion people are smallholder farmers and their families produce nearly 70% of all consumed food on 60% of world's arable land, which means there are 2.5 billion people who live and work on 500 million smallholder farms each with less than 2 hectares. Lack of quality market information to enable identification of market opportunities, coordination among market actors and transparency, Poor understanding of the lifecycle of contamination of crops from early stage soil preparation to post-harvest handling. The inability of the farmers to embrace these practices affects crop yield and overall productivity of farmlands.

Financing: According to the World Bank, demand for food will increase by 70% by 2050, at least \$80 billion annual investments will be needed to meet this demand. Access to finance is a challenge to many smallholder farmers due to the high risks in Agriculture. De-risking Agriculture is very important and necessary and can be facilitated by public private partnership.

Post-harvest losses: The term “postharvest loss” - PHL refers to measurable quantitative and qualitative food loss in the postharvest system (de Lucia and Assennato, 1994). This system comprises interconnected activities from the time of harvest through crop processing, marketing and food preparation, to the final decision by the consumer to eat or discard the food.

In many African countries, the post-harvest losses of food cereals are estimated at 25% of the total crop harvested. For some crops such as fruits, vegetables and root crops, being less hardy than cereals, post-harvest losses can reach 50% (Voices Newsletter, 2006).

Going forward, as the government of Nigeria makes effort to diversify the economy, and elevate its debased Agriculture sector, we must not forget that the sector has been ridden with multiple challenges, some of which are highlighted above which poses a threat to food security on the long and short run.

Agriculture in the 21st century cannot continue to be practiced with hoe and cutlass, it must move from crude systems and transit to further leverage on the global technological advancements, what the World Economic Forum regard as the “Fourth Industrial Revolution”. The next section seeks to explore how technology can make Agriculture better.

Farmers can achieve more productivity by this means and Agribusiness practitioners can have a massive returns on investment if they deem it necessary to capitalize on technology and that's exactly what the next part of this paper will be about.

HOW FARMERS CAN LEVERAGE ON THE FOURTH INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

There is really no gainsaying about the fact that technology has come to stay in Africa considering the renaissance it has generated across different sectors in Africa. This piece will explore the developments that technology offers Agriculture and how Nigerian farmers can capitalize on its nuances towards revamping the economy.

Shall we consider what fourth industrial revolution really means?

The fourth industrial revolution is already at our door, how we get to deal with it matters on the long run for us as individuals and for the African continent. We cannot explore the beauty of the fourth industrial revolution without essentially taking a sneak peek at the industrial revolutions that preceded it.

The first industrial revolution used water and steam power to mechanize production. The second used electric power to create mass production. The third used electronics and information technology to automate production and here we go, a fourth industrial revolution, with an exponential evolution against the linear trend. The possibilities of billions of people connected by mobile devices, with unprecedented processing power, storage, capacity and access to knowledge are unlimited. And these possibilities will be multiplied by emerging technology breakthroughs in fields such as artificial intelligence, robotics, the internet of things, autonomous vehicles, 3-d printing; nanotechnology, biotechnology, materials science, energy storage and quantum computing. (Klaus Schwab, 2016).

IoT, Cloud Computing and Precision Agriculture

One of the peaks of technological advancements is the Food and Agriculture renaissance. Modern Agricultural practice has proven to be of positive benefits to farmers globally and one of such practice is the Precision Agriculture otherwise known as Satellite farming. Precision Agriculture essentially collect data through satellite and aerial imagery and aggregate these data for precise planting. PA fosters traceability, i.e. recording through RFID tags, barcodes, movement of product and steps within production process (Fact Sheet, 2007).

PA also makes use of drones also known as UAV4Ag (Unmanned Ariel Vehicle for Agriculture). Drones can help farmers achieve increased crop productivity and efficient monitoring of crop growth. Farmers need to upgrade to using drones to increase productivity. Drones can do soil and field analysis for irrigation and nitrogen-level management, drone-planting system can plant at an uptake rate of 75% and reduced cost of 85%, irrigate, provide crop health assessment amongst others. (PWC, 2016)

Today, it is easy to connect devices, vehicles, home appliances with sensors, connectivity et al and exchange data across the board. The internet of things has created opportunities for more direct integration of the physical world into computer-based systems (Satucci, 2016) and with little human efforts, efficient and accurate connectedness, data sharing happens. What this means for Agriculture is that farmers can use biochip transponders on farm animals. Biochips enable researchers to quickly screen large numbers of biological analytes for variety of purposes, from disease diagnosis to detection of bioterrorism agents. (Rosa, 2009). Diseases outbreak recorded in past years could have been managed, from Lassa Fever, to Monkey Pox etc.

Cloud computing has made it easy for farmers to access knowledge-based repositories with key information on farm management for useful implementation on their respective farms. FAO has a repository known as e-agriculture with useful resources just on an internet-enables mobile phone. It is important to note that there is so much data being produced from the use of all the above technology and this is against the backdrop of insufficient data provided by crude farmers due to insufficient capacity to manage their farms. UAV or drones can patrol fields and alert farmers to crop ripeness or potential problems. RFID-based traceability systems can provide a constant data stream on farm products as they move through supply chain, from farm to the compost or recycle bin. Individual plants can be monitored for nutrients and growth rates. Analytics looking forward and back assist in determining the best crop to plant, considering both profitability and sustainability (Tim, 2017) and according to Lloyd Marino, "big data in conjunction with the internet of things can revolutionize farming, reduce scarcity and increase our nation's food supply in a dramatic fashion".

ICT FOR AGRICULTURE

Information communication technologies (ICTs) such as mobile phones and SMS are changing the way farmers track weather patterns, access market information, interact with traders and government agencies and get paid for their crops (Sara Gustafson, 2016). It has been known to provide innovate solutions to the many Agricultural challenges and it essentially fosters communication and learning process between actors involved in Agriculture (Cecilia, 2012) and Since

the transitioning from Web 1.0 to Web 2.0, knowledge sharing and collaboration has never been this awesome. Web 2.0 has offered amazing opportunities to more timely information from efficient tools like wikis, blogs, social networking, and podcasting such as Wikipedia, YouTube, Facebook, and Flickr.

Digital technology has provided a leeway for ICT for Agriculture to thrive. In the past, youth consider Agriculture as rural and for the old people in the local communities, ICT4Ag offers an amazing opportunity for youth to use digital technologies-the internet, their mobile phones amongst others to collect, store and share digital information at an amazing speed and this predicated on the Nigeria's internet base of 147 million people according to NCC.

ICT4Ag is a key to scaling up agricultural innovations and improving small holder farmer's access to markets, information and financial services (Thompson, 2017). Farm management software that increase farmers access to funding and investment opportunities are ubiquitous and because farmers need credit to survive, ICT offers digital financial services and with the advent of block chain, the opportunities are endless.

Obviously, Nigeria Agricultural sector is mostly run by smallholder farmers who are fully operating on a subsistence base and accompanied with a lot of challenges including low productivity due to poor seeds, insufficient fertilizers, poor diseases control measures, lack of finance and information, poor marketing, etc. Farmers can now access information accurately and timely at a reduced cost to help them build a highly profitable farm, digital extension services has relegated analog way of information dissemination, so farmers can leverage mobile to access weather information, get expert recommendations towards achieving higher productivity of farms and most especially be schooled on Climate smart Agriculture, a sustainable means of farming amongst others. Sales has become easy too, as farmers don't really bother much about storage facilities, so they can easily sell their farm produce to their customers via mobile. MyFarmbase bridges the information gap for farmers by using its website and social media platforms to educate tech savvy farmers on farming best practices. Farmcrowdy leverages on digital technology to get a lot of Nigerians to participate in Agriculture. Interested investors can select farms they want to sponsor, their funds are used to purchase lands, plant, insure the farms and then the investors get returns. Growseel.com, ThriveAgric.com and Phambook.ng follows almost the same model.

FINTECH

While the FG through NIRSAL (Nigeria Incentive based risk sharing system for agricultural lending) is working at derisking agriculture and fostering public-private partnership to share agribusiness related credit risk, farmers now see a need to use technology to access financial services, and even access markets for inputs and outputs and Cellulant's agrikore.com offers these services and the beautify part of this is that they leverage block chain technologies to safeguard the ecosystem and with over 17 million farmers, 2,714 agribusinesses, 11,000 extension workers, 4 donors and 3 Federal Government, Cellulant is disrupting the Agric sector. Vogue pay also makes it easy for farmer to send and receive payment. Other alternatives include Paystack, simple pay and Cashenvoy

ECOMMERCE

Releaf.ng is an online marketplace that connect buyers and sellers of agribusiness to trustworthy customers and their unique revenue model involves getting their income via investments, data-gathering, partnership with multinationals, and providing premium features (profile, access to more details, contents, information) to users on the platform (Techpoint.ng). Ogafarmer.com, Agromerchants.com also make sales and marketing of agric product easy, agromerchants.com is an agricultural commodity and grocery online store and a one stop shop for retailing and wholesales of agro-products, food items and agro-allied products.

Traditional farm technologies: These are machines produced for use on farms to help with farming. A well-known examples of agricultural machinery is the tractor, they are powered by gasoline, diesel engines and tractors are essentially used to do majority of farm works from tilling the ground to planting seeds and many others. Today, it is still very difficult to get access to tractors and many modern agric tools especially for commercial farming, HelloTractor.com, a digital application bridges this gap.

HYDROPONICS TECHNOLOGY

This is a high-tech method of growing plants in water rich in mineral nutrients instead of soil. It beats the challenge of searching for fertile lands for crop production and viz-a-viz greenhouses and multilevel buildings, crops can be grown with ease. With hydroponics technology, plants have direct access to nutrients, they are healthier and with higher yields, pests and disease can be easily controlled and with easy harvesting. Fresh direct Nigeria, an eco-friendly social enterprise produces premium organic produce through hydroponics and community action and with advanced technology, they improve agricultural yields.

AGRICULTURE BIOTECHNOLOGY

The prospect in GMOs and GM Crops seems to be high giving credence to the records of this in developed countries and even our dear India which was least known in agriculture that has now become world largest producer of cotton. According to a vanguard reports, biotechnology has done well for Nigeria's cassava production with more than 20 GM Cassava varieties with an average yield of 25-45 tons per hectare, although Nigeria has embraced biotechnology but it is largely coordinated by the public sector through the National Biotechnology Development Agency. This innovation is largely untapped by the private sector and in coming years, it would be a great spot to capitalize on.

Software technology

Farm software are quite ubiquitous today and smartphone penetration has made access to these software easy, most of my previous highlights and cases are as a result of the .com bubble and as web applications continue to be on the rise, it is noteworthy that companies like Probit farms make it easy to adapt software to Farm Management and accounting for the sake of managing farm operations. With the provision of a full suite of accounting tools, agroinfotech.org, zenvus.com also provide software services to help farmers raise capital, document farm activities, insure their farm, access real0time produce prices, and even sell their products.

Suffice to say that the efforts of the Nigeria government is insufficient towards strengthening ICT structural framework in rural areas as connectivity is still a big challenge, although there is high penetration of mobile phones and reduced cost of data globally, Nigeria needs to work at further reducing the cost of accessing internet for local farmers. Content can only fly and get to farmers when network connectivity is good, there is need for public private partnership to strengthen the bandwidth and connectivity framework of the rural areas. There is also a challenge of content, accuracy of information which can on the long run be determined by farmers upon validating from many different sources providing the data.

The startup ecosystem needs to concentrate on what Eric Ries refer to as validated learning in his best seller, "the lean Startup" which according to him is a rigorous method of demonstrating progress when one is embedded in the soil of extreme uncertainty and this will require that you figure out the right thing to build, the right thing the customer want and will pay you for and can be best summarized as figuring out the problem that needs to be solved and then developing a minimum viable product.

Innovators must avoid the temptation of designing a farm products that they think farmers want. The farmers who are the customers should be involved in the process of designing. Content creators must note this as well, that farmers are in need of information that meets their real time needs, and this principle must guide them as much as possible. This is essentially because information and data governs the activities of the fourth industrial revolution, content creators and data analyst cannot afford to provide maladjusted information and data for farmers' and agricultural entrepreneurs to consume.

The Sustainable Development Goal 2, i.e. end hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture by 2030 is central to our existence as a nation and it is pertinent to indicate that technology can help us achieve this goal if its potentials are properly tapped however financing would obviously be a potential challenge.

International development organizations like the FAO, AFDB, IFAD, WFP, IITA amongst others must commit to providing development financing to foster public private partnership. Private sector led innovative technologies need

some form of blended financing as an emerging market that it is. This emerging markets require some financial instruments to thrive and with the aid of grants or grant-equivalent finance, agritech projects can be financially viable and/or sustainable. Other innovative financing mechanisms can be explored to offer reliable and predictable financing for agriculture, more concerted efforts should be made to catalyze investments into the agriculture sector of Nigeria to capitalize on the industry that is expected to be valued at 1 trillion dollar by 2030.

The fourth industrial revolution focuses on the end-to-end digitization of all physical assets and integration into digital ecosystems with value chain partners. Generating, analyzing and communicating data seamlessly underpins the gains promised by Industry 4.0, which networks a wide range of new technologies to create value. (PWC, 2016). For farmers to enjoy the benefits that 4IR offers, they need to up skill themselves on digital skills and acquire a wide range of knowledge on digital Agriculture and how they can use it effectively.

It is important to note that food loss and food waste will be very abated with the use of technology and farmers will attain high level productivity and increased returns on investment if they apply digital technology to their farms in the various forms I have itemized, from precision Agriculture to ICT for Agriculture, the potentials are endless.

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DETERMINANTS AND IMPACT OF URBANIZATION ON HOUSEHOLD LIVELIHOODS IN LILONGWE DISTRICT: EVIDENCE FROM INTEGRATED HOUSEHOLD SURVEY

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INTRODUCTION

Urbanization has, in recent years, become an interesting issue all over the world. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) number eleven on promoting sustainable cities and communities emphasizes on the need for enhancing inclusive and sustainable urbanization. According to , urbanization is an inevitable issue as statistics have shown that urban growths are increasing with 70 million new urban residents every year in developing countries. For the purpose of this study, urbanization can be defined as the rising number of people living in urban areas, (UNDP, 2016).

Malawi, as one of the developing countries has not been spared of increasing urbanization rates. Malawi's capital city, Lilongwe which is also the biggest city, still has a large proportion of rural sites that are slowly being transformed to urban sites. According to Nso (2016), urbanization rates in Malawi have been slowly rising from 15.14 percent in the year 2006 to 16.45 percent in the year 2016. Urbanization on its own has indeed effects that if not well managed can lead to a great harm to cities. Some of the effects include increased pollution which in the end affects the health and lives of urban human capital. (Larson, Findeis, & Smith, 2000).

Rural people in developing countries like Malawi move to urban areas mainly to find good quality jobs that can help improve their standards of living. Urban areas provide hope for technological progress, productive human resources and better standards of living (income). It is for this reason that the number of individuals in Malawi moving to urban areas has been slowly rising as indicated by . On the contrary, the adverse effects of urbanization are not entirely offset by these benefits of urbanization. Larson, Findeis and Smith (2000) pointed out the need for greater planning in order to offset the effects of urbanization and mitigate its impact and rising demand of consumption goods.

The effects of urbanization on the livelihood and quality of life cannot be overlooked. Researchers all over the world have researched on different effects of urbanization and their possible solutions (Larson, Findeis, & Smith, 2000; Tong, 2012; Zeng, 2012). On the contrary, information on the impact of urbanization on households' livelihoods still remains unknown as studies have emphasized on the physical environment neglecting household welfare and more importantly with the recent Integrated Household Survey data 4. Hence a study on the determinants and impact of urbanization on the livelihoods of Malawian households remains imperative. The main objective of this study therefore is to assess the determinants and impact of urbanization on livelihood indicators. Specifically, the study aims to (1) analyze the determinants of urbanization in Lilongwe; and (2) assess the impact of urbanization on food, health and education expenditures of households.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Empirical Framework

The Propensity Score Matching Approach

The study employs the Propensity Score Matching Approach to Impact Evaluation as it uses cross-sectional data to study the impact of urbanization on livelihood outcome variables. With the absence of baseline data and in order to estimate a counterfactual, the study employed a PSM method and compared rural and urban households similar in observable characteristics. Hence for every unit in the urban group, a matching unit in the rural group exist based on socioeconomic and institutional characteristics.

According to Khandker, Koolwal and Samad (2010) and Harder, Stuart and Anthony (2010), the PSM approach has 6 crucial steps which must be followed. The first step is estimation of propensity scores using a binary choice model; the second step involves checking the overlap or common support; the third step is choosing a matching algorithm among different algorithms with different band widths; the fourth step is checking the matching quality to eliminate bad matches; the fifth step is effect estimation which involves estimating the Average Treatment effect of the Treated; and the last step involves sensitivity analysis in order to observe for unobserved heterogeneity.

Model Specification

Objective 1: To analyze the determinants of urbanization

According to Khandker, Koolwal and Samad (2010), the first stage of the PSM model involves estimating the probability of residing in an urban area and getting the predicted estimates as propensity scores. This stage was analyzed by the logit model. The logit model hence answered the first objective of analyzing the determinants of urbanization. Following Wooldridge (2015), the logit model can be presented as follows;

$$Y_i^* = \alpha + \beta_i X_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

$$Y_i = 0 \text{ if } Y_i < Y^* \quad (2)$$

$$Y_i = 1 \text{ if } Y_i \geq Y^* \quad (3)$$

Where Y_i is a binary variable that takes either values of 1 if household is in urban area or 0 if in rural area, Y^* is a latent variable that indexes the decision to move to an urban area, X is a vector of observable characteristics and B is a vector of parameters to be estimated. ε is the stochastic error term.

According to Harder et al. (2010), the predicted propensity scores can be presented as follows;

$$P(X) = \Pr(Z = 1 | x) = F(\beta_i X_i) \quad (4)$$

The estimated scores are hence strictly between the [0, 1] interval and follows a probabilistic distribution based on the socioeconomic and institutional characteristics (X_i).

Objective 2: Impact of urbanization on livelihood indicators of health, food and education

In order to achieve the second objective, Average Treatment effect of the Treated (ATT) was estimated to analyze the impact of urbanization on household livelihoods. The outcome variable (livelihood) was observed through households' health, food and education expenditures. Following Caliendo and Kopeing (2008), the Average Treatment Effect of the Treated can be presented as follows;

$$ATT_{PSM} = E_{P(X)} \{E(Y_1 | Z=1, P(X)) - E(Y_0 | Z=0, P(X))\} \quad (5)$$

Where $E_{P(X)}$ is the expected probability with respect to the distribution of the propensity scores estimated, Y_1 and Y_0 are the outcome variables in the urban and rural households respectively, Z is the decision variable taking the values 1 for urban residents and 0 for rural residents. The ATT shows the difference between the urban and rural residents based on the estimated propensity scores.

Sources of Data

The study used the Integrated Household Survey data 4 collected by the National Statistics Office in the year 2016 and published in 2018. The national data collected agricultural, fisheries, household and community data on 12, 447 households across Malawi. This study however focused on the household specific data and Lilongwe to analyze the determinants and impacts of urbanization on livelihood indicators.

Results and Discussion

Descriptive Statistics

This section presents the descriptive analysis of the pre-treatment statistics of the urban and rural households according to their socioeconomic, institutional and demographic characteristics. Chi-square and student t-test were used to obtain the statistics. Table 3-1 below shows the socioeconomic, institutional and demographic characteristics of the sampled households by comparing rural residents to urban residents. From the table below, age of the household head was a continuous variable measuring the age of the household head in years. The mean age for urban residents was 40.85 years and that for rural residents was 43.74 years. The p-value of $1.000 > 0.05$ shows no significant difference between the mean age of urban and rural dwellers.

Education was another continuous variable recording the maximum number of years spent in school. On average, urban residents recorded 11 school years while rural residents recorded 7 school years. The p-value of $0.000 < 0.01$ shows a significant difference between the mean education years of the urban and rural residents at 1 percent significance level. Land size measured the acreage of land owned by a household. The average land size of urban dwellers was 0.84 acres and that of rural dwellers was 1.8 acres.

Household income measured the total income of the household in Malawian Kwacha (US\$1=MWK 735). On average, urban residents earned MWK 111, 285.2 while rural residents earned MWK 83, 018.86. Gender of the household head was a binary variable taking the values 1 if head is male and 0 if female. 84.25 percent of urban residents were male headed households while 78.95 percent of rural residents were male headed. Credit access was another binary variable recording 1 if household has access to credit and 0 if not. On average, 7.9 percent of urban dwellers had access to credit while 15 percent of rural residents had access to credit.

Access to coupons was also binary recording if household had access to subsidized farm inputs or not. On average, 4 percent of urban households had access to farm input subsidy coupons while 17 percent of rural households had access to coupons. Again, land ownership showed whether the household owned any agricultural or non-agricultural land. On average, 20.65 percent of urban residents owned land while 49.84 percent of rural residents owned land.

Land title ownership was another binary variable that recorded whether household had a title document for their land or not. Only 1 and 0.33 percent from urban and rural respectively had a title document for their land. This shows the lack of title ownership documents by Malawian households. Lastly, marital status was a categorical variable. A majority 78.75 and 78.84 percent of the urban and rural residents respectively were married. Again 9 and 11 percent of the urban and rural residents respectively were separated or divorced. 4 and 1 percent of the sampled urban and rural residents respectively were never married.

Table 1.1 Socioeconomic and Institutional Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Urban (n=673) mean	Rural (n=917)	p-value
Continuous			
Age	40.85	43.74	0.100
Education years	10.96	7	0.000
Land size (acres)	0.84	1.8	0.000
Household Income (MWK)	111285.2	83018.86	0.1282
Binary			
Gender (male=1)	0.8425	0.7895	0.008
Credit access (yes=1)	0.0788	0.1592	0.000
Coupon access (yes=1)	0.0401	0.1701	0.000
Land Ownership (yes=1)	0.2065	0.4984	0.000
Land Title document (yes=1)	0.0119	0.0033	0.401
Categorical			
Marital Status			0.000
Married	0.7875	0.7884	
Separated/Divorced	0.0921	0.1101	
Widow/Widower	0.0713	0.0905	
Never Married	0.0109	0.0490	

Results of the Econometric Model

Objective 1: Determinants of Urbanization in Lilongwe

A logit model was used to analyze the first objective which assessed the determinants of urbanization in Lilongwe. From Table 1.2 below, age of the household head, education level, access to financial credit and size of land owned affected the decision to reside in an urban area. Age positively and significantly affected the decision to reside in an urban area at 1 percent level of significance. Thus a year increase in age of the household head increased the probability of residing in an urban area by 0.38 percent. This is so as older age is highly correlated with wealth. Hence older household heads are more likely to reside in urban areas than younger household heads as they are capable of moving to urban areas.

Education was another factor that positively and significantly influenced the decision to reside in urban areas. Education was recorded as the number of years spent in school. Thus a year increase in the number of years spent in school increased the probability of residing in an urban area by 3.37 percent. This is so as education provides the skills and knowledge necessary for one to adapt in urban setting. Access to credit also significantly influenced the decision to reside in an urban area. Having access to credit increased the probability of residing in an urban area by 6.3 percent. Credit can be considered as a way of increasing a household's financial assets as it provides the opportunity of earning more income. Households with access to credit hence were more likely to reside in urban areas than households without credit access.

Lastly, land size negatively and significantly influenced the decision to reside in urban area. Land is an important determinant as it is one of the most crucial assets owned by households. An acre increase in the size of the land decreased the probability of residing in an urban area by 9.86 percent. This is so as land is one of the crucial assets owned by households and hence provides a means of livelihood.

Table 1.2 Factors Affecting the Decision to Reside in Urban Area

Variable	Marginal Effect	Standard Error
Age	0.0038***	0.0008
Gender	-0.0461	0.0538
Marital Status		
Married (R)	1	
Separated/Divorced	-0.0255	0.0556
Widowed	-0.0659	0.0570
Never Married	0.1377	0.1871
Education years	0.0337***	0.0027
Credit access	0.063**	0.0292
Coupon access	-0.0482	0.0348
Income	0.00009	0.00008
Land Ownership	0.0265	0.0254
Land size	-0.0986***	0.0109
Land title document	0.1262	0.1098

*** Significant at 1 percent, ** significant at 5 percent

Objective 2: Impact of Urbanization on Food Consumption, Health and Education Expenditures

The second objective involved estimating the impact of urbanization on food, health and education expenditures. This involved estimating the Average Treatment effect of the Treated (ATT). The ATT was estimated in a way that the effect of urbanization on livelihood indicators is attributable to urbanization alone. In order to achieve this, different steps were taken to estimate the ATT.

Choosing a Matching Algorithm

A number of matching algorithms used to match urban and rural residents were run in order to select the best algorithm. These are the kernel matching, caliper matching and the nearest neighborhood matching. According to Khandker, Koolwal and Samad (2010), the choice of the best matching algorithm depends on choosing the one with a large matched sample size, low pseudo-R square, large number of insignificant variables after matching and low standardized mean bias. Table 1.3 shows the balancing tests from the different matching algorithms. From Table 1.3, kernel matching of band width of 0.1 was the best matching algorithm as it had a low pseudo-R square, large number of insignificant covariates after matching and the smallest mean bias between the urban and rural residents after matching.

Table 1.3 Choice of a Matching Algorithm

Algorithm	Number of insignificant variables after matching	Pseudo-R square	Matched sample size	Mean bias
Kernel				
Bandwidth 0.1	9	0.02	1083	7.3
Bandwidth 0.25	7	0.026	1084	7.4
Nearest Neighbor				
At integer 1	5	0.041	1084	11.2
At integer 2	5	0.031	1084	9.7
Caliper matching				
Radius 0.1	5	0.041	1083	11.2
Radius 0.2	5	0.041	1084	11.2

Matching Quality

Another important step in PSM modelling is checking for the matching quality. This involves checking the common support to ensure that only urban and rural residents of similar traits are compared to each other. The assumption is that the probability of being an urban resident lies somewhere between 0 and 1, implying that it is never predicted perfectly. Figure 1.1 below shows the distribution of the propensity scores. From the figure below, the common support assumption is satisfied as there exist urban and rural residents of similar characteristics.

Figure 1.1 Matching Quality

Average Treatment Effect of the Treated (ATT)

The other important step in PSM estimation is estimating the impact of urbanization on the selected livelihood indicators. What we have done so far is to match urban and rural residents based on observable characteristics so that any difference in the outcome variable can be attributed to urbanization and urbanization alone. The outcome variables involve food, health and education expenditures. Table 1.4 below shows the impact of urbanization on the livelihood indicators.

Out of the three livelihood indicators, food consumption and health expenditure were the only two outcome variables that turned out to be significant. Education expenditure however turned out not significant despite having a positive difference. Before matching was done, the average food expenditure of urban residents was MWK14594.74 (US\$19.85) per month and that of rural residents was MWK4930.21 (US\$6.71) per month. Thus before employing the PSM model, on average urban residents had their food expenditures MWK9664.52 (US\$13.15) more than those of rural residents. After matching similar households, the difference between the average food expenditures between urban and rural residents reduced to MWK7818.57 (US\$10.64) but was still significant at 1 percent level of significance with a t-value of 9.4 > 2.58. Taking expenditures on food as a proxy for food security, the results imply that urbanization increases the food security status of households by increasing incomes and ability to purchase and access food.

Health expenditure was another positive and significant livelihood indicator. Urbanization is mainly assumed to increase the pollution which has an impact on the health of urban dwellers. The results show that before matching, the average health expenditure of urban residents was MWK12626.86 (US\$17.18) per month and that of rural residents was MWK2995.26 (US\$4.07) per month implying that the health expenditure of urban households was MWK9631.61 (US\$13.1) more than that of rural households. After matching similar households, the difference reduced to MWK7749.05 (US\$10.54) but was still significant at 5 percent with a t-value of 2.57 > 1.96. Thus urban dwellers make more health expenditures than rural residents.

Table 1.4 Impact of Urbanization on Livelihoods

Outcome	Sample	Urban	Rural	Difference	Std. Error	t-value
Food Expenditure	Unmatched	14594.74	4930.21	9664.52	457.94	21.1***
	ATT	14633.13	6814.55	7818.57	831.42	9.4***
Health Expenditure	Unmatched	12626.86	2995.26	9631.61	1634.9	5.89***
	ATT	12677.99	4928.94	7749.05	3010.7	2.57**
Education Expenditure	Unmatched	216229.2	44229.4	171999.8	27283	6.30***
	ATT	215624.4	188886	26738.1	49714	0.54

Robustness of the Results

The last step of PSM estimation is to check whether the results obtained are insensitive to bias. Table 1.5 shows that the standardized bias was 7.3, only one case was lost and the pseudo-R square was 2 percent. All these according to Caliendo and Kopeing (2008) imply the ATT's estimated were fit enough. After conducting sensitivity analysis using the R-bounds, the significant values of gamma for Food expenditure ranged from 1.1 to 2. Thus absence of hidden bias. The significant values of gamma for health expenditure ranged from 1.1 to 1.5. Thus the unobserved heterogeneity would have to increase the odds ratio of urbanization by 10 to 50 percent before it could negate the estimated ATT. Hence the estimated impact is valid.

Table 1.5 Robustness of Results

	SB _{After Matching}	Cases lost to CS	Pseudo-R ²	Critical values of gamma ()
Urbanization	7.3	1	0.02	1.1 – 2, 1.1-1.5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The results show that of the factors hypothesized to influence urbanization, age, education level and access to credit positively and significantly influenced urbanization. Again, urbanization significantly affected food expenditure of households and their health expenditure. Thus urban households are more food secure than rural households. Policy makers can hence think of expanding cities or urbanizing rural areas in order to improve food security status of rural people. Policies can involve constructing markets in rural areas and promoting rural industries. Urbanization was also found to increase the health expenditure of urban households. Thus proper health policies in urban areas needs to be put in place. There is need for expanding health facilities and services to urban dwellers.

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CHALLENGES OF SUSTAINABLE URBAN GOVERNANCE IN AFRICA, URBAN INFORMALITY IN ZIMBABWE

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ABSTRACT

The paper discusses the challenges associated with sustainable urban governance in Zimbabwe. Urban informality in Zimbabwe, while it has roots in the colonial period, intensified in the last decade of the 20th century with the adoption of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) that sought to restructure the economy through massive cost cutting budgetary measures. It later exacerbated post-2000 with the decline of the formal economy which threw thousands into the informal economy. In the face of growing urban informality, the government of Zimbabwe has exhibited a hostile attitude towards the informal sector, often inconsistent with the situation obtaining on the ground. The argument advanced by the paper is that the behaviour displayed by 'city fathers' and central government departments frustrate efforts by the United Nations to create inclusive, safe, and resilient cities. In light of the challenges highlighted by the paper, the authors recommend a raft of measures to improve governance of cities and address challenges of urban informality within the broader Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) framework.

Key Words: Informality, Sustainable Urban Governance, Sustainable Development Goals, Livelihoods, U

INTRODUCTION

This paper discusses challenges of urban governance in Zimbabwe and how the government through its various arms has in the past responded and continues to respond to urban informality. It also examines the implication of such responses within the broader sustainable urban governance discourse. Countries across the length and breadth of the globe have exhibited different approaches to urban informality -from outright hostility in countries like Zimbabwe to more accommodative approaches in countries such as Mali, India and South Africa. Against this background, generalisations about government attitudes and responses to urban informality on the continent should, therefore, be approached with extreme caution. However, an underlining trend is that in countries where informality is perceived negatively, the urban space remains a contested constituency. For example, urban administrators obsessed with 'modernity', cleanliness, 'order' and 'formality' whose origins have remained insignificant even to the new crop of black urban administrators often thwart the urban poor's right to the city. Experience in Zimbabwe's urban spaces is such that these contestations usually result in violent clashes between city authorities and informal operators in the broadest sense. When confrontations of this nature ensue, not only are livelihoods disrupted, even Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), especially Goal 11 which strives to make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable is highly compromised. To warrant a broader perspective, this paper discusses urban informality as it extends to housing, the economy, solid waste management and public transportation in Zimbabwe.

OPERATIONALISING INFORMALITY AND SUSTAINABLE URBAN GOVERNANCE

There is no single approach to defining informality; thus definitions used in theoretical and empirical research often lack consistency from one study to another (Guha-Khasnobis et al., 2006). However, for purposes of this discussion, the paper adopts a more generic definition of urban informality which is perceived to be those forms of activities that exist beyond state regulation and planning. Ironical but interestingly, the Brundtland Commission (2002) defines sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own. Application of this definition to urban governance implies that urban governance takes into cognisance the ecological, social and economic dimensions of governance. Justifiably so, sustainable urban governance must, therefore,

put into consideration issues of social justice at its core. As part of a post-2015 global development agenda, the United Nations (UN) adopted 17 SDGs that replaced the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) marking a significant break from the MDGs development paradigm. SDGs will, therefore, apply to all countries in recognition that transition to more sustainable development globally in a globalised world requires commitment and substantive changes to the status quo by each country regardless of current state of economic and social development. A key innovation with the SDGs includes an introduction a sub-national goal for the first time focussing on urban areas in recognition of today's predominantly urban world (Arfvidsson et al., 2016).

A CASE OF ZIMBABWE'S CITIES & TOWNS

While informality has always been a feature of human development, dating as far back as the Victorian times in Britain and Europe, there is a consensus among scholars that the introduction of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) under the flagship of the Bretton Woods institutions precipitated a rise in informality in many developing countries. Magure (2014) notes that neo-liberal restructuring for developing countries entailed the creation of a policy environment that privileged free market forces in a manner that departed from the Keynesian-welfarist economic paradigm. In Zimbabwe, the economic programs sought to restructure the economy by promoting trade liberalisation, budgetary cuts and the removal of subsidies in line with the dictates of the Bretton Woods Institutions. Disappointingly, these programs packaged as 'development answers' failed to be a panacea to poor countries' development challenges but instead facilitated a race to the bottom as the policies eroded social gains primarily in education, housing and health achieved in the few years following Zimbabwe's political independence from Britain in 1980. Budgetary cuts led to massive retrenchments in both the public and private sectors, throwing thousands into the informal sector. Heintz (2006) notes that employment elasticities for Zimbabwe's manufacturing sector alone declined from 0, 65 per cent between 1963 and 1979 to 0,06 between 1980 and 1996. With a collapsing productive sector, thousands sought economic refugee in the informal sector which fast developed and matured into an economic 'shock absorber'. The informal economic sector necessitated a unique 'urban survivalist lifestyle' sustained by a range of informal activities.

URBAN INFORMALITY IN ZIMBABWE: A NUISANCE?

Mpofu (2012) notes that after independence in 1980, Zimbabwe's cities experienced a proliferation in the number of squatter settlements. He attributes the surge in the informal housing to failure by the urban economy to offer adequate housing and jobs, leaving the peri-urban as the only sanctuary for the urban poor to live and eke out a living. Because of historical reasons, urban informality in Zimbabwe has always been viewed in extremely negative terms. For example, phrases and words such as 'vagrants', 'social deviants' and 'outcasts' have characterised national debate, planning and discourse on informality. In most cases, the attitude and response by the government have largely been confrontational and in some instances even violent as evidenced by mass evictions of slum residents, harassment of street vendors by municipality police with the assistance of the Zimbabwe Republic Police (ZRP). Sadly, what government authorities might be or might not be aware of is that obsession with order, and 'proper' urban planning is itself a legacy of colonialism couched in white supremacy. To Potts (2007, 238), 'callous campaigns against the urban poor by both central and local government are indicative of the government's strict adherence to the ideology of planned and orderly cities'. Potts (2011, 15) further adds that the African city is often understood in three senses, firstly as sites of control and restriction, secondly as a planned and planning space and finally as political sites for disaffection. Fixation with 'planned', 'orderly' and 'modern urbanity' explains why government and city authorities perceive urban informality in the pejorative sense of urban pathology (Potts 2007).

As a result of high unemployment figures and youth poverty, Zimbabwe's cities have become breeding grounds for touting- a common survival strategy for thousands of unemployed young men. The practice also presents a tranquil escape from poverty and crime and demonstrates young people's innovativeness in a structurally inhibiting environment. These young men besiege lifting spots along major highways in search of alternative sources of income. In a surprise move, the government chose to respond by enacting Section 40 of Zimbabwe's Road Motor Transportation Act. The Act makes it an

offence for pirating taxis to pick and drop passengers at undesignated points within the city. Offenders are subject to vehicle clamping and fined amounts ranging between 20-100 USD depending on the severity of the offence. While enactment of the Act into law was meant to punish touting, the provision has been subject to abuse often becoming a new cash-cow for lowly paid municipal police who engage in acts of corruption and bribery. Given the difficulties encountered by the poor in urban areas, Kamete (2012) notes that urban technical planning in Zimbabwe leaves no room for urban informality, and it for this reason that spatial policing usually entails control, criminalisation and the penalisation of the urban poor.

Arfvidsson et al., (2016) note that public transport operators in Kisumu, Kinshasa, Mogadishu and Addis Ababa are usually privately owned and informally run. Like public transport operators in Zimbabwe, they stop as the need arises, to drop or pick up passengers often causing traffic jams or in extreme cases accidents. Both Kisumu and Harare has witnessed an exponential growth of Boda-boda and or umshika-shika taxis. Like in the majority of developing countries, this sector provides an alternative source of livelihood for the urban poor and unemployed mostly young men. In Zimbabwe, piecemeal efforts are under consideration to find what government refers to as a 'lasting solution' to the public transport nightmare with indications that central government is mulling the re-introduction of public buses as a viable alternative to the public transportation nightmare. However, critics are already questioning the viability and sustainability of such programs given that the sector failed to adequately compete in a free market economy leading to its sudden collapse in the early 1990s. Others have gone to the extent of questioning government's commitment to dealing with an ever-ballooning pool of unemployed young people and whether such a move will not likely throw out of employment thousands who have found sanctuary in this trade.

With regards to informal settlements, Dorman (2007) argues that the salient perception by government officials that all Africans belong to rural areas and have access to land they can fall back on in hard times serves as a lubricant to the state's action of forcibly sending squatters to rural areas. Aldrich and Saudlu (1995) define a squatter settlement as housing that is a result of illegal occupation or developed in an unauthorised fashion. Mpofu (2012) writes that government officials labelled squatters with names ranging from 'outcasts', 'new gipsies', 'bandits' and 'criminals'. This attitude by city authorities shows in the negative treatment of squatters in economic policy, legislation, planning and management. Hart and Padayachee (2010) notes that human lives have been overlooked by bureaucratic planning strategies that ignore the real interests and practices of the people. Government's response to informal housing in Zimbabwe's urban areas has largely been confrontational, characterised by mass evictions, transfers, threats and destruction. For example, in 1982, the Minister responsible for urban housing launched a nationwide war campaign on urban squatters by razing down the Nyambara squatter camp in Harare. In 1983, the Deputy Minister of Lands, Resettlement and Rural Development ordered 2347 Killarney squatters in Bulawayo to disperse from the camp within a week or risk receiving the same treatment as 'criminals'. A year later, strict action against squatters in Killarney followed the threat. Many lost not only property but also their livelihoods in the ensuing fiasco.

As a way to intensify the war on urban informality in 1983, the Zimbabwean government gazetted the Emergency Powers (Vagrancy) Act targeting people living off prostitution, those not in 'proper' houses or without adequate income living as vagrants. According to Mafico (1991), in October 1985, Minister Chikowore announced his intention to form 'squatter hunting units' to smash any squatting tendencies. Two months after issuing threats, squatter camps around Bulawayo were either set on fire or bulldozed leaving an estimated 1000 families homeless. In 2005, the state unleashed a campaign targeted at the urban poor through Operation Restore Order commonly known as Operation Murambatsvina which was seen by the international community as a direct attack on the livelihoods of the urban poor. The campaign not only displaced thousands but also exacerbated urban poverty by destroying sources of livelihood for the urban poor such as backyard tuckshops and vending stalls while government used the same tired excuse that everyone had a rural home. Potts (2011; 594) notes that Operation Murambatsvina was an attack on the poor without housing and jobs. Potts maintains that the operation was, in fact, a challenge to the urban poor's right to the city on the flimsy grounds that everyone had a rural

home'. Kamete (2010) adds his voice, contending that the campaign was an attempt to restructure the urban areas as geographical spaces. Mpofu (2012) writes that another method employed by the government to remove squatters from urban areas in the 1980s involved issuing them with travel warrants through the Social Welfare Department so that they could return to their former communal areas. Ironically, some of the squatters assumed to have had a rural home were in fact sons and daughters of immigrants from Mozambique, Zambia and Malawi who had no rural home. In 2007, the Mayor of Bulawayo showed typical government hostility toward squatters when he voiced his discontent arguing that, 'whether they are there (Killarney squatters) because of economic problems, as the council we cannot support them' (The Chronicle, 2007).

The paper argues that negative international portrayal of slums and slum dwellers has probably served as an incentive for governments in many developing countries such as Zimbabwe to deal ruthlessly with slums and squatters. Hansen and Vaa (2016) note that while the term slum can be traced to Victorian times, it regained currency in 1996 in Istanbul, Habitat Summit with the launch of the 'cities without slums' initiative in 1999 through the Cities Alliance jointly funded by the World Bank and the UN-Habitat. Durand-Lasserve (2006) writes that the UN-Habitat defines informal settlements and slums in exclusively negative terms, for example by what they lack; (access to improved water, access to improved sanitation, security of tenure, the durability of housing and sufficient living area) as opposed to what they are. Arfvidsson et al., (2016) note that an estimated 10 per cent of Cape Town's population lived in informal settlements in 2013, excluding informal backyard dwellings in low income formal residential areas. At this rate, the UN 2030 target on SDG number 11 to ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and essential services including the upgrading of slums looks to be a far-fetched target. However, there are some pockets of hope in countries such as South Africa, India and Pakistan where governments have undertaken massive slum upgrade projects with the help of international partners. Ferguson (2007) notes that in South Africa, while extreme poverty still exists in the formerly deprived and disorderly peri-urban shanties, townships and locations, these areas are no longer viewed as a horror to be exposed and denounced but are now increasingly understood as places of hope and possibility, sites of development rather than proof of the failure of development.

While many developing countries are typified by large areas of informal settlements that do not adhere to official planning guidelines, building regulations and construction standards, the paper argues that sustainable urban governance takes into consideration issues such as access and affordability of housing by the urban poor. Mass evictions and bulldozing of slums not offer a long-term sustainable solution to the challenge of slum development and growth. The experience of Killarney slum in Bulawayo attests to this simple fact. Numerous attempts by various arms of government to forcibly evict squatters have failed as squatters always return to the slum even after eviction citing different reasons. In post-independent Zimbabwe, Epworth became the only slum to be granted state recognition though critics have cited political patronage as a factor which motivated the government to respond and act in the manner it did. Potts (2006) notes that in Zimbabwe, suggestions by Mafico in 1991 to lower housing standards to make them affordable to the majority of low income earners, including legalisation of relatively cheap traditional African village norms in the planning of low cost housing in urban areas, use of Blair pit latrines and construction of unsurfaced roads was rejected by urban planners who were obsessed with cumbersome standards. Delivery of low-cost housing had worsened during the 1990s with the introduction of SAPs and almost came to a complete standstill during the hyperinflationary period which reached its peak in 2008.

Arfvidsson et al., (2006) notes that informal practices dominate the entire waste management sector in Kisumu ranging from collection, low level sorting and recycling at the source to transportation to the dumpsite. To a large extent, the activities at the current landfill are informal and dominated by scavengers and waste pickers primarily street children. However, this not unique to Kisumu but quite common in several low-income countries where a significant portion of the urban poor are involved in waste collection and recycling as a source of income (Moreno-Saudez and Maldonado, 2006). The response by municipalities to informal recycling is nonetheless problematic. Grest et al., (2013) are of the view that informal waste collectors are either often ignored by city authorities despite their significant contribution to waste

reduction and recycling or regarded merely in negative terms such as backward, unhygienic and generally incompatible with a 'modern' waste management system (Wilson, Velis and Cheeseman, 2006). In Harare, waste pickers are exposed to a range of health-related diseases such as respiratory complications, cuts on both their hands and feet resulting from indiscriminate dumping of biodegradable and non-degradable waste. Even worse, there has been no attempt at both central and local government level to come up with a policy that protects the health and wellbeing of waste pickers/collectors who are undeniably playing a pivotal role in waste management.

Another major challenge facing informal traders in Zimbabwe is that in instances where 'market' places for the urban poor are designated, they are usually in the periphery of the cities where business is low resulting in vendors and sometimes taxi operators encroaching the central business district where business is attractive. Upon encroachment, the urban poor is subjected to harassment by municipal police and their wares confiscated. Using the definition of sustainable urban governance provided for in the paper, the authors argue that the behaviour exhibited by urban administrators in Zimbabwe falls far from fulfilling SDG11 and as such falls outside the purview of sustainable urban governance. The misunderstanding between government agencies and informal operators should serve as a rallying point for increased dialogue and engagement to iron out sticky issues and find a win-win solution that satisfies both parties. Potts succinctly sums up the situation obtaining in cities of many developing countries by describing the attitude of many governments to informality as, 'seeking to accommodate new types of urban poverty but not necessarily accepting informality' (2007;283).

CONCLUSION

Informality is a natural urban feature that must be acknowledged by urban administrators. Attention must be drawn to efforts at incorporating urban informality within the broader sustainable development programs, this calls for direct strategies aimed at informing public policy in line with Sustainable Development Goal 11 to create safe, clean and inclusive cities in Africa. Any sympathetic view of informality in this paper should not be interpreted as private support for disorder in cities, but an attempt to highlight the ordinary human qualities of those whose activities are deemed informal, the motivations for entering the city or operating in the 'dark' economy. All these should be conceived as attempts by the urban poor to better their lives in the face of severe structural constraints such as massive job losses, high unemployment rates and the debilitating effects of neo-liberal policies. Without claiming a monopoly over the subject or pretending to know everything, the authors offer the following as recommendations for improving urban governance in Africa and addressing the omnipresent challenge of urban informality which is only set to get worse in the absence of well-informed policy to inform public discourse.

1. There is need to mainstream the activities of informal traders into the formal economy through provision of credit facilities. The creation of a stand-alone ministry to cater for the needs of informal traders will demonstrate government's commitment to coming up with a permanent solution to squabbles that characterise the relationship between informal traders and central government. The ministry in question will need to broaden its scope of activities to include mass public education on registration, tax collections and licensing processes to demystify perceived challenges associated with registering a small business.
2. Licensing and registration of informal traders will enable the government to collect taxes that will contribute to national revenue flows. Taxes should not be punitive but give room for growth and expansion. Tax collections and registration will formalise the activities of informal traders entitling them to the provision of social services like water supply, health facilities in line with Sustainable Development Goals.
3. Business and Project start-up loans should not be given indiscriminately, but instead, the government through the (said ministry) should target beneficiaries of various entrepreneurship programmes. This practice will ensure that funds disbursed for such initiatives yield tangible results.
4. Formation of Unions like the Commuter Omnibus Operators Union, Transport Operators Association, Vendors Union and many others should not be seen as a threat but positive initiatives that can be harnessed for the realisation of SDG 11. Creation of such organisations can be platforms for negotiation, discussion and dialogue between unions and government.

5. There is also need to overhaul the current housing policy in the country and align it with SDG 11 that seeks to promote inclusive, clean, safe, resilient and sustainable human settlements and cities.
6. Waste collectors/pickers need to form associations which will help them bargain with government and or local authorities given their importance as a constituency to urban councils.

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A LITERATURE SIGNIFICANCE OF FORMAL EDUCATION, INFORMAL EDUCATION AND RELIGION AS A GROWTH MECHANISM IN AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to give a literature view on the importance of religion, formal tertiary education and informal education on the communal growth and human development in Africa. The study shows that different religions in Africa have similar ethical standards and preaches the fundamental principles of good morals. Also, formal and informal education has a pivotal role in the collective development of human minds leading the subsequent national development. Again, if these principles of good morals and good human values are upheld in every human rather than the religious background which these morals came from, it will give a levelled ground for sustainable growth and national development across Africa.

Key Words: Religious Education, Informal Education, Formal Education, Religious Leaders and Religious Believe.

INTRODUCTION

The Africa Development Bank in 2011 in a report said that, since independence for most African countries, the African continent has struggled through an endless array of developmental challenges, from civil war and political instability to epidemic disease, chronic food insecurity and pervasive poverty. It needs to invest far more in its youth and the hard and soft infrastructure required for growth.

Religious education depicts all the guidelines and teachings as regards different religions. Irika (2014) explains this. Ogbonaya (2011) named the three dominant religions in Africa as Christianity, Islam and the Traditional religion. Also, Amy (2014) explained how these predominant religions today in Africa such as Islam and Christianity got to Africa bringing formal education alongside and examples of the downsides and the advantages of these religions on African economy and human growth. Amy (2014) also gave percentage growth of people accepting and practising these religions. Education's impact seems to affect the citizenship along at least three paths. First of all, formal education may affect attitudes and behaviour via a 'positional path' by sorting citizens into different social networks, situations and classes (Nieet al. 1996). Second, formal education may promote democratic citizenship through a 'socialisation path' whereby children are explicitly trained to see democracy as preferable to its alternatives, accept the authority of the democratic state and its officials, and take part in the duties of democratic citizenship. Finally, formal education may facilitate democratic citizenship via a 'cognitive path', increasing people's verbal and cognitive proficiency, as well as their ability to construct individual ideas and critical thoughts. (Lipset 1959; Nieet al. 1996; Norris 1999).

However, Robert and Dangelira (2010) reported that people with formal higher education have better interaction with the macro and microeconomic systems in Africa regarding political information, news media consumption, political participation, articulateness or pro-democratic values and cognitive ability. Thus, schooling not only enables Africans to offer more opinions, but it also allows them to offer more critical opinions.

Peace, Conflict, and Development in Africa is aimed at those involved in building peace in ways that foster human-centred, inclusive development and at those working in the development and economic spheres who want to ensure that their work does no harm but supports and contributes to peace (Erin and Tony, 2011).

FORMAL, INFORMAL AND RELIGIOUS EDUCATION INPUTS IN AFRICA

The informal or traditional education has been an inherent part of the African culture that has been proven to be a veritable tool used in instilling good human values as passed down from one generation to the other.

Okoro, (2010) took a critical look at the early contributions of African education to growth and how it can serve as “a viable alternative to peacebuilding processes in modern Africa”. He further explained that; the African traditional education curriculum, though not documented, was quite elaborate, embracing all aspects of human development. The contents of the curriculum include mental broadening, physical fitness, moral uprightness, religious deference, good social adjustment and interaction.

However, Okoro, (2010) quoted Mara (2006), saying that: “The traditional African system of education –with its curricular content –were and still very effective, that a total rejection of African heritage will leave African societies in a vacuum that can only is most times filled with confusion, loss of identity and a total break in integrating communication”.

Formal education and religion have also significantly increased Africa's global recognition in its human capacity, resources development, social and economic interaction with the rest of the world. Notable individuals have come from the African system, part of which are engineers, athletes, footballers and doctors who practice both nationally and internally in their various fields of study. Religion as we know today bring together many people of different ethnic background and ideology. Despite the differences in their upbringing and cultural values, different sets of people practising the same religion tend to agree with their religious beliefs. These beliefs which can be willed to develop or to destroy depending on fundamentals of the religious leaders.

Also, formal higher education turned out professionals in various spheres of life who are practising in African and those who ply their trade outside Africa. Many African professionals leave their countries for greener pastures in the UK, France, USA, Asia and even the Arabian regions. These Africans make names for themselves claiming it would have been worse or they would have wasted away had they stayed in their countries. These professionals could have been engaged in their various countries by their governments when encouraged through enabling environment and better enumerations. When African government starts patronizing a made in Africa experts rather than the Chinese or the foreigners, then Africa is in a step exploring the professional human capitals that will consequently lead to the overall development. An example could be seen from Jonas' article (2007) who tagged it “the muscle drain of African football players to Europe; Trade or Trafficking”. Jonas (2007) reported that “the immigration of African football players, seeking employment in Europe has seen increasing interest over the past years and, but the movement of football players seems to be determined by mainly economic incentives. There are of course exceptions, like political crises leading to societal turmoil which pushes players out to earn their living abroad”.

Mazonde, (2001) argued that Africa has seen phenomenal growth in university education during the last 25 years and reported how efforts are made to replace Europeans systems of education. Also, that African university has many outputs indeed, besides trained workforce, in that it provides research, contributes to the cultural and intellectual life of a community, and provides intellectual satisfaction to students.

African universities also incorporate religious studies taught in many secondary schools and university as a discipline and a formal education. These formal and religious educations can also serve as opportunities for the leaders in each region in Africa to incorporate the growth agenda of their nations into these education systems.

Religious education helps to train religious functionaries who discharge religious duties to their members. In this way, they help compliment effort in nation building. Religious education teaches people to be patriotic and committed to building the nation (Onovughe, 2017).

GROWTH AS OBSERVED DUE TO FORMAL/INFORMAL AND RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

Edward and Michael, (2011) reported the literacy level of Zimbabwe to be 91.4%. They also reported religious input and other major and minor setbacks as regards to Zimbabwe.

Africa-America Institute (AAI), 2015, referenced UNESCO and World Bank, saying that; returns to investments in higher education in Africa are 21 per cent—the highest in the world. They reported that the promising news is that, universities in many African countries are experiencing a surge in their enrollment. Between 2000 and 2010, higher education enrollment more than doubled, increasing from 2.3 million to 5.2 million. These arguments show that investments in tertiary education are reliable tools that can only be overemphasised.

Onovughe, (2017) reported that, religious education is a very potent tool for nation building and that it is observably clear from the study of European history.

However, Greg (2010) reported that Africa's positive economic growth record in the 2000s illustrates that better choices can make better choices. True, African growth has traditionally mirrored the ups and downs of natural resource prices, but Africa's growth in the 2000s has also reflected better governance and more widespread democracy on the continent.

SEEN CONSEQUENCES DUE TO NEGLIGENCE

Despite the personal definitions and aspirations for peace and peaceful environment, it still beats human imaginations that wars and conflicts still dot the contemporary socio-political history, especially Africa (Ademola, 2007).

In the view of Kitause and Achunike's (2012), religious education connotes education that “provides morals, ethics and standards that are normative for life, living and patterns for human existence and relations”.

In Africa today, more people believe in divinity and spiritual miracles for human growth and capacity development. In this light, more people put their faiths in religious houses rather than in human cognitive development and capacity building; this is similar to the report by Wendy (2011).

Gani and Jean (2014) support the idea that places of worship take more glory than teaching people to be innovative and conceiving creative ideas. Although, faith in whichever doctrine is used by the religious sects has been the primary focus of many religions, despite the fact almost all religion has the fundamental teaching of work and faith.

Today, some religious houses have seen that it will not do them too much good if their followers solely rely on miracles rather than working, so they create wealth through training and capital development; John (1969); Parrinder (1976); Ogbonannaya (2011) and Olarinmoye (2011) also support this.

Also, as the poverty line increases, more religious houses spring up from more corners of the ghettos, rural and urban areas replacing business units and factories and the macroeconomics of things. Mpedi (2008), reports people to believe the role of religious values in extending social protection in South African context, and also how ancestors and supreme beings control the affairs of man.

Productivity in Africa will increase if the various religious sects attribute success to hard work and innovation, and teach this fundamental concerning the global trends; this is because most people believe what their religious leaders say more than what their hearts yearn. In 2009, Afrobarometer reported that 90 per cent of Africans surveyed in 19 countries said that religion is “somewhat or very important” in their lives (80 per cent of whom said “very important”), Amy (2014).

Also, religious leaders are important dignitaries that serve as links between the spiritual realm and the physical within most African communities. For example, while most Africans accept biomedical explanations for disease and use Western medicines, they may still assert that troubled relationships or evil spirits contribute to disease, and they may combine Western therapies with prayer. Religious leaders and institutions mediate between these two realms, a process that increases their power and legitimacy among their followers and within the broader society. While such power and

legitimacy may be used for a variety of outcomes (not all of which may benefit socioeconomic development or foster inclusive politics), religious adherents view this legitimacy and power as positive because their religious leader may intercede for them in the spiritual realm (Stephen and Gerrie, 2004).

In the area of formal and informal education, Africa has a curriculum that has been designed to produce experts that are not that confident to ply their trades outside the shores of their country. There is an argument that African's are doing well outside their nations yet most big projects like roads, dams and installation of heavy machines even in the design and development of large projects are still given to outside experts by governments as if there is a shortage of experts in these African countries.

Informal education as of today does not look like what it was some hundred years ago. Historically, an African child holds dear his family's name, what his community stands for and what role he is expected to play. Fast forward to today, mediocre standards have been put down such that most areas in Africa have been witnessing numerous unrests. From Northeast Nigeria to Central Republic of Africa, Sudan, Egypt, Libya, Chad to the current Xenophobic attack in South Africa, which has destabilised the socio-economic activities in those regions (Wikipedia, 2018).

Mpedi (2008) reported that black African values guide black Africans and there is a close relation between this value and the general concern for the welfare of weaker members of the family or the community. Also, Mpedi (2008) reported how these values affect the social security of Africans.

Africa has to retrace her step to understand that the cultural values that have been sold out for the Europeans' cannot work for us. From the inception of many religious practices aside from Africans and cultural adoption from the colonial masters, Africa has lost focus of her human value to integrate what we call modern. Why can't African parents and communities emulate the better part of their culture and hold firmly to their cultural values? Although some argue that these values are here still, the question remains, are African's cultural values still entirely or profoundly held?

One can interpret development in Africa in two ways: from the preview of underdevelopment which emphasis African's material poverty in comparison to developed world economies; and secondly from the viewpoint of Africa being part of the developing world. In case of the former, African underdevelopment reveals that the continent is almost synonymous with poverty, disease, malnutrition, political instability, violence, dependence by corruption and injustice. Part of which makes it difficult for Africa to compete profitably in the global market; and has led to greater dependence on food importation. Thus there is an unequal relationship regarding trade, debt and aid from developed countries (Gotan, 2015).

SEEN IMPROVEMENTS

Gotan (2015) cited that despite decades of overall continental stagnation, growth exceeded 5 per cent in 24 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2003; and everywhere now there are signs that there is going to be a real momentum change.

As the Financial Post (Canada) reports of sub-Saharan Africa "The region is shaking off economic chaos to become one of the most incredible success stories of the global economy. This investment is replacing aid in Africa. For instance, Foreign Direct Investment increased from the US\$9-billion in 2000 to US\$62billion in 2008. According to the International Monetary Fund, real GDP in Sub-Saharan Africa increased 5.7% annually between 2000 and 2008, one of the fastest paces anywhere in the world. Also, the Economic Commission for Africa (2010) and Mckinsey (2010) reported growth rate in African economy that supported these claims.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Since the introduction of Christianity and Islam to Africa, the number of adherents across the continent has grown immensely. For example, in 1900, there were roughly 8.7 million African Christians, but by 2010 that number was 517

million. The number is estimated to reach 595 million by 2025. In 2010, 24 per cent of the world's Christians lived in Africa. In 2010, the Pew Forum reported that 57 per cent of Africans were Christian, 29 per cent were Muslim, and 13 per cent practice traditional religion (Pew Forum, 2010).

From this citation, it is clear that these statistics hold a compelling change potential in human capacity if adequately harnessed and correctly harvested through good values for the future growth and development of the African nations. In this regards, world leaders can liaise with religious leaders to use the opportunity therein to improve security, increase the standard of living and better people's life through religious education.

Also, policymakers should look for a way to integrate informal education with the formal education to increase the human values systems and not relegate informal education to households alone. As such, the quality of professionals produced from Africa will be such that take ethics and human values in high esteem. A balance between good and evil will improve or close the gap of someone expecting something in return before giving out a job that could have been issued out on the grounds of merit.

Governments should place policies that will ensure that quality formal education should not be voided of relevant knowledge to allow experts like engineers, technologist, educationist and doctors to practice in their countries instead of neglecting them to bring experts from developed countries to do the same jobs that the locally trained expert can do. Rather than celebrating mediocrity, formal education should be made creative from childhood.

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ABOUT YALF AND OUR PROJECTS

The Young African Leaders Forum (YALF) is an independent pan-African organisation whose major objective is to effectuate sustainable development in every African nation. We achieve this by detecting the root causes of Africa's developmental problems, researching and proffering workable solutions to them as well as executing these strategic solutions. We also work to empower Africa's young people to participate actively in the society so that they can improve their own lives by representing and solving their needs whilst also advocating for those of others. Our organization is incorporated and headquartered in South Africa – and has members and representations in 30 African nations, USA and Canada. We are also the official publishers of Africa's first youth-led journal of development, YALJOD.

Our annual Pan-African Summit (#YALFPAS) empowers African young people through a 3-day capacity-development training which focuses on four key areas of development: Education, Entrepreneurship, Technology and Health/Environment. Our goal is to build and mentor young Africans who will be financially responsible and independent, become internet savvy, active within their societies - and who will campaign for peaceful co-existence and anchor the development of the nation from their immediate communities. There's no gainsaying that Africa has the youngest population in the world with over 200 million people aged 15 – 24. And whilst global news still contemplate whether this huge youth population is a risk or an asset, YALF strongly believes that harnessing youth potentials is a great way to transform all risks into assets. This is why we are inviting likeminded organizations and individuals to join us.

In 2019, we are set to benefit African women, youths and children through our #IMPACT5000 vision plan. We will carry out certified trainings, hold skill acquisitions programmes, fund rural women with as little as \$100 to startup small businesses, cover educational needs of children and empower teenager with ICT4D programmes. We are already started this move through our pan-African summits, and in 2019, we intend to do much more and further spread the impact round Africa – with proper supports.

This is in addition to some of the projects that we already implement. We have our Computer Support Programme, Send Betty to School project, Light up Africa, YALJOD and more. This biennial publication is part of our initiative to drive and imbibe the idea of Pan-Africanism into Africans – especially the next generation. YALF Students Club exists already in four higher institutions – in Zimbabwe, Nigeria and Ghana. Our students from Midlands State University and National University of Science and Technology in Zimbabwe are especially proactive in spreading the visions of our organization throughout the SADC. The idea is to build our youths for the future – even from their undergraduates' level.

Follow our development works on social media through the following web links:

Facebook: www.facebook.com/YalfAfricaForum

Twitter: www.twitter.com/YalfAfrica

Instagram: www.instagram.com/YalfAfrica

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Let's collaborate for Africa's sustainable development!

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ABOUT YALJOD

The Young African Leaders Journal of Development (YALJOD) is an official publication of the Young African Leaders Forum (YALF). It was established in 2015 to host scholarly analysis and competing viewpoints about the development of Africa. Our motive for establishing such potential journal is to garner the ideas of Africa's young people as it concerns the development of Africa.

Strategic ideas and suggestions from Africa youth leaders will be pushed for implementation by the Young African Leaders Forum (YALF) with the aim of acquiring vital information and the additional strength to realise the Agenda 2063 vision plan.