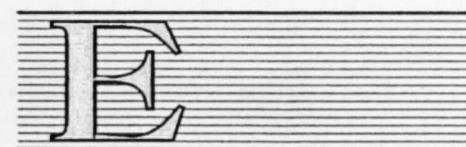




**UNITED NATIONS
ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL**



Distr.: General

E/ECA/ACSD/5/5

11 October 2007

Original: ENGLISH

ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR AFRICA

**Fifth Meeting of the Africa Committee on
Sustainable Development (ACSD-5)/Regional Implementation Meeting (RIM)
for CSD-16
Addis Ababa
22-25 October 2007**

**Theme: Transforming African Agriculture and Rural Economy for
Sustainable Development**

**Follow-up to the implementation of the outcomes of the World Summit on
Sustainable Development (WSSD): Regional Review Report
AFRICA**

(Main Report)

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Acronyms and abbreviations

ABS	Access to Benefit Sharing
ACBF	African Capacity Building Foundation
ACCNNR	African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources
ACP	African, Caribbean, and Pacific
ACSF	Africa Corporate Sustainability Forum
ADF	African Development Forum
AEC	African Economic Community
AEO	Africa Environment Outlook
AERC	African Economic Research Consortium
AfDB	African Development Bank
AFRITAC	African Regional Technical Assistance Center
AGDI	African Gender and Development Index
AICC	African Institute of Corporate Citizenship
AISI	African Information Society Initiative
AMCEN	African Ministerial Conference on Environment
AMCOST	African Ministerial Council on Science and Technology
AMCOW	African Minister's Council on Water
AMN	Africa Mining Network
AMP	African Mining Partnership
AMU	Arab Maghreb Union
APCF	African Productive Capacity Facility
APCI	Africa Productive Capacity Initiative
APRM	African Peer Review Mechanism
ARI	African Rice Initiative
ASP	African obsolete pesticide Stockpile Project
ATF	African Task Force
ATO	African Timber Organization
AU	African Union
AWDR	Africa Water Development Report
BCLME	Benguela Current Large Marine Ecosystem
BCRC	Basel Convention Regional Centre
BPFA	Beijing Platforms for Action
BPO	Business Process Outsourcing
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
CAMI	Council of African Ministers of Industries
CAMT	Council of African Ministers of Trade
CASM	Communities and Small-scale Mining
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CBFP	Congo Basin Forest Partnership
CCBG	Committee of Central Bank Governors
CCRF	Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries
CDSF	Capacity Development Strategic Framework
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women

CENSAD	Community of Sahel and Saharan States
CGIAR	Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research
CILSS	Committee on Drought Control in the Sahel (in French)
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
COMIFAC	Central African Forest Commission
COMIFAC	Convergence Plan of the Conference of Ministers in Charge of Forests in Central Africa
COSTIS	Consortium on Science, Technology and Innovation for the South
CPA	Consolidated Plan of Action
CSD	Commission on Sustainable Development
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DAA	Development Assistance Agencies
DFID	Department for International Development
DFQF	Duty-Free, Quota-Free
DMC	Drought Monitoring Centre
DNAs	Designated National Authorities
DOTS	Directly Observed Treatment Strategy
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
EAC	East African Community
ECCAS	Economic Community of Central African States
ECOSOCC	Economic, Social and Cultural Council
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EEZs	Exclusive Economic Zones
EFA	Education for All
EU	European Union
EWS	Early Warning System
FARA	Forum for Agricultural Research in Africa
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FOCAC	Forum of China-Africa Cooperation
GCLME	Guinea Current Large Marine Ecosystem
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GER	Gross enrolment ratio
GFDRR	Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery
GHS	Globally Harmonized System
GNP	Gross National Product
GPI	Gender parity index
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GRB	Gender Responsive Budgets
GRI	Global Reporting Initiative
HFA	Hyogo Framework for Action
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
HSGIC	Heads of State and Government Implementation Committee

IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency
ICCM	International Conference on Chemicals Management
ICPAC	IGAD Climate Prediction and Applications Centre
ICSU	International Council for Science
ICZM	Integrated Coastal Zone Management
IDA	International Development Association
IDB	Islamic Development Bank
IDRC	International Development Research Center
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
IFC	Investment Climate Facility
IFCS	Intergovernmental Forum on Chemical Safety
IFS	International Foundation for Science
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
ILEAP	International Lawyers and Economists against Poverty
ILO	International Labor Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOMC	Inter-Organization Programme for the Sound Management of Chemicals
IPF/IFF	Intergovernmental Panel on Forests / Intergovernmental Forum on Forests
ISDR	International Strategy for Disaster Reduction
ITC	International Trade Center
ITTO	International Tropical Timber Organization
IUCN	World Conservation Union
IUU	Illegal, Unregulated and Unreported
JPOI	Johannesburg Plan of Implementation
LCA	Life Cycle Analysis
LDC	Least Developed Countries
LMEs	Large Marine Ecosystems
LOICZ	Land-Ocean Interactions in the Coastal Zone
LPA	Lagos Plan of Action
MARPOL	International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MEAs	Multilateral Environmental Agreements
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MLTSF	Medium to Long-Term Strategic Framework
MSME	Medium Sized and Micro Enterprises
MTEF	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
NAPAs	National Adaptation Programmes of Actions
NBG	NEPAD Business Group
NCBs	National Coordinating Bodies
NCPCs	National Cleaner Production Centers
NCSDs	National Councils for Sustainable Development
NDF	Nordic Development Fund
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NEPAD-IPPF	NEPAD-Infrastructure Project Preparation Facility
NER	Net enrolment ratio
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio

NERICA	New Rice for Africa
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NICI	National Information and Communication Infrastructure
NSSDs	National Strategies for Sustainable Development
NTEAP	Nile Transboundary Environmental Action Project
OAU	Organization of African Unity
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OMVG	Organization pour la mise en valeur du fleuve Gambie
PACI	Pan African Cassava Initiative
PACT	Partnership for Capacity Building in Africa
PAP	Pan African Parliament
PASICOM	Conference on Sustainable Integrated Coastal Management
PASICOM	Pan African Conference on Sustainable Integrated Coastal Management
PERSGA	Regional Organizations for the Conservation of the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden
LOICZ	Land-Ocean Interactions in the Coastal Zone
PGMs	Platinum Group Minerals
POPs	Persistent Organic Pollutants
PPT	Pro-Poor Tourism
PROFISH	Global Programme on Fisheries
PRSPs	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
QSP	Quick Start Programme
R&D	Research and Development
RAP	Regional Action Programme
RCM	Regional Consultation Mechanism
RCs	Regional Commissions
RCU	Regional Coordination Unit
REACH	Registration, Evaluation and Authorization of Chemicals
REC-TCC	Regional Economic Communities Transport Coordination Committee
RFB	Regional Fisheries Body
RFMOs	Regional Fisheries Management Organizations
RFSP	Regional Food Security Programmes
RIMs	Regional Implementation Meetings
RSC	Regional Steering Committee
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAICM	Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management
SAREC	Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation
SC	Sustainable Consumption
SDC	Swiss Development Corporation
SDP	Spatial Development Programme
SEAMIC	Southern and Eastern Africa Minerals Center
SFLP	Sustainable Fisheries Livelihood Programme
SFM	Sustainable Forestry Management
SIDS	Small Island Developing States
SLM	Sustainable Land Management

SMART	Sustainable Modernization of Agriculture and Rural Transformation
SMEs	Small and Medium-scale Enterprises
SP	Sustainable Production
SRAPs	Subregional Action Programmes
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SSATP	Sub-Saharan African Transport Policy
STAP	Short-Term Action Plan
STI	Science, Technology and Innovation
SWIOFC	South West Indian Ocean Fisheries Commission
TAH	Trans-African Highways programme
TICAD	Tokyo International Conference on African Development
TIGA	Technology in Government Award
TIIP	Technology, Infrastructure, Institutions and Policies
TOE	Tonnes of Oil Equivalent
TWAS	Third World Academy of Sciences
UEMOA	West African Economic and Monetary Union
UMA	Arab Maghreb Union (in French)
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNCCD	United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNCLOS	United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDESA	United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNFF	United Nations Forum on Forests
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNITAR	United Nations Institute for Training and Research
UNOPS	United Nations Office for Project Services
UPE	Universal Primary Education
WARDA	West Africa Rice Development Association
WBCSD	World Business Council for Sustainable Development
WHO	World Health Organization
WSS	Water Supply and Sanitation
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WTO	World Trade Organization
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature
YFP	Year Framework Programmes

NERICA	Sustainable Modernization of Agriculture and Rural Transformation	SMART
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization	SMI
NICT	National Information and Communication Technology	SP
NSSDs	National Sustainable Development Strategy	SRAPs
NTEAP	Nile Transport and Economic Action Plan	SSA
DAU	Organization of African Union	SSATP
ODA	Official Development Assistance	STAP
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development	STI
OMVG	Organization of Member States of the West African Monetary Union	SWIOFC
PACT	Pan African Cassava Initiative	TAH
FACT	Partnership for African Development	TICAD
PAP	Pan African Parliament	TIGA
PASICOM	Conference on Sustainable Investment and Policy	TIP
PASICOM	Pan African Conference on Sustainable Investment and Policy	TOE
PERSGA	Regional Organization of the Science and Technology Academies of the Arab World	TWAS
LOICZ	Land-Ocean Interactions and Development	UMOA
PGMs	Platinum Group Minerals	UMA
POPs	Persistent Organic Pollutants	UN
PPT	Pro-Poor Tourism	UNAIDS
PROFISH	Global Programme for the Fight Against Fish Diseases	UNCD
PRSPs	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers	UNCED
QSP	Quick Start Programme	UNCLoS
R&D	Research and Development	UNCTAD
RAP	Regional Action Plan	UNDESA
RCM	Regional Consultative Mechanism	UNEP
RCs	Regional Councils	UNESCO
RCU	Regional Council of Ministers	UNFCCC
REACH	Registration, Evaluation and Authorisation of Chemicals	UNIT
REC-TCC	Regional Economic Communities Trade and Commerce	UNICEF
RFB	Regional Fisheries Bureau	UNITAR
RFMOs	Regional Fisheries Management Organizations	UNOPS
RFSP	Regional Food Security Programme	UPE
RIMs	Regional Implementation Mechanisms	WARDA
RSC	Regional Steering Committee	WBIRD
SADC	Southern African Development Community	WHO
SADC	Southern African Development Community	WSS
SAICM	Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management	WSSD
SAREC	Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation	WTO
SC	Sustainable Consumption	WWF
SDC	Swiss Development Corporation	YFP
SDP	Spatial Development Programme	
SEAMIC	Southern and Eastern Africa Minerals Center	
SFLP	Sustainable Fisheries Livelihood Programme	
SFM	Sustainable Forestry Management	
SIDS	Small Island Developing States	
SLM	Sustainable Land Management	

Executive summary

The World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) reaffirmed sustainable development as a central element of the international agenda and paved the way for the practical and sustained steps needed to address many of the world's most pressing challenges. In this context, the Summit mandated Regional Commissions (RCs) to pursue the effective implementation of its outcomes at the regional level and to facilitate and promote a balanced integration of the economic, social and environmental pillars of sustainable development. Subsequent General Assembly Resolutions reiterate this mandate and invite RCs to organize Regional Implementation Meetings (RIMs) as specified by the Commission on Sustainable Development at its eleventh session (CSD-11). CSD-11 also recommended that RCs, in addition to the CSD Secretariat, organize RIMs in collaboration with other regional and subregional organizations and bodies, as well as regional offices of funds, programmes, international finance and trade institutions and other organizations of the UN system.

In collaboration with several partners, ECA organized the first RIM under the auspices of the Pan African Implementation and Partnership Conference on Water held in December 2003. Thereafter, RIMs are organized as an integral part of the meetings of the Africa Committee on Sustainable Development. Regional review reports on the CSD thematic cluster of issues are key inputs to the RIMs. CSD-16 will undertake a review of progress made in the implementation of commitments, goals and targets agreed at WSSD, on "Africa", agriculture, rural development, land, drought and desertification.

The Johannesburg Plan of Implementation (JPOI), adopted at WSSD, and in particular its chapter eight, entitled "Sustainable development of Africa", guides the regional review report on "Africa". The report is based on an extensive desk review, but cannot claim to have addressed all pertinent issues in an exhaustive manner. However, it provides the reader with a good overview of Africa's progress in implementing its sustainable development agenda. The intent is to engender action on the part of all stakeholders, including Governments, civil society, the private sector and development partners, with a view to accelerating progress towards meeting Africa's sustainable development goals.

Key Findings

Concrete actions taken and progress made

Sustainable development governance in Africa

Sustainable development framework The JPOI recognizes the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) as providing a framework for sustainable development on the continent. The African Union (AU) provides leadership for the continental development vision. The NEPAD Secretariat coordinates projects and programmes being implemented by Regional Economic Communities (RECs) and member States. At the national level, many African countries have taken steps to create NEPAD focal points for coordination, monitoring and integration of NEPAD programmes into national development plans. The notion of partnership embedded in NEPAD is

one of the strengths of the initiative, and has elicited significant international support for Africa. At the level of the United Nations (UN), the mechanism for coordination in support of NEPAD is the Regional Consultation Meetings (RCMs) of UN agencies working in Africa, coordinated by ECA.

Peace and security: While prospects for peace in a number of countries improved during 2006, some situations have worsened, despite considerable efforts by African countries, regional organizations and the international community. Nevertheless, the AU aims to achieve a conflict-free Africa by 2010. The AU Peace and Security Council and the African Peace Facility have been established. The operationalization of the African Peace and Security Architecture has received full support and the AU Policy Framework for Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development has been adopted. Furthermore, the UN-AU Framework for the 10-year Capacity Building Programme includes the establishment of effective early-warning and crisis response systems.

Human rights: African leaders have affirmed commitments to human rights and the rule of law through the Constitutive Act of the AU, NEPAD Declaration on Democracy, Political, Economic and Corporate Governance and the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM), among others. African countries have overwhelmingly subscribed to most international and regional human rights norms and standards, ratified numerous major human rights treaties and enshrined these norms and standards in their constitutions and national legislation. Some progress has been made on human rights, and the principle of rule of law is generally respected in most countries, along with a fair level of commitment to the respect for human rights. However, the application of human rights standards needs improving.

Political governance and administration: Democratic politics and practices have taken a significant leap in Africa in the last two decades. Overall, a new social pact with the institutions of the State and the processes of governance is gradually being reconstructed to promote democracy and good governance. There is a relative decline of executive dominance in Africa. Many African countries have adopted constitutional measures and put in place administrative mechanisms to strengthen checks and balances. NEPAD's Democracy and Political Governance Initiative aims at contributing to strengthening the political and administrative framework of participating countries. African Ministers of Public Service have formulated and adopted a NEPAD Governance and Public Administration Programme.

Economic and corporate governance and private sector development: The objective of the NEPAD Economic and Corporate Governance Initiative is to promote programmes aimed at enhancing the quality of economic and public financial management, as well as corporate governance. The NEPAD Secretariat has been working closely with key donors to support programmes aimed at strengthening public finance management. Several African countries have made progress in economic governance, public financial management and accountability and the integrity of the monetary and financial systems. As a result, the situation in Africa today is better than it was a decade or so ago. However, a great deal remains to be done. In the area of corporate governance, countries have made efforts to promote private sector-led growth and development.

Poverty Eradication and socially sustainable development

Income poverty: The AU concretely expressed its commitment to facilitating acceleration of progress towards the MDGs by African countries. Countries have developed national development plans that incorporate poverty reduction strategies. The number of extremely poor people in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) has levelled off and the poverty gap ratio has declined during the same period. However, this ratio is the highest in the world indicating that poor people in SSA are the most economically disadvantaged in the world. The incidence of poverty in North African countries has remained constant at two percent for the same period. Poverty in Africa is accompanied by very high-income inequality. Although Africa's recent growth performance has been quite impressive, it is still too low to achieve poverty eradication.

Agriculture for sustainable development: Measures taken by African countries to boost the development of the agriculture and rural sector include: the Maputo Summit Declaration that endorsed the CAADP Plan of Action, and the commitment by African leaders to allocate at least 10 percent of their national budget to agricultural development; the Sirte Declaration on Agriculture and Water that adopted the development of strategic agricultural commodities; the Fertilizer Summit that adopted the resolution to increase fertilizer use in Africa; and the Abuja Food Security Summit that recommended the establishment of African common market for basic food products. The performance of the agriculture sector in Africa has slightly improved, but this did not translate into improved food security and reduced poverty. SSA accounts for 13 percent of the population and 25 percent of undernourished people in the developing world. It is the developing region with the highest proportion of people suffering from chronic hunger.

Gender Equality for sustainable development: The constitutive Act of the AU recognizes the key role that women have played in development and calls for AU to adopt a gender parity principle. RECs have adopted gender policies and other instruments to promote and protect rights of women. African countries have ratified various Conventions on gender equality and equity and women's rights. Some governments have enacted or amended legislation on women's human rights and some have adopted constitutions that take on board gender equality. Several countries have significantly increased the level of women's representation in parliament and women have been elected and/or appointed into powerful positions. Gender concerns are increasingly being mainstreamed into policies and strategies, including PRSs. Health and educational status of women is also improving.

Education for sustainable development: The AU adopted a resolution to launch a Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006-2015) 2006. In order to enable African countries achieve the MDG of Universal Primary Education (UPE) a detailed Action Plan has been formulated under the auspices of NEPAD. African countries have subscribed to the goal of achieving Education for All (EFA) by 2015 and many have undertaken education sector reforms. The overall EFA picture in SSA is mixed. Enrolment in primary education has increased since Dakar, but the number of out-of-school children remains much too high. School progression and completion are still major concerns and universal participation is still far away. The rest of the EFA agenda is lagging, in particular with regard to gender parity, education quality and adult literacy.

Health for sustainable development: The AU/NEPAD Health Strategy and the Africa Health Strategy 2007-2015 were adopted in 2003 and 2007, respectively. AU has also adopted several commitments on HIV/AIDS. The NEPAD "Fight Against AIDS" plan provides an overarching

framework to address HIV/AIDS and its impact on the continent. In SSA, the under-five mortality rate in 2002 was almost double the average for developing countries; maternal mortality ratios are dramatically higher than any other part of the world. SSA is the worst affected region with the AIDs epidemic, but the provision of antiretroviral treatment is expanding and prevalence is leveling off. More than 90 percent of the world's malaria burden is in Africa. However, progress has been registered in some countries. The number of TB cases has increased up to fourfold in the past decade, but TB treatment has proven remarkably effective. However, at present, up to 70 percent of African people with HIV lack access to functioning TB treatment.

Sustainable human settlements: NEPAD aims to address urbanization and its consequences, to make African cities more attractive for investment through its NEPAD City programme. Many cities are beginning to adopt the ideals, principles and norms of good urban governance. The responses to the challenges of urbanization vary from city to city. However, in many cases, policies and actions are at variance. With the exception of a few countries, efforts made have not had much impact on housing provision, slum upgrading and poverty reduction.

Water supply and sanitation: The African Minister's Council on Water has been established and is actively engaged in policy coordination and advocacy, and many water initiatives are operational. Many countries have developed and/or updated national strategies and action plans on WSS within the context of PRSs, and have embarked upon, or undertaken policy and institutional reforms on WSS. However, SSA lags behind the rest of the world on progress to meet the drinking water target. In contrast, North Africa is classified among the regions that are on track to meeting the target on drinking water. North Africa is also on track to halve the proportion of people without basic sanitation by 2015. SSA on the other hand has not made sufficient progress towards meeting this target.

Sustainable Consumption and Production

Ten-Year Framework of Programmes on SCP: the African 10 Year Framework Programmes on Sustainable Consumption and Production (African 10-YFP) has been launched. The Task Force on Cooperation with Africa and the Regional Steering Committee for the African 10-YFP have been established. An eco-labelling project is being implemented within the framework of the Programme. In June 2007, an expert group meeting was organized to review two draft study reports on ecolabeling. As a follow-up to the meeting, discussions and consultations were held between the AU Commission, ECA, UNEP and the Taskforce. Agreements on securing political endorsement, substantive development, coordination and mobilizing resources are currently being implemented.

Corporate social responsibility: NEPAD sets the tone for corporate sustainability (CSR) in Africa. It highlights the need to create conditions for private-sector growth in order to generate social development benefits. The APRM is an important instrument that can effectively promote CSR. The African Institute of Corporate Citizenship is promoting the role of business in building sustainable communities. Emerging CSR organizations in Africa complement many other civil society groups working on certain aspects of CSR. Given its developmental context, the application of CSR in Africa mainly contributes to addressing those issues affecting the daily lives of Africans, including health, education and training, agriculture and food security. African

business associations and several stakeholders from civil society and academia are participating in global initiatives, including the Global Compact and the UNEP Financial Initiative. Several companies in Africa are members of the World Business Council for Sustainable Development.

Sustainable tourism development: NEPAD has identified tourism as an important vehicle to address the current development challenges facing Africa. In 2004, its Tourism Action Plan was approved. A main objective of the Plan is to provide an engine for growth and integration, and to contribute to poverty eradication. Most African governments have now included tourism in their national development strategies. Countries have also started adopting policies that unlock opportunities for the poor within tourism. Additionally, countries have also adopted the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism and are reporting on implementation progress.

Sustainable industrial development: In July 2004, the AU endorsed the Africa Productive Capacity Initiative (APCI) as the NEPAD Sustainable Industrial Development Strategy. The African Productive Capacity Facility has been established as a financial mechanism to support the APCI. UNIDO has assisted many countries in Africa in developing and implementing programmes aimed at improving the competitiveness of selected industries and, wherever possible, identify new market opportunities. UNIDO and UNEP supported by UNDP and other bilateral donors are the agencies most actively promoting cleaner production in Africa. Projects to strengthen metrology, standards and testing institutions are underway in several countries. Countries have also established agro-processing ventures and Medium Sized and Micro Enterprises (MSMEs), and are gradually accessing finance, technology transfer and capacity building for growth-oriented and competitive MSMEs, with increased focus on women.

Energy for sustainable development: A multi-donor NEPAD Infrastructure Project Preparation Facility has been established at the African Development Bank (AfDB). The facility has provided funding for the preparation of several regional projects, including oil pipeline, gas pipeline, hydroelectric power and power interconnection. Several UN Agencies are supporting energy projects, including energy access and efficiency and renewable energy. Rural energy access scale-up initiatives led to the design of new energy supply schemes integrating energy services to the development of productive and income generation activities, entrepreneurship, and the promotion of indigenous energy resources.

Chemicals and hazardous wastes management: Many African countries have ratified major chemicals and wastes related Conventions. African countries have completed and endorsed a regional action plan for the implementation of the Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management (SAICM). Countries are benefiting from training and capacity building projects to support the implementation of the Globally Harmonized System for the classification and labeling of chemicals. Countries are adopting policies and legislation on chemicals and wastes, including hazardous wastes management and are implementing activities on environmentally sound management of chemicals and hazardous wastes. The African obsolete pesticide stockpile project has been established to clean up stockpiled obsolete pesticides, catalyze development of prevention measures and build capacity for chemicals-related issues. African governments have committed themselves to promoting synergies and coordination among chemicals and wastes regulatory instruments and agencies.

Natural resource base of economic and social development

Sustainable land management: An important regional initiative is the AU/AfDB/ECA Initiative on a Pan African Framework on Land Policy for Securing Rights, Enhancing Productivity and Improving Livelihoods. Countries are undertaking land reforms, which inter alia address land and natural resource rights and policies in the region, with the active participation of civil society organizations. Institutions and management systems are also being strengthened.

Sustainable mineral resources development: The African Mining Partnership (AMP)- a high-level ministerial forum, has been established to implement the mining chapter of NEPAD. The AMP has evolved into a forum for African countries to discuss and take common positions on emerging issues of importance to Africa. Other initiatives include: the establishment of the Communities and Small-scale Mining Africa chapter; the Africa Mining Network; the Spatial Development Programme championed by the NEPAD Secretariat; the Southern and Eastern Africa Minerals Center, which has now opened membership to all African countries and to other stakeholders, including the private sector. At sub-regional level, there have been efforts to improve harmonization of mineral policies, standards, and regulatory and legislative environments.

Freshwater resources: The Africa Ministerial Council on Water and the Africa Water Task Force were established to enhance cooperation and coordination and promote the development and implementation of coherent policies and strategies for water resources management. Additionally, the African Water Vision 2025 has been developed and launched. The implementation of water resources management component of the STAP is focused on seven river basins. At subregional level, several river basin organizations and initiatives have been established/ developed and are operational. An increasing number of countries are developing new policies, strategies and laws for water resource development and management, based on the principles of integrated water resources management. Countries carrying out water sector reforms are also restructuring their institutional and legal frameworks.

Coastal and marine resources: Most coastal countries in Africa are signatories to one or more multilateral environmental agreements that deal with marine and coastal management issues. These Conventions lay the foundations for coastal states to adopt policies, develop legislation and management plans on coastal and marine environments. Many countries have put in place policies and legislation on integrated coastal zone management. The coastal and marine programme of NEPAD aims to support the implementation of regional and global agreements on the coastal and marine environment. Initiatives in the fisheries sector include the adoption of the Abuja Declaration on Sustainable Fisheries and Aquaculture in Africa.

Sustainable forest management: A forest programme was developed as part of the NEPAD Environment Initiative. Regional and sub-regional agreements, partnerships and programmes to promote) have been established. Countries have undertaken a wide range of measures and actions aimed at mitigating and reversing the trend of forest loss. Substantial effort has been made mostly by North African countries to establish planted forests. Two thirds of African countries have developed and are at different stages of implementing National Forest Programmes. The majority of African countries have adopted new forest policies and forest laws, and efforts are being made

in many countries to improve law enforcement. Countries are also making progress in integrating forestry issues into poverty reduction strategies.

Biodiversity: The African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources was adopted in 2003. The Convention commits African countries to development that is based on the achievement of ecologically rational, economically sound, and socially acceptable policies and programmes, which recognize the human right to a satisfactory environment, as well as the right to development. African countries have ratified the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) and its Protocol and several other biodiversity-related Conventions. Countries are translating provisions of the CBD into action through the development of National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans.

Climate Change: A programme on climate change has been developed as part of the NEPAD Environment Initiative. Several African countries have completed their first national communication and have begun their second. African countries are at different stages of preparing their National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs). Forty-six countries have ratified or acceded to the Kyoto Protocol and are engaged in its implementation. The World Bank and UNEP are supporting countries in developing projects for funding within the framework of the Clean Development Mechanism. Countries are also developing and deploying new, innovative and other technologies and methods to deal with challenges brought about by climate variability and climate change.

Drought and desertification: Strategies and programmes to address drought and desertification have been developed at subregional and regional levels and the Green Wall for the Sahara programme is under implementation. Centers charged with timely monitoring of drought and issuing early warnings have been established. African countries have signed the United Nations Convention to combat Desertification (UNCCD). Countries are developing and implementing their National Action Programmes to combat desertification (NAPs). NAP implementation has commenced in some countries and several have integrated them into national development plans, including PRSs.

Natural Disaster risk reduction: The AU Commission, together with the NEPAD Secretariat, has developed the African Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR), and a Programme of Action was adopted in 2005. In 2006, AMCEN mainstreamed the Africa DRR strategy into its five-year programme. Various RECs have DRR policies and strategies and have established subregional centers for DRR. SSA countries have made significant progress in DRR and a number of policies, institutions, and organizations have been set up to mainstream DRR. Arrangements within most Middle East and North Africa countries exist for emergency management and are organized and coordinated at a national level. As such, these arrangements do not deal with DRR holistically.

Means of implementation

Domestic resources: Following the economic downturn during the eighties and early nineties, recovery began in 1994. Countries have continued to achieve and sustain positive real growth rates since 2000 and other macroeconomic aggregates have also improved. However, this growth rate is

not enough for most countries. With only four countries recording an average real GDP growth rate of seven percent or more during 1998-2006, few African countries are positioned to achieve their sustainable development goals.

External resources: The capital flows in addition to domestic capital are very small compared to the developmental needs of African countries. Besides, despite the recent increase in Official Development Assistance (ODA), very few countries account for the larger share of the continent's receipt. In many African countries, the bulk of FDI flows into the natural resource sector. However, FDI flows to the service sector have been on the rise in recent years, challenging the dominance of the extractive industries. There is also some diversification of sources of flow of FDI. Lately, Asian investments from China, India, Malaysia and South Korea have been increasing in Africa. As of June 2006, the HIPC initiative has delivered debt relief to 15 African countries.

Globalization and trade: African countries have become more engaged in World Trade Organization (WTO) negotiations. The AU Commission has led the political efforts and the coordination of the negotiations. Significant technical support by many institutions has been provided to the political process spearheaded by the AU. CSOs have also been active in advocating for African priorities in the trade negotiations. Several African countries and RECs are involved in bilateral or trade negotiations in order to diversify their export markets and enhance their integration into the global economic system. Coordination between the different RECs will eventually lead to larger integration spaces that will allow room for African producers and exporters to finesse their competitiveness in order to enter the global trading system.

Regional integration: Africa is making some progress in its attempts to integrate. However, the results are mixed. Improvements have been made in the areas of trade, communications, macroeconomic policies, and transportation. Regional integration has brought marked improvements in the communication sector in some parts of the continent. There are checked results to report in the areas of energy. On free mobility of people, ECOWAS and the EAC have made significant progress. On the production and use of public goods through collective efforts and resource pooling, not much can be said. However, ECOWAS and SADC have had success in the area of peace and security.

Transport for sustainable development: In March 2002, African countries adopted the successor arrangement of the Second Transport and Communications Decades for Africa (UNTACDA II). African countries and RECs have undertaken many policy reforms to attract the private sector, and to establish road funds. A number of transport corridors have been identified for development in landlocked countries. The SSA Transport Policy, the RECs Transport Coordination Committee and the NEPAD Infrastructure Programme Short-Term Action Plan are important regional initiatives. The NEPAD-Infrastructure Project Preparation Facility, which was established in 2003, is now a multi-donor facility. Improvements have been made in the road, rail, maritime transport, seaport and airport sub-sectors.

Science, technology and innovation for sustainable development: The most significant recent development in Science, Technology and Innovation (STI) for Africa is the establishment of the NEPAD Science and Technology Consolidated Plan of Action (CPA) and the establishment of the

African Ministerial Council on Science and Technology (AMCOST). Sub-regional cooperation in STI is strengthening, particularly in Southern Africa with the development of protocols for cooperation. African governments recognize the importance of research and development and some are in the process of establishing policies and institutions on STI for sustainable development. Countries are enhancing their research capacities towards building an inclusive information society and most have developed national information and communication infrastructure policies and plans in the framework of the African Information Society Initiative.

Capacity building: African countries have partnered with many institutions in an effort to address the challenges of capacity building in Africa. These include the World Bank, AfDB, UNDP and ECA and several other bilateral agencies and donors have also undertaken various aspects of capacity building in Africa. African institutions such as the African Capacity Building Foundation and the African Economic Research Consortium have added value to capacity building in Africa. The establishment of three African Regional Technical Assistance Centers under the leadership of IMF to support poverty reduction strategy processes is a laudable initiative. The AU/NEPAD has recently developed a Capacity Development Strategic Framework (CDSF), which will guide capacity building activities on the continent.

Challenges and constraints

Sustainable development governance: The lack of full integration of the NEPAD Secretariat into the AU Commission is a main concern. In relation to peace and security and human rights, political, economic and social inequities and weak regional mechanisms for promoting and enforcing human rights are key challenges. In terms of political governance and administration, fragile democratic and political processes and inadequate independence from the executive are key constraints. Inadequate leadership and commitment to sound public financial management are regarded as hampering progress in economic and corporate governance and private sector development.

Poverty eradication and socially sustainable development: Sustaining high levels of growth and ensuring that growth provides employment opportunities are key challenges to reducing income poverty. At the same time, income poverty is a major constraint to achieving food security, gender equality and equity, education, health, human settlements and water and sanitation objectives. All these are interlinked and impact on one another. Additionally, poor governance and weak institutional capacity; political unrest and armed conflicts; unfavorable macroeconomic conditions; insufficient investment in infrastructure; and natural disasters are important constraining factors.

Sustainable consumption and production: Poverty, inadequate awareness, lack of capacity, appropriate policies, strategies and legislative frameworks, inadequate harmonization of laws, regulations, codes and standards, and poor enforcement, are stumbling blocks to all aspects of SCP. Others include lack of business incentives low skill levels and limited capacities. Political instability, wars and terrorist attacks; leakages and limited linkages to the local economy are specific constraints to sustainable tourism development.

Natural resource base of economic and social development: The creation, investment, distribution, governance and macroeconomic, as well as capacity challenges are major concerns to the sustainable development of mineral resources. Poverty, weak national institutions with poor technical and financial capacity and in some cases, fragmented or overlapping functions and actions; low levels of research and scientific capacity; low access to appropriate and efficient technology; poor understanding and appreciation of natural resources issues, especially their links with, and benefits to poverty reduction; and lack of adequate political and financial support; are key challenges to the sustainable management of the natural resource base.

Means of implementation: inadequate integration of employment creation into macroeconomic policy frameworks; low saving rates; low and unpredictable ODA flows; insufficient debt forgiveness; external trade barriers; low supply capacity; lack of political will to push forward the regional integration agenda; multiple memberships of countries in various RECs, overlap and duplication of functions of the RECs; lack of capacity, appropriate and adequate policy coordination and implementation and harmonization of national laws in the transport sector; inadequate government leadership and investment in proper STI strategies, systems, policies, capacities and institutions; and in the ICT sub-sector, high licensing fees; lack of national standards and high infrastructure costs, are major constraints to ensuring adequate and sustainable means of implementation. And among the major capacity building challenges are poor coordination and inadequate integration of efforts in capacity building; and high dependency on external capacity.

Lessons learned and the way forward

Sustainable development governance in Africa: It is important to effectively integrate NEPAD into AU structures and processes and provide greater support for the private sector and promote more outreach to civil society. On peace, security and human rights, the promotion of effective, inclusive and legitimate governance and the development of comprehensive early warning systems, to ensure that timely measures, such as mediation and preventive diplomacy, would be undertaken to avert violent crises are crucial. Capacity building, including technical and financial assistance to the AU, RECs and countries should be expanded. The trend towards peace, stability and democratization should be supported and consolidated. It is essential to build on the emerging structures and practices and to consolidate progress recorded in the area of political governance and administration. As regards, economic and corporate governance and private sector development, there is need to ensure that the capacity to implement well conceived reforms are available, to adopt a holistic approach to addressing the problem of governance and to improve public financial systems and management.

Poverty eradication and socially sustainable development: Sustaining high growth rates to financially empower countries to alleviate poverty and adopting holistic multiple strategic interventions in a wide range of areas are essential. In the agriculture sector, providing additional resources, enhancing adoption of better farming practices and improved technology, creating the right conditions for investment and for effective market functioning, as well as undertaking reforms that promote structural transformation of agriculture and rural economy are essential. Gender issues should be mainstreamed into economic analyses and poverty reduction strategies, and policies that guarantee gender equality and replicate the AU principle of 50/50 gender parity

should be institutionalized. Efforts should be intensified to build upon success so far achieved in the education sector, including implementing policies that enhance access, quality, and equal opportunities to boys and girls, rich and poor. Health interventions should be adequately designed and implemented in order to achieve immediate results and improve survival of infants, children and women. Activities aimed at sustainable human settlements must include slum upgrading using local resources and technology, and promoting employment creation. Sustainable water supply and sanitation calls for long-term strategies and plans for investments and the development of urban and rural water and sanitation infrastructures, as well as undertaking institutional and legislative reforms.

Sustainable consumption and production: It is essential to maintain the political momentum and commitment for the effective implementation of the African 10-YFP. Sound corporate governance and risk management systems to successfully implement policies and measures to address environmental and social challenge should be promoted. Sustainable tourism development should take into account risk factors; ensure effective market place value, quality of products and meaningful community-private-public partnerships, supported by policies that influence flows to the poor. Interventions in sustainable industrial development should improve productivity and investment with a focus on structural issues, prominent among which relate to domestic capacity building, the strengthening of domestic factor markets and the supply of public goods. The problem of access to modern energy in rural and peri-urban areas should be addressed in PRSs and National Strategies for Sustainable Development (NSSDs). Furthermore, policies, strategies, legal and regulatory frameworks that are conducive to an attractive national investments climate should be established. Countries should target analysis at understanding the concrete impacts of chemicals and hazardous wastes on key development issues to help in effectively mainstreaming chemicals management into national development strategies, including PRSs. Synergies between chemicals and hazardous wastes related MEAs should be enhanced at all levels.

Natural resource base of economic and social development: Countries should strengthen governance systems at all levels, and reinforce institutional capacity, including human, technical and financial, adopt and implement effective policies and legislation, foster stakeholder ownership and local participation in natural resources management and development. Regional and subregional initiatives should be linked and coordinated with national development processes, in order to achieve greater impact. Appropriate incentives should also be provided to encourage all stakeholders to become involved in sustainable natural resources management and development. Enhancing adaptive capacity and increasing resilience through approaches that foster sustainable development should be key climate change interventions. This should be complemented with enhancing and promoting policy coherence and integrating climate change mitigation and adaptation concerns into priority development policies and programmes. Countries should increase political support to natural resources management and development, climate change and disaster risk reduction programmes. Countries also need to effectively integrate strategies and action plans of all natural resources sectors into national development plans, including poverty reduction strategies.

Means of implementation: Countries should promote pro-poor growth if growth is to have a significant positive impact on poverty and institute broad policy measures to sustain growth. There is need to better integrate capital flows policies into national industrial policy by providing

incentives for investments that promote both domestic and foreign investments that are export oriented and have large positive impacts on employment creation. There is also need to advocate for higher volumes of aid in order to achieve and sustain higher levels of GDP growth rates and to accelerate poverty reduction, and to ensure that new aid is in the form of grants to prevent a new round of external payment crisis. Development partners should extend debt cancellation to all African countries. There is need to further coordinate and harmonize policies and positions for success in the global trading system and to combine trade reforms with complementary adjustment support measures. On regional integration, it is crucial to promote collective efforts, with dynamic political commitment to integration, and expand opportunities for investment that increase African incomes and tap unexploited resources. There is need to increase the financing of the infrastructure sector and adjust policies in order to build physical and human capacities, modernize management, attract the private sector and improve transport facilitation. There is also need to promote awareness raising, policy analysis and advocacy on STI. In the ICT sub-sector, African countries should better position themselves, especially in the area of outsourcing. Adequate and appropriate capacity in Africa requires governments to ensure that capacity building programmes clearly tie in with, and take forward the developmental agenda; and that capacity building strategies are well coordinated and integrated.

Harnessing the interlinkages

WSSD recognized the three components of sustainable development, as interdependent and mutually reinforcing pillars, hence the emphasis placed on promoting their balanced integration. And various global and regional-level responses, individually and collectively, provide opportunities for enhancing synergies and promoting interlinkages in addressing the Africa's development challenges. These responses have called for the establishment of institutions and development of policies and strategies that promote holistic and integrated approaches. Africa has responded with varying degrees of success. Institutional reforms are progressively being undertaken and sustainable development strategies are being developed and implemented. However, given the many challenges remaining, efforts must be intensified if the objective of positioning countries both individually and collectively, on a path of sustainable growth and development is to be achieved.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

The World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) reaffirmed sustainable development as a central element of the international agenda and paved the way for the practical and sustained steps needed to address many of the world's most pressing challenges. The Summit mandated that implementation of Agenda 21 and the outcomes of the Summit should be effectively pursued at the regional and subregional levels, through Regional Commissions (RCs) and other regional and subregional institutions and bodies. In this context, the Summit called on RCs to facilitate and promote a balanced integration of the economic, social and environmental dimensions of sustainable development into their work, and into the work of regional, sub-regional and other bodies. The Summit indicated that this could be done by facilitating and strengthening the exchange of experiences, including national experiences, best practices, case studies and partnership experiences related to the implementation of Agenda 21.

Furthermore, General Assembly Resolution 58/218 of 23 December 2003, as reaffirmed by Resolution 59/227 of 22 December 2004, requires RCs to take action to ensure the effective implementation, and follow up to the outcomes of WSSD. The resolution welcomes the decision of the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD), at its eleventh session (CSD-11), to invite the RCs, in collaboration with the Secretariat of the CSD, to consider organizing Regional Implementation Meetings (RIMs) in order to contribute to its work. In this regard, CSD urged RCs to take into account the relevant thematic clusters contained in its programme of work, and to provide inputs as specified by CSD-11.

In outlining the organization of work of the CSD for the period 2004-2017, CSD-11 recommended that in order to allow for effective consideration of regional and subregional inputs throughout the Implementation Cycle and to ensure maximum flexibility, RCs will, in addition to the CSD Secretariat, organize RIMs in collaboration with other regional and sub-regional organizations and bodies, as well as regional offices of funds, programmes, international finance and trade institutions and other organizations of the UN system. Against that backdrop, ECA, under the auspices of the Pan African Implementation and Partnership Conference on Water (PANAFCON) held in December 2003, hosted the RIM on water, sanitation and human settlements, which outcomes served as the region's input to CSD12. UN-HABITAT and UN Water/Africa were important partners in the organization of the RIM. Thereafter, RIMs are organized as an integral part of the meetings of the Africa Committee on Sustainable Development (ACSD).

In the run-up to the Fourth Meeting of the ACSD (ACSD-4), ECA in collaboration with UNIDO and UNEP, prepared regional review reports on industrial development, climate change and air pollution. The review report on energy was prepared under the aegis of UN-Energy/Africa. The reports were tabled at ACSD-4, which also served as the RIM for CSD-14. The RIM outputs-final reports, recommendations and Statement, served as the region's inputs to the United Nations Secretary General's Report, the CSD-14 discussions and the CSD-15 negotiations. CSD at its Sixteenth Session (CSD-16), will undertake a review of progress made in the implementation of

commitments, goals and targets agreed at WSSD, on “Africa”, agriculture, rural development, land, drought and desertification.

1.2 Scope and organization of the report

The Johannesburg Plan of Implementation (JPOI), adopted at WSSD, and in particular its chapter eight, entitled “Sustainable development of Africa”, guides this regional review report on “Africa”. The report is based on an extensive desk review, but is not intended to address all pertinent issues in an exhaustive manner. The intent is to provide the reader with an overview of Africa’s progress in implementing its sustainable development agenda and to engender action on the part of all stakeholders, including Governments, civil society, the private sector and development partners, with a view to accelerating progress towards meeting Africa’s sustainable development goals.

The report is divided into seven thematic chapters. Each chapter provides an overview of WSSD commitments, including those that reinforce the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) goals, and related international and regional policy objectives. It highlights concrete actions taken and progress made, challenges and constraints, lessons learned and the way forward for sectoral issues addressed under each theme. The sectoral issues addressed may not fit neatly into each chapter, as some issues may be relevant to more than one chapter. For example, while energy is an important means of implementation, it is addressed under “sustainable consumption and production” given its centrality to production processes and the need to ensure efficiency in its consumption. Efficient transport systems are pertinent to sustainable consumption and production patterns, but the importance of transport in enhancing interconnectivity between the different subregions of Africa, thereby promoting regional integration, is also an important “means of implementation”. Additionally, although institutions and policies are integral components of “means of implementation”, these are discussed under the last chapter “harnessing the interlinkages”, as they are also vital to ensuring coordinated and integrated approaches to implementation.

Chapter 2 looks at sustainable development governance in Africa. Issues addressed are sustainable development framework, peace and security, human rights, political governance, economic and corporate governance, and private sector development.

Chapter 3 addresses poverty eradication and socially sustainable development. Issues examined are income poverty, agriculture for sustainable development, gender equity, education for sustainable development, health for sustainable development, human settlements and water and sanitation.

Chapter 4 examines sustainable consumption and production. It discusses the Marrakech process, corporate social responsibility, sustainable tourism development, sustainable industrial development, energy for sustainable development, chemicals management and hazardous wastes management.

Chapter 5 evaluates the natural resource base of economic and social development. Sectoral issues examined are sustainable land management, sustainable mineral resources development, freshwater

resources, coastal and marine resources, sustainable forest management, biodiversity, climate change, drought and desertification, and natural disaster risk reduction.

Chapter 6 appraises the means of implementation. It looks at domestic resources, external resources, south-south cooperation, globalization and trade, regional integration, transport, science technology and innovation and capacity building.

Chapter 7 is on harnessing the interlinkages and brings out the relationships between major issues discussed in the different chapters. It discusses the interlinkages between good governance and sustainable development, between the MDGs, peace and security and between the different MDGs. It provides justification for a balanced integration of the social, economic and environmental pillars of sustainable development, within the framework of well-defined and responsive institutional and strategic frameworks.

2. Sustainable development governance in Africa

The Johannesburg Plan of Implementation (JPOI) recognizes the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) as providing a framework for sustainable development on the continent. The Plan also recognizes that achieving sustainable development requires actions at all levels to create an enabling environment at the regional, subregional, national and local levels for sustained economic growth and development. In this context, the Plan calls on the international community to support Africa's efforts to foster peace, stability and security, the resolution and prevention of conflicts, democracy, good governance, respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, including the right to development and gender equality.

2.1 Sustainable Development Framework

In July 2001, the 37th Summit of the Organization of African Unity (OAU), formally adopted NEPAD as an integrated socio-economic development framework for Africa. NEPAD reflects African leaders' common vision and shared commitment to eradicating poverty and to placing their countries, both individually and collectively, on the path to sustainable growth and development. These objectives of NEPAD accord fully with the international commitments to achieve the MDGs, in particular, the goal of halving extreme poverty by 2015 (UN, 2006a).

As a programme of the African Union (AU), NEPAD has the following priorities: establishing the conditions for sustainable development by ensuring peace and security, democracy and good political, economic and corporate governance, regional cooperation and integration and capacity building; engendering policy reforms and increased investments in priority sectors namely, agriculture, human development, infrastructure, export diversification, intra-African trade and the environment; and mobilizing resources for implementation (NEPAD Secretariat, 2006).

The highest authority of the NEPAD implementation process is the Assembly of the Heads of State and Government of the AU. However, the Heads of State and Government Implementation Committee (HSGIC) is an executive body, which provides leadership and political orientation to the NEPAD Secretariat. The HSGIC comprises three states per AU region as mandated by the OAU Summit of July 2001 and ratified by the AU Summit of July 2002. The HSGIC reports to the Assembly on an annual basis. The Steering Committee of NEPAD comprises the personal representatives of the NEPAD Heads of State and Government. This Committee oversees projects and programme development, while the NEPAD Secretariat coordinates implementation of projects and programmes approved by the HSGIC (NEPAD Secretariat, 2006).

2.1.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Continental, regional and national

Many regional and sub-regional bodies support African countries in driving the sustainable development agenda forward. The African Union (AU) is taking its mandate and responsibilities very seriously, and African leaders are helping to make it an effective organization, not only by providing it with additional resources, but by ensuring that it conducts its affairs competently, procedurally and transparently. The Union has made key changes in the way it leads the

resolution of conflicts and manages peace building in war torn and conflict countries. Key organs of the Union have been reinforced in terms of their mandates, budgets and leadership (Nkuhlu, WL, 2005).

With the support of UN Agencies and other development partners, the NEPAD Secretariat has elaborated Action Plans in key areas. The eight¹ Regional Economic Communities (RECs) recognized by the African Union, as the implementing bodies of NEPAD, have been involved in the design and implementation of programmes and sub-regional projects. The African Capacity Building Foundation is conducting capacity building needs assessments for all RECs. This includes determination of funding required to implement programmes. However, a prerequisite to strengthening the effectiveness of RECs as drivers of regional economic integration is reducing the number of groupings and eliminating multi-membership (Nkuhlu, WL, 2005). At the national level, many African countries have taken steps to create national NEPAD focal points for coordination, monitoring and integrating NEPAD programmes into their national development plans at country level. These include designating ministers or setting up ministries as focal points for NEPAD. Examples of these countries include Algeria, Rwanda, Nigeria, Mozambique, South Africa, Senegal, Ghana, Kenya and Gabon (NEPAD Secretariat, 2004).

Partnerships

The notion of partnership embedded in NEPAD is one of the strengths of the initiative and has several components. NEPAD puts a great premium on partnership between African Governments and their development partners, and between the Governments and their peoples, including the private sector and civil society. Thus, NEPAD reflects the growing consensus that the development process is a multi-stakeholder effort. The Partnership has elicited significant international support for Africa. The development of Africa was high on the international agenda in 2002 at WSSD and in 2005 at the annual summit of the Group of Eight (G8) at Gleneagles, Scotland, and at the World Summit on Development (UN, 2006a)

Gender, civil society and the private sector

The constitutive Act of the AU, not only recognizes the key role that women have played in development, but also calls for the AU to reward the contribution of African women by adopting a gender parity principle. Furthermore, the Statute of the African Union Commission (AU Commission) and NEPAD's foundation document call for inter alia, the empowerment of women and girls, the application of parity principle in all AU organs, including the Pan African Parliament (PAP) and the Economic, Social and Cultural Council (ECOSOCC), as well as gender mainstreaming of the institutional policies, programmes and processes. Additionally, the AU Heads of State Summit adopted the Protocol on the African Charter on Human and People's Rights and on the Rights of Women in Africa in Maputo, 2003, and the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa, in Addis Ababa, in 2004. Furthermore, in 2004, the NEPAD

¹ Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS); Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS); East African Community (EAC); Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA); Southern African Development Community (SADC); Community of Sahel and Saharan States (CENSAD); Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD); and Arab Maghreb Union (UMA in French).

Secretariat established the gender and Civil Society Organization (CSO) Unit, to facilitate the active involvement of CSOs in NEPAD implementation process.

The gender and CSO Unit commenced gender mainstreaming and CSO mobilization at a regional level through RECS, and at national level, through National NEPAD Chapters. A Framework and three-year Comprehensive Strategic Plan that provide guidance and a roadmap for engendering NEPAD, as well as mobilizing and effectively involving CSOs in the implementation of NEPAD initiatives have been developed. The Unit has put in place a NEPAD Gender Task Force and Think Tank. Six months following its launch, the Taskforce made major contributions to NEPAD and RECs engendering efforts and has already provided technical expertise to the ECOWAS Gender Center, the Committee on Gender of PAP, IGAD and the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM). Round tables with National Parliamentarians, the PAP, Private Sector and key stakeholders have been initiated to exchange on NEPAD products and modalities for engendering their respective activities (NEPAD Secretariat, 2006).

NEPAD has engaged the private sector in a number of ways. There are NEPAD Business Groups (NBGs) in several African countries, including Kenya, Nigeria and South Africa. Under the aegis of the African Business Roundtable, several chapters of the NBGs are being formed in other African countries, such as Cote d'Ivoire and Ghana. These business groups make representations to NEPAD and are adopting NEPAD principles in their business practices. In addition, NEPAD has forged relationships with the private sector in the developed world. Private sector organizations, such as the World Economic Forum, the Commonwealth Business Council, and the Corporate Council on Africa, hold annual meetings to promote investments in Africa (ECA, 2007a).

UN coordination mechanism in support of NEPAD

At the level of the UN, the mechanism for coordination in support of NEPAD is the Regional Consultation Meetings (RCMs) of United Nations agencies working in Africa, facilitated by ECA. The consultations are organized around nine thematic clusters based on NEPAD's priority areas, namely: infrastructure development; governance; peace and security; agriculture, food security and rural development; industry, trade and market access; environment, population and urbanization; human resources development, employment and HIV/AIDS; science and technology; and communication, advocacy and outreach.

The seventh regional consultation meeting, held in Addis Ababa in November 2006, decided that clusters should undertake a clear and traceable alignment of programmes and resources with AU and NEPAD priorities. In response to the demands of the new UN-AU cooperation framework, the regional consultation mechanism was expanded to include the AU Commission. The meeting recommended that ECA should coordinate discussions on the needs of RECs, so as to facilitate a better alignment and targeting of UN support to the AU and NEPAD priorities and vision at the subregional level (UN, 2006b; UN, 2006c; UN, 2007).

The landscape of ECA's contribution to Africa's development is being shaped by continental priorities, especially developments like the transformation of the OAU into the AU and the articulation of the NEPAD framework. ECA's dual role as a regional arm of the UN, and a part of

the regional institutional landscape in Africa, endows it with comparative advantages that enable it to make effective contributions to member States' efforts to address development challenges. Its strengths derives from its role as the only UN Agency mandated to operate at the regional and subregional levels to harness resources and bring them to bear on Africa's development priorities. This is particularly important because the perspectives of the AU and NEPAD are primarily regional and subregional. This comparative advantage is reflected in ECA's leadership role in coordinating UN inter-agency support to NEPAD. It is therefore in this context that ECA was repositioned to align its mission with the priorities of NEPAD and the AU. ECA's particular focus is on developing capacities and managing knowledge towards achieving regional integration and meeting Africa's special needs (ECA, 2007b). It is also reflected in its pivotal role of ensuring the effective implementation and follow-up to WSSD outcomes in Africa.

Development partners

A promising start to delivery on commitments on the part of Africa's development partners has been witnessed in 2005/2006. Even so, progress has been more marked on debt relief than on official development assistance and trade. The Government of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland announced in June 2006 the establishment of an independent, high-level Africa Progress Panel to track aid promises made at the G-8 summit of 2005. In the context of South-South Cooperation, several developing countries have continued to offer support to Africa (UN, 2006b; UN, 2007).

2.1.2 Challenges and constraints

Though the entities of the UN system remain deeply committed to supporting both the AU Commission and the NEPAD Secretariat, the lack of full integration of the latter into the AU Commission has created several problems. It has reduced the effectiveness of the UN system in providing coherent support to the AU Commission and NEPAD programmes; led to the organization of separate activities and funding for AU Commission and the NEPAD Secretariat; and resulted in developing separate arrangements for assisting both entities. For example, some individual agencies have simultaneously signed a memorandum of understanding with the AU Commission and a letter of understanding, or analogous instrument, with the NEPAD Secretariat. (UN, 2006b)

Resources for implementation of NEPAD priorities are inadequate. The momentum of international support for Africa is not yet strong enough to be irreversible. And Official Development Assistance (ODA) from the Group of Eight (G-8) countries is not rising fast enough to deliver on their pledges.

An important challenge is how to promote people's ownership of NEPAD and its institutionalization, so that success does not depend on the willingness of a particular political leadership to carry the "burden" of implementation. A related challenge is the integration of NEPAD plans into national development plans. A major reason for the slow progress of implementation of NEPAD may be capacity constraints, including institutional, human and financial resources.

2.1.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

African Governments need to take measures to address a range of institutional and partnership issues, including effectively integrating NEPAD into AU structures and processes, providing greater support for the private sector and promoting more outreach to civil society.

Pledges and commitments made to Africa should be delivered in a timely manner and at a much faster pace. The encouraging progress on debt write-off should now be matched by corresponding effort to meet the desired annual level of ODA with a view to achieving the long-term targets for Africa. Equally, as ODA flows to Africa increases there will be a greater need to simplify the complex administrative and reporting procedures to minimize delays in the release of resources for approved programmes.

Widening ownership and participation in the NEPAD process is crucial to implementation success. People's ownership of NEPAD will only be possible if they feel that they are part of the process. NEPAD should therefore do a better job selling itself and involving the average African in the process. Additionally, there is need to open up more space for civil society and the private sector to participate and input into policy dialogue. Furthermore, RECs need to be rationalized and their capacities strengthened to enhance implementation. Capacity strengthening at the national level is also pertinent.

Further strengthening of UN system support for the implementation of NEPAD is vital. In order to improve the effectiveness of the coordination of UN support within the regional consultation mechanism, urgent actions are needed. In particular, the holding of consistent and regular meetings should be strengthened by high-level representation.

As various entities of the system aim at broadening and deepening their support to the continent, they are expected to strengthen their capacity in order to further enhance the efficiency of the delivery of support, coordination and collaboration with the AU Commission, the NEPAD Secretariat and national Governments. To achieve this objective, the UN system should also scale up financial resources and allocate more funding to Africa-related programmes.

2.2 Peace and security

The Secretary General's 2006 report on causes of conflict and the promotion of durable peace and sustainable development in Africa disaggregated the underlying causes of conflict into root causes, enabling factors, mobilizing factors and triggering events. Root causes lead to conflict by generating deep political, social, economic and cultural divisions that can be exploited; such causes may include extreme poverty, gross inequalities and weak State capacity. Enabling factors are not sufficient on their own to cause conflicts, but exacerbate root causes or contribute to an environment that facilitates armed conflict. Exclusionary government policies, external support for repressive regimes, and small arms proliferation are a few examples of such enabling factors. Mobilizing factors are issues of individual or collective significance, such as religion, ethnicity and economic conditions, through whose utilization people can be readily induced to engage in violent action while forsaking civil responsibility. Immediate causes or triggers are factors that

affect the timing and onset of the violent outbreak, but are neither necessary nor sufficient to explain it.

2.2.1 Concrete actions and progress made

The AU Peace and Security Council was established in 2004, with a mandate to identify threats to peace and also to have an operational role in peacekeeping. The AU capacity to intervene and mediate in conflicts has been strengthened by the establishment of the African Peace Facility, funded initially by the European Union (EU) to support AU peace operations and capacity building. In addition to EU contributions, the G-8 countries reported providing direct bilateral technical assistance and financial support to the AU, as well as to certain regional organizations such as ECOWAS and IGAD, in order to support their conflict prevention and crisis management efforts (UN, 2005).

Within the framework of the Joint Africa/G-8 Plan to Enhance African Capabilities to Undertake Peace Support Operations, a consultation between the AU, the RECs and other partners took place in Addis Ababa in 2005. The participants in the consultation supported full operationalization of the African Peace and Security Architecture, including the establishment of the Panel of the Wise, the African Standby Force, the Continental Early Warning System (EWS), and the early finalization of the memorandum of understanding between the AU and the RECs. The participants also agreed to cooperate in developing the "roadmap" for establishing the Continental EWS to facilitate data collection and analysis for decision-making purposes (UN, 2005). Cooperation by United Nations organizations with ECOWAS contributed to a more coherent and harmonized regional approach to conflict prevention and peace building. A Non-Governmental Organization (NGO), the West Africa Network for Peace building, is helping ECOWAS to operationalize the regional EWS by establishing a comprehensive database, which will then be coordinated at the ECOWAS Observation and Monitoring Center in Abuja (UN, 2006d).

At its fifth ordinary session in July 2005, the AU Assembly of Heads of State and Government pledged to address conflict and political instability on the continent with the aim of achieving a conflict-free Africa by 2010. The mediation, conflict prevention and peace building efforts of the AU and subregional organizations are increasingly important complements to the actions of the United Nations. During 2005, the AU has been involved in mediations in Chad, Côte d'Ivoire and the Sudan. In its peacekeeping work in the Darfur region of the Sudan, the AU Mission in the Sudan has worked hard to contribute to stability and security despite severe resource and logistic constraints and amid increased tension, violence and human suffering. As of 23 June 2006, the Mission had strength of 5,738 military and 1,458 police personnel, with the majority of troops coming from Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa and Ghana (UN, 2006d). Furthermore, the AU Policy Framework for Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development (PCRD) was adopted in Banjul in July 2006. In the context of the UN-AU Framework for the 10-year Capacity Building Programme for the African Union, UN will assist AU in the establishment of effective early-warning and crisis response systems (UN-AU, 2006).

While prospects for peace in a number of countries have improved during 2006, some situations have worsened, despite considerable efforts by African countries, regional organizations and the international community. Between June 2005 and June 2006, the UN Security Council deliberated

on potential or actual threats to peace and security in Burundi, Chad, the Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Somalia, the Sudan and Western Sahara, as well as on subregional and cross-border issues in the Great Lakes region (UN, 2006b). It is important to recognize that African leaders themselves, both as part of a regional coalition and at the level of the AU, have been the principal mediators in many conflicts in Africa, including in Burundi, Côte d'Ivoire, Somalia and the Sudan (UN, 2006d).

2.2.2 Challenges and constraints

Challenges that continue to hamper the achievement of peace and stability on the continent include youth unemployment, the devastating social, economic and political impact of the HIV/AIDS crisis, the illicit exploitation of natural resources, and the illegal flows of small arms.

Unconstitutional takeovers, efforts to prolong terms in public office, attempts to undermine or disqualify opposition members, incitement of hatred and attacks for political and electoral gain are potentially serious threats to peace and development in Africa.

In post conflict countries, pre-existing weak State capacity has often been further crippled by conflict, while war economies thriving on illicit trade and production have diminished the residual elements of transparency, accountability and equitable access to and use of public revenues.

The effectiveness of the AU is hampered by inadequate early warning and mediation skills and inadequate capacity to manage peace support operations and the planning of emergency responses, as well as support to key peace building needs such as security sector reform. Furthermore, capacity is also wanting in regard to political and electoral matters, governance, human rights and the rule of law, peace building and humanitarian assistance.

The operations of the AU are also constrained by inadequate financial resources. The AU has endeavoured to finance its work through contributions of its own member States. However, it is increasingly evident that the demands for AU assistance and services exceed member-supported resources.

2.2.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

There is a need to better understand the specific causes of conflict and post-conflict dynamics of individual societies. The international community has learned from recent events that detailed knowledge of domestic political dynamics is critical to success. Furthermore, the support and involvement of the local population in peace building initiatives are needed if peace is to be sustained over the long term.

Since many causes of conflict, including inequality and exclusionary politics, have their roots in weak governance, measures to prevent conflict and its recurrence have a better chance of succeeding if they are accompanied by actions promoting effective, inclusive and legitimate governance. Another important factor in effective conflict prevention is the development of

comprehensive EWSs, to ensure that timely measures, such as mediation and preventive diplomacy, can be undertaken to avert violent crises.

Peace will remain fragile if the socio-economic conditions of ordinary people, and particularly the youth, are not improved. Therefore, peace consolidation strategies must be based on a realistic plan for effective and sustainable pro-poor economic recovery. Appropriate economic policies such as preferential trade and aid agreements and significant debt relief can expedite post-conflict economic recovery and thus produce critical peace dividends for the population. Peace consolidation strategies must address critical issues such as land reform, massive unemployment and better management of natural resources so as to provide financing for development.

Given the willingness of the AU to play a major role in establishing and maintaining peace on the continent, and the international community's support of this regional role, efforts must be made to enhance formal collaboration with the UN and to expand technical and financial assistance to the Union. Enhancing UN cooperation with African regional organizations, strengthening African peace support and early warning capacity, increasing financial resources for peace and development, and improving the coordination of all stakeholders, will remain key to achieving a conflict-free Africa by 2010.

2.3 Human rights

Africa faces a myriad of complex human rights problems. Violent conflict affects large parts of the continent, depriving many of their most basic rights, while poverty, poor governance, corruption, and ethnic strife cause further suffering. There is growing demand for accountability for human rights violations and increased recognition of the need to strengthen national protection systems (OHCHR, 2006). Good governance requires respect for human rights, compliance with accepted standards and norms such as reporting, establishment of requisite institutions and consistent enforcement. Disrespect for human rights and rule of law undermines good governance and signifies the possibility of conflict, disorder and anarchy in society.

2.3.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

At the regional level, African leaders have affirmed commitments to human rights and rule of law through the Constitutive Act of the AU, NEPAD Declaration on Democracy, Political, Economic and Corporate Governance and the Memorandum of Understanding on the APRM, among others. African leaders commitment to human rights is highlighted in the Declaration adopted by the 38th Ordinary Session of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government in Durban, South Africa, 2002. The Constitutive Act of the AU declares one objective of the Union to be promoting and protecting human and peoples' rights in accordance with the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and other relevant international instruments. Among the AU's guiding principles is the respect for democratic principles, human rights, rule of law and good governance.

Although the Millennium Declaration, NEPAD, the Conference on Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation in Africa and other initiatives are technically not legally binding,

they are important as political commitments that reflect the increased awareness that the respect for human rights as essential for overcoming socioeconomic and political challenges. The human rights framework reflects the crucial interdependence of economic, social and cultural rights and civil and political rights. The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, which was adopted in 2003, as the first human rights instruments of the AU, and the Protocol to the African Charter Related to the Rights of Women in Africa, which came into force in November 1999, complete the African human rights framework.

National actions

According to ECA's African Governance Report, African countries have overwhelmingly subscribed to most international and regional human rights norms and standards, ratified numerous major human rights treaties and enshrined these norms and standards in their constitutions and national legislation. However, a significant gap remains in their realization. Some progress has been made on human rights, and the principle of rule of law is generally respected in most countries along with a fair level of commitment to the respect for human rights. In many countries, constitutional provisions for the protection of political and civil rights and liberties are adequate. Almost all African constitutions prohibit discrimination based on gender. In terms of social rights, the rights of marginalized groups such as children and disabled people are increasingly being recognized and provided for. But in the areas of economic and material social rights, many countries have made the right to employment, education, health services, housing, food, etc, non-justiciable, to be provided based on resource availability.

The application of human rights standards lags behind the substantial efforts made in ratifying treaties, conventions and public statements and rhetoric of African leaders on human rights. Inequalities and injustices against women and children are widespread, as are racism and ethnic discrimination. Although there are no legislative barriers to women participation on the economy, there are many structural barriers to their effective participation. Many leaders still violate the constitution, order citizens and political opponents to be detained without trial, suppress lawful demonstration and agitation by the people and prevent citizens' lawful assembly, thus eroding fundamental political and civil rights of the citizens. Access to justice in a quick and efficient manner is problematic. The court system is slow and expensive, and access to it is often determined by the social status of the person involved.

2.3.2 Challenges and constraints

A major challenge is to narrow the gap between commitments and actions and make human rights a reality in all spheres of life, particularly for the most vulnerable groups in society. Particularly challenging is the creation of the necessary conditions to sustain and improve some of the important progress and accomplishments, to ensure the necessary reforms in areas where little has been done.

Regional mechanisms for promoting and enforcing human rights are weak. The African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, the independent body charged with overseeing the implementation of the provisions of the African charter, is still unable to fully discharge its functions due to a combination of factors. In addition, the operation of the African Committee of

Independent Experts, which was created under the African Child Charter, has so far been limited by availability of resources.

Poor training and exposure to both domestic and international human rights norms are major impediments to the observance of human rights by security forces. The police services in many African countries have grossly insufficient resources in terms of numbers, training facilities and logistics. The failure of institutions to protect the rights and liberties of citizens has led to the questioning of their credibility and integrity.

Sometimes institutional gaps and lack of capacity prove to be major obstacles to the development of good governance. Government agencies and departments suffer from not only lack of adequate budgets, but administrative bottlenecks, unclear policies, sometimes incompetent and corrupt officials and defects in the conception of institutional needs.

One of the greatest threats to human rights in Africa is the extent to which the rights are clouded by uncertainty and turbulence. Conflicts raging in many parts of Africa are the source of much of that.

2.3.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Given the range of challenges, a strategy to improve the human rights situation in Africa requires a multifaceted approach. One of the most important overarching actions is to support and consolidate the trend towards peace, stability and democratization at the country level.

More efforts are needed to create and support the institutions that enhance democracy as well as human rights. The autonomy and independence of the courts must be safeguarded. Governments have an obligation to provide their human rights commissions with the necessary financial resources to perform their functions. National institutions must enjoy operational independence through the provision of adequate and secure funding so as to maintain appropriate staffing levels, infrastructure and resources. Another structured approach is to decentralize some offices.

Steps must be taken to ensure that the requirements of human rights laws are widely known and applied. One way of dealing with the lack of knowledge by those whose rights are violated is to ensure that NGOs work hand-in-hand with courts and human rights commissions and other watchdog institutions to develop literacy and human rights awareness programmes for youth and vulnerable groups in society.

Specific actions include the need to foster a culture of protection of fundamental human rights by conducting formal courses and workshops for magistrates, prosecutors, the police, court interpreters and all others involved in law enforcement on fundamental rights. More efficient surveillance of the human rights record of police conduct is needed, as well as an efficient punishment system for misconduct. The police service and other law enforcement agencies must also be well remunerated, so that they won't be prone to corruption and to unfriendliness towards the citizenry. Prison reforms are also needed to alleviate overcrowding and to protect inmates' rights. This is necessary if prisons are to be corrective institutions.

At the regional level, AU has made important progress in establishing such institutions as the African Court on Human and Peoples' Rights, PAP and ECOSOCC. These institutions must continue to receive support. The AU Commission also needs much more support to institutionalize its human rights and democracy activities.

2.4 Political Governance

The Fourth African Development Forum (ADF-IV), in its preamble, notes that there is a clear consensus that good governance and sustainable development are two sides of the same coin. Good governance is a sine qua non for development in Africa. The 2007 World Bank Governance Matters Report asserts that good governance matters for economic development. Scholars have discovered that high-quality institutions have the power, over the long run, to raise per capita incomes and promote growth in all parts of the world. And the "development dividend" paid by good governance is large. Researchers estimate that when governance is improved by one standard deviation, incomes rise about three-fold in the long run, and infant mortality declines by two-thirds. Donor agencies, too, have concluded that development assistance is more effective in countries with good institutional quality. Increasingly, international financial institutions and some bilateral donor agencies, subscribing to evidence-based policy and decision-making, explicitly tie aid transfers to governance outcomes.

The growing recognition of the link between good governance and successful development has stimulated demand for monitoring the quality of governance across countries and within individual countries over time. In fact, the ability to measure and monitor progress on key dimensions of governance such as rule of law, corruption, and voice and accountability already has enabled reformers in government and civil society to press for improvements in the quality of governance in many countries. In the context of Africa, ECA's African Governance Report of 2005, which is the result of extensive research covering governance practices in 27 African countries, is worthy of mention.

2.4.1 Concrete actions and progress made

Regional initiatives

At the continental level, the AU and NEPAD are defining new parameters for governance and providing benchmarks for a new governance culture in Africa (ECA, 2005). In an effort to enhance the quality and effectiveness of governance in Africa, the Sixth Summit of the HSGIC of NEPAD, held in March 2003, adopted the Memorandum of Understanding on the APRM. This self-monitoring mechanism is voluntarily acceded to by member States of the AU with the aim of fostering the adoption of policies, standards and best practices that will lead to political stability, high economic growth, sustainable development and accelerated regional and economic integration. To date, 25 countries have voluntarily acceded to the Mechanism and three countries, Ghana, Rwanda and Kenya, have completed their reviews (UN, 2006d).

The Constitutive Act of the AU binds member States to uphold a number of democratic principles, among them the condemnation and rejection of unconstitutional changes of government and the application of sanctions against regimes in violation. Current efforts by some leaders to alter

constitutional term-limit provisions so as to enable incumbents to remain in office may undermine democratic achievements of the last two decades on the continent. In April 2006, member States of the AU considered a draft charter on democracy, elections and governance, which is intended to reinforce the commitment of AU member States to democracy, development and peace (UN, 2006d).

African Heads of State and Government, via NEPAD, have reaffirmed the nexus between good governance, sustainable development and poverty alleviation. NEPAD's Democracy and Political Governance Initiative aims at contributing to strengthening the political and administrative framework of participating countries. The Initiative consists of a series of commitments by participating countries to create or consolidate basic governance processes and practices, an undertaking by participating countries to take the lead in supporting initiatives that foster good governance, and the institutionalization of commitments through the leadership of NEPAD. Additionally, the Heads of State and Government have tasked NEPAD to undertake a process of targeted capacity-building initiatives for institutional reforms (NEPAD Secretariat, 2006).

Following the 4th Pan-African Conference of Ministers of Public Service held in South Africa in May 2003, the African Ministers formulated and adopted a NEPAD Governance and Public Administration Programme. The programme's major short-term focus is on direct capacity development for governance and administration, while the emphasis in the long-term will be on the acquisition, generation, and utilization of data, information and knowledge for state reform, as well as capability development and improved governance. In collaboration with the Office of the Chairperson of the 4th Pan-African Ministers Conference and the Office of Political Affairs at the AU Commission, funds have been secured from the European Union Commission (EC) to implement the Programme. (NEPAD Secretariat, 2006).

National actions

Democracy and political stability

As noted in ECA's African Governance Report of 2005, democratic politics and practices have taken a significant leap in Africa in the last two decades. Competitive multiparty democracy has been enthroned in many African countries. The political space has been gradually liberalized, and civil society organizations have been contributing to the development process and influencing policies in various aspects of public life. Ethno-regional diversities have also been given political expression and accommodation. Marginalized groups of women, youth, children and the disabled are progressively getting their views on the policy agenda. Furthermore, electoral institutions are gaining more credibility and legitimacy with the move to relatively free and fair elections in many countries. Overall, a new social pact with the institutions of the State and the processes of governance is gradually being reconstructed to promote democracy and good governance.

The World Bank Report supports this observation. The report notes that the Worldwide Governance Indicators show that from the mid- to late 1990s up to the present, several countries in Africa have substantially improved on various dimensions of governance. Examples include Nigeria on voice and accountability; Rwanda on government effectiveness, rule of law, and control of corruption; Liberia on voice and accountability; Mozambique on political stability and

absence of violence; the Democratic Republic of Congo on political stability, absence of violence, and regulatory quality; Senegal on political stability and absence of violence; Tanzania on control of corruption; Ghana and Kenya on voice and accountability; and Cape Verde on control of corruption. The World Bank Report further notes that the distinct variation in performance among countries in Africa (as well as on other continents) applies not only to changes over time, but also to the level of governance quality from country to country at any given time. Again, this supports the conclusion of the ECA Report, which observes that the democratic process is not at the same stage of development among African countries, and it is still fragile in many of them.

The above indicates that, many African countries have made a commitment to revitalize governance. Positive steps have been taken to re-examine restrictive legislation and to allow space for the progressive expansion of political space through the private sector and with the participation of civil society (NEPAD Secretariat, 2006). A number of peaceful referendums and presidential and legislative elections were held in 2005 and 2006. The United Republic of Tanzania and Benin joined Mozambique in entering the ranks of the growing number of countries that enjoyed an orderly change of government. Liberia and Burundi held a series of successful elections during 2005. More positive developments are hoped for as the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Côte d'Ivoire engage in delicate political transitions (UN, 2006d).

Government institutions and their accountability

The country reports of the ECA governance study found a trend of relative decline of executive dominance in Africa. However, the degree of consultation and public participation varies from country to country. Many African countries have adopted constitutional measures and put in place administrative mechanisms, including the introduction of decentralization and local government reforms to strengthen checks and balances where they are weak or do not exist. The executive has undergone major reforms in some countries, for example, Ghana, Mali, South Africa and Tanzania. It has also taken some measures to reinforce horizontal and vertical checks and balances in the governance system. The legislature has also been the subject of substantial reforms to enhance its capabilities to check and balance the executive and to ensure the observance of accountability and transparency by the government and its agencies in the performance of their duties and responsibilities. Similarly, some African countries have put in place appropriate reform measures to strengthen the capacity of the judiciary to check and balance executive power and discretionary authority, as well as enhancing the effectiveness and integrity of the judiciary in the performance of its duties and responsibilities, ensuring the observance of the constitution, rule of law and due process of law.

The creation in most African countries of watchdog institutions, such as the ombudsman, human rights commission, auditor general, inspector of governance or minister for good governance, present perhaps the most significant examples of these initiatives. Benin, Nigeria, Tanzania, Uganda and several other countries are trying to build effective anticorruption commissions. In relation to effectiveness of institutions, while parliaments have performed with increasing responsibility and effectiveness towards improving standards of transparency and accountability in republican democracies, they have been found to be relatively weak in parliamentary democracies. While on the whole the performance of the judiciary is improving, its effectiveness in many African countries is still restricted. With regard to civil society and media effectiveness,

their capacity to influence policy was found to be contingent on the degree of independence that they enjoy, and the willingness of the executive to permit non-state actors a voice in the democratic process.

2.4.2 Challenges and constraints

Despite progress made, challenges to political governance remain in many African countries. The democratic process is still fragile, tenuous and filled with trepidation. The emerging structures of governance- political parties, CSOs, elected institutions of the legislature and the executive, remain weak and barely institutionalized.

The liberalization of the political environment in Africa has opened for public debate and scrutiny several challenges related to political parties and elections. Most countries are still in a learning phase where incremental experiences allow revisions and adjustments and reformulation to improve rules and processes. Political parties are weak and not well institutionalized in many African countries. They lack adequate funding and are therefore susceptible to wealthy individuals who use their financial influence to ensure firm control and perpetuate their interests.

In many African countries, the lack of independence from the executive has reduced the effectiveness of watchdogs and advocacy agents in performing their functions. Although the numbers are growing slowly, there are very few African CSOs, including those in the media and private sector that enjoy independence from the executive commensurate with their goals and objectives.

To effectively check and balance the executive, the legislature needs capacity, competence and independence. But many legislatures in Africa are deficient in these capacities. They lack members who are well informed and able to introduce issues that are relevant to the needs and aspirations of their constituencies or the country.

The capacity of the judiciary to review laws is a crucial check on the executive. The greatest single impediment to this capacity is insufficient resources. Most judiciaries lack the financial means to engage staff in research, documentation and analysis of briefs, which can enhance judges' understanding of the development and changing role of law in a continent that is rapidly changing. Other institutional deficiencies of the judiciary include the inexistence of law review commissions in many countries, the existence of "executive-minded" judges, the use of foreign languages in court proceedings and ineffective judicial service commissions.

2.4.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Conscious efforts are needed to build on the emerging structures and practices and to consolidate the modest progress recorded so far. The culture of closed governance and State secrecy has to be reformed for democracy to thrive and the political system to engender greater confidence and legitimacy from the people. Further liberalizing the media is key to providing multiple and alternative sources of information.

The plural nature of most African countries makes it imperative for them to recognize and accommodate diversity in political systems. There is nevertheless need for convergence between ethnic balancing and merit system in state appointments. Furthermore, political and governance bodies must institutionalize policies that guarantee gender equality. The AU should create and enforce a minimum standard for countries with respect to the level of women's political representation in elected institutions and decision-making organs.

As the democratic process grows and is consolidating, electoral laws will have to be reformed in many African countries to reflect new realities and meet challenges of political modernization. To imbue confidence in the electoral challenge mechanism, efforts must be strengthened to ensure that elections, as well as their preparations, including campaigning, voter registration and candidature eligibility, are free and fair and are also recognized as such by key stakeholders. Furthermore, the structures that manage post-election conflicts must be invigorated. Autonomy, professional competence to handle election disputes, and adequate resources (finance, infrastructure and logistics) are needed.

African countries must begin to devise ways to finance their elections, as donor funding of elections is not sustainable. Options include setting up an African Elections Fund at the continental level by the AU for countries to subscribe to, and benefit from, when preparing for elections. Africa will have to look inward more in terms of planning and financing of elections. At the national level, there must be a mix between state and private sources of funding for political parties in order to provide the financial base necessary to carry out their activities.

In developing the NEPAD Governance and Public Administration Programme, the African Ministers of Public Service acknowledged the need to enhance citizen/government relations, enhance sustainable development and consolidate democracy, as well as enhance public sector reforms that are based on adaptations to socio-economic and cultural contexts, and on the effective implementation of programmes.

Where there are strong, well-organized and sufficiently resourced civil society organizations and an independent vigilant media, public accountability and transparency are observed and checks and balances on the executive have the required impacts. Similarly, where strong and independent legislatures exist, legislators are able to challenge the executive, making it accountable and imposing checks and balances on its powers and discretionary authority. The way forward is to ensure that gains so far made are consolidated and other possibilities of promoting good governance in a rapidly globalizing world, explored.

2.5 Economic and corporate governance and private sector development

During the 1960s, most African economies were command economies. These economies functioned under direct state intervention, which stimulated exports. The command- and export oriented economies were very vulnerable to external movements in the global economy and were devastated by the oil shocks and other external shifts during the 1970s. The 1980s were plagued by numerous economic and political crises. This prompted countries to take measures aimed at

revitalizing their economies, thus leading to a shift towards the downsizing of the role of the state with further emphasis on economic reform (NEPAD Secretariat, 2006).

African countries adopted strategies of private sector-led growth and development, based on the realization that African governments by themselves could not mobilize the enormous resources required for economic development and poverty reduction. In this regard, it was acknowledged that the private sector, especially foreign investors, would have to play an important if not essential part. This did not come without complications, as the private sector was not sufficiently capacitated to fill the vacuum created by downsizing. Since the 1990s, there has been a move towards a more holistic approach to African governance reform and the complexity of reform processes has been acknowledged (ECA, 2005, NEPAD Secretariat, 2006).

Notwithstanding, African countries have accepted that the market is better at allocating resources and managing the economy more efficiently than governments. They have endeavored to create an environment conducive to both domestic and foreign investment, which has led them to offer a wide range of incentives and strengthen cooperation between the public and private sectors. More recently, NEPAD arrived at the same conclusion and listed good economic and corporate governance as the prerequisites for successful economic growth and poverty alleviation in Africa (ECA, 2005).

2.5.1 Concrete actions and progress made

Regional initiatives

At the continental level, the NEPAD Secretariat has been working closely with key donors to support programmes aimed at strengthening public finance management. Training programmes for middle and senior level staff from the Ministries of Finance and the Board of Auditors, as well as parliamentarians involved in public finance management have been designed. Furthermore, as a response to NEPAD, a meeting with selected African countries was convened in December 2004. Hosted by the South African Treasury, the meeting was held to examine the implication of medium-term expenditure frameworks in various countries, including those that receive vertical and horizontal fiscal support from donors and which also enhance public financial management of these expenditures.

NEPAD recognizes that maintaining transparency in monetary and public finance policies is a crucial element of good governance. As such, the Ministries of Finance and Central Banks have been tasked with reviewing economic and corporate governance practices and to make recommendations to the HSGIC, with high priority given to public financial management. The objective of the NEPAD Economic and Corporate Governance Initiative is to promote programmes aimed at enhancing the quality of economic and public financial management, as well as corporate governance.

The NEPAD Secretariat has also commenced working with the Committee of Central Bank Governors (CCBG) to examine ways in which to improve Banking and Financial Standards. The CCBG in SADC and the NEPAD Secretariat have jointly launched a programme to further investigate anti money-laundering measures and to combat terrorist financing in the region.

NEPAD and the CCBG have engaged with central bankers involved in supervision, exchange control, legal matters, research, currency management, payment systems, business systems and technology to identify policies, processes, and procedures that need to put in place in the region to allow the Central Banks to fulfill their anti money-laundering obligations. Progress is being made in working towards a consensus on the most critical money-laundering issues facing the region and to find ways of addressing these issues (NEPAD Secretariat, 2006).

National actions

ECA's African Governance Report states that several African countries have made progress in economic governance, public financial management and accountability and the integrity of the monetary and financial systems. As a result, the situation in Africa today is better than it was a decade or so ago. However, the report advances that a great deal remains to be done. In the area of corporate governance, the report observes that countries deserve credit for the efforts they have made to promote private sector-led growth and development, including granting a range of fiscal incentives to investors, establishing special institutions to facilitate and promote private investment, especially FDI, and supporting the private sector in general, especially pushing the informal sector to become part of the formal sector. These and other measures demonstrate that, in general, at the higher levels of policymaking, African governments have become more favorably disposed to treating the private sector as a legitimate and reliable partner in economic development and that they are taking steps to strengthen partnership with the private sector and associating the sector in decision making that affects its development. In addition, African governments have continued efforts to expand and develop physical infrastructure to attract private investment and make it more profitable and efficient. In this respect, steps have been taken to privatize infrastructure facilities, especially in the energy and telecommunications sectors.

2.5.2 Challenges and constraints

An important challenge is the question of leadership and how seriously it is committed to sound public financial management and accountability and the integrity of the monetary and financial system. Also central is the question of the ability of other institutions of government and civil society in general, to control the executive and make it accountable. In most cases, the executive is dominant over the legislature and the judiciary and checks and balances among the three branches of government are inadequate. Furthermore, Many CSOs lack the capacity and experience to be effective in economic governance and public financial management.

Another important shortcoming that needs to be addressed is the absence of the necessary capacity in many African countries to implement well-intentioned reform programmes and measures. African countries are being called to introduce far-reaching reforms in several areas simultaneously and within a short period of time. The capacity to introduce all these changes within the expected period of time is lacking in most African countries. NEPAD also recognizes that many countries lack the necessary policy and regulatory frameworks for private sector led growth. They also lack the capacity to implement programmes, even when funding is available.

Several factors account for not attracting more FDI, among them the high administrative and financial barriers to investment, the absence of the capacity needed to translate sound policies into action, discrepancies between policy declarations and how these policies are implemented, difficulties faced by domestic entrepreneurs in gaining access to credit and political instability and high rates of crime. Inadequate protection of property rights, including patents, intellectual property rights and shareholders rights, difficulties in enforcing business contracts through the courts and the failure of many countries to ensure the movement of labor, access to land and the ability of entrepreneurs to operate freely in all parts of the country are additional obstacles to creating a conducive environment for the development of the private sector.

2.5.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Given the magnitude of the challenges and tasks facing African countries, African governments and other stakeholders, especially the international community, must focus not only on devising schemes, policies and programmes and adopting internationally accepted rules, regulations and codes of good practices, but also on ensuring that the capacity to implement these well conceived reforms are available. A holistic approach will be needed for the problem of governance and to make progress on all fronts simultaneously, challenging though this may be. The timing and sequencing of these reforms also need to be carefully considered to avoid overtaxing countries' capacities and diverting limited attention and resources to areas of secondary, rather than, primary importance.

Improving public financial systems and management is key in providing the environment for economic reforms that will lead to sustainable development and the alleviation of poverty, in keeping with the principles of NEPAD. Training should be provided to public officials and it should be ensured that knowledge acquired is applied. Furthermore, training should target the widest possible range of African actors whose active participation is crucial.

With improved skills and capacity, public financial management and sound economic and monetary system reforms, the continent would be better equipped to attract outside investment and would be well placed to legitimately stake its claim in the growing global economy. The incorporation of lessons learned in terms of policy is critical to improving the global image of the continent.

Incentives and inducements for private investors are not enough and may not in fact be the most appropriate measures. Broad issues of economic and overall governance, such as sound economic and public financial management and accountability and the integrity of the monetary and financial systems need to be addressed and issues of corporate governance must be tackled. While African countries are increasingly adopting internationally accepted accounting and auditing standards and practices, more effort is required. Improvements are also needed in internal control and audit to strengthen the independence of controllers and auditor generals and to ensure that the legislative bodies effectively oversee the activities of the executive and follow up on the reports of the controllers and auditor generals.

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3. Poverty Eradication and socially sustainable development

Poverty is a multidimensional social phenomenon that can be analytically divided into two main dimensions: income poverty, which is the lack of income necessary to satisfy basic needs; and human poverty which is the lack of human capabilities for example poor life expectancy, poor maternal health, illiteracy, poor nutritional levels, poor access to safe drinking water and perceptions of well-being (UNDP, 2003). However, at the most basic level, education and health are typical correlates of income poverty with the causality running either way.

There are several global initiatives focused on poverty eradication that African countries have pledged commitment to implement. Governments at the World Summit for Social Development held in Copenhagen, Denmark in 1995, pledged to eradicate poverty through decisive national actions, which include implementing national anti-poverty plans and international cooperation. The Millennium Summit of 2000 adopted the MDGs as a powerful agenda for a global partnership to fight both income and human poverty, and set the income poverty eradication target of cutting extreme poverty by half by the year 2015. In the context of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, Governments agreed to promote gender mainstreaming in all policies and programmes, including those aimed at poverty eradication (ECA, 2004).

The JPOI states that eradicating poverty is the greatest global challenge facing the world today and an indispensable requirement for sustainable development, particularly for developing countries. The Plan recognizes that although each country has the primary responsibility for its own sustainable development and poverty eradication, the role of national policies and development strategies cannot be overemphasized. The Plan calls for concrete actions and measures to eradicate poverty in Africa and to enable the countries achieve the goals of sustainable development. It endorses the internationally agreed poverty-related targets and reaffirms the MDG of halving, by the year 2015, the proportion of the world's people whose income is less than one dollar a day, those who suffer from hunger, and those without access to safe drinking water.

Additionally, the Plan calls for the establishment of world solidarity fund to eradicate poverty. At the national level, it calls for the empowerment of the people living in poverty through the delivery of health services, increasing food availability and affordability, increase access to sanitation, and promote full and equal participation in development. It enjoins the international community to support NEPAD, including its key objective of eradicating poverty. Furthermore, the Outcome Document of the 2005 UN World Summit resolved that countries with extreme poverty adopt and implement MDG-based PRSPs or MDG-based national development plans (ECA and AU, 2006).

3.1 Income poverty

The internationally agreed measure of income poverty is the proportion of people unable to earn an income level of approximately one dollar a day per person measured in Purchasing Power Parity. The reduction of income poverty in particular, and poverty eradication in general, is primarily dependent on the pace and character of economic growth- in short, a sustainable growth rate. Rapid and sustained growth increases incomes and generates resources necessary to deliver social services for the attainment of the MDGs. However, economic growth in Africa, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) has been largely variable over time and highly dependent on primary commodity and

of an enclave nature, example, oil, mineral or agricultural exports. The vulnerability of the major sources of economic growth in African economies to shocks, whether induced by terms of trade or weather, is a critical bottleneck to sustained growth and poverty reduction (UNCTAD 2004). Although Africa's recent growth performance has been quite impressive especially when placed in the context of the negative GDP growth trends in the late 1980's and early 1990s, it is still too low to achieve poverty eradication (refer to chapter 6).

3.1.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

The AU concretely expressed its commitment to facilitating acceleration of progress towards the MDGs by African countries through a Common Position that was presented to its 2005 Summit, the G-8 Gleneagles Summit and the 2005 World Development Summit. The AU reiterated its commitment to bringing about poverty eradication and meeting all the MDGs at the 2006 Banjul Summit, and the 2007 Accra Summit. The AU convened an Extraordinary Summit on Employment and Poverty Alleviation that was held in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, in September 2004, where a Plan of Action and Follow-up Mechanisms were adopted, calling upon Member States to place employment at the center of their economic and social policies. The Summit also agreed to include initiatives on employment creation and poverty alleviation as indicators in the APRM.

The United Nations system has been providing support to African countries and the AU on poverty on different aspects. The International Labor Organization (ILO) is assisting in the implementation of the outcomes of the Extraordinary Summit on Employment and Poverty Alleviation and has aligned their work plans with the outcomes and recommendations of the Ouagadougou Summit. ILO's document "The decent work agenda in Africa: 2007 – 2015" launched at the 11th African Regional Meeting in April 2007, details some of the activities that ILO is undertaking to assist the Africa region. At the national level, ILO is working with governments to advance poverty eradication through Decent Work Country Programmes. At the regional level ILO is working to strengthen the role of AU and RECs. UNDP in partnership with UN agencies, ECA and the Bretton Woods institutions, is providing support to 35 African countries² that have embarked on the process of preparing and implementing MDG-based national strategies and action plans.

ECA's 39th Conference of African Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development Conference in May 2006 was on Meeting the challenge of employment in Africa. The ministerial statement reasserted the important role of employment in poverty reduction and stressed the need to incorporate employment objectives in national development and poverty reduction policies. ECA's 40th Conference of African Ministers of Finance, Planning and Economic Development Conference in April 2007, was on Accelerating Africa's growth and development to meet the MDGs: Emerging challenges and the way forward. The ministerial statement reiterated the importance of the MDGs in poverty eradication and highlighted the regional and national level actions required to achieve the MDGs. ECA through the African Learning Group on PRSPs/MDGs

² Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cape Verde, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo Brazzaville, Cote d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea Bissau, Guinea, Kenya, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Uganda.

has facilitated capacity building and learning among member States. At the country level, ECA has also provided advisory services to Liberia, Ghana and Ethiopia to help policymakers design and implement MDG-based PRSPs. The African Development Bank (AfDB) has provided technical and financial support in scaling up investments for poverty eradication.

National actions

Countries have developed national development plans that incorporate poverty reduction strategies (PRS). Countries receiving debt relief and concessionary loans and grants from the World Bank and the IMF have been required to prepare Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) as from 1999. Since 2000, 32 African countries have developed a PRSP. Even non-HIPC countries such as Nigeria, Botswana, Egypt, and Zimbabwe have prepared national poverty reduction strategies. In some countries such as Nigeria and South Africa, sub-national jurisdictions prepared poverty reductions strategies.

Countries have also developed national development strategies and medium term expenditure frameworks that fully integrate the MDGs. This ensures inclusion of both income and human poverty into national development. According to the UN MDG Report 2007, 41 countries in Africa started preparing national development strategies aligned with the MDGs. In addition to their long-term visions, with clear goals and targets, such strategies are envisaged to create jobs and decent work, and provide those living in poverty with the necessary resources and skills to produce and participate in development.

Progress

A review of the impact of the implementation of PRSPs on poverty in recipient countries shows that the PRSP Framework has had an energizing effect on the efforts to reduce poverty and economic growth. The poverty focus of national development strategies have improved and growth has resumed on a sustainable basis in many countries. The incidence of poverty decreased in a number of countries. According to the United Nations Millennium Development report (2007), trends in the proportion of the population living on less than one dollar a day decreased from 46.8 percent in 1990, to 45.9 percent in 1999 and further to 41.1 percent in 2004. However, SSA is the region with the highest number people of living in income poverty. Although there has been some improvement in the poverty gap ratio (which measures the distance of the proportion of the population from the poverty line) from 19.5 percent in 1990 to 17.5 percent in 2004, SSA still has the highest poverty gap ratio in the world indicating that the poor in this region are the most economically disadvantaged (UN, 2007). The incidence of poverty in North African countries has remained constant at two percent for the same period.

The high levels of poverty are exacerbated in Africa by income inequality. SSA is the next region after Latin America and the Caribbean with the second highest level of inequality, where the poorest fifth of the people account for only 3.4 percent of national income (UN, 2007). Trends show that the level of income inequality in SSA has not improved over the period 1990 to 2004. Furthermore, in most of the countries, the incidence of poverty is higher in rural areas than in urban areas not only because the majority of people live in rural areas and due to the distribution of economic activity between rural and urban areas (ECA, 2005). In addition, the prevalence of

poverty in Africa is not gender neutral. National level data show that poverty is more extreme among female-headed households than male-headed households.

Furthermore, the PRSP Framework and the MDG targets are having a positive effect on the mobilization of external resources for development. For example, the G-8 at its Gleneagles Summit agreed to cancel the debt of 18 of the poorest countries in the World in 2006 of which 14 beneficiaries are African countries (ECA and AU, 2006).

3.1.2 Challenges and constraints

Despite Africa's tangible achievements on the economic growth front for the past five to six years, there is consensus that this positive economic performance has not yet had a demonstrably meaningful impact on poverty eradication. Furthermore, the progress in reducing poverty is complicated by highly skewed income distribution that limits the prospects for translating any gains from economic growth into shared prosperity and meaningful poverty reduction (ECA, 2007b). Although the existence of inequalities is recognized concrete policies to reduce them remain absent. An analysis of 16 African countries by ECA showed that the response of poverty to growth is only half the response of poverty to income distribution, (i.e., countries are twice as likely to reduce poverty through income redistribution as they are through growth).

Most countries are faced with the challenge of growing their economies in a manner that creates good, rewarding jobs. Some countries that have recorded recent positive economic growth have been fuelled by capital-intensive sectors of the economy such as oil and gas, and mining. This growth concentrated in the extractive sectors has largely been jobless, unevenly distributed, and volatile (ECA and AU, 2007).

Other challenges include: political turmoil and civil strife, which have been major factors in the region's weak capacity to generate jobs; climate change, which is increasing the vulnerability of African countries to natural disasters, threatening economic growth and development, thereby posing a major challenge to poverty eradication; HIV/AIDS, which is an important factor pushing individuals below the poverty line, arising from social and economic exclusion through stigma, and its devastating economic impacts; capacity constraints such as national capacity to design, implement, monitor and evaluate policies to achieve poverty eradication, which are evidenced both at the level of the individual and the institution; data constraints, which have posed severe constraints to policy making; inadequate domestic resource mobilization; and low rate of delivery of promised aid and debt relief.

3.1.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

The need to attain sustained economic growth, through a pro-poor perspective is critical. Ensuring a level field for all to actively participate in the growth process is vital. In addition, there is need for further diversification of economic activity within African economies. The volatility of SSA economies to shocks needs to be addressed if sustainable growth is the required outcome.

Growth patterns that reduce inequality (pro-poor growth) are more likely to shorten the number of years necessary to halve poverty than growth without changes in inequality. Equity in terms of

access to: employment opportunities; productive resources such as land and credit; and basic social services such as health, education, water and sanitation, is central for poverty reduction. Additionally, the current pattern of growth must change and lead to generation of employment. However, in order to do this successfully, it is critical that the production structure of Africa's economies must become diversified away from natural resource sectors to labor intensive sectors such as the service industry.

Major lessons learnt from the review of the PRSPs are that the framework paid insufficient attention to important areas such as trade, employment, social protection and gender. Trade and regional integration aspects of poverty reduction programmes need to be strengthened. In landlocked countries trade and regional integration can significantly reduce poverty through joint regional programmes in infrastructure. Poverty reduction strategies should aim to promote equal opportunities for women and men. When women are empowered to live full and productive lives, children are lifted out of poverty. There is need to mainstream social protection in National Development Strategies/PRSPs. Social protection schemes are needed to provide safety nets for those who are vulnerable to income shocks such as frictional unemployment, ill health, HIV/AIDS and old age. This will also help in improving equity.

An important emerging lesson coming out of country experiences on poverty eradication is that countries need to own their national development and be provided with the policy space to design strategies that meet the specific needs of the country. Countries also need to develop capacity for monitoring and evaluating progress on poverty eradication. There is already presence of well-developed plans of action at the regional level (eg. Ouagadougou Plan of Action to promote employment and poverty alleviation) and national-level poverty reduction strategies. Therefore, it is important to fully implement these plans to ensure that poverty eradication does take place on the ground.

Countries should improve revenue collection and public expenditure management. However, robust domestic resource mobilization strategies must be complemented by credible resource commitments by development partners to support national strategies for development in the core areas of infrastructure, human capital, regional integration and governance. Delivery of the promised aid and debt relief will allow African countries to boost expenditures in key sectors essential for poverty eradication including infrastructure and social services. Additionally, there is need to strengthen the statistical capacity of countries to collect data that is essential for monitoring poverty eradication.

3.2 Agriculture for sustainable development

Agriculture is the backbone of Africa's economy. About 70 percent of Africans and approximately 80 percent of the continent's poor live in rural areas and depend mainly on agriculture for their livelihoods. The sector accounts for about 20 percent of Africa's GDP (ECA, 2004), 60 percent of its labour force and 20 percent of the total merchandise exports (CAADP, 2003). Agriculture is the main source of income for 90 percent of rural population in Africa (ECA, 2005). Despite rapid urbanization proceeding at the annual rate of 4.9 percent over the past decades, the sector remains the highest employer in Africa.

Agricultural development is of fundamental importance to the achievement of broad-based economic growth and sustainable development. The Green Revolution of the mid-1960s, which brought about increases in food production and rural incomes, as well as sustainable modernization of agriculture and rural transformation elsewhere in the world, largely missed Africa. The Green Revolution did not take hold in Africa, largely because it was not designed for the continent's diverse agro-ecological zones, farming systems and socio-cultural contexts.

WSSD reiterated the Millennium Declaration target to halve by the year 2015, the proportion of the world's people who suffer from hunger. The Africa chapter of the JPOI calls for support in the development and implementation of national policies and programmes to regenerate the sector. The Plan also calls upon African countries to develop and implement food security strategies, within the context of national poverty eradication programmes, by 2005. This supports NEPAD's agriculture sector objectives, which include: to improve the productivity of agriculture, with particular attention to small-scale and women farmers; to ensure food security for all people and increase the access of the poor to adequate food and nutrition; and to develop Africa into a net exporter of agricultural products.

3.2.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

In order to achieve the above objectives, African countries have taken measures at national, sub-regional and regional levels to boost the development of the agriculture and rural sector. These measures include the followings: i) the Maputo Summit Declaration that endorsed the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) Plan of Action, and the commitment by African leaders to allocate at least 10 percent of their national budget to agricultural development; ii) the Sirte Declaration on Agriculture and Water that adopted the development of strategic agricultural commodities; iii) the Fertilizer Summit that adopted the resolution to increase fertilizer use in Africa from eight kg per hectare to 50 kg by 2015; and the Abuja Food Security Summit that recommended the establishment of African common market for basic food products.

FAO is promoting cross-country partnership and regional integration to enable countries to successfully confront the challenges of food security and solve regional problems through collective action. It works directly with RECs to promote structural reforms and policy harmonization; transboundary issues related to food trade and safety, to support national programmes for food security and water. Regional Food Security Programmes (RFSP) also work to strengthen national programmes by holding capacity building and training sessions with country representatives along with other initiatives to strengthen national capacity.

The International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) plays a key role in the specific NEPAD Pan African Cassava Initiative (PACI) aimed at disseminating new cassava-processing technologies and developing regional markets for the crop. Cassava production in Africa has more than tripled since 1961 – from 33 million metric tons per year to 101 metric tons – making the continent the largest producer. In countries like Ghana and Nigeria, wide adoption of high-yielding varieties and improved pest management has been largely responsible for the sharp rise in production.

IFAD has given three grants to the West Africa Rice Development Association (WARDA), an intergovernmental research association of 17 West African States, to support efforts to boost rice production, in particular new varieties known as New Rice for Africa (NERICA). The variety combines the high-yield characteristics of Asian rice with the resistance of indigenous African strains. Through these grants, IFAD has established close links with WARDA's African Rice Initiative (ARI), launched in 2002 to promote the dissemination of NERICA. The Forum for Agricultural Research in Africa (FARA) is assisting African countries in developing their research capacity for improved agricultural productivity and sustainable management of natural resources.

The performance of agriculture in Africa has slightly improved. In recent years, annual agricultural growth has averaged around 3.9 percent. Contrary to the widespread perception that agriculture actually has performed worse after the implementation of structural adjustment programmes, evidence shows that Sub-Saharan Africa's agriculture grew more than one percent faster since the mid-eighties than during the period between independence and the launching of the adjustment programmes. However, while growth did take place, it did not really lead to improved food security and reduced poverty. Nevertheless, it has been possible, during the last decade, to lift agricultural growth at a level above the rate of population growth in the region as a whole, and substantially more in a few countries. This is an encouraging trend, as it shows that agriculture can be successful in SSA. Production of cassava, exports of fruits and vegetables, tea production and exports, and fish catch stand out as sub-sectors where success cannot be denied. Moreover, in terms of growth, agriculture has performed relatively better, on average, than the rest of the economy of sub-Saharan Africa (FAO, 2006a).

Africa's food security situation remains alarming despite the progress mentioned above. According to recent studies (FAO, 2006b; IFPRI/WORLDBANK, 2005). SSA accounts for 13 percent of the population and 25 percent of the undernourished people in the developing world. It is the developing region with the highest proportion – one third of people suffering from chronic hunger. In 14 countries in the region, 35 percent or more of the population were chronically undernourished from 2001 to 2003. Between 1990 to 1992 and 2001 to 2003, the number of undernourished people increased from 169 million to 206 million. Given this trend, it is unlikely that the MDG of halving the number of poor and hunger by 2015 would be achieved.

3.2.2 Challenges and constraints

Efforts to reduce hunger in the region have been hampered by natural and human-induced disasters. The most significant constraints on agricultural development, and on improved food security, are political unrest and armed conflicts. These have prevented farmers from producing, displaced populations, destroyed infrastructure and littered the countryside with land mines. Poor governance, limited interest on the part of the powerful in the fate of the bulk of the population and weak institutional capacity has also contributed to poor policies that have proven incapable of addressing the challenges of agriculture and rural development. Brain drain, hasty implementation of inadequately worked-out reforms and urban bias are prevalent in most of SSA. In mineral-rich countries, macroeconomic conditions have also been unfavorable to agriculture, undermining its competitiveness.

Agricultural growth can come from expansion of cultivated land, increased productivity, diversification into higher value-added products or a combination of all three. It can also come from reduction of wastage and post-harvest losses. However, expansion of cultivated land in many sub-Saharan African countries has been constrained by physical access, insecure land ownership, limited access to animal and mechanical power and reduced availability of labor because of migration, competition from off-farm activities and diseases such as HIV/AIDS. Productivity has remained low because of underutilization of water resources, limited fertilizer use, limited use of improved soil-fertility management practices and weak support services (research, extension and finance). Recurrent droughts, plagues and related increased risks have discouraged the investment that is indispensable for raising productivity.

Malfunctioning and inefficient markets (largely due to a frail private sector in most countries), insufficient investment in infrastructure, high transportation costs, weak information systems and a poor regulatory frameworks have hampered proper remuneration of producers and deterred, indeed, incapacitated them from investing and specializing in new and high value products. Prices remain low and are highly volatile - and there are no mechanisms that can help minimize or share the risk borne by producers. Finally, government budget cuts have affected agriculture more than other sectors. The share of agriculture in government budgets declined from around 5 percent in 1990/1991 to 3.5 percent in 2000/2001 in most countries. This gravely affected public investment in agriculture and the capacity of public institutions.

3.2.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Addressing the constraints and exploiting opportunities for agriculture and rural development in Africa require considerable public support, both in terms of additional resources and policy reform. The challenge is considerable, but as illustrated by some African agricultural success stories, it is possible to overcome them. It is clear that there are considerable opportunities for expanding land under cultivation, increasing yields (through better management of water and soil resources and use of improved technology). Tapping this potential will depend on the ability of governments to create the right conditions for farmers to take initiative, invest and trust in the functioning of markets that will remunerate fairly their efforts.

Africa needs to achieve a sustainable and structural transformation of its agriculture and rural economy, i.e. a process that involves a move from highly diversified subsistence modes of production towards more market-oriented production systems. This integration will be facilitated by greater specialization, exchange and by the harnessing of economies of scale. Over the long term, resources and employment are to be transferred from agriculture and other sectors producing primary goods to higher productivity (higher wages and salaries, output, etc.) sectors, e.g. industry (including processing and manufacturing) and services. This process is triggered by the use of wider knowledge systems embodied in new technologies, management practices and institutions as a crucial source of comparative advantage and competitiveness vis a vis conventional comparative advantage gained by natural resources endowments.

Efforts at structural transformation of agriculture should therefore address, in an integrated approach, issues of Technology, Infrastructure, Institutions and Policies (TIIP) with a view to achieving two key objectives: maximizing productivity and efficiency, thereby minimizing unit

production costs at the level of each physical transformation stage of commodity sub-sectors (value chains); and minimizing transactions costs among the different stages of commodity value chains, thereby minimizing total unit costs of products (goods and services) delivered to the final consumers.

3.3 Gender equality for sustainable development

International commitments to gender equality, equity and women's empowerment have been reaffirmed in different UN Conferences, including the Dakar and Beijing Platforms for Action (BPFA). The world's leaders have agreed to take these commitments forward in the Millennium Declaration and to set targets for achieving the MDGs on gender. WSSD reiterated these commitments and the JPOI calls for promoting women's equal access to and full participation in, decision-making at all levels on the basis of equality with men. The Plan also calls for mainstreaming gender perspectives in all policies and strategies, eliminating all forms of violence and discrimination against women and improving the status, health and economic welfare of women and girls through full and equal access to economic opportunity, land, credit, education and health-care services.

In particular, the Africa chapter of the Plan emphasizes the right to gender equality. It calls on the international community to support Africa's efforts in ensuring equal access to all levels of education and to promote and support efforts and initiatives to secure equitable access to land tenure and clarify resource rights and responsibilities. Promoting the role of women in all activities is one of two NEPAD long-term objectives. The Initiative has as one of its goals, to make progress towards gender equality and empowering women by eliminating gender disparities in the enrolment in primary and secondary education by 2005.

3.3.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

In addition to regional level initiatives on gender equality and equity mentioned in chapter one, at the sub regional level, RECs (ECOWAS, SADC, EAC, IGAD, ECCAS, COMESA) have adopted gender policies, declarations and guidelines for the promotion and protection of the human rights of women. To help governments achieve the goal of monitoring and evaluating the impact of gender equality and equity policies, ECA has developed the African Gender and Development Index (AGDI). This tool allows policy makers to assess their own performance in implementing policies and programmes aimed at ending women's marginalization. It should also improve knowledge on African women's issues and concerns, as they are made more visible. So far, the index has been successfully tested in 12 countries and testing in additional countries is in progress. ECA has also set up an African Women Rights Observatory to monitor the Status of Women and Women's rights at the regional level.

National actions

Ratification of international and regional instruments: Efforts to promote gender equality, equity and women's empowerment in Africa, gained momentum on several fronts over the past years,

thus, setting the stage for further gains. Fifty-one of the 53 African Member States have ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), known as the women's international bill of rights, and 17 have signed the Optional Protocol. Some countries have aligned their national legislation to the provisions of CEDAW. Furthermore, 31 countries have signed and four have ratified the African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa. Some governments have enacted or amended legislation on women's human rights and others have adopted constitutions that take on board gender equality.

Participation in governance: On the political front, several countries have significantly increased the level of women's representation in parliament, with one country reaching an impressive 49 percent and two at over 30 percent. Women have also been elected and/or appointed into powerful decision-making positions in the civil and public services.

Gender mainstreaming and institutional mechanisms: African governments have established various mechanisms at different levels, including national machineries to mainstream gender in the formulation of policies, plans and programmes, policy advocacy and to monitor and evaluate the implementation of international, regional and national commitments. Gender focal points have proven to be a valuable, but fragile link between Women's/Gender Affairs and line Ministries. Particular attention has been given to the formulation of national gender policies and implementation plans, with some countries having prepared sector-specific gender policies. Capacity building for gender mainstreaming has been undertaken at national and regional levels. Issue-based advocacy has been successfully conducted in some countries, for example on violence against women and legal literacy.

Poverty reduction and economic empowerment: Attempts are underway to engender poverty surveys conducted during the poverty reduction strategy processes, which will provide the basis for stronger gender analysis in macroeconomic and socio-economic policies. The consideration of gender in some countries' budgets has triggered more transparent processes for gender responsiveness in public expenditures. Information available on Gender Responsive Budgets (GRB) and the inclusion of women's unpaid work in national accounts are likely to have tremendous impact on resource allocation in the context of Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) and the MDGs. Between 1995-2005, 48 African countries prepared poverty reduction strategies and action plans that included gender concerns. Furthermore, some African countries have strategies for supporting women's entrepreneurship through micro-credit schemes and capacity building in enterprise management.

Education: Some countries have managed to reduce gender differentials in education through affirmative action and gender-aware policies aimed at improving enrolment, retention and quality of education for girls. Faced with the role of women in traditional African societies, one of the most intimidating challenges for many African countries has been to guarantee access to education for the girl-child, and for young and adult women. Gender parity at the primary school level has been reached or is likely to be achieved in most Southern African countries such as Botswana, Lesotho, Mauritius, Namibia, Swaziland, and Zimbabwe.

Health: Some African countries have prioritized women's health as an area of concern. This has resulted in increased attention to the reproductive health and rights of women, encouraging breast-

feeding and other infant feeding options making facilities available for the management of sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS, and raising awareness among men on their responsibilities in reproductive health. In many countries, progress has been made in offering free or subsidized sexual and reproductive health care services and commodities, affordable preventive health services for rural populations and training grassroots health providers.

3.3.2 Challenges and constraints

In spite of African women's mobilization, advocacy, and increased representation in governance at regional and national levels, normative gains are not yet reflected in substantial changes in women's lives. African women, especially those living in rural communities and those with disabilities, still face daunting challenges. African women constitute the majority of both urban and rural poor (over 70 percent in some countries). Unequal power relations between women and men, the skewed distribution of remunerated and unremunerated work, unequal inheritance rights in some countries, food insecurity and lack of secure access to land, water, energy, credit, means of communication, education and training property, and other productive resources, as well as inadequate support for women's entrepreneurship are some of the major causes of women's poverty. Widespread poverty among women also affects other critical areas, such as women's health and education.

The cumulative effects of HIV/AIDS, TB and malaria, food insecurity, low economic productivity, low levels of education and the upsurge of sexual violence have left African women and girls vulnerable and with considerable challenges. Women are the most exposed to HIV/AIDS infection due to extreme poverty and their responsibility in caring for infected and affected persons. Even in countries where overall HIV prevalence is low or has been reduced, the number of infected and affected women is still on the rise.

Women and girls continue to be seriously affected by gender-specific violations of their human, sexual and reproductive rights. Indeed, situations of armed conflict take the heaviest toll on women and have become increasingly marked by rape and other forms of sexual violence of which women are victims. Some cultural and traditional practices continue to inhibit progress in promoting women and girls' human rights. Women and girls continue to risk death from maternal mortality with one in every 16 pregnancies in Sub-Saharan Africa resulting in death.

With few exceptions, educational statistics show large gender disparities. Female-to-male school enrolment, retention and completion favor boys in a majority of countries. Moreover, African women have the highest illiteracy rates in the world, which in some countries are rising. In addition, gender disparities in schooling undermine national efforts for human capital development, thereby slowing down the pace of economic and social development. At the tertiary and university levels the low participation for young women continues. Gender gaps are particularly pronounced in science, mathematics and computer sciences.

The mechanisms for the integration of gender equality and women's empowerment remain weak at all levels – lacking adequate capacity, authority and funding. Line ministries have not reached gender equality targets due to low levels of resource allocations. Gender concerns continue to be treated rhetorically or as separate women's projects. Sex-disaggregated data and information from

gender-sensitive indicators are often not collected, lost in aggregation of published data, or not used.

Gender equality and equity principles are not yet fully integrated into democratization processes, and women continue to be under-represented in most structures of power and decision-making, including leadership positions in political parties, local government, the public and private sector and civil society organizations. Governments have recognized that passing laws and policies alone does not bring about substantial gender equality and equity or respect for women's human rights. The national and sub regional reports on the 10 year review of BPFA from both governments and NGOs identified the need to bridge the gap between commitments and implementation.

3.3.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

To achieve gender equality in Africa, greater efforts need be deployed. Several key actions are to be taken, particularly in the crucial areas of health and education, including mainstreaming gender issues into economic analyses and poverty reduction strategies. Affirmative action should be strengthened to boost women and girls' access to education and training programmes, particularly in mathematics, science and technology. In the field of health, governments, NGOs and the private sector should come together to provide accessible sexual and reproductive healthcare services and education to reduce maternal mortality. The rate of HIV/AIDS infection is much higher among women than men and in this regard, governments must establish and monitor strict legal frameworks to address the vulnerability of women and girls. Furthermore, access to anti-retroviral treatment should be ensured.

It is widely recognized that women's empowerment requires a higher rate of involvement in governance and decision-making. To this end, institutionalizing policies that guarantee gender equality and replicate the AU principle of 50/50 gender parity is necessary. The role media can play in promoting equality is crucial, and Africa should support women's press and communication initiatives, as well as making use of new information technology to promote women's activities. Women should also be allowed to have a prominent role in formulating and implementing environmental policies.

Women's rights begin with the girl-child, who must be protected against discrimination, ill health, malnutrition, violence, FGM, forced marriage and exploitation. Direct advocacy to achieve this should start with the parents, traditional and religious leaders and parliamentarians. All too often, women are the main victims of war and conflict, so governments should ensure that measures are in place to ensure the role and rights of women during the negotiation, transition and reconstruction phases, in accordance with UN resolution 1325. African countries should sign and ratify the protocol to the African Charter promoting women's rights as soon as possible, to demonstrate their commitments to women's human rights.

If NEPAD is to achieve its broad as well as gender specific goals and objectives, it not only has to facilitate the involvement, effective participation of women in the implementation process, but also has to ensure that economic empowerment of women is one of the priorities of NEPAD's social and economic agenda. Furthermore, new programmes emanating from the NEPAD

implementation process rather than adding to the existing gender disparities and creating new ones should ensure that they empower women.

Finally, men and boys must be involved in the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment through innovative rights-based and culturally sensitive programmes.

3.4 Education for sustainable development

Education is a critical sector whose performance directly affects and even determines the quality and magnitude of Africa's development. It is the most important means to develop human resources, impart appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes. Education forms the basis for developing innovation, science and technology. This is in order for Africa to harness its resources, industrialize, participate in the global knowledge economy and take its rightful place in the global community. It is also the means by which Africa will entrench a culture of peace, gender equality and positive African values. However, Africa entered the Millennium with severe education challenges at every level (African Union, 2006).

WSSD reaffirmed the MDG of ensuring that, by 2015, all children will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling and that girls and boys will have equal access to all levels of education relevant to national needs. The Summit also reaffirmed the "Dakar Framework for Action on Education for All" of eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005. In addition, the Africa chapter of the JPOI calls for support to the development of national programmes and strategies to promote education. As part of its Human Resources Development Initiative, NEPAD pledges among other things, to work with development partners in meeting the universal MDG on primary education and has as one of its goals, to enroll all children of school age in primary schools by 2015.

3.4.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

The Conference of African Ministers of Education adopted the Plan of Action of the First Decade of Education for Africa (1997-2006). However, an evaluation of the Decade revealed that member States did not achieve most of the goals set in the Decade Plan of Action. In this regard, the Sixth AU Summit of September 2006, adopted a resolution to launch a Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006-2015), and endorsed the Framework for Action earlier adopted by the Second Conference of African Ministers of Education (African Union, 2006).

In order to enable African countries achieve the MDG of Universal Primary Education (UPE) and to promote centers of excellence, a detailed Action Plan has been formulated under the auspices of NEPAD. The NEPAD Secretariat is making progress in advancing various projects at different implementation stages. To ensure the timely and effective implementation of projects, the Secretariat is consulting with various partners and is focusing on resource mobilization efforts. Projects include: basic education and education for all; building capacity in education, research and development in Africa; gender equality in primary and secondary schools in Africa; school

feeding and nutrition; distance education and teacher training and development; education in post-conflict environments; and mathematics, science and technology.

National actions

African countries have subscribed to the goal of achieving Education for All (EFA) by 2015 and many have undertaken education sector reforms. For example, countries such as Uganda have adopted system-wide, top-down reforms that integrate management improvements, decentralization, and finance reform, which required strong political commitment. The Ethiopian reforms had three wide goals: reach universal primary education by 2015, improve education quality, and improve education system efficiency and financial sustainability. Other interventions include successful implementation of health and nutrition programmes in schools, early childhood development programmes, shifting to low-cost school construction methods for schools and using contract teachers to make the costs of expanding coverage more fiscally sustainable (UN Millennium Project Taskforce on Education, 2005).

International community support

After the International Development Association (IDA) of the World Bank, the European Commission is the biggest multilateral donor for education. The Commission allocates greater shares of its education aid to SSA and to basic education than do donors overall. The concentration of donors in just a few countries poses important questions about the capacity of global aid to raise education levels across the region. Ethiopia, Mali, Mozambique and the United Republic of Tanzania receive aid to education from ten to twelve donors, while some, including Comoros, the Gambia, Sierra Leone and Zimbabwe, have no donors at all. Furthermore, some countries lack any multilateral donor presence, apart from the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and/or the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). UNESCO made substantial contributions to the finalization of the Action Plan of the Second Decade of Education for Africa. The proportion of aid to education that goes to the basic level in Arab States is very low: less than 5 percent. Several donors have given priority to higher levels of education, even in countries where UPE has not yet been achieved. Aid flows raises important questions for donors about targeting aid to the countries and education levels most in need. (UN, 2006; UNESCO, 2007a; UNESCO, 2007b ; UNESCO, 2007c).

Progress

The overall EFA picture in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) is mixed. Enrolment in primary education has increased since Dakar, but the number of out-of-school children remains much too high (38 million in 2004). School progression and completion are still major concerns. With many countries in SSA promoting the universalization of basic education – which combines primary with lower secondary – pressures to expand secondary education and participation are mounting rapidly. Despite countries' commitment to basic education for all, universal participation is still far away. The average ³GER in basic education was 73 percent in 2004 in SSA, compared to 90

³ Gross enrolment ratio [GER]. Total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the official age group corresponding to this level of education. The GER can exceed 100% due to late entry or/and repetition.

percent or above in other regions, though the ratio did increase by ten percentage points between 1999 and 2004. The rest of the EFA agenda is lagging, in particular with regard to gender parity, education quality and adult literacy. In Arab States, EFA remains a challenge. Enrolment in primary education has increased since Dakar, although more slowly than in SSA. There are still more than six million children not in school. Poor school progression and completion are concerns in some countries. The rest of the EFA agenda is lagging, in particular with regard to gender parity, education quality and adult literacy.

Primary education: advancing in enrolment

Overall, there has been progress towards universal primary education (UPE) in SSA since Dakar. The number of children enrolled in primary schools rose steeply from about 80 million in 1999 to some 101 million in 2004, a 27 percent increase largely reflecting rapid rises in the number of new entrants in grade one (about 31 percent over the period). The result was a jump of ten percentage points in the regional net enrolment ratio (⁴NER), from 55 to 65 percent. Increases were particularly impressive in countries including Benin, Ethiopia, Guinea, Lesotho, the Niger, Madagascar and Tanzania, often following the abolition of school fees. NER also increased in the Arab States (including Algeria, Djibouti, Sudan, Tunisia, Mauritania, Morocco and Egypt), but was less spectacular. Despite this expansion, the UPE challenge remains huge. SSA is still home to about half the world's out-of-school children, with 38 million of them in 2004, 53 percent of whom, were girls. The challenge is particularly great in countries such as Ethiopia and Nigeria, where four to eight million children of primary school age are not in school. Several others have more than one million children out of school, including Burkina Faso, Mali and the Niger, with NERs still under 50 percent in 2004.

School retention and completion

In addition to access, school retention and completion are still major concerns. Less than two-thirds of a cohort of pupils who had access to primary education reached the last grade in the majority of SSA countries with 2003 data. In some, including Chad, Equatorial Guinea, Malawi, Mozambique and Rwanda, the rate is under 40 percent. Not all children who reach the last primary grade necessarily complete it. In Burundi, Mali and Niger, primary completion rates are much lower than survival rates to last grade (a gap of more than 25 percentage points). The same factors behind being out of school also influence school retention and completion. Survival rates to the last grade are close to or above 90 percent in most Arab States for which data are available, except in three, including Mauritania (69 percent) and Morocco (76 percent).

Secondary education

In 2004, some 31 million students were enrolled in secondary schools across the region, an increase (the highest for any EFA region) of about 43 percent since 1999. Beyond the absolute numbers, however, participation at that level remains low, with an average GER below 30 percent. Secondary education is more developed in English-speaking African countries, particularly those

⁴ Net enrolment ratio [NER]. Enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percentage of the population in that age group.

in the southern hemisphere, than in Central and West Africa. Increases in secondary school enrolments were significant in the developing country regions, including Arab States and SSA: in each, the number of secondary students rose by 20 percent or more during the period. Between 1999 and 2004, secondary GERs increased in most of the 32 countries with data available, with gains above 25 percent in more than half of them. The level of participation doubled in Ethiopia and Mozambique, albeit from low initial levels. On the other hand, some countries, including Malawi and Zimbabwe, recorded substantial decreases, by 15 percent or more. As regards Arab States, the level remains low in some countries. While the region's average GER was 66 percent in 2004, secondary education is much less developed in Djibouti, Iraq, Mauritania, Morocco and Sudan with secondary GERs below 50 percent.

Tertiary education

Despite increases in enrolment of more than 50 percent since 1999, only a small share of the relevant age group has access to this level of education, with a GER of less than five percent in 2004. Tertiary education is more developed in Mauritius, Nigeria and South Africa, where the GERs were above 10 percent. Participation at this level rose in almost all countries across SSA between 1999 and 2004, with an increase of ten percentage points in Mauritius. GER in the Arab States was between 20 to 28 percent. Tertiary education is more developed in four countries, including the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. Participation at this level rose in almost all countries of the region between 1999 and 2004, with increases of more than ten percentage points in four countries, including Tunisia.

Literacy

On average, only 61 percent of adults in SSA can read and write with understanding, one of the lowest adult literacy rates in the world. Although the rate increased by more than 10 percentage points between 1990 and 2004, high population growth meant the absolute number of adult illiterates continued to rise, from about 133 million to around 144 million. The number is expected to reach 168 million by 2015. Adult literacy rates vary greatly within the region, from 19 percent in Mali to more than 90 percent in Seychelles. Fourteen of the 22 countries in the world with literacy rates below 60 percent are in SSA. Adult literacy rates also vary within Arab States, with Mauritania, and Morocco recording below 60 percent. Most countries in SSA and Arab States have improved their adult literacy levels since 1990, but will find it difficult to meet the EFA literacy target by 2015, unless governments significantly expand adult literacy programmes.

Gender disparities

Girls are benefiting from the regional upward trend in enrolment, especially in primary education. Rapid progress towards gender parity at this level was registered between 1999 and 2004 in countries including Benin, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, the Gambia and Guinea. Despite these positive trends, disparities in education detrimental to girls remain pervasive in SSA. Eighty-nine girls were enrolled in primary schools for every 100 boys in 2004, up from 85 in 1999. Gender parity in primary education has been achieved in fewer than 30 percent of the 39 countries with data available. Disparities between the sexes are even worse at higher levels, with a gender parity

index (5GPI) of 0.78 in secondary and 0.62 in tertiary education. More than 60 percent of the adult illiterates in SSA are women. The average GPI for adult literacy is 0.77, with values below 0.50 in countries including Benin, Chad, Guinea, Mali and the Niger. Overall, gender disparities in education and literacy are higher in countries with low enrolment and literacy rates. The situation in Arab States is similar.

3.4.2 Challenges and constraints

Many obstacles hinder access to and participation in education, among them poverty and the related issue of direct and indirect costs, as well as distance to school, social exclusion and the school environment. A main challenge is still to increase girls' access to education, and ensure that equal numbers of girls and boys are in school.

The quality of education is still an issue. Expansion of schooling in the region often occurs at the expense of quality. Not only do many children with access to school fail to complete it, but also national and international learning assessments continue to reveal poor literacy and numeracy skills, particularly for students from poorer and culturally excluded families. Numbers of teachers are not only insufficient, but teachers also often lack training and qualifications.

Despite the upward trend in public spending on education, the share of national income spent on education is still below five percent in the majority of countries with data available. Therefore, even with country efforts to invest more in education in general, external aid is required to achieve EFA. However, national expenditure and external aid, still fall short of the resources needed to achieve EFA.

The lack of data for a number of countries, mainly in SSA, that are or have recently been affected by conflict prevents the inclusion of these countries in analysis, thus making the creation of education opportunities for children in those countries quite difficult.

3.4.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Most African countries are in danger of missing the goals. The considerable success achieved so far, demonstrates that further progress can be made. To do so requires that efforts be intensified. For UPE to be achieved in the region, governments should address factors that still exclude certain children from school. Possible measures include reducing the costs of schooling, supporting orphans and vulnerable children affected by HIV/AIDS, designing second-chance education programmes and, more generally, improving the quality of education and the school environment.

Countries should implement policies tailored to overcoming multiple sources of exclusion and to giving girls the educational support and physical safety they need to gain access to education. Teachers are critical to EFA. There is an urgent and obvious need to recruit more of them and to

⁵ Gender parity index [GPI]. Ratio of female to male values [or male to female, in certain cases] of a given indicator. A GPI of 1 indicates parity between sexes; a GPI between 0 and 1 means a disparity in favour of boys/men; a GPI greater than 1 indicates a disparity in favour of girls/women.

improve their quality as well as their status and working conditions, particularly in disadvantaged areas, if the goals are to be met.

A World Bank Independent Evaluation Group (2006) underscores the fact that countries have placed high priority on increasing enrolment in primary schools, but have paid far less attention to the crucial issue of whether children are learning adequately. It recommends that countries and development partners place the same emphasis on learning outcomes as they do on access, with the idea that current investment in primary education would thus have a far greater impact on poverty reduction and national development.

Expanding access to primary schooling does not necessarily imply a trade-off with improving school quality and learning outcomes. Policies can effectively enhance both access and quality – for example, by shifting more public expenditure to basic education, directing more aid to basic education, increasing efficiency in the allocation of resources across schools and improving pre-service and in-service teacher training.

Countries currently or recently in conflict have no data and so tend not to be included in analysis, but their EFA situation is unlikely to be improving. Creating education opportunities for children living in conflict and post-conflict situations should be a very high priority.

African governments, which have not yet made long-term education plans, now need to do so, with special attention to girls' education. Work must be intensified to develop an effective strategy for providing Africa with a network of first class universities and research centers, as well as reversing the 'brain drain'.

3.5 Health for sustainable development

Health is one of the most serious casualties consequent on the poverty, social exclusion, marginalization and lack of sustainable development in Africa. Africa faces a huge burden of preventable disease and disability that not only causes unnecessary death and suffering, but also undermines economic development and damages the continent's social fabric. The burden is in spite of the availability of suitable tools and technology for prevention and treatment and is largely rooted in poverty and in weak health systems. Yet, where the necessary conditions have been created, there have been important successes (NEPAD Health Strategy, 2003).

The HIV/AIDS epidemic poses an unprecedented challenge, while malaria, tuberculosis, communicable diseases of childhood and non-communicable diseases all add to the untenable burden. Malnutrition underpins much ill health and is linked to more than 50 per cent of all childhood deaths. Non-communicable diseases are a growing cause of both death and disability. Trypanosomiasis is resurging and non-communicable diseases result in substantial preventable death and disability. Women and adolescents face unique health challenges, while deaths from conditions related to pregnancy and childbirth are at horrendous levels. The reasons behind the huge disease burden include: weak health systems and services; inadequate disease control programmes; insufficient empowerment of people to improve their own health; insufficient resources; and widespread poverty, marginalization and displacement on the continent (NEPAD Health Strategy, 2003).

WSSD reaffirmed the MDGs of reducing, by 2015, mortality rates for infants and children under five, by two thirds, and maternal mortality rates by three quarters, of the prevailing rate in 2000. With regard to the reduction of HIV and other diseases, the JPOI target is a reaffirmation of the General Assembly resolution, and complements the MDGs of halting by 2015, and reversing the spread of HIV/AIDS and the incidence of malaria and other major diseases. Furthermore, the Plan calls on the international community to support Africa mobilize financial and other support to develop and strengthen health systems that aim to: promote equitable access to health-care services; make available necessary drugs and technology in a sustainable and affordable manner in order to fight and control communicable diseases; build capacity of medical and paramedical personnel; promote indigenous medical knowledge, as appropriate, including traditional medicine; and research and control Ebola disease. The above action areas are similar, and support of the NEPAD health objectives.

3.5.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

The NEPAD Health Strategy was approved by the First Conference of Health Ministers in April 2003 and subsequently adopted in July the same year by the AU Summit in Maputo. The Strategy offers a comprehensive, integrated approach to addressing disease. It also seeks to address poverty, marginalization and displacement. Various countries have used the NEPAD Health Strategy in advancing their health plans, demonstrating the successful efforts of the NEPAD secretariat and other parties in advocating policies, plans and projects in the African Union/NEPAD Health Strategy. In Central Africa a gap analysis between country health plans and the NEPAD Health Strategy was undertaken at the request of the African Ministers of Health. Based on a review of documents and field visits to countries, proposals on the needed actions at the regional and country levels were submitted to the ministers.

The African Ministers of Health have also adopted the Africa Health Strategy 2007-2015. The strategy calls for strengthening the health systems with the goal of “reducing disease burden through improved resources, systems, policies and management. This will contribute to equity through a system that reaches the poor and those most in need of health care. Investment in health will impact on poverty reduction and overall economic development.

The NEPAD secretariat and an African non-governmental organization, the African Council for Sustainable Health Development, co-hosted a consultation meeting on human resources in the health sector. The secretariat is also working on establishing multi-stakeholder platforms to enable countries obtain the developmental support required to reach the health MDGs by training an adequate number of health workers. It is also working on identifying critical actions to address this challenge, including how to respond to the massive departure of health professionals who seek better opportunities in advanced countries. The Secretariat has collaborated with the World Health Organization (WHO) in addressing the “human resources for health” crisis. This partnership effort has seen the launch of the Global Health Workforce Alliance (UN, 2005; UN, 2006).

The continental consultative meeting on universal access to HIV prevention, treatment, care and support, organized by the AU with technical and financial assistance from the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) and WHO in March 2006, adopted the Brazzaville Commitment, which set the direction for HIV and AIDS policy and defined the universal access targets for Africa until 2010. During the summit on AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria organized in May 2006 in Nigeria with technical support from UNAIDS, Governments adopted the Abuja Call for Accelerated Action Towards Universal Access to HIV and AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria Services in Africa.

HIV/AIDS has been mainstreamed into the work of all NEPAD programmes, and the provision of antiretroviral treatment on the continent is expanding. The NEPAD "Fight Against AIDS" plan adopted by the NEPAD Steering Committee provides an overarching framework to address HIV/AIDS and its impact on the continent. A joint report prepared by the NEPAD Secretariat and the AU Commission on the "Interim situational report on HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria and polio: framework on action to accelerate health improvement in Africa" have been endorsed by the Heads of State of the AU. NEPAD has also partnered with WHO in the development of the "treat, train and retain" initiative, which brings together efforts on the AIDS and health system challenges. Collaboration with the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, in particular its office for Southern and East Africa, has continued, in particular in the field of mainstreaming, political support and engagement and monitoring and evaluation (UN, 2005; UN, 2006).

International community support

The immediate focus of UNICEF is on capacity building at country, regional and global levels to support countries to achieve MDGs relating to children's and maternal health. UNICEF, WHO, and the World Bank have developed a joint strategic framework for reaching the MDGs on child survival in Africa. The framework aims to scale up a limited number of high-impact and low-cost interventions that could lead to a 60 percent reduction in under-five mortality (UN, 2007).

In the area of communicable diseases, the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) contributed to the upgrading of laboratory facilities and strengthening of molecular capacity in 13 African countries. In collaboration with WHO and the African AIDS Vaccine Programme, IAEA provided support to Cameroon, Ethiopia, Kenya, South Africa and Uganda, who are collaborating in the development of an AIDS vaccine. Furthermore, UNAIDS assisted the AU in developing the strategic framework and action plan for AIDS Watch Africa, an initiative launched by eight governments as an advocacy platform and a tool for monitoring the response to the AIDS pandemic and for mobilizing resources within and outside Africa, which was endorsed by the seventh AU Summit. In regard to tuberculosis, WHO support has focused on increasing access to and improving the quality of directly observed treatment, short course services, collaborative TB/HIV activities and public-private partnerships. As of December 2006, WHO had supported the adoption and implementation of the Directly Observed Treatment Strategy (DOTS) in all countries (UN, 2007).

Progress

Child mortality and maternal health

Some 10.8 million children are estimated to die before the age of five every year (Black, Morris, and Bryce 2003 in UN Millennium Project, 2005). Forty-one percent of these deaths occur in SSA. While child mortality has steadily declined in the past two decades, progress on key indicators has started to slow, and in parts of SSA, child mortality is on the rise (UN Millennium Project, 2005a). In SSA, the under-five mortality rate in 2002 was almost double the average for developing countries. Roughly one in six children in Africa does not reach the age of five, and 24 out of the 25 countries with the highest under-five mortality rates are in SSA (UNICEF, 2004 in ECOSOC, 2004). As regards maternal mortality SSA has dramatically higher maternal mortality ratios than any other part of the world. It also accounts for 47 percent of all maternal deaths (UN Millennium Project 2005a). Increase in maternal deaths in Africa is mainly attributed to HIV/AIDS and Malaria. Other causes include lack of birth spacing and domestic violence.

HIV/AIDS

According to the 2006 Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic, SSA is the worst affected region, with 24.5 million (21.6 million–27.4 million) people living with HIV in 2005. Two million of them are children below age 15. Almost two of every three people infected with HIV in the world are in SSA. The level of infection in 2005 is estimated at around 2.7 million (2.3 million –3.1 million), while about 2 million persons died of AIDS. Women comprise 59 percent (about 13.2 million) of all adults living with HIV in SSA. The number of children orphaned is estimated at about 12 million in 2005.

These estimates are lower than the previously published ones due to “genuine decline in HIV prevalence in several countries” and to “new data that have become available” (2006 Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic). The prevalence in SSA is leveling off, while in Kenya, Zimbabwe and in urban areas of Burkina Faso, it has started to decline. Some countries, like Botswana, have recently reported declines in HIV prevalence among young women aged 15 to 24.

The HIV epidemic in Africa varies significantly between and within sub-regions. Southern Africa is the hardest hit. About 860,000 children under age 15, and 6.8 million women are living with HIV in this sub-region. The HIV prevalence among pregnant women attending antenatal clinics is exceptionally high in all countries, except Angola. In Eastern African countries the HIV prevalence either decreased or remained stable. The prevalence among pregnant women is about two percent in Eritrea and seven percent in Kenya. The other countries fall in between these two levels.

West Africa is much less severely affected than the other parts of SSA Africa, with an overall estimate of two percent of HIV prevalence among adults. The highest adult prevalence is in Cote d’Ivoire at 7.1 percent. The situation in central Africa appears to be more serious, where the adult prevalence rate is estimated at 10.7 percent in the Central African Republic, 5.4 percent in Cameroon, 5.3 percent in Congo and 3.2 percent in the Democratic Republic of Congo. The epidemic is growing in the countries of North Africa. The national adult prevalence rate in 2005

was estimated at 1.6 percent in the Sudan and 1.9 percent in Morocco. In the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, HIV prevalence of 18 percent was found among prisoners.

African countries are successfully responding to the HIV epidemic. There is political support and willingness to address HIV/AIDS and its repercussion through adopting multi-sectoral and multi-response strategies. The number of people receiving antiretroviral therapy increased from 100,000 in 2003 to 810,000 in 2005.

Malaria and Tuberculosis

More than 90 percent of the world's malaria burden is in Africa. Malaria takes its greatest toll on young children and pregnant women. At least 20 percent of all childhood deaths in SSA can be attributed to the disease. Pregnant women are at great risk of malaria infections, with complications that affect the survival and development of their newborns (UN Millennium Project 2005b). However, progress has been registered in some countries. In several African countries, the number of TB cases has increased up to fourfold in the past decade, mainly as a result of the HIV epidemic. South Africa and Zimbabwe have a rate of 60 percent or more. In all, it is estimated that some 11 million adults are co-infected with both TB and HIV—2 million in South Africa alone (UN Millennium, Project, 2005c). TB treatment—DOTS—has proven remarkably effective. However, at present, up to 70 percent of African people with HIV lack access to functioning DOTS programmes.

3.5.2 Challenges and constraints

Achievement of sustainable development in Africa is partly conditioned by its successes and failures in improving population health. The disease environment has largely derailed productive capacities and diverted investments and resources from productive sectors. The challenges of the disease burden have been the subject of discussion of the Third Session of the AU Conference of Ministers of Health in April 2007. The health systems are too weak and under-resourced to achieve universal access. Therefore, the health interventions are often less than matching the scale of health problems. This is aggravated by the low health knowledge of people and inequitable distribution of health services. The benefits of health reach the urban people more than rural ones. Additionally, the NEPAD Secretariat has identified the lack of African centers of excellence, knowledge institutions and networks of stakeholders as a critical gap in health delivery and management.

3.5.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Population health will continue to be a major challenge for achieving sustainable development in Africa. Health interventions, when well designed and implemented, usually lead to immediate results often reflected in improving survival of infants, children and women. In Africa health successes are sparse, fragmentary, and unsustainable. Countries vary considerably in their health systems and their efficiencies in delivering services. People, on the other hand, lack knowledge on diseases, their treatments and how and where to access health services. Therefore, health strategies in Africa have to address both the supply and demand sides of health. There is need for heightening political support to public health, improving the efficiency of health delivery systems, promoting home-based health care, and increasing population awareness and accessibility to health services.

Well-coordinated health strategies will enable the continent to pursue a sustainable health development path.

3.6 Human Settlements

Africa is the fastest urbanizing region in the world. Rural population is growing at a rate of 2.5 percent per annum, while the urban population is experiencing five to ten percent growth rate per annum (ECA / UN-Habitat, 2003). The highest levels of urbanization in the region are found in the northern and southern subregions, where over half of the total population live in urban agglomerations. In contrast, only about a quarter of the total population in the eastern subregion lives in urban areas. Although the latter subregion is among the least urbanized regions of the world, its urban population grew by 5.8 per cent annually during the 1950-2000 period. The western subregion is also experiencing one of the highest urban population growth rates in Africa at 5.3 percent per annum. On the other hand, some countries in the central and eastern sub-region (Gabon and Djibouti) offer the extreme situation where two urban centres account for over 80 percent of the total population living in urban areas (ECA 2004).

Increasing numbers of the world's poor will be city dwellers. UN-HABITAT estimates that 924 million people, or 31.6 percent of the world's urban population, live in slums, where most lack access to basic services and secure tenure (UN-HABITAT, 2005). Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) follows South and East Asia in having the third largest number of slum dwellers. North Africa is grouped together with West Asia, and together, have about one-third the number of slum dwellers found in SSA (UN Millennium Project, 2005d).

WSSD reaffirmed the MDG of achieving a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers by 2020, as proposed in the "Cities without slums" initiative. It's Africa chapter, the JPOI calls for support to African countries in their efforts to implement the Habitat Agenda and the Istanbul Declaration through initiatives to strengthen national and local institutional capacities in the areas of sustainable urbanization and human settlements, provide support for adequate shelter and basic services and the development of efficient and effective governance systems in cities and other human settlements.

Concrete actions taken and progress made

In order to achieve the goal of the Habitat Agenda, UN-Habitat launched global urban management programmes such as the Safer Cities, Good Urban Governance, and Secure Tenure programmes and campaigns. Many cities are beginning to adopt the ideals, principles and norms of good urban governance. The campaigns will also promote improvement of the living standards of the poor by providing them affordable housing, employment and sustainable livelihoods.

The responses to the challenges of urbanization vary from city to city. Most have tended to respond on adhoc basis, by employing both sectoral and top-down approaches to solving problems. In some cases, the role of either a city or local government has been dominant, especially in cities that are organized along mayoral principles (UN-Habitat, 2006).

Initiatives undertaken by African countries to meet the target of improving the quality of life of 100 million slum dwellers range from review of national housing policies (Namibia), introducing

programmes on the provision of basic urban services (Nigeria) and introduction of legislation and policy on housing rights, access to land and secure tenure (Tanzania, South Africa and Namibia) (ECA /UN-Habitat, 2003). Countries such as Egypt, South Africa, and Tunisia have developed specific slum upgrading and prevention policies as an integral part of their national poverty reduction policies and strategies (UN-Habitat, 2006).

Other countries like Burkina Faso, Senegal and Tanzania have shown growing political support for slum upgrading and prevention. However, policies and actions are at variance. With the exception of a few countries such as South Africa, efforts made have not had much impact on housing provision, slum upgrading and poverty reduction. The NEPAD City programme is a laudable initiative, which if successfully implemented, will go a long way in easing the lives of city dwellers, including those living in slums. NEPAD aims to address urbanization and its consequences to make African cities more attractive for economic investment (UN-HABITAT, 2005).

3.6.1 Challenges and constraints

Africa's population is increasing at a fast rate. The increase in population will also increase the demand for infrastructure and social amenities (water, sanitation, hygiene, schools, recreation facilities, housing, development land, security, food, etc.). The challenge is how to mobilize resources to meet the demands of the rapidly exploding population.

Experience from the advanced industrial countries has shown that the cities and other human settlements in Africa can make significant contributions to social, economic and environmental sustainability in Africa. The challenge is how to translate cities in Africa into assets for sustainable development.

The management capacity of the local actors in Africa, especially the municipalities, for effective and sustainable governance is very low. The human, financial and technological resources needed for municipal management have been lacking, unpredictable and unreliable. Without enhancing this capacity there can be no sustainable development at the local level. If there is no sustainable development at the local level, there can be no sustainable development at the national level.

Other constraints and obstacles to the successful implementation of global and regional commitments are: poor governance and prevalence of conflicts and civil unrest; prevalence of diseases, and especially communicable and non-communicable diseases; Limited and / or absence of lending institutions in the financing of low-income housing; slow pace of economic growth and vulnerability of African economies to external shocks; weak institutional capacity in African countries; inadequate access to land for human settlements; weak regulatory and administrative frameworks; inadequate enabling environment for participation of private sector; non-involvement and/or lack of capacity in local authorities to undertake the expanded developmental role in management of human settlements; limited participation and involvement of civil society in human settlement development; and natural and man-made disasters.

3.6.2 Lessons learned and the way forward

Lessons learned include the followings: need for inspiring and committed leadership; need for innovative and accountable partnerships, broad participation by all stakeholders; Focus on slum

upgrading using local resources and technology, and focusing on employment creation, as a point of departure to achieve the goals and objectives of Local Agenda 21, the Habitat Agenda, the MDGs, the JPOI and NEPAD; importance of recognizing the role of the informal sector in the development of policy and long-term economic planning; need to enhance and strengthen sub regional and inter-regional cooperation in the development of sustainable human settlements.

3.7 Water supply and sanitation

In Africa, access to Water Supply and Sanitation (WSS) is very low. The fact that almost half of the African population suffers from one of six main water-related diseases is attributed to the high proportion of Africa's population without access to safe water and adequate sanitation (ECA, 2003). There are disparities between urban and rural areas, as well as high-income and slum areas in cities. A UN-HABITAT assessment on the water and sanitation situation in the world's cities indicated that in many slums, 150 inhabitants daily queue for one public toilet. A slum dweller in Nairobi or Dar es Salaam has to rely on private water vendors, paying five to seven times more for a litre of water than the average American citizen (UN-HABITAT, 2005). These poor access figures are likely to be compounded by the high population growth rate. Therefore to achieve the MDGs for WSS in Africa, it is estimated that the number of persons served must double from 350 million in 2000 to 700 million by 2015, still leaving 200 million unserved.⁶

WSSD underscored the importance of provision of clean drinking water and adequate sanitation to protect human health and the environment. In this respect it endorsed the Millennium Declaration target on drinking water and adopted one on sanitation. The JPOI calls for actions among other things to launch a programme of actions, with financial and technical assistance, to achieve the target on safe drinking water and adequate sanitation. With specific reference to Africa, the Plan calls for actions to provide access to potable domestic water, hygiene education and improved sanitation and waste management at the household level. It indicates that this could be done through initiatives to encourage public and private investment in water supply and sanitation that give priority to the needs of the poor within stable and transparent national regulatory frameworks provided by Governments. Water and sanitation is an integral component of the NEPAD infrastructure programme, and has as one of its objectives, ensuring sustainable access to safe and adequate clean water supply and sanitation, especially for the poor.

3.7.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

At regional level, the African Minister's Council on Water (AMCOW) has been established and is actively engaged in policy coordination and advocacy, and providing support to national, subregional and regional initiatives aimed at among other things, achieving the target of halving the proportion of people in Africa without access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation by 2015. The African Water Vision 2025 has been developed and was launched at the Second World Water

⁶<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTWSS/0,,contentMDK:20280170~menuPK:518142~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:337302,00.html>

Forum at The Hague in 2000. The Vision sets out targets and goals for improving access to water and water resource management. One of its key messages is “provide safe and adequate water and sanitation for all, urgently” (UN Water/Africa, 2006).

UN Water/Africa has launched the preparation of the Africa Water Development Report (AWDR) to provide African countries and other stakeholders the necessary tools and skills to monitor the goals and targets of the African Water Vision. The AWDR 2006 has been released. The NEPAD Short-Term Action Plan (STAP) on infrastructure, which includes projects on Water Supply and Sanitation (WSS), is under implementation. The African Water Facility hosted by the African Development Bank (AfDB) has been launched and it is operational. The Facility aims to improve project preparation directly and indirectly through grants for building capacity in areas such as public and financial management, skills and knowledge transfer, research and data collection and training (UN Water/Africa, 2006).

National actions

At the national level, many countries including Ethiopia, Benin, Burkina Faso, Ghana, Kenya, Uganda, Madagascar, Rwanda, Senegal and Tanzania have developed and/or updated national strategies and action plans on WSS within the context of PRSs in order to meet the MDGs targets relevant to the sector. Countries have also embarked on or undertaken policy and institutional reforms on WSS. For instance, Benin has embarked on a policy reform programme that includes updating its Water Charter, creating a co-ordination unit for the sector, as well as National Water Council, and drafting a national policy for water. In the case of the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), the country's new constitution acknowledges access to water as a basic human right, while its PRSP acknowledges the need to restructure the water and sanitation sectors. Other countries that have carried out similar reform efforts include Ethiopia, Ghana, Uganda, Kenya, Madagascar, Mozambique, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Tanzania and Zambia. Some countries such as Rwanda have substantially increased funding to the water sector as part of the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF). In 2005, the Rwanda water sector performed very well, with water and sanitation expenditures tripling, compared to 2004. As a result, access to clean water was provided to an additional 598,000 people (AMCOW et al., 2006).

Progress

In spite of commendable efforts, SSA lags behind the rest of the world on progress to meet the drinking water target (AMCOW et al., 2007; WHO and UNICEF 2004). With coverage of 58 per cent in 2002, up from 49 percent in 1990, SSA remains one of the subregions with the lowest drinking water coverage levels. It falls far short of the progress needed to achieve the MDG target of 75 percent coverage by 2015. In contrast, North Africa is classified among the regions that have achieved coverage levels of close to 90 percent or more, and are on track to meeting the target on drinking water (WHO and UNICEF, 2004).

With respect to adequate sanitation in the region, North Africa is on track to halve the proportion of people without basic sanitation by 2015. SSA on the other hand is clustered among the regions, which have not made sufficient progress towards this target. In fact in SSA, the absolute number of people without access to sanitation actually increased – from 335 million in 1990 to 440 million

people by the end of 2004. It is reported that this number may increase even further if trends do not improve (UN, 2007).

International community support

Development partners have played an instrumental role in funding and providing technical assistance to the WSS sector in many African countries. For instance, the Swiss Development Corporation (SDC) is currently the lead donor for the water sector in Niger (AMCOW et al., 2006). In the DRC, donors including the World Bank, the African Development Bank (AfDB), the European Union, Japan, Belgium and Germany, are expected to provide the bulk of funds, over the next five years. In Malawi, the World Bank financed a large water project that ended in 2003 and plans were underway to commence another project in 2007 (UN Water/Africa, 2006). Overall, World Bank investments in the WSS sector in the region have been increasing year by year, particularly through budget support.⁷

The AfDB is providing assistance to NEPAD to implement its water and sanitation infrastructure development programme with a view to enhancing regional integration. To this effect AfDB is assisting NEPAD in the formulation of the Medium to Long-Term Strategic Framework (MLTSF) for Water and Sanitation Infrastructure Programme.⁸ Under the auspices of UNHABITAT, the Water for African Cities Programme is being implemented with the aim of reducing the urban water crisis in African cities. It is reported that the programme is the first comprehensive initiative to support African countries to effectively manage the growing urban water crisis and protect the continent's threatened water resources and aquatic ecosystems from the increasing volume of land-based pollution from the cities.⁹ With financial support from the Government of the Netherlands, UN-HABITAT in collaboration with the Governments of Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda has embarked on a water and sanitation project in four towns around Lake Victoria.

3.7.2 Challenges and constraints

Among the major challenges and constraints facing the water and sanitation sector are: inadequate integration or weak linkages between the water sector and the PRSs in some countries, which has contributed to limited funding /under investment in water supply and sanitation; weak institutional frameworks and lack of capacity, especially among decentralized systems; obsolete water and sanitation legislative text or its absence in some cases; limited enforcement of local laws and regulations relating to sanitation and hygiene; conflicts that lead to the poor maintenance and destruction, and thus deterioration of the sector's infrastructure; poor co-ordination among sector stakeholders, both internal actors and external support actors; inadequate involvement of local NGOs, civil society and the private sector; and weak monitoring and evaluation systems which constrain tracking of results and enhanced targeting of WSS programmes and activities. In many

⁷<http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTWSS/0,,contentMDK:20280170~menuPK:518142~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:337302,00.html> Accessed on 3rd September 2007

⁸http://www.afdb.org/portal/page?_pageid=473,969995&_dad=portal&_schema=PORTAL Accessed on 3rd September 2007.

⁹ <http://www.unhabitat.org/content.asp?cid=2154&catid=460&typeid=24&subMenuId=0> Accessed on 4th September 2007.

countries, progress in the development of water supply and sanitation infrastructure is outpaced by high population growth rates. Additionally, the depletion and pollution of water resources in some regions and the projected impacts of climate change in the region pose serious challenges to WSS.

3.7.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Although commendable progress has been made towards improving water supply and provision of adequate sanitation, more effort is required in the region as whole if the MDGs are to be met.

In light of the limited water and sanitation infrastructure and in order to keep up with the projected population growth, there is need for long-term strategies and plans for investments in and the development of urban and rural water and sanitation infrastructures in many countries. Furthermore, institutional and legislative reforms need to be expedited and the implementation of WSS policies and programmes harmonized among local actors, as well as development partners operating within countries in the region. Similarly, policies and guidelines for improved hygiene and sanitation practices, particularly at decentralized levels should be developed or improved and promoted.

There is limited correspondence between financial resource allocations and policy commitments on WSS in some countries, especially in rural areas. Stronger linkages are therefore needed between WSS strategies and national poverty reduction/development frameworks, as well as budgeting processes. Resource mobilization at all levels needs to be stepped up, and increased funding should be made available, particularly to local actors to scale-up well-targeted investments in water supply and sanitation.

There is a strong need to increase capacity and ensure the full and active participation of the private sector, civil society and local NGOs in WSS programmes and to work in strong partnership with governments and development cooperation partners. In spite of their infancy, decentralized systems such as districts and municipalities are increasingly mandated to plan, implement and maintain their WSS schemes. There is therefore need to develop capacity among local authorities and provide them with support to exercise their mandates in the implementation of water supply and sanitation policies and programmes at decentralized levels.

Information and knowledge management and sharing on WSS should be promoted to support public awareness programmes and decision-making. Furthermore monitoring and evaluation systems to track progress, particularly regarding access, financing, and cost-effectiveness, especially at decentralized levels need to be developed or improved.

Climate change threatens to wreck havoc on water supply and sanitation. Climate change adaptation measures should therefore be integrated into water supply and sanitation improvement programmes and activities at all levels.

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4. Sustainable Consumption and Production

The JPOI states that fundamental changes in the way societies produce and consume are indispensable for achieving global sustainable development. The Plan calls for the promotion of sustainable consumption and production patterns by all countries, with developed countries taking the lead, while ensuring that all countries benefit from the process. To that end, the Plan calls on countries to take into account the Rio principles, including the principle of common but differentiated responsibilities. Further, it enjoins governments, relevant international organizations, the private sector and all major groups to play an active role in changing unsustainable consumption and production patterns.

4.1 Ten-Year Framework of Programmes on SCP

WSSD called on countries to encourage and promote the development of a 10-year framework of programmes in support of regional and national initiatives to accelerate the shift towards sustainable consumption and production. In this context, the International Expert Meeting on the 10-Year Framework of Programmes for Sustainable Consumption and Production (SCP) was held in Marrakech, Morocco, in June 2003. As a follow-up to the Marrakech meeting, the African region held several consultations with a view to domesticating the Marrakech process.

4.1.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

The African 10-YFP

The African Roundtable on Sustainable Consumption and Production (ARSCP) was established as a non-governmental, not-for-profit regional coordinating institution during the Third African Roundtable on Sustainable Consumption and Production held in Casablanca, Morocco. Subsequently, the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), in close consultation with the Secretariats of the African Ministerial Conference on Environment (AMCEN) and the ARSCP, facilitated the development of the African 10 Year Framework Programme on Sustainable Consumption and Production (African 10-YFP). The strategic focus of the Programme is linking SCP with the challenges of meeting basic needs.

The First African Expert Meeting on SCP was held in Casablanca, Morocco, in May 2004. The meeting deliberated on the key issues that needed to be addressed under the framework programme and identified four thematic areas of focus. These are: improvement of water services; energy access and efficiency; urban environment; and industrial development. The second meeting held in Nairobi, Kenya, in February 2005, further deliberated on the four thematic areas and proposed key activities that needed to be undertaken under each area. The outcome was presented to the technical segment of AMCEN in February 2005, which endorsed it for submission to AMCEN's Ministerial Session. AMCEN, through its Dakar declaration, approved the African 10 YFP, in Dakar, Senegal, in March 2005, and called upon its development partners to provide concrete support to follow-up activities and programmes based on the approved African 10-YFP.

Coordination and collaboration

In response to this call, Germany took the lead in announcing the initiative for the ‘Task Force on Cooperation with Africa’ during the Second International Expert Meeting of the Marrakech Process (San José, Costa Rica, September 2005). This provided the basis for the establishment of the Regional Steering Committee (RSC) for the African 10-YFP, whose overall objective is to facilitate the required coordination of efforts and support to the further development and implementation of the African 10 YFP. Members of the Committee are AMCEN, ARSCP, AU Commission, ECA, UNIDO, UNEP and the Federal Ministry of Environment, Germany. Membership is also open to other bilateral and multilateral development partners. (ARSCP and UNEP, 2006; UNEP 2006).

In May 2006, his Excellency Girma Woldegiorgis, President of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia launched the African 10-YFP in Addis Ababa at a high-level session jointly organized by the AU Commission, ECA and UNEP. The launch was immediately followed by the Fourth Meeting of the ARSCP (ARSCP-4), which identified five focal areas for the follow-up, namely: production and use of bio-fuel; water efficiency and provision; labeling of African products; waste management; and knowledge and information sharing (UNEP, 2006). Based on the outcomes of the ARSCP-4 and the conclusion of the first meeting of the RSC, the taskforce on cooperation with Africa identified the following as the key focal areas for its activities: development of a eco-label for Africa; support for the development and implementation of SCP action plans at national and local level, contribution to UNEP-UK Department of Environment, Food and Rural Affairs manual on SCP strategies; collection of best practices on SCP projects by development agencies; development of new project proposals for cooperation; and support to the development of networks and knowledge-based information tools in the selected fields of action (e.g. waste management and recycling, bio-fuels, drinking water) (UNEP/ECA, 2006). In May 2007, the Taskforce published the findings of a project on best practice in SCP in African countries (German Federal Ministry of Environment, 2007).

The eco-labeling initiative

The implementation of the eco-labeling project commenced in 2007. The overall objective of the project is to expand the market access of African Products in regional and international markets by improving the environmental profiles of African products and establishing a mechanism that promotes their marketability, thereby contributing to the NEPAD objective of promoting African exports. The first phase entails an overview of the ongoing activities on eco-labeling in Africa in order to develop an appropriate strategy that can harness the synergies, identify the main opportunities and challenges, bring together the key partners and set up a work plan. In this context, two studies on eco-labeling activities at regional and international levels were commissioned. The draft study reports were reviewed at a regional expert group meeting jointly facilitated by UNEP, ECA and AU Commission in collaboration with the Marrakech Taskforce on Cooperation with Africa, held in June 2007 (UNEP, ECA, AU Commission, 2007).

The conclusions of the meeting were that the development of an African eco-labeling scheme would make significant contributions to expanding market access to African products in a global market, which has increasingly become conscious of environmental considerations, while also enhancing the region’s ability to achieve the MDGs. In this regard, the meeting called for a

regional consultative process under the leadership and guidance of AU Commission, UNEP and ECA in the further development and implementation of the mechanism. As a follow-up to the meeting, discussions and consultations were held between AU Commission, ECA UNEP and the Taskforce. Agreements were reached on securing political endorsement, substantive development, coordination and mobilizing resources. The findings of the consultations will be presented as an information note to the Council of African Ministers of Industries (CAMI) in September 2007. A ministerial decision on the proposed regional eco-labeling programme will be sought from the Council of African Ministers of Trade (CAMT) that would be held before the end of 2007 (AU Commission, ECA, UNEP, 2007).

The constraints, challenges and lessons learned highlighted below are culled from the second regional assessment report on SCP in Africa (2004 to 2006), jointly prepared by ARSCP and UNEP.

4.1.2 Challenges and constraints

Sustainable Production (SP) is gradually being recognized in Africa, but the region has a long way to go before SP becomes adopted and fully integrated into everyday practice. Francophone African countries in West and Central Africa show virtually little institutional capacity in SP, due to the absence of National Cleaner Production Centers (NCPCs). So far in Africa, SP has primarily addressed production efficiency, with only limited attention given to product design and use efficiency.

The regional capacity for promoting Sustainable Consumption (SC) is far less developed than for Sustainable Production (SP). There are no strategies or policy frameworks to promote SC at the national level, in accordance with the UN Guidelines on Consumer Protection. This is due to the wide range of different consumption styles and patterns that exist alongside each other, including within countries. The region is still dominated by people living in poverty and the priority of governments is empowering people to meet their basic needs. Furthermore, SC is a relatively new concept, and where it exists, consumer activism is still focused on prices, quality and consumer safety and SC still remains to be mainstreamed in the consumer movement.

Lack of awareness, weak legislation and policies, poor education, inadequate research and development capacities and consumer traditions, are important constraints to SCP in Africa. Awareness is needed to support new policies, legislation, education, research, and consumer life styles. Several NCPCs have stressed that weak enforcement of environmental laws leads to a weak demand for the services of Centers, which is a key factor to the financial sustainability of NCPCs.

Lack of stakeholder cooperation and poor relations with authorities are also constraints to SCP. The vast majority of companies in the region pay little or no attention to improving their sustainability records. On the other hand, government agencies are often reluctant or incapable of engaging in partnership with industry to promote SCP. There is probably a need for more integration of NCPC activities with those of appropriate government agencies.

4.1.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Despite much effort and resources spent by the NCPCs, only a small part of industry has nationally adopted SP. It will be impossible to assist individually each company to realize the benefits of sustainable production. It therefore seems necessary to focus on the demand side, creating demand for SCP, rather than focusing on the supply side. Such demand is created when enforcement of legislation is practiced, suitable economic incentives are established and efficiency improvements offered by SCP provide a competitive edge.

Strategies to enable NCPCs to play a greater role towards scaling up small, localized impacts are desirable. Few partnerships tend to exist between NCPCs and national bodies and other stakeholders are not taking the lead to promote SCP activities. Important stakeholders such as financing institutions, industry associations and government industry departments need to be more actively involved. NCPC's areas of focus need to expand beyond industries into regional development programmes.

Tools to support or promote sustainable consumption need to be strengthened and integrated with production activities. Systemic approach such as Life Cycle Analysis (LCA) and green procurement are either non-existent or still at infancy stage and need to be further developed. Public procurement, by both central and local governments, constitutes a large proportion of national expenditure, and this purchasing power can influence the market. By implementing sustainable procurement- procurement that is environmentally and socially responsible- the public sector could encourage the production of sustainable products and enhance corporate social responsibility.

SCP requires an effort to create a strategic-level coordination mechanism in which issues and challenges related to both consumption and production and their interaction with the environment can be addressed in a more holistic manner. Tools such as cleaner production, LCA, product-service systems, eco-design, sustainable procurement, UN Guidelines for consumer protection, eco-labels, advertising for sustainable consumption, education and awareness raising activities etc., must all be adopted and coordinated to support SCP.

Political will and commitment is essential to the effective implementation of the African 10-YFP. The high-level launch of the Programme is indeed commendable. In this regard, the leadership and guidance being provided by the AU Commission, ECA and UNEP in the further development and implementation of the Programme should be maintained, if not enhanced. In addition to regional cooperation, international cooperation is important in ensuring Programme implementation and the leapfrog towards SCP. In this regard, the region's cooperation with development agencies, such as the Government of Germany should be fostered.

4.2 Corporate social responsibility

It is now recognized that poverty reduction and sustainable development will not be achieved through government action alone. Policy makers are paying increasing attention to the potential contribution of the private sector to such policy objectives. The concept of Corporate Social

Responsibility (CSR) is sometimes used as shorthand for businesses' contribution to sustainable development. A number of core development issues are already central to the international CSR agenda. They include labor standards, human rights, education, health, child labor, poverty reduction, conflict and environmental impacts (IIED, 2005).

WSSD called for the enhancement of corporate social and environmental responsibility and accountability. And the JPOI emphasizes the contribution of the industrial sector to the sustainable development of Africa by supporting broad-based participation, social and environmental responsibility. Corporate social responsibility is an important criterion of the corporate governance objective of NEPAD's APRM.

4.2.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

NEPAD sets the tone for corporate sustainability in Africa. It highlights the need to create conditions for private-sector growth in order to generate social development benefits. The NEPAD Business Group (NBG) acts as a medium between NEPAD and private companies that support its aims, functions as an information hub on trade and investment opportunities in Africa and encourages private-sector involvement in sustainable development projects. The South African chapter of the NBG was re-invigorated in November 2004 as the NEPAD Business Foundation (NBF) to assist in realizing the objectives of NEPAD (Agbazue, T., 2005).

The African Institute of Corporate Citizenship (AICC) was officially established in 2001. It is a non-governmental organization (NGO) committed to being a center of excellence in Africa promoting the role of business in building sustainable communities. It strives to facilitate the competitiveness of countries, companies and communities through responsible business practice. The AICC also aims to raise awareness and mobilize constructive action and collaboration between communities who, collectively, can make a difference to Africa's development. The Institute has established various forums and centers aimed at ensuring the adoption of sustainable practices by African and foreign companies operating in Africa. The Africa Corporate Sustainability Forum (ACSF), one of the bodies of AICC is a member of the NBG (AICC, 2006).

National actions

In many African countries, the practice and concept of CSR is relatively recent. Emerging CSR organizations in Kenya and Zambia complement many other civil society groups working on certain aspects of CSR (albeit not called 'CSR' in most cases). These include trade unions, business support agencies, community development NGOs, and human rights and environmental organizations. Although these organizations are firmly rooted in their national contexts, and tend to focus their efforts on sensitizing local stakeholders on CSR, they also have some links to international CSR debates (IIED, 2005). Given its developmental context, the application of CSR in Africa mainly contributes to addressing those issues affecting the daily lives of Africans.

In Nigeria, it was found that indigenous firms perceive and practise CSR as corporate philanthropy aimed at addressing socio-economic development challenges (Amaeshi et. al., 2006). Similarly, in

Kenya and Zambia, CSR activities could broadly be described as philanthropy. In Kenya, surveys suggest that the cause receiving the highest proportion of corporate donations is health and medical provision, and donations are also directed towards education and training; HIV/AIDS; agriculture and food security; and underprivileged children. The picture in Zambia is similar, with surveys highlighting donations to orphanages as the most common activity identified as CSR, followed by sponsorship of sporting events; cultural ceremonies; education and health provision; and donations to religious and arts organizations (IIED, 2005).

CSR is an increasingly prominent discourse in Southern Africa, particularly among mining companies. The conclusion of case studies conducted in the mining sector in South Africa and Zambia is that companies' CSR-related claims, and particularly the reference to a business case for voluntary CSR, need to be treated with caution. However, CSR is not necessarily only greenwash, as many CSR-related activities do represent important development contributions (Hamann R., and Kapelus P., 2004). For example, the African sugar industry provides social amenities and services such as housing, education and health to its communities and is making attempts to mitigate environmental impacts associated with its operations (www.ethical-sugar.org, 27-06-07).

Participation in global initiatives

Launched in July 2000 by the then United Nations Secretary-General Kofi Annan, the Global Compact is an international initiative bringing companies together with UN agencies, labor and civil society to support ten principles in the areas of human rights, working conditions, the environment, and anti-corruption. Through the power of collective action, the Global Compact seeks to advance responsible corporate citizenship, so that business can be part of the solution to the challenges of globalization. In this way, the private sector, in partnership with other social actors, can help realize the Secretary General's vision: a more stable and inclusive global economy (UN/SFDFA, 2004). Participating organizations from Africa include 17 business associations and several stakeholders from civil society and academia:

[http://www.unglobalcompact.org/ParticipantsAndStakeholders/public sector.html](http://www.unglobalcompact.org/ParticipantsAndStakeholders/public%20sector.html), 26-06-07

Kenya and Zambia were among the countries selected for the introduction of the UN Global Compact/UNDP 'Growing Sustainable Business for Poverty Reduction' initiative (IIED, 2005). As Africa's third largest export commodity, the substitution of conventional cotton growing by sustainable methods is of particular importance, considering the predictable depletion of soil and water resources in countries such as Benin, Mali, Burkina Faso, Uganda and Tanzania. In this context, a market-driven project was launched under the auspices of the Global Compact to establish "Cotton - Made in Africa" as a competitive quality label for cotton exclusively produced by sustainability standards.

The United Nations Environment Programme Finance Initiative (UNEP-FI) is a global public private partnership between UNEP and 239 firms from across the global financial services sector. Its mission is to collaboratively integrate relevant environmental, social and corporate governance criteria into financial sector operations and services (UN/SFDFA, 2004). UNEP-FI activity areas include investment, banking, financing, social security, insurance and reporting. The African Task Force (ATF) was launched in 2002 to support and expand sustainable financial practice in Africa, with AICC as its secretariat. The ATF has released the Sustainability Banking in Africa Report,

which was produced by the AICC Center for Sustainability Investing. The Equator Principles provide a framework for financial institutions to manage environmental and social issues in project financing. The Principles have so far been adopted by 30 of the world's major financial institutions (AICC, 2004, Agbazue, T., 2005). The Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) is one of the most widely recognized and important initiatives for corporate social responsibility. South Africa is a leading country in terms of its companies' sustainability reporting.

The World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) is a CEO-led, global association of some 200 companies dealing exclusively with business and sustainable development. Its mission is to provide business leadership as a catalyst for change toward sustainable development, and to support the business license to operate, innovate and grow in a world increasingly shaped by sustainable development issues. The council has member companies in South Africa and partner organizations in Egypt, Algeria, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and South Africa (<http://www.wbcsd.ch>, 27-06-07).

4.2.2 Challenges and constraints

Some of the issues hampering effective CSR practice in Africa include poor enforcement of legislation, largely absent civil society scrutiny, relatively weak consumer activism for responsibly produced products. The immediate pressure on businesses to effect change voluntarily is also largely absent. Few consumers are sufficiently informed or able to pay a premium for "responsibly" produced goods. Furthermore, given that financial margins are generally very thin, companies are unlikely to adopt higher standards voluntarily unless there is a clear business case. In effect, there are relatively few incentives for businesses to adopt responsible or "pro-development" practices.

CSR is often associated with large companies, and particularly with multinational enterprises. The international CSR agenda is dominated by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)-based NGOs, investors, consumers, businesses and business associations. CSR has even on occasions attracted criticism for being insensitive to local priorities and the basic livelihood needs of people in developing countries, particularly where CSR codes of conduct are perceived as barriers to market access for some producers. Furthermore, inherent inequalities characterize many partnerships, particularly those between large corporations and local level governments, organizations and communities. There are no easy answers to this imbalance; too often a top-down approach produces mistrust and a lack of ownership, responsibility and accountability, hamper meaningful engagement in CSR.

4.2.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Sound corporate governance and risk management systems are crucial pre-requisites to successfully implementing policies and measures to address environmental and social challenges. At the same time, successful investment depends on a vibrant economy, which depends on a healthy civil society, which is ultimately dependent on a sustainable planet. In the long-term, therefore, investment markets have a clear self-interest in contributing to better management of environmental and social impacts in a way that contributes to the sustainable development of global society. A better inclusion of environmental, social and corporate governance (ESG) factors in investment

decisions will ultimately contribute to more stable and predictable markets, which is in the interest of all market actors.

There is clear divergence between the key content of the global CSR agenda and that which is emerging in Africa. In the North, a 'do no harm' tenet typically characterizes good citizenship. But in Africa, more fundamental sustainable development challenges face large sections of the population. Companies investing in Africa need to root their CSR practice in African realities: poverty is widespread, there is growing inequality between rich and poor, healthcare and education are deficient, HIV/AIDs is widespread, and governance standards are patchy. Additionally, they need to assess country strengths and weaknesses when engaging governments, taking account of considerations such as: human and institutional capacity, the degree to which the business case can be articulated, the types of business activities being addressed and the international tools that exist.

The CSR agenda needs to be locally owned if it is to make a significant contribution to local development priorities – and it must be relevant to local enterprises, whether large or small. This means creating space to explore the relationship between business and society at the regional, national or local level and finding appropriate language for these discussions. Large corporations entering local markets need to work at creating an enabling environment, through which they build effective partnerships based on mutual gain and reciprocity. The notion of 'business linkages' should be encouraged. This relates to links between large and small companies, and the use of local suppliers and outsourcing designed to maximize the transfer of assets and skills to local communities and to create a multiplier effect in which investment generates local business activity, employment and income.

4.3 Sustainable tourism development

Tourism constitutes an important economic activity in Africa. Since 1990, Africa's share in the world total rose one percentage point, from 3.4 to 4.4 percent in 2004. With slightly over 33 million international tourist arrivals estimated in 2004, Africa recorded an increase of eight percent over 2003. This positive result is in line with the 10 percent growth registered in world arrivals in the same year. In spite of the recent unfavorable conditions for tourism in the world, Africa fared comparatively well in the past few years. It was the only United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) region that succeeded to close both difficult years 2001 and 2003, with positive growth and the only region to record successive tourist arrival increases since 1990. In 2004, receipts recorded by African destinations are estimated to have reached almost US\$ 19 billion, corresponding to an increase of US\$3 billion over 2003 values (UNWTO, 2006).

WSSD called on countries to promote sustainable tourism development, including non-consumptive and eco-tourism, taking into account the spirit of the International Year of Eco-tourism 2002, the United Nations Year for Cultural Heritage in 2002, the World Eco-tourism Summit 2002 and its Quebec Declaration, as well as the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism as adopted by UNWTO. The goal is to increase the benefits from tourism resources for the population in host communities while maintaining the cultural and environmental integrity of the host communities and enhancing the protection of ecologically sensitive areas and natural heritages. NEPAD also calls for capacitating African communities to actively engage in sustainable tourism, including adventure tourism, ecotourism and cultural tourism. The Africa chapter of the JPOI supports this call. The chapter

recognizes the need to support Africa's efforts to attain sustainable tourism that contributes to social, economic and infrastructure development.

4.3.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

NEPAD has identified tourism as an important vehicle to address the current development challenges facing the African continent. The 41st meeting of UNWTO's Commission for Africa (CAF), in 2004, approved the NEPAD Tourism Action Plan. A main objective of the Plan is to provide an engine for growth and integration, and to contribute to poverty eradication. Most African governments have now included tourism in their national development strategies. (UNWTO, 2006).

The Global Code of Ethics for Tourism was adopted on 1 October 1999 at the General Assembly of the UNWTO. The Code is a set of basic principles whose purpose is to guide tourism development and to serve as a frame of reference for the different stakeholders in the tourism sector, with the objective of minimizing the negative impact of tourism on the environment and on cultural heritage, while maximizing the benefits of tourism in promoting sustainable development. In 2001, the UNWTO General Assembly adopted Part I of its Protocol of Implementation, which created the World Committee on Tourism Ethics, a body responsible for interpreting, applying and evaluating the provisions of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (UNGA, 2005). Many African countries have adopted the Code and are reporting on implementation progress. In a 2004-2005 UNWTO survey on the implementation of the Code, Africa recorded the second highest number of respondents (27 countries compared to Europe's 28) (UNWTO, 2005).

Sustainable and pro-poor tourism as a niche market

Sustainable tourism is an important niche market in the global tourism industry, which can play a very important role in sustainable development. In this regard, UNWTO and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) launched the Sustainable Tourism-Eliminating Poverty (ST-EP) initiative at WSSD, aimed at linking the development of sustainable tourism to the cause of eliminating poverty. The ST-EP Programme targets least developed countries, especially those in Africa. Its main objective is to contribute to poverty reduction through the establishment of community-based tourism development projects that respect the environment and benefit the most disadvantaged populations. It is closely linked to the MDGs. UNWTO has organized seven regional training seminars on tourism and poverty reduction during 2004 and 2005, in order to build capacities among public officials in developing countries, three of which took place in Africa; Benin, Tanzania and Mali. Project identification missions have been conducted in Ethiopia, Cameroon, Zambia and Mali. Effective project implementation has started in Cameroon and Ethiopia (UNWTO, 2006a). Furthermore, WTO together with UNEP has produced a set of policy guidelines and tools aiding governments particularly at local level to promote sustainable tourism (UNWTO, 2006b).

In 2002, stakeholders in the tourism industry including 20 countries in Africa, made a declaration on responsible tourism in Cape Town with reference to major sustainable development milestones, NEPAD and the UNWTO/UNCTAD ST-EP initiative:

<http://www.responsibletourismpartnership.org/declaration.html>, 28-06-07. UNWTO launched the

specific programme for the promotion of tourism development in SSA in 2003. The programme is structured around six major axes, namely: economic knowledge of African tourism; application of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism; development of ecotourism and nature parks; mastery and application of new information technologies; adaptation of air transport conditions to the needs of African tourism; and enhancement of the image of African destinations (UNWTO, 2006).

One issue that emerged prominently from the World Eco-tourism Summit of 2002 was that the natural and cultural heritage comprises an enormously rich and valuable resource for countries and communities throughout the world; but it is a fragile resource, which could easily be damaged or lost without careful planning and management. The Summit recognized the essential need for capacity building for those implicated in ecotourism and protected area management, and in providing technical advice and support in the field. In an effort to meeting this need, UNWTO organized seminars on Ecotourism in National Parks and Protected areas in Rwanda (2003) and Guinea (2004), within the framework of UNWTO's Special Programme for Africa (UNWTO, 2006). The third regional workshop was held in Gabon in January 2007 (UNWTO, 2007).

Benefits, enabling factors and support to pro-poor tourism

Many efforts are under way to increase understanding of how tourism can contribute to poverty reduction and of how to translate this understanding into concrete actions. The objectives of these efforts include increased tourism arrivals, more out-of-pocket spending, and a bigger share of the tourist economy benefiting the poor (SNV and ODI, 2006). Realizing the benefits of Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT), countries have started adopting policies that unlock opportunities for the poor within tourism. A case study conducted in The Gambia demonstrates how partnerships at the local level between the private sector, government and poor producers can significantly raise incomes for the informal sector in resorts. Another case study conducted in South Africa demonstrates how government policy can encourage the private sector to adopt poverty reduction practices and to monitor and report the results. Community Based Tourism Associations have also been formed in major tourist destinations in Africa, such as Namibia and Uganda:

<http://www.icrtourism.org/propoor.html>, 28-06-07.

However, other case studies conducted in Ethiopia, Lao PDR, The Gambia, and Tunisia, demonstrate that pro-poor benefits accruing from tourism ventures depend on how the tourism economy is structured. Ethiopia and Luang Prabang in South East Asia are primarily cultural destinations, but while Luang Prabang has high spending in the local economy, Ethiopia does not. Tunisia and The Gambia are beach package destinations of very different sizes. Tunisia's tourism creates many jobs and a market for local food, but little revenue for artisans and vendors, while the tiny Gambian economy has strong linkages with food supply and shopping. A recent World Bank study of tourism in Ethiopia concluded that the supply chains throughout the sector afford very little opportunity for benefits from tourism to disperse into the broader economy. Aside from the employment generated in the formal sector (hotels, transport, tour operations), there are few opportunities for poorer Ethiopians to be involved. In Lalibela (the main cultural site visited by 90 percent of tourists), craft sellers earn only one percent of tourist revenue (SNV and ODI, 2006).

In order to assist tourism companies implement local linkages and partnerships and enhance local impact, a Pro Poor Tourism Tools and Tips Project has been launched in Southern Africa

<http://www.responsibletourismpartnership.org/>, 19-08-05. The International Center for Responsible Tourism, which is a post-graduate training and research center based at the University of Greenwich, is one of the organizations promoting sustainable tourism in Africa. The Center now has sister organizations in The Gambia and South Africa <http://www.icrtourism.org/>, 28-06-07. Development Assistance Agencies (DAA) have also been involved in bottom-up approaches to tourism development. For example, SNV has been involved in tourism projects since mid 1990s, including Tanzania's Cultural Tourism Programme, Botswana's Community Based Tourism, Uganda's Community Based Tourism Association, and Ghana's Ecotourism development programme. SNV has recently moved from supporting community-based tourism to mainstreaming pro-poor tourism principles in the tourism sector to enhance the impacts in the field (UNWTO 2006b).

4.3.2 Challenges and constraints

Political instability, wars and terrorist attacks are threats that have impacted on tourism arrivals. Reducing leakages and maximizing linkages to the local economy and to national development priorities are also major challenges.

Many countries face a number of constraints related to low skill levels, limited entrepreneurial culture, little investment in infrastructure, facilities and quality provision, and limited benefits spreading to the wider economy. There is need to ensure effective market place value, quality of products development and meaningful community-private-public partnerships.

Mass tourism is yet to be genuinely involved in poverty reduction and sustainability initiatives. More often than not, involvement is more as a result of brand and risk management, led by investor and stakeholder agendas, usually acting on eco-saving, social actions, and the result of formalized company-wide standards and audits, rather than genuine belief in sustainability.

The tourism industry is still very fragmented, and coordination is required, particularly for small and micro tourism firms. Traditionally, the focus of national governments has been at macro level (international promotion, attracting investors for major hotel and resort developments, national and regional master planning). Regulations, economic incentives, fiscal measures, resources and institutions to promote and disseminate good practices and in general, the policy space for tourism to respond to sustainability issues is inadequate, if not lacking in most cases.

Many pilot projects aimed at demonstrating the benefits of sustainable tourism are donor funded. The challenge is to institute appropriate financing mechanisms that ensure the sustainability and replicability of projects.

4.3.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

There are no fixed rules about how different types of tourism generate benefits to the poor. The little quantitative data that exists already illustrates quite clearly that what matters is not the type or size of tourism, but how the tourism economy is structured, how supply chains work, how far linkages extend into different parts of the local economy, and how tourists spend their money when they arrive. In other words, there is a great deal that Governments can do to influence flows to the

poor, whatever type of tourism they have. All types of tourism can and must be used to alleviate poverty. In other words, it is not only community-based tourism and small firms that can contribute to poverty alleviation, but also and particularly, mass tourism operations can have a great impact. In other words, sustainable tourism is not a discrete or special form of tourism. Rather, all forms of tourism should strive to be more sustainable.

Community tourism is most successful when the wider policy framework in the country is conducive. Participation of key stakeholders from public, private and voluntary sectors with interests in tourism are critical. The criteria for selection of sites should be developed in consultation with stakeholders. On-site training in local languages maximizes participation, particularly amongst marginalized groups. Adequate time should be allowed for the product to meet standards before launching it to the public.

Often, small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) learn a lot from their clients and competitors, and a good way to support SMMEs, is linking them with clients (to obtain feedback and advice), and to establish a network of SMMEs (to exchange experiences and jointly market their products). SMMEs have a tendency to sell more of an existing product to an existing market. This is a low risk strategy, but also a strategy that often has low profit margins. SMMEs that are more innovative by selling a new product to an existing market can become far more successful.

The demonstration of PPT Pilots is significant to current discussions about how exactly the private sector can make a greater contribution to the MDGs. It reinforces arguments that companies need to move beyond philanthropic CSR and find ways to harness their core competencies for development gain. In the tourism sector, sharing 'business DNA' with local enterprises, increasing local entrepreneur access to the tourism market, and using their procurement power to support local suppliers are invaluable ways for businesses to utilize their core competencies.

Because tourism companies and operations are smaller (than, say mining companies), the initial transaction costs of setting up linkages are proportionately higher. Therefore, a destination-wide approach becomes important to achieve economies of scale, and/or there is a need for subsidized provision of public goods and reduction of market failures that reduce the transaction costs for companies of engaging with SMMEs.

Bringing SMMEs into the supply chain is a key area of potential in tourism, as in other sectors, particularly in provision of services. However, other kinds of linkages also have high potential in the tourism sector, particularly, legal partnerships with local people to share equity or generate commercial returns to their natural assets, and downstream linkages that stimulate local tourism services, such as cultural and heritage products.

4.4 Sustainable industrial development

Africa lags behind other regions in almost all its industry-related indices. The World Bank (World Development Indicators, 2004) indicate that with a few exceptions (Botswana, Cape Verde, Madagascar, Namibia, Seychelles, Swaziland, South Africa and Tunisia), industrial output per capita as measured by the dollar value of Manufacturing Value Added (MVA) per population, has been stagnant over the past three decades or has declined.

The contribution of manufacturing output to total national income remains low, with the share of MVA in GDP in 2004, ranging from a high of about 20 percent in Mauritius to as low as 0.5 percent in Djibouti. Countries with significant manufacturing sectors (i.e. exceeding \$US250 per capita per year) are few. Only Mauritius, Seychelles, South Africa and Tunisia have a significant manufacturing sector. Africa's share of world manufacturing output declined slightly from 0.9 percent to 0.8 percent over two decades-- 1980 to 2001, (UNCTAD, 2004). However, from 1990 to 2004, manufactured exports from Africa have seen significant growth (World Bank, 2004). Countries such as Kenya, Cameroon, Egypt, Madagascar, Morocco, Seychelles, Zambia, and Mauritius have seen quite significant growth in their manufactured exports, with an increasing share of manufactured goods out of total exports. However, high technology exports account for only four percent of manufactured exports from Africa as compared with 32 percent in East Asia.

WSSD called for strengthening the contribution of industrial development to poverty eradication and sustainable natural resource management. In its Africa chapter, the JPOI enjoins the international community to enhance the industrial productivity, diversity and competitiveness of African countries through a combination of financial and technological support for the development of key infrastructure, access to technology, networking of research centers, adding value to export products, skills development and enhancing market access in support of sustainable development. These support the NEPAD objectives on manufacturing, which include, to increase the production and improve the competitiveness and diversification of the domestic private sector, especially in the agro-industrial, mining and manufacturing sub-sectors, with potential for exports and employment creation.

4.4.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

In July 2004, the Assembly of the AU endorsed the Africa Productive Capacity Initiative (APCI) as the NEPAD Sustainable Industrial Development Strategy. In particular, it requested that the AU Commission and the NEPAD Secretariat provide assistance to member States in their implementation of the strategy through the development of concrete action plans. The implementation phase of APCI commenced with the convening of a subregional meeting for the West African region in November 2004. An action plan has been developed for the subregion in line with the priority sectors elicited in APCI. Planning for other subregions has been ongoing with the objective to ensure that all industrial road maps for subregions are developed (UN, 2005).

UNIDO is providing technical assistance through the APCI, which aims to increase MVA in selected industrial sectors identified in Africa's five subregions. In December 2006, expert group meetings were convened in South Africa and Cameroon under the auspices of UNIDO, NEPAD, the AU Commission and ECA to facilitate regional integration and to identify a strategy for improving industrial performance among members of SADC and CEMAC.

The African Productive Capacity Facility (APCF) has been established as a financial mechanism to support the APCI. UNIDO has provided seed money to the Facility to start implementation. Cameroon and Nigeria contributed to the Facility and Egypt offered to provide technical expertise.

UNIDO also facilitated the signing of a memorandum of understanding between the Islamic Development Bank (IDB) and selected West African countries in order to open credit facilities for specific sectors (UN, 2007).

National actions

Since 1998, UNIDO has been using the concept of integrated programmes as a means of strengthening its response to sustainable industrial development needs and focusing its assistance at the country level. In 1999 and 2000, Governments confirmed that their comparative advantages lay in diversifying their economies by processing agricultural products, primarily textiles/garments, leather/leather products and food. This has become the core of the UNIDO strategy in each country, emphasizing the need to improve quality standards, identify new market channels and increase product range.

UNIDO has assisted many countries in Africa in developing and implementing programmes aimed at improving the competitiveness of selected industries and, wherever possible, identify new market opportunities, thus opening the door to the global economy. In the leather industry, UNIDO has assisted countries in tackling critical environmental problems by assisting companies in installing or upgrading effluent treatment plants and providing operator training at the Nairobi Leather Development Center. Rural industry has been supported by focusing on improving technologies through the introduction of modern shop-floor management systems, with an emphasis on minimizing waste and improving hygienic conditions in plants. In addition, to ensure sustainability, appropriate technical staffs have been trained.

UNIDO activities in the development of small- and medium-scale enterprises are carried out for the three main economic levels, which are policy formulation and implementation; institutional capacity building; and improving entrepreneurial skills at the enterprise level. Countries have developed policies for investment promotion and for attracting Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), including the launching of UNIDO-Africa Investment Promotion Network and various other national and subregional investment promotion efforts. Activities in Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Senegal, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania address the gender imbalance by including assistance to women entrepreneurs.

UNIDO and UNEP supported by UNDP or bilateral donors are the agencies most actively promoting cleaner production in Africa. Since 1994, 27 National Cleaner Production Centers (NCPCs) globally have been established, out of which 10 are in Africa. These are Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya, Morocco, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania, Tunisia, Uganda, and Zimbabwe. Additional centers are in the process of being established and many countries, including countries in Africa, have requested to have NCPCs established (ECA, 2005).

Metrology, standards, testing and quality institutions provide complementary support to the introduction of such standards by allowing for proper control of product, health and environmental quality, and by providing the means for certification against the standards. Such institutions also promote best practices and encourage the development of new products through Research and Development (R&D). Projects to strengthen such institutions in Ethiopia, Uganda, Nigeria and Burundi among others are underway. Promotion of linkages between R&D institutions and

industry (e.g., the Leather and Leather Product Training Institute in Ethiopia), have also helped the testing, promotion and skills development related to cleaner and more productive production.

Countries have also established agro-processing and micro and small-scale enterprises (MSMEs), and are gradually facilitating access to finance, technology transfer and capacity building for growth-oriented and competitive MSMEs, with increased focus on women.

4.4.2 Challenges and constraints

African countries face many challenges related to a weak policy environment, limited access to the latest technologies, inadequate local awareness of environmental issues, a predominantly unskilled labor force, whereas sustainable industrialization tends to require higher levels of skill.

African countries are latecomers to industry and, as such, face additional challenges including those that emanate from the pattern of economic transformation and an increasingly competitive environment that does not allow the opportunity for learning. Africa lacks capacity, a conducive business and policy environment, financial and other support systems for growth, structural change and economic diversification. Small-scale and informal enterprises dominate the private sector in Africa and the quality and standards of local products are rather low. There is limited research and development, innovation, diversification and technology diffusion. Limited skills hamper the exploitation of the potential of knowledge-based industries. Infrastructure, energy and water bottlenecks make the transition to sustainable industrialization more difficult.

Much of Africa has also failed to take advantage of the opportunities provided by globalization such as greater trade liberalization, easier transfer of capital, technology and labor, as well as greater attention to environmental issues in world trade. Rather, there have been capital flight and net outflows in skilled labor.

Africa lacks appropriate industrial development strategies to facilitate and maximize the integration of large-scale industries, mainly concentrated in the extractive sector (e.g. oil, gas and minerals) with other sectors of local economies. Inadequate harmonization of laws, regulations, codes and standards at national and subregional levels limits factor flows (financial, human and technical resources), which could help realize economies of scale, establish intra-regional synergies and enhance competitiveness. Africa also lacks a critical mass of companies and institutions willing to cooperate, network and share industrial development knowledge and information in pursuit of sustainable development, worsened by weak industrial associations.

Weakness in governance and political instability also remain major constraints to sustainable development and industrialization in a number of African countries.

4.4.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Africa's industry has been stagnant or even in decline over the past two decades. Industrial productivity, moreover, is low and the gap in productivity between African industrial firms and those of the rest of the world has steadily widened. Nevertheless, there is potential for growth as can be seen from few successful countries. The first step towards sustainable industrialization is to

improve productivity and investment. Any strategy to revive industrial growth in Africa must focus on structural issues, prominent amongst which relate to domestic capacity building, the strengthening of domestic factor markets and the supply of public goods.

Exposing firms to international competition and increasing domestic competition, as well as improving access to new technologies and investments in human capital should improve efficiency and thus productivity within Africa's industry. However, this must be supported by necessary public goods (particularly investments in infrastructure), support institutions (trade facilitation, credit, technology, establishment of standards and certification schemes), as well as an incentive structure that is conducive to industrial growth. These should be strategic taking into consideration the promotion of industries that have high growth potential, strong linkages within national economies, can absorb increasing amount of labor and also promote the adoption of environmentally sustainable practices.

To encourage greater investment, particularly private investment and FDI, certain constraints ranging from high investor risk to high taxes and tariffs on investment goods, to corruption, macro-economic instability and over-valued exchange rates need to be addressed. Capital market development should also be accorded serious attention.

Sustainability will require not only a focus on accelerating industrialization, but also initiating a shift from current production processes to less highly polluting, resource-wasting industries and production processes. It requires investment in rapidly evolving technology that saves on input and is more efficient in energy use, is based on renewable resources and generates less wastes along the life cycle of a product.

There is need to ensure that chemicals are produced, transported, used and disposed in their entire life cycle, within a sustainable development context that is protective of human health and the environment and including, inter alia, compliance with the provisions of relevant international environmental conventions and national environmental laws and policy instruments. There is also need to promote global cooperation and partnerships for the development and implementation of cleaner production processes and adoption of new and safer technologies.

There is need for broader adoption and implementation by industry, of values consistent with corporate social and environmental responsibility, such as those embodied in the Global Compact, and to explore an ISO standard on corporate-social responsibility.

4.5 Energy for sustainable development

Africa is relatively well endowed with energy resources. In 2004, its proven oil, gas and coal reserves were 9.4, 7.9 and 5.54 percent, respectively, of world total¹⁰. The hydropower potential of the continent amounts to 13 percent of the world. However, with a population of 13.1 percent of the world total, Africa consumes only 5.5 percent of world energy, and it generates only 3.1 percent of world electricity. The per capita energy consumption of 0.5 Tonnes of Oil Equivalent (TOE), far

¹⁰ BP energy statistics 2005, www.bp.com

lower than the world average of 1.2 TOE per capita, makes the continent lag behind all others in energy use.

NEPAD recognizes the critical role that energy plays in the development process, first as a domestic necessity, but also as a factor of production, whose cost directly affects prices of other goods and services. Therefore, the limited modern energy production and consumption critically impairs socio-economic development in Africa. According to UNIDO, high levels of income per capita tend to be associated with higher levels of industrialization¹¹, and the World Bank has established a link between energy consumption and Gross National Product (GNP), thus economic development¹².

WSSD called on countries to: diversify energy supply and substantially increase the global share of renewable energy sources; improve access to reliable, affordable, economically viable, socially acceptable and environmentally-sound energy services and resources; remove market distortions; establish domestic programmes for energy efficiency and accelerate the development and dissemination of energy efficiency and energy conservation technologies. In its Africa chapter, the JPOI enjoins the international community to inter alia, establish and promote programmes, partnerships and initiatives to support Africa's efforts to implement NEPAD objectives on energy, which seek to secure access for at least 35 percent of the African population within 20 years, especially in rural areas. It also calls for support to implement energy initiatives, including the promotion of clean and renewable energy, and to improve energy efficiency and access to advanced energy technologies, including cleaner fossil fuel technologies.

4.5.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Actions

A multi-donor NEPAD Infrastructure Project Preparation Facility has been established at the African Development Bank (AfDB). The facility has provided funding for the preparation of several regional projects, which include, the Kenya-Uganda oil pipeline; Benin-Togo-Ghana power interconnection project; and Zambia-Tanzania-Kenya electricity interconnection project. Additionally, the Bank has approved financing for the Ethiopia-Djibouti Power Interconnection project and for a hydropower project and transmission feasibility study in the Organisation pour la mise en valeur du fleuve Gambie (OMVG).

The West Africa Gas pipeline, which is expected to supply clean and affordable energy from Nigeria to Benin, Togo and Ghana, is well under way. In December 2004, Chevron Texaco, Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation, Shell and Takoradi Power Company (Volta River Authority) committed more than \$500 million towards the construction of the pipeline. The NEPAD Secretariat and the AfDB are holding regular consultations with the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) to expedite the Greater Inga Integrator Study, which aims to assess the feasibility of developing the hydropower potential at Grand Inga to supply the subregions of Africa and transmit the surplus power to neighboring continents. The African Development Bank has earmarked \$10 million for this study.

¹¹ UNIDO Industrial Development Report, 2004, p.31

¹² Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators database

The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) focuses on promoting sustainable use of natural resources and increasing access to affordable energy. A project in energy assessment has been launched under the African Regional Cooperative Agreement for Research, Development and Training related to Nuclear Science and Technology (AFRA). Project activities will be implemented by IAEA in partnership with the NEPAD Secretariat, the African Energy Commission (AEC) and UNIDO. The project aims to support AFRA members in elaborating national energy strategies and strengthening institutional capability for energy planning. In the framework of UN-Energy/Africa, ECA and IAEA conducted a regional workshop in Ethiopia in December 2006 on integrated resource planning for energy/electricity in Africa. The objective of the workshop was to build the capacity of energy planners to effectively use integrated resource planning for mainstreaming sustainable development in the planning of investments in the electricity supply industry at the regional and national levels.

Other initiatives and actions include: the UN-Habitat “energy scale up initiative aimed at increasing energy access in poor rural and urban areas; the UNDP/ Institut de l’énergie et de l’environnement de la Francophonie programme for “capacity building and investment in mini/micro hydro power” being implemented in partnership with ECA, UNIDO and UNEP in 11 African countries; the UNIDO energy productive use programme; the UNEP “African rural energy development project”; and regional rural electrification strategies developed in different forms by various RECs, such as ECOWAS, SADC and EAC; the development of Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency by UNEP, UNESCO and UNIDO, to name a few.

Progress

Energy accessibility for poverty alleviation: In recognition of the fact that the problem of access to energy in rural Africa requires much more attention, means and renewed commitments by all stakeholders, increased country-to-country and city-to-city dialogue and cooperation are taking place on the issue of clean energy access for the urban poor. Energy access scale-up initiatives led to the design of new energy supply schemes integrating energy services to the development of productive and income generating activities, entrepreneurship, and the promotion of indigenous energy resources. Off-grid systems, based on renewable energy have been developed in rural areas of many countries, and validated as an important option to increase energy access. Progress has been made in capacity development and investments in mini-hydro power systems, with the identification of a large number of mini/micro hydropower potential sites. A sub-regional rural energy programme is well advanced in ECOWAS and SADC countries, with plans to harmonize national policies. Institutional and other barriers to the development of small and medium-scale energy enterprises were identified and approaches for their removal were implemented in some countries.

Changing patterns of energy consumption and production: In many countries, national capabilities on forestry services and energy agencies for wood energy planning and policy development have been enhanced. Wood energy statistics and information have been improved and promoted as tools for the promotion of sustainable wood energy systems. Furthermore, various practical actions, ranging from geographical mapping of renewable energy resources, development of energy and

energy efficient service enterprises for activities aimed at identifying and removing barriers have been undertaken to increase the share of renewable energy in the energy mix.

Information sharing on cleaner energy technologies: Many network initiatives (e.g. The Global Network on Energy for Sustainable Development, The Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership, The Global Village Energy Partnership) have contributed to enhancing knowledge and capacity in many countries on cleaner energy technology options for energy production. Additionally, functional networks for sharing information and knowledge on sustainable transport infrastructure investment, cleaner technologies and air quality management, have been established between individuals, institutions and government representatives in many countries.

4.5.2 Challenges and constraints

The challenges and implementation constraints could be summarized as follows: inadequate policy, legal, regulatory and institutional framework and limited financial flow for the development and provision of sustainable energy, especially for the poor; low energy production due to largely untapped energy resource potential, particularly renewable; uneven regional availability and distribution of energy resources; underdeveloped transportation, production, transmission and distribution infrastructure, and high up-front energy investment and use costs are barriers to energy access by the urban and rural poor; low private sector participation and investment in the energy sector; inadequate access to energy in rural Africa as a result of high cost in production, transmission, distribution and depletion of energy resources; high dependence on, and inefficient use of, biomass energy sources and the associated environmental, economic and social impacts, especially on women and children; and inadequate skills and education of the rural population, which holds back their participation in the implementation of energy programmes and projects.

4.5.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

There is a need for increased political will and leadership, as well as increased awareness and knowledge of African policy and decision makers on emerging and sustainable energy issues. Governments should establish policies, strategies, legal and regulatory frameworks that are conducive to an attractive national investments climate for domestic and foreign investors, as well as integrate the specificities of the African energy context, especially in rural areas in order to promote adequate and affordable sustainable energy services.

Governments, international development partners, regional, and subregional decision makers should view the problem of access to modern energy in rural and peri-urban areas as inseparable from poverty reduction efforts and strategies and take urgent measures to address this in the PRSPs and National Strategies for Sustainable Development (NSSDs), in order to achieve the internationally agreed development goals, including the MDGs.

There is a need to build capacity that is responsive and inclusive of social and environmental factors in investment decisions related to energy projects. There is also need to build institutional capacity for energy planning, analysis and modeling, using specific national and regional data to inform decision-making and policy development.

Governments should intensify efforts to decentralize the decision-making process for energy investments and projects, and promote more participation by local governments, regional, communal, and community based organizations.

More actions should be undertaken in the area of interregional cooperation. Frameworks and incentives should be encouraged, developed and strengthened to promote regional integration of energy projects, programmes and systems. With the support of the international community, RECs should promote sub-regional and regional energy trade as a catalyst for development in Africa, in order to improve the share of renewable energy in the African energy mix. African governments should promote energy diversification, and remove barriers for a fairer competition of all energy resources.

International development partners, including the UN, should enhance their financial and technical support to enhance implementation of the NEPAD energy initiative.

4.6 Chemicals management

Chemicals are essential requirements of modern society that need to be managed properly in order to achieve a sustainable level of agricultural and industrial development, and a high level of environmental and human health protection. While a substantial use of chemicals is essential for social and economic development, chemical exposures may also threaten sustainable development through negative effects on health and the environment. The potential socioeconomic impacts and costs of toxics are large and are borne disproportionately by poor communities.

Hazards caused by toxic chemicals through handling and releases into the environment are worst for the African populace that have little chance of avoiding risk exposure and protecting themselves. In addition, due to poor education and lack of information, Africans are generally unaware of existing hazards and have little access to timely and proper medical care. This situation would be exacerbated by rapid population growth, which has implications for infrastructure requirements in Africa, including sound chemicals management.

WSSD called for renewed commitment to sound management of chemicals throughout their life cycle for sustainable development, as well as for the protection of human health and the environment. The JPOI states that countries should aim to achieve, by 2020, sound management of chemicals to ensure the minimization of significant adverse effects on human health and the environment. Countries are also to take actions at all levels to promote the ratification and implementation of relevant international instruments on chemicals.

Additionally, countries are to work on further developing a strategic approach to international chemicals management based on the Bahia Declaration and Priorities for Action, of the Intergovernmental Forum on Chemical Safety (IFCS,) and to implementing the new Globally Harmonized System (GHS) for the classification and labeling of chemicals, with a view to having the system fully operational by 2008. Specifically, the Plan calls on development partners to support African countries in strengthening their capacity for the sound management of chemicals and through the provision of technical and financial assistance. The NEPAD Environmental Action Plan (NEPAD-EAP) sets an Africa-wide approach to environmental management. Although

chemicals management is not one of the programme areas, it is identified as a key crosscutting issue.

4.6.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Since the late 1980s, several international policy instruments on the sound management of chemicals have been adopted. The Rotterdam Convention was adopted in 1998 to promote shared responsibility and cooperative efforts in international trade in chemicals, with a view to: protecting human health and the environment from potential harm; and contributing to the environmentally sound use of chemicals. The Convention entered into force in 2004 and so far, 37 African countries are Parties. The Stockholm Convention is a global treaty to protect human health and the environment from Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs). POPs are chemicals that remain intact in the environment for long periods, become widely distributed geographically, accumulate in the fatty tissue of living organisms and are toxic to humans and wildlife. The Convention was adopted in 2001 and entered into force in 2004. To date, 44 African countries have either ratified or acceded to the Convention <http://www.pops.int/reports/StatusOfRatification.aspx>, 21-09-07.

The most recent instrument is the Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management (SAICM), adopted by the International Conference on Chemicals Management (ICCM) in 2006. SAICM's adoption confirmed the determination of the international community to meet the challenges of chemical safety and effective management of chemicals. The African region played an active and leading role during the process of SAICM development. In May 2004, at a regional meeting in Abuja, Nigeria, African governments committed themselves to promote synergies and coordination among chemical regulatory instruments and agencies. Subsequent to the adoption of SAICM, AMCEN at its eleventh regular session, held in Brazzaville, Congo, in May 2006, adopted a decision on the implementation of SAICM in Africa, in recognition of the essential role of sound chemicals management in promoting environmental sustainability and protecting human health.

During the African regional meeting on SAICM implementation held in Cairo, Egypt, in September 2006, African countries completed and endorsed a regional action plan for the implementation of SAICM. The plan includes guidance for regional, subregional and national implementation, and notes potential subregional and regional activities. The plan provides for the adoption of a multi-stakeholder approach, which is to make use of existing regional, subregional and national institutions to facilitate implementation.

In February 2006, ICCM established the Quick Start Programme (QSP) to implement the objectives of SAICM. The QSP includes a trust fund, multilateral, bilateral and other forms of cooperation. African countries in realizing the enormous importance of sound chemicals management, have demonstrated commitment to SAICM implementation through the contribution in 2006, of \$100,000 and \$50,000, by the Governments of South African and Nigeria respectively. Currently a number of chemicals management projects are being undertaken in the region under the SAICM-QSP in Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cote d'Ivoire, Chad, Comoros, Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Ghana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome & Principe, Tanzania and Uganda.

The Basel Convention Regional Centre in Pretoria (BCRC) and the Swedish Chemicals Agency (KemI) are currently undertaking a regional cooperation project in Anglophone Africa in order to contribute towards developing a regional needs assessment to promote SAICM in African countries. The project will establish key baseline data on national chemicals and waste. This will include an assessment of capacity needs of national institutions, including the private sector and civil society, to manage chemicals and waste.

In response to growing requests from countries for capacity building to support GHS implementation, The United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR) and the International Labour Organization (ILO) initiated in 2001, the "UNITAR/ILO Global GHS Capacity Building Programme". In order to meet the target of having an operational GHS by 2008, ECOSOC endorsed the Initiative in July 2003 (ECOSOC, 2004). The Programme is supporting national GHS implementation and capacity building projects in Nigeria, Senegal, The Gambia, South Africa and Zambia. Regional activities have also been carried out in the SADC subregion <http://www.unitar.org/cwg/ghs/index.html>, 21-09-07.

International community support

The international community has continually lent support to Africa's chemicals management efforts through bilateral and multilateral cooperation and also through the various UN organizations responsible for chemicals management training and capacity building. This is consistent with the specific call by the eleventh session of AMCEN urging the participating organizations of the Inter-Organization Programme for the Sound Management of Chemicals (IOMC) (a cooperative agreement among UNEP, ILO, FAO, WHO, UNIDO, UNITAR and OECD), UNDP and the World Bank to give priority to the needs of African countries when developing activities to support implementation of the Strategic Approach. Additionally, UNITAR has been assisting African countries to implement SAICM through its training and capacity building activities.

A number of the OECD member States have been actively supporting African countries through provision of technical and financial resources for meeting obligations under the various chemicals-related MEAs and currently through the implementation of priority and enabling activities under the SAICM QSP. The EU- Slovenian presidency has recently, initiated an EU-Africa Cooperation targeted at a regional approach in the effective implementation of SAICM and sound chemicals and wastes management in Africa. Some of the priority areas that will be addressed by this Cooperation through an Umbrella Programme for the region will include: the establishments of coordination and cooperation mechanisms among stakeholders; training and equipment with communication facilities; training of politicians and decision makers in African countries on chemicals-related MEAs and other non-legally binding instruments on chemicals; professional trainings on specific areas such as the GHS; and public awareness raising activities and priority setting .

4.6.2 Challenges and constraints

A major challenge relates to inadequate awareness of policy makers on the link between sound chemicals management, poverty reduction and sustainable development, to engender the political will and support at regional and national levels. This results in the lack of integration of chemicals management priorities into sustainable development strategies and efforts and poor synergies with

priority sectors such as health and agriculture. Another important constraint is limited resources and capacity to ensure appropriate government action in effective chemicals management, facilitation of necessary regulatory reforms, effective enforcement of legislation and monitoring the use of chemicals. The gross lack of practical guidance and data on the economic impacts of chemicals management are also major constraints. Others include: lack of and access to cleaner production systems and technologies for chemicals and waste management; poor capacity to deal with poisoning and contamination; and poor management of obsolete chemicals, stockpiles and waste.

4.6.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Sound management of chemicals is essential to achieving sustainable development, including the eradication of poverty and disease, the improvement of human health and the environment and the elevation and maintenance of the standard of living of people in all countries and at all levels of development.

Developing an effective chemicals management system requires addressing the specific challenges of Africa. However, an extensive global system for chemicals management already exists. It is important not to duplicate efforts, but to harness synergies and to develop appropriate systems for implementation.

Given the cross cutting nature and developmental impacts of chemicals, analysis should be targeted at understanding the concrete impacts of chemicals on key development issues. This would help in effectively mainstreaming chemicals management into national development strategies, including PRSPs.

As chemical use and production increases, Africa's chemical management institutions, which already have limited resources and capacity, will be further constrained and overburdened. Measures and systems need to be developed to reduce exposure to negative impacts and to reduce human vulnerability, while examining the significant gaps in policy integration and institutional coordination related to implementation of chemicals-related MEAs at the regional, national and local levels.

At the national and regional level, environmental action programmes will need to respond to the challenges of chemicals management. Some of the actions that could be included are emergency response plans and prevention of illegal transboundary movement of chemicals.

Capacity building/enhancement is needed for development and enforcement of legislation, information gathering and dissemination, risk assessment and interpretation, establishment of risk management policy, implementation and enforcement, rehabilitation of contaminated sites, treating poisoned persons and implementing effective education programmes.

4.7 Hazardous wastes management

Hazardous wastes are undesirable, yet inevitable by-product of industrial development and several manufacturing processes. If not properly managed, these wastes may result in substantial adverse human health and environmental effects. However, as hazardous wastes are being generated in

increasingly large quantities, and as environmental laws become more stringent in industrialized countries, waste-generating industries tend to frantically search for a “path of least resistance” for the disposal of these wastes. This search has led industries and the governments of developed and industrialized nations to focus on exporting these wastes to developing countries especially sub-Saharan African countries (Olurominiyi, I., 2006).

This trend serves to compound Africa’s problems with regard to hazardous wastes management. Africa also produces hazardous wastes, but does not have adequate technical, technological and institutional capacities to manage them in an environmentally sound manner. The priority hazardous waste streams in Africa include healthcare wastes, industrial /petroleum/petrochemical, mining wastes, stock of obsolete pesticides and other chemicals already banned internationally, used oil, used automotive and dry cell batteries, and electronic wastes or e-waste which is a fast emerging issue and a chemical time bomb if not effectively addressed in time. Africa is littered with non-engineered landfill sites and other inefficient means of waste disposal strategies e.g. incinerators with inappropriate air pollution control devices. This has resulted in yearly deaths, estimated at around 20,000. Africa is also littered with contaminated sites. These include dumpsite areas, thermal power plants, polluted rivers, streams and drinking water wells, oil spill sites, oil refineries etc (Basel Secretariat, 2004).

WSSD called for renewal of the Agenda 21 commitment to sound management of hazardous wastes for sustainable development as well as for the protection of human health and the environment. The JPOI states that countries can achieve this by promoting the ratification and implementation of relevant international instruments on hazardous waste. The Plan also calls for the promotion of efforts to prevent international illegal trafficking of hazardous wastes and to prevent damage resulting from the transboundary movement and disposal of hazardous wastes in a manner consistent with obligations under relevant international instruments.

4.7.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

The Basel Convention on the Transboundary Movement of Hazardous Wastes and their Disposal was adopted on the 22 March 1989 in Basel, Switzerland. It aims to protect human health and the environment against the adverse effects resulting from the generation, management, transboundary movements and disposal of hazardous and other wastes. To date, 47 African countries have acceded to the Convention <http://www.basel.int/ratif/convention.htm>, 21-09-07. Significant progress has been realized in the implementation of the Convention, due to an enlarged scope that now includes patterns of production, product design, technological innovation, and consumer behavior. The Convention has made further progress through consolidation of its control system, legal framework, and operation through improved classification of wastes and refined hazard classification. A regulatory system for the monitoring and control of hazardous wastes has been set up and is displayed in the full text of the Convention.

The Bamako Convention on ban of the import into Africa and the control of transboundary movement and management of Hazardous Wastes within Africa, was adopted in 1991, due to concerns that certain provisions of the Basel Convention failed to adequately address their major concerns, notably the absence of a ban provision. This was the reason why African countries did not sign the Basel Convention at the time of adoption. The Bamako Convention recognizes the

sovereignty of States to ban the importation and transboundary movement of hazardous wastes into their territories and considers nuclear wastes as hazardous. The Convention came into force on the 22 April 1998. To date, it has either been ratified or acceded to by 23 countries http://www.africa-union.org/Official_documents/Treaties_%20Conventions, 21-09-07. In spite of its significance for African countries in regulating the hazardous waste trade, it has been noted that the ratification and implementation of the Convention has been very slow. The first COP is yet to be held.

An amendment to the Basel Convention was introduced in 1995. This amendment states that Parties which are members of OECD, EC, Liechtenstein are to prohibit immediately all transboundary movements of hazardous wastes destined for final disposal to other States. These States should phase out by 31 December 1997 and prohibit as of that date all transboundary movements of hazardous wastes. A critical factor acknowledged by the Conference of the parties was that transboundary movements of hazardous wastes, especially to developing countries, have a high risk of not constituting environmentally sound management of hazardous wastes as required by the Convention. The Amendment brings the objectives of the Basel Convention closer to those of the Bamako Convention. This complementarity is one of the main reasons that prompted the OAU to encourage African countries to ratify the Basel Convention after ratifying the Bamako Convention. The amendment is yet to enter into force, but 11 African countries have so far acceded to it <http://www.basel.int/ratif/ban-alpha.htm>, 21-09-07.

The Protocol on Liability and Compensation was adopted in Basel in 1999, during the 10th Anniversary of the Basel Convention. The aim of the Protocol is to provide for a comprehensive regime for adequate and prompt compensation, including reinstatement of the environment, for damage resulting from the transboundary movement of hazardous wastes and their disposal. The Protocol is yet to enter into force. To date, only eight countries have acceded to the Protocol, seven of which are African countries <http://www.basel.int/ratif/protocol.htm>, 21-09-07.

Other regional initiatives include the African, Caribbean, and Pacific (ACP) and the European Union (EU) Treaty on hazardous wastes. The treaty bans the export of hazardous and nuclear waste from the EU countries to the member countries of ACP. The treaty also prohibits the ACP countries from importing these wastes from any other non-EU countries. Also, the ECOWAS resolution calls for specific penalties for those involved in dumping toxic wastes in member countries. Subsequently, member countries such as Ivory Coast adopted a law that specifies up to 20 years in jail and fines up to \$1.6 million for anyone convicted of hazardous waste dumping (Olurominiyi, I., 2006). However, in August 2006, an illegal shipment of toxic waste, which originated from Estonia and carrying 581 tonnes of gasoline cargo residue contaminated with hydrogen sulphide and organochlorines was illegally dumped in Abidjan. The shipment has been linked to several deaths and over 10,000 poisonings (SAICM, 2006).

Parties to the Basel Convention established Basel Convention Regional and sub-regional Centers (BCRCs) to address specific regional or sub-regional needs. The BCRCs deliver training, dissemination of information, consulting, awareness raising activities and technology transfer on matters relevant to the implementation of the Basel Convention and to the environmentally sound management of hazardous and other wastes in the countries they serve. African countries are served by four Centers: Cairo, Egypt for Arab States; Dakar, Senegal, for French-speaking countries in

Africa; Pretoria, South Africa for English-speaking countries in Africa and Ibadan, Nigeria which hosts the coordinating center for the Africa Region:

<http://www.basel.int/centers/centers.html>, 21-09-07. The Centers have organized several capacity building activities for on hazardous wastes and chemicals management. NEPAD and the AMCEN have endorsed the use of the BCRCs in Africa for capacity building and the execution of projects on wastes and chemicals, with a view to enhancing the competencies of governments to implement the various Conventions on wastes and chemicals. The supports UNEP-led initiatives aimed at improving synergies among chemicals and wastes related Conventions.

Parties to the Basel Convention recognize the importance of developing strategic partnerships with business and industry and NGOs to support the Basel Declaration on Environmentally Sound Management. In this regard, the Strategic Plan for the Implementation of the Basel Convention to 2010 was adopted. Activities carried out in Africa in the framework of this Plan include, demonstration of a regional approach for environmentally sound management of PCBS, used oil partnership, biomedical and health care wastes.

The African obsolete pesticide Stockpile Project (ASP) has been established to clean up stockpiled obsolete, catalyze development of prevention measures and build capacity for chemicals-related issues. The project started in 2001 and is supported by FAO, WWF, PAN-UK, the World Bank, the Basel Convention, UNEP Chemicals, UNIDO, UNECA, AU and Crop Life International. The project is envisioned to span between 12 to 15 years and is estimated to cost \$250 million. The implementation began in 2002 with seven African countries, including Ethiopia, Mali, Morocco, South Africa, Tanzania, Tunisia and Nigeria (ASP, 2002).

International community support

International development partners such as the World Bank, UN Agencies, particularly UNEP and developed countries through bilateral arrangements, have lent support to Africa's waste management initiatives and efforts. The World Bank and the AfDB have funded urban solid waste management projects in many African cities aimed at improving sanitation and primary health care. The four BCRCs in Africa were established with support from UNEP through the Secretariat of the Basel Convention. The Governments of Norway and Sweden are currently funding projects at the BCRCs in Egypt and South Africa. GEF is also funding a project at the BCRC in Senegal. The EU pledged EU 1 million at the Eighth Conference of Parties (COP) of the Basel Convention, held in Nairobi, Kenya in 2006 to support projects on e-waste.

4.7.2 Challenges and constraints

Countries lack adequate institutional, technical and technological capacities to effectively deal with hazardous wastes generated in Africa and to monitor their illegal importation. Countries also lack environmental regulations and standards for the proper design of hazardous waste treatment and disposal facilities, thus resulting in the disposal of wastes in environmentally unsound manner. Additionally, there is a general lack of the awareness of the effects of hazardous wastes and their residue. There is also a lack of adequate health care facilities and personnel for adequate diagnosis and treatment of hazardous waste-related health problems.

Poverty is a major constraint to the success of African efforts in the area of Environmentally Sound Management of Hazardous Waste. Other constraints identified towards achieving environmentally sound management of hazardous waste in Africa countries include: lack of adequate information on the volume, location and sources of hazardous wastes generated; lack of knowledge and skill to identify technologies affordable by African countries for the environmentally sound management of hazardous wastes; lack of public awareness of the nature of hazardous waste and the danger they pose to their health and environment; lack of political will to put in place appropriate legislation to deal precisely with the issue of hazardous waste management; inability to measure and quantify the level of degradation that has occurred as a result of unsound management of hazardous wastes; and insufficient financial and human resources.

As regards transboundary movements and illegal disposal of hazardous wastes, poverty is a motivating factor. Most African countries have relatively high levels of poverty, low Gross National Product (GNP) and high foreign debt, hence importing hazardous waste as a source of foreign exchange, can be highly tempting. Second, lack of stringency of environmental regulations such as requirement for high performance and health-based standards for the design, siting, and closure of toxic waste disposal facilities, and the low level of implementation of existing policies mean that toxic waste treatment and disposal facilities can be built cheaply and without considerations for adverse human health and environmental effects. Third, high level of corruption is prevalent in sub-Saharan African countries hence government officials can easily be bribed to surreptitiously import toxic waste into their countries. Fourth, most sub-Saharan African countries lack the technical expertise necessary for the proper identification of both the elements of the imported hazardous waste and its human health and environmental impacts. The exporting companies are aware of this lack of technical expertise on the part of these destination countries; hence they often disguise the hazardous wastes as useful commodities that are relatively harmless (Olurominiyi, I., 2006).

4.7.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Given the relationship between poverty, community health and hazardous waste disposal, the establishment of hazardous wastes management programmes should aim at reducing poverty, while at the same time protecting the environment.

Additionally, there is need to: obtain adequate finance for the management of hazardous wastes at national and international level; raise public awareness on the existence of hazardous wastes and the effects on human health and the environment to all stakeholders; conduct inventory of sources and volume of hazardous wastes, as well as waste characterization surveys; promote integrated management of hazardous wastes through use of waste minimization and cleaner production technologies; use of efficient, sound and affordable technologies adaptable to African environment; review of relevant legislations and regulation in order to promote efficient management of hazardous waste; ensure that hazardous waste management follow proper management strategy of municipal/ domestic waste; invest in research and development for new technology and waste minimization options for industries through the BCRCs; strengthen BCRCs to improve their service delivery; and domesticate Multilateral Environmental Agreements (MEAs) on Wastes and Chemicals.

There is need to develop policies on environmentally sound management of wastes at national, subregional and regional levels under the auspices of NEPAD. These should be supported by national master plans for integrated waste management and for mainstreaming waste management into national development strategies and plans. Environmentally sound management of wastes should include: waste minimization, focusing on the promotion of the “3Rs” – Reduce, Reuse and Recycle; waste to wealth initiatives for poverty reduction; corporate social responsibility; public-private partnerships; and waste stock exchange.

The issue of unregulated and illegal export of hazardous wastes to Africa should receive greater international concern and action. Industrialized countries should implement illegal trafficking controls in their countries in order to assist the different levels of governments to develop and implement strategies that would counter the export of toxic and hazardous wastes and technologies to Africa. Africa should explore the eventual establishment of a regional monitoring and information network, which could be used to alert countries about companies that have a record of previous illegal dumping activities. The network could also be used as a clearinghouse to be consulted by countries before issuing import permits for hazardous wastes, thereby minimizing the illegal export of hazardous wastes to Africa.

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5. Natural resource base of economic and social development

WSSD recognized that human activities are having an increasing impact on the integrity of ecosystems that provide essential resources and services for human well-being and economic activities. In this regard, the JPOI states that managing the natural resources base in a sustainable and integrated manner is essential for sustainable development. It notes that to reverse the current trend in natural resource degradation as soon as possible, it is necessary to implement strategies, which should include targets adopted at the national and, where appropriate, regional levels to protect ecosystems and to achieve integrated management of land, water and living resources. In doing so, the Plan calls for strengthening regional, national and local capacities.

5.1 Sustainable land management

Land lies at the heart of social, cultural, spiritual political and economic life in most of Africa. Land and natural resources are key assets for economic growth and development. In fact, most African economies continue to rely heavily on agriculture and natural resources for a significant share of national income, food needs, and employment. In practice, land rights claimed and allocated by governments often conflict with the land tenure practices of local communities. As a result, land tenure and shelter are insecure for many Africans in both urban and rural areas. In addition, land remains extremely inequitably distributed especially in the former settler economies of southern Africa, with the majority of rural people excluded from access to the most productive and valuable land.

Reliance on land as a principal source of livelihoods and as a basis for economic development in Africa is likely to persist in the foreseeable future. This calls for the formulation and implementation of appropriate land policies for a better livelihood of the poor, as well as increased private investment in agriculture. In fact, the importance of land in Africa is multifaceted and central to the achievement of the MDGs. Sound policies and effective land administration are necessary to addressing Africa's twin land-related challenges of (a) facilitating investment and generation of economic opportunities, and (b) guaranteeing secure land access to the rural and urban poor as a basis for improved livelihoods, food security and poverty reduction.

The JPOI objective on land is to promote and support efforts and initiatives to secure equitable access to land and clarify resource rights and responsibilities, through land and tenure reform processes that respect the rule of law and are enshrined in national law, and provide access to credit for all, especially women. The Africa chapter states that efforts and initiatives should support economic and social empowerment and poverty eradication, as well as efficient and ecologically sound utilization of land; that enable women producers to become decision makers and owners in the sector, including the right to inherit land. The first pillar of NEPAD's Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP) is extending the area under sustainable land management and reliable water control systems.

5.1.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

An important regional initiative is the AU/AfDB/ECA Initiative on a Pan African Framework on Land Policy for Securing Rights, Enhancing Productivity and Improving Livelihoods. Cognizant of

the varied stages and successes in policy and administrative reforms of African countries, the initiative recognizes exchange of information and lessons, access to technical expertise and reviews of on-going processes, as key to catalyzing reforms across the continent. Benchmarks and indicators of land policy and land reforms are being developed through this initiative, to allow for monitoring and evaluation of policy development and implementation processes and their outcomes.

Southern Africa: SADC has established a Land Reform Technical Support Facility, intended to provide access to expert advice, training and technical support to its member States on different aspects of land reform. In addition there are a number of national and regional civil society network organizations addressing land and natural resource rights and policies in the region.

West Africa: Efforts have been made to recognize and register customary rights in countries, such as Niger, Benin and Cote d'Ivoire, and their incorporation into common law in Ghana. Many of the francophone countries, have introduced "Gestion de Terrier" programmes to improve the management of village lands and natural resources. In the Sahelian zone, some countries have developed Pastoral Code-framework laws. Farmer organizations are also active players in land debates, and the intergovernmental organization CILSS has been active in fostering convergent land policies and exchange of lessons learned. LandNet, a civil society network, has active national networks in a number of countries, including Burkina Faso and Togo.

Eastern Africa: East African countries are faced with the colonial legacy of dualistic tenure systems and have all gone through some sort of policy process seeking to address this situation. Post-independence Kenya redistributed some of its white commercial farmland and adopted a comprehensive land-titling programme, which remains incomplete and problematic. The country and is now reforming its land institutions and management systems. In the late 1990s, both Uganda and Tanzania enacted new land laws granting security to customary land holdings, and establishing decentralized land administration arrangements. Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Rwanda all have active civil society Land Alliances or LandNet chapters, which address common issues through the LandNet East Africa regional network. Additionally, the sub-region has civil society organizations concerned with gender and land.

Central Africa: There is limited research and data availability on land issues in central African countries. These countries are not currently undergoing land policy reform processes. Just like the rest of Africa, they suffer from the contradictions of inherited colonial land policies and customary tenure practices. Cameroon is the only country in the sub-region that has embarked upon land reform activities. In 2004, the country established a national committee to assess the 1974 land ordinances and propose a new land reform and land tenure reform with a view to: facilitating the right to land ownership by the majority of the population; restoring the viability and credibility of land titles; responding to the needs of economic operators in various sectors; and improving and facilitating judicial procedures for land access and titling.

North Africa: Between 1950 and 1975, North African countries undertook major land reforms achieving significant benefits in favor of peasant farmers, landless workers and pastoral nomads, substantially improving access to European export markets, reducing poverty and the high rates of malnutrition, illiteracy and landlessness, which had prevailed in the low income traditional rain fed

agricultural sector. As land distribution and rural investment waned during the 1970s and 80s, inequality became characteristic of North African agriculture, and richer farmers and those with larger land holdings started benefiting disproportionately from agricultural services. This resulted in large numbers of landless rural laborers, whose livelihoods are threatened by population growth, the falling quality of agricultural land and the withdrawal of State support during the structural adjustment period of the 1980s and 90s.

5.1.2 Challenges and constraints

Constraints to land policy reforms include: inappropriate institutional frameworks; a lack of skilled human resource capacity; shortages of financial resources, both within national budget and donor aid allocations; contestation over the use of increasingly scarce land resources between development actors; and uncertainties about exactly what type of policies can deliver the right balance between improving livelihoods, protecting the poor and raising opportunities for economic growth and investment.

5.1.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

The overwhelming presence of state in land administration- a legacy of the colonial period needs to be revisited. There is need to further decentralize land governance and to recognize customary land rights and institutions. This will promote the safeguarding of the commons and the adoption of new paradigms of land management. There is also need to promote professionalism in land administration and to further explore alternative systems of land rights to replace the complex and expensive system of land titling. This should be complemented by the development of appropriate land dispute mechanisms. Stakeholders must be effectively engaged at all levels of land policy development and implementation, and more resources should be mobilized for the implementation of land reform programmes. Furthermore, well-targeted institutional and capacity strengthening initiatives should be put in place. These include:

A land institutions facility to support institutional change, development and decentralization in government land agencies;

A programme of training and human resources development to generate long-term support and capacity building for African higher education and training institutions to develop the human resources required for land policy and land reform in Africa during the 21st century;

A research development programme to develop an Africa wide research framework on land to which a variety of research organizations, networks, donors and international institutions can contribute to fill knowledge gaps and support ongoing land policy / implementation processes; and

A civil society support facility to support advocacy, public debate and consultation in country and regional networking and lesson learning, and build NGO and CSO capacity to assist governments in land policy implementation.

5.2 Sustainable mineral resources development

Africa's endowments of minerals are of world significance. The continent possesses more than 40 percent of the world's reserves of Platinum Group Minerals (PGMs), phosphate, gold, cobalt, vanadium, vermiculite, chromite, manganese, and diamonds. Africa ranks first in the production of platinum, gold, chromite, vanadium, cobalt, and diamonds. Reserves of other minerals are also important. Africa's importance as a source of oil, gas and other energy resources is increasing. In 2006, its gas and oil reserves were about 7.9 and 8.6 percent of the world's total, while production was at 10 and 8 percent of the world's production, respectively. The continent also produces about 16 percent of the world's uranium. Coal resources are concentrated in Southern Africa, with South Africa accounting for five percent of proven world coal resources and 98 percent of Africa's output.

The economies of many African countries depend on the extractive industry (including oil and gas). This dependence is more reflected in export earnings and contribution to GDP. The extractive industry constitutes Africa's largest export category. It accounted for more than 50 percent of Africa's exports and 65 percent of all FDI during the 1990s. Its contribution to GDP is also high, reaching more than 30 percent in countries like Botswana. However, the contribution to employment generation in large-scale mines is relatively low. This is mainly due to the capital-intensive nature of the industry. Employment figures in artisanal and small-scale mining are significant. The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that in Africa, more than three million people are directly and indirectly employed in this sector.

The JPOI notes that mining, minerals and metals are important to the economic and social development of many countries. It further notes that enhancing the contribution of the sector to sustainable development include actions at all levels to: support efforts to address the environmental, economic, health and social impacts and benefits of the sector using the lifecycle approach; enhance the participation of stakeholders, including local and indigenous communities and women; and foster sustainable mining practices through the provision of financial, technical and capacity-building support to developing countries.

Further, in its Africa chapter, the Plan calls for support to enhance the contribution of the industrial sector, in particular mining, minerals and metals, to the sustainable development of Africa by supporting the development of effective and transparent regulatory and management frameworks and value addition, broad-based participation, social and environmental responsibility, and increased market access in order to create an attractive and conducive environment for investment. These complement the NEPAD objectives on mining, which are: to improve the quality of mineral resource information; to create a regulatory framework that is conducive to the development of the mining sector; and to establish best practices that will ensure efficient extraction of natural resources and minerals of high quality. Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

In line with the above, African Ministers responsible for mineral resources development, in March 2002, established the African Mining Partnership (AMP), as a platform to implement the mining chapter of NEPAD. The AMP, as a high-level ministerial forum, aims at influencing the agenda of

mining in Africa with a view to achieving sustainable development. The AMP currently runs projects on beneficiation, artisanal and small-scale mining, environment, human resource development, and promotion of foreign investment and indigenous/local participation in mining ventures. There has been some progress in the implementation of most of the projects. Furthermore, the AMP has evolved into a forum for African countries to discuss and take common positions on emerging issues of importance to Africa. A good example is AMP's stance on the EU's new regulations on chemicals - the Registration, Evaluation and Authorization of Chemicals (REACH), which implementation could have adverse social and economic impacts on mineral-dependent African countries. Negotiations are still ongoing.

The establishment in 2005, of the Communities and Small-scale Mining (CASM)-Africa, was of equal importance for Africa's efforts to implement the NEPAD chapter on mining. Through partnership with CASM (Global), CASM (Africa) will be a key conduit and platform for establishing critical in-country and locally owned programmes, and influence the international agenda based on African experiences. CASM (Africa) will assist with on-the-ground implementation of artisanal and small-scale mining projects and activities. The Africa Mining Network (AMN) officially launched in 2005, represents another important initiative to facilitate information exchanges on mineral resources development in Africa- a key objective of NEPAD.

The NEPAD Secretariat is championing a new Spatial Development Programme (SDP) aimed at configuring, prioritizing, and promoting inter-related infrastructure and large-scale natural resources projects. The SDP is anchored on the exploitation of Africa's natural resources endowments, in particular minerals. The high rents that minerals currently generate boost the economic/business rationale for infrastructure projects making them more viable. In addition, using a clustering process will enable other sectors with less rents to benefit from the larger-scale anchor project by generating a pipeline (the corridor principle) of other credible and sound projects in an integrated manner. This would maximize linkages between the anchor project and the local economy; promote value addition and local beneficiation of raw materials; and foster the development of Small and Medium-scale Enterprises (SMEs) that could enter the inputs, goods and services market. The SDP was presented and endorsed at the Sector Stakeholder Workshop of the NEPAD Medium to Long-term Strategic Framework Infrastructure Study recently held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, from 26-28 July 2007.

On capacity building, special reference should be made to efforts made by the Southern and Eastern Africa Minerals Center (SEAMIC), an ECA-sponsored Center of Excellence based in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania established in 1977, to facilitate training, research, and development on industrial minerals applications, and to provide analytical services and consultancy for mineral identification and environmental assessment to its member States. The Center has seven members, namely Angola, Comoros, Ethiopia, Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, and Uganda. In May 2007, the Governing Council of SEAMIC decided to open membership to all African countries and to other stakeholders, including the private sector. Given the dearth of Centers of Excellence in the mineral sector in Africa, outside South Africa, this decision could have a positive impact on the continent.

On the policy side, at sub-regional level, there have been efforts to improve harmonization of mineral policies, standards, and regulatory and legislative environments, namely by SADC and UEMOA. In 2004, UEMOA adopted a common mining policy for the subregion. Subsequent

efforts to improve harmonization in the subregion include the drafting in 2006, of a mining code that defines the mining titles, a model mining agreement, and the fiscal regime to be applicable in UEMOA member States. UEMOA policy organs are expected to approve the code soon. Similarly, in March 2007, 12 SADC member States adopted a mining sector harmonization framework that should, in the longer term, lead to convergence and a harmonized policy regime in the minerals sector in the sub-region.

CSR in the mining sector

Efforts to modify production and consumption patterns have been circumscribed mainly to country level. In this respect, South Africa has formulated legislation to promote local beneficiation and value addition of minerals. Angola and Namibia have started sizeable diamond polishing units. Inspired by the South African Mining Charter on Black Economic Empowerment, Namibia, Zimbabwe, and Zambia are pursuing strategies to increase the participation of local entrepreneurs and other stakeholders in the development of their mineral resources. Tanzania is reviewing clauses in its mining codes and fiscal regime to maximize local benefits.

Special initiatives

A key event on efforts to build consensus on emerging issues at continental level was the 2007 Big Table on “Managing Africa's Natural Resources for Growth and Poverty Reduction” co-organized by ECA and AfDB on 1 February 2007, in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The Big Table is an initiative designed by ECA to promote, in an informal environment, frank and constructive dialogue between senior African policy makers and their OECD counterparts. The 2007 Big Table discussed the challenges of effectively managing Africa’s natural resources for growth and poverty reduction and framed an agenda for future action. It was attended by 52 participants including Ministers and senior officials from 11 African countries, high-level representatives from OECD countries, regional and international organizations (ECA, AfDB, AUC, IMF, OECD-DAC, World Bank), research centers, private sector and NGOs. The outcomes of the meeting could have a lasting impact and influence debate on natural resources issues on the continent in the foreseeable future, as evidenced by the tacit endorsement received at the July 2007 Summit of African Heads of State and Government, which directed the AU Commission to convene a meeting of African Ministers responsible for natural resources development to further reflect on issues pertaining to the exploitation and management of Africa’s natural resources as a catalyst for development.

5.2.1 Challenges and constraints

Mineral resources are non-renewable, finite and unevenly distributed across space. The wealth that they generate is transient and vulnerable to rent seeking. In addition, their exploitation is often capital-intensive rather than labor-intensive and creates enclave economies that have little or no links with the wider national economy. The above attributes generate daunting policy challenges that are difficult to manage and overcome.

One of the major challenges of sustainable development in the context of non-renewable resources (such as minerals) is to create (The creation challenge) a viable, integrated and diversified industry throughout the value chain, and sustaining mineral wealth- long after the minerals have been

depleted- without compromising environmental, social and cultural considerations, and ensuring a regulatory framework that encourages wealth creation. This challenge is relevant to most African mineral-producing countries.

Another important challenge is to be able to invest (The investment challenge) windfall revenues to ensure lasting wealth and deciding how much ought to be saved and how much should be invested and in what form. Distributing (The distribution challenge) benefits equitably, while balancing and managing conflicting local and national-level concerns and interests and deciding what form the allocation should take to promote pro-poor and broad-based growth poses an equally difficult challenge.

The governance and macroeconomic challenge of ensuring sound systems of governance and a stable macroeconomic environment that curb rent seeking and corruption, manage the adverse impacts of resource rents such as the Dutch Disease, foreign exchange rate appreciation, and commodity price volatility, and enhance public interest in wealth conservation overwhelms most African countries. This is particularly true because many African countries have capacity gaps (The capacity challenge) at all levels.

5.2.2 Lessons learned and the way forward

There seems to be a growing realization that Africa's highest short to medium term potential for growth and development lies in its mineral resource endowment. This is particularly true now because of the commodity price boom, fuelled by perceptions of global resource scarcity and the entrance in the commodity market of new global resource-demanding players such as China and India. Stakeholders at all levels have also recognized that to better harness the full potential of its mineral resources potential, African States must strengthen their governance systems, and reinforce institutional capacity, including capacity to negotiate mining contracts.

Civil society organizations are gaining strength, and consultation with local communities in the process of developing mining projects, is becoming a standard practice. Ownership and local participation are also becoming critical. To respond to this, several countries are reviewing their mineral policies and legislation. This may become a continental trend.

In anticipation of this, there is need to undertake a review of current mining regimes at continental level with a view to developing a template for future mining laws and regulations in Africa. There is also need to establish mechanisms to promote capacity building, exchange of experiences, identification and dissemination of best practices, and creation of an appropriate knowledge base on mineral resources management.

Strategic thinking and policy innovations, new management techniques, broad-based capacities especially in science and technology, and adaptation of new and emerging technologies are needed for Africa to better harness its natural resource wealth to promote growth and poverty reduction.

5.3 Freshwater resources

Africa is generally endowed with abundant water resources that amounts to nine percent of the global freshwater resources. There is however uneven distribution of surface and groundwater resources, from areas of severe aridity with limited freshwater resources like the Sahara and Kalahari deserts in the northern and southern parts, to the tropical belt of mid-Africa with abundant freshwater resources. This is related to the extreme variability of rainfall – in time and space – in the region (UNEP, 2006). Most water resources occur in the form of big rivers, large lakes, vast wetlands, and limited but widespread groundwater. Much of this is located in the Central African sub-region and in the island countries. Africa has 17 rivers with catchment areas greater than 100,000 km²; and it has more than 160 lakes larger than 27 km², most of which are located around the equatorial region and sub-humid East African Highlands within the Rift Valley. Lake Tanganyika alone could meet the basic water supply needs of 400 million people through a less than one percent yearly withdrawal of its volume. The continent has a huge potential for energy production through hydropower development.

At continental level, Africa also has abundant rainfall. In spite of this, water scarcity is growing. This is attributed to the fact that the present state of water resources development in many African countries is low in almost all the water use sectors. The scarcity is also due to the rapidly increasing demand for water in most countries as a result of population growth and economic development. Africa has the highest population growth rate in the world. In addition, freshwater withdrawals for agriculture are predicted to rise by more than 30 percent over the next 20 years in response to growing demand for food. From less than three percent in 1950, domestic water use is predicted to increase to six percent of water withdrawals by 2025 (ECA, 2003). The other factors responsible for water scarcity are watershed degradation, pollution of water resources and inefficient water use.

It is therefore projected that by the year 2025, twenty-five African countries will be subjected to water scarcity or water stress due to insufficient investment in sustainable delivery of water supply, watershed management and pollution control. Furthermore, rising costs of water production, and the proliferation of unplanned human settlements have resulted in inequitable access to water resources. In addition Africa is regarded as the most vulnerable region to climate change. The Northern and Southern African regions are expected to experience a decline in runoff and water availability resulting in drought and desertification. Recent studies have shown that droughts and floods have increased in frequency and severity over the past 30 years. Long-term precipitation records from the Sahara give a clear indication of declining precipitation in that region (ECA, 2003).

The JPOI outlines a number of actions required to attain sustainable water resources management. It calls for inter alia interventions to promote priority action by Governments, with the support of all stakeholders, in water management and capacity building at the national level and, where appropriate, at the regional level. It also calls for the promotion and provision of new and additional financial resources and innovative technologies to implement Agenda 21 water resources commitments.

With specific reference to Africa, the JPOI calls for actions to promote integrated water resources development and optimize the upstream and downstream benefits, the development and effective management of water resources across all uses and the protection of water quality and aquatic ecosystems. It encourages initiatives to: develop and implement integrated river basin and watershed management strategies and plans for all major water bodies; and strengthen regional, subregional and national capacities for data collection and processing and for planning, research, monitoring, assessment and enforcement. These support the NEPAD water objectives which include: to plan and manage water resources to become a basis for national and regional cooperation and development; to systematically address and sustain ecosystems, biodiversity and wildlife; and to cooperate on shared rivers.

5.3.1 Concrete actions and progress

Regional initiatives

The Africa Ministerial Council on Water (AMCOW) and the Africa Water Task Force were established to enhance cooperation and coordination and promote the development and implementation of coherent policies and strategies for water resources management. Additionally, the African Water Vision 2025 has been developed and launched. The Vision sets targets for sustainable development and management of water resources in the region. The Vision objectives include to: make equitable and sustainable use of Africa's water resources; ensure sustainable development and management of water resources for all; develop water resources for food security and agricultural development; share management of international water basins to stimulate efficient mutual regional economic development; and ensure adequate water for life-supporting ecosystems (UN Water Africa, 2006).

A Short-Term Action Plan (STAP) has been prepared under the auspices of NEPAD. Objectives of STAP include strengthening the enabling environment for effective cooperative management and development of transboundary water resources, and initiating the implementation of prioritized programmes. The implementation of STAP is focused on seven river basins, i.e. Niger and Senegal in West Africa; Congo and Lake Chad in Central Africa; Nile in Eastern Africa; and Zambezi and Okavango in Southern Africa.¹³

At subregional level the SADC Protocol on Shared Watercourses, and the Nile Basin Initiative (NBI) have been developed and operationalized.¹⁴ In order to develop a basin-wide framework for actions to address high priority trans-boundary environmental issues within the context of the NBI's Shared Vision Programme, the Nile Transboundary Environmental Action Project (NTEAP) is being implemented under the auspices of UNDP. The NTEAP involves Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda and Eritrea (observer status) (UNDP 2007). Furthermore, in collaboration with the World Bank, UNDP is implementing the Senegal River Basin Water and Environmental Management Project whose objective is to provide a participatory strategic environmental framework for the environmentally sustainable development of the Senegal River basin and to launch a basin-wide cooperative

¹³ http://www.afdb.org/portal/page?_pageid=473,969995&_dad=portal&_schema=PORTAL

¹⁴ Ibid

programme for transboundary land and water management (UNDP, 2007). The Lake Chad Basin Commission has made significant contributions in the area of agriculture, fisheries and livestock.

National actions

Water reform programmes are being implemented at national and watershed levels. An increasing number of countries are developing new policies, strategies and laws for water resource development and management, based on the principles of Integrated Water Resources Management (IWRM) aimed at decentralization, integration and cost-recovery. For example, in Ethiopia a process has been initiated to develop an IWRM plan to be implemented in conjunction with the process of decentralization in the country. To this end, the country has developed various laws, policies and strategies.¹⁵ Water sector reforms, which are in line with the IWRM philosophy, are also underway in over half of the southern African countries. Zimbabwe embarked upon its water reforms in 1995 to achieve equity in access to and management of productive water (Manzungu, 2004).

Countries that are carrying out water sector reforms are also restructuring their institutional and legal frameworks. This includes setting up river and lake catchment and basin organizations.¹⁶ For instance, through partnership interventions for the implementation of the Strategic Action Programme for Lake Tanganyika, the Lake Tanganyika Authority is being created. Other activities include demonstration sites for sustainable catchment management in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Tanzania and Zambia; support to wastewater treatment plants in Burundi and Tanzania; and establishment of a lake monitoring system. Partners include UNDP, FAO-GEF, United Nations Office for Project Services (UNOPS), AfDB-Nordic Development Fund (NDF) and IUCN (UNDP 2007). In Mozambique a stakeholder institution has been established in the south, in the form of the Regional Water Authority (RWA) (Manzungu, 2004).

International community support

Development partners continue to play an important role in water resources management, as demonstrated by the following examples. Under the UNDP-GEF International Waters Programme, US\$ 98.53 million has been invested in Africa to assist countries in working jointly to identify, prioritize, understand, and address the key transboundary environmental and water resources issues of shared water bodies. This includes grants of US\$ 8.80 million for NTEAP, US\$ 7.250 million for Senegal River Basin Water and Environmental Management Project; and US\$ 13.500 million for Lake Tanganyika Integrated Management Programme (UNDP, 2007). The World Bank provides substantial support to the water sector in the region. The Bank provides financial support to NEPAD, including financing the Senegal River Basin multi-purpose water development project. Integrated water resource management plans at river basin levels are being developed with the support of ECA and financial assistance from AfDB and the European Union Water Initiative. ECA is also enhancing the capacity of members to develop and manage water resources by promoting the implementation of Africa Water Vision 2025. Furthermore, ECA provides assistance to Member

¹⁵ Improving freshwater management in Africa.

http://www.eoearth.org/article/Improving_freshwater_management_in_Africa

¹⁶ Ibid

States, RECs and river basin organizations on integrated river basin and watershed management strategies and plans (ECOSOC, 2007).

5.3.2 Challenges and constraints

Among the challenges and limitations hampering progress towards sustainable management of fresh water resources in the region are: weak national institutions with poor technical and financial capacity and in some cases fragmented or overlapping functions and actions; lack of adequate political and financial support from member countries, thereby affecting the performance of a number of regional and basin level institutions; low investments in water resources management, including pollution control and catchments management; and inadequate legislative reforms and enforcement. The other major limitation is the serious decline in the networks of hydrological observing stations and in the quality of data collected in Africa. This has made it difficult to provide adequate and accurate data and information needed for water resources assessment and development activities at national and basin levels, and to provide essential inputs into regional and international programmes. Climate change with its projected devastating impacts on the water resources in the region is a looming and serious threat to sustainable water resources management in the region.

5.3.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Effective stakeholder participation depends on a conducive governance regime at the national level. Strong and transparent institutions, as well as legal frameworks for WRM need to be established at national level. Furthermore, IWRM plans must take into account and be incorporated into the overall economic development frameworks and into poverty reduction strategies.

Although it is essential to manage water resources at national and sub-regional levels, the management of water resources is best done at local level. Countries in the region are therefore encouraged to pursue effective decentralization that fosters ownership and participation in decision-making and accountability to the local communities.

Partnerships between the public sector and civil society and the private sector should be established or strengthened to improve the implementation of community projects, particularly targeting the poor.

Capacity for effective water resources management is needed at all levels. Capacity building should therefore be systematically included in IWRM plans. Scientific research, data collection and knowledge management capacity on water resources management need to be integrated and expanded to support improved policy making, public awareness and multi-stakeholder mobilization.

African women have a much less influential role in the management and decision-making processes related to water resources than men, in spite of the pivotal role they play. Effective gender mainstreaming should therefore be pursued at all levels in decision-making, strategy and programme planning and implementation.

Support should be increased to enhance implementation of the STAP and to enable NEPAD to assist African countries to meet their goals and objectives in water resources management as set out in the Africa Water Vision 2025.

Political will and strategic approaches are essential and should be strengthened to promote effective IWRM.

5.4 Coastal and marine resources

Africa's mainland and island states have rich and varied coastal and marine resources, both living and non-living. The coasts range from deserts to fertile plains to rain forests, from coral reefs to lagoons, and from high-relief rocky shores to deeply indented estuaries and deltas. Their marine environments include the open Atlantic and Indian oceans and the almost landlocked Mediterranean and Red seas. Continental shelves, where waters are less than 200 meters deep, in some places extend more than 200 kilometers offshore, while elsewhere they are almost absent (UNEP, 2006).

The biodiversity of the coastal zone is an important resource and there are many designated protected areas, both wetland and marine. The coral reefs, sea-grass beds, sand dunes, estuaries, mangrove forests and other wetlands that occur around many shores provide valuable services for humanity, as well as crucial nursery habitats for marine animals and sanctuaries for endangered species. During the last decade or so, substantial oil and natural gas resources have been discovered offshore, particularly in West Africa. And many of the coastal sediments of Southern and Eastern Africa yield mineral resources. Africa's coastal and marine resources have traditionally supported livelihoods through subsistence fisheries, agriculture and trading. Nowadays, the coastal areas are the loci of rapid urban and industrial growth, oil and gas development, industrial-scale fisheries and trade. The natural coastal assets have also supported growth in tourism. All these activities have substantial economic benefits, including the creation of many jobs for men and women. While there is a general trend of population increase in the coastal areas, the coastal cities are the principal growth nodes (ibid).

The JPOI targets on coastal and marine resources include encouraging the application by 2010 of the ecosystem approach for the sustainable development of the oceans, and establishing by 2004 a regular process under the United Nations for global reporting and assessment of the state of the marine environment. Specifically, the Africa Chapter of the Plan states that achieving sustainable development includes developing projects, programmes and partnerships with relevant stakeholders and mobilizing resources for the effective implementation of the outcome of the African Process for the Protection and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment. The chapter also calls for support to the development and implementation of national policies and programmes, including research programmes and development plans of African countries to sustainably develop their fisheries resources. NEPAD acknowledges the role of sharing best practices for optimally protecting and utilizing coastal resources.

Concrete actions taken and progress made

General initiatives and actions

Most coastal countries are signatories to one or more multilateral environmental agreements (MEAs) that deal with marine and coastal management issues. These MEAs include the Barcelona Convention, the Jeddah Convention, the Nairobi Convention and the Abidjan Convention, as well as the International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships (MARPOL) and the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS). These conventions lay the foundations for coastal states to develop legislation and management plans relating to their coastal and marine environments, integrating the various sectoral policies and, increasingly, taking account of river catchment that discharge to those environments (UNEP et al, 2003; UNEP, 2006). Furthermore, many African governments have realized the benefits of Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM), and have put in place policies and legislation to put its principles into effect.

Other regional level initiatives include the Pan African Conference on Sustainable Integrated Coastal Management (PASICOM) and the Cape Town Conference on Cooperation for the Development and Protection of the Marine and Coastal Environment in sub-Saharan Africa, both organized in 1998. The Cape Town Conference adopted the Cape Town Declaration. An important component of the Declaration is the African Action Plan and Strategy for the Development and Protection of the Coastal and Marine Environment in sub-Saharan Africa, otherwise known as the "African Process". Since it was launched, the African Process has galvanized broad political support. As an innovative process, it has contributed to generating awareness at all levels that regional cooperation and solidarity are required if effective and lasting solutions for sustainable development and environmental protection are to be developed and sustained.

The overall objective of the Coastal and Marine Resources programme of the Environmental Initiative of NEPAD is to support the implementation of the objectives of the Abidjan and Nairobi Conventions and to contribute to the implementation of the decisions of the African Process. In addition, the objectives of this programme area are to assist African countries to implement the relevant provisions of the Global Programme of Action for the Protection of the Marine Environment from Land Based Activities (UNEP et al, 2003).

Countries have been implementing programmes and projects on Large Marine Ecosystems (LMEs) through the UNDP-GEF International Waters Programme. The Benguela Current Large Marine Ecosystem (BCLME) Programme was designed to improve the structures and capacities of Namibia, Angola and South Africa to deal with their transboundary environmental problems and manage the BCLME in an integrated and sustainable manner. The programme assists governments to manage their shared marine resources – fish, diamond mining and petroleum exploration – in an integrated and sustainable way. Key project areas also include environmental variability, coastal zone management, ecosystem health, socio-economics and governance. More than 75 different projects and activities are carried out by activity centers in the three countries, which work in close cooperation with the fishing, oil and gas, and offshore diamond mining industries.

The Guinea Current Large Marine Ecosystem (GCLME) project was designed as an ecosystem-based effort to assist countries adjacent to the GCLME to prevent pollution, conserve biodiversity and achieve environmental and resource sustainability. Activities included institutional strengthening, water quality and ecological monitoring, pollution control, setting up demonstration sites and developing institutional mechanisms. The project's long-term objective was to facilitate changes in human activities in different sectors of national life to ensure that the GCLME and its

multi-country drainage basins can support sustainable regional socio-economic development (UNDP-GEF International Waters Programme. Delivering results <http://www.undp.org/gef>, 21-09-07).

Other initiatives for improving resource management and related capacity-building are in place through organizations such as the Intergovernmental Oceanographic Commission of UNESCO (IOC), the World Bank, The Regional Organizations for the Conservation of the Red Sea and Gulf of Aden (PERSGA), Land-Ocean Interactions in the Coastal Zone (LOICZ), World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF), the World Conservation Union (IUCN) and UNEP.

Fisheries-specific initiatives and actions

The Heads of State Meeting of NEPAD Fish for All Summit in Nigeria adopted the Abuja Declaration on Sustainable Fisheries and Aquaculture in Africa. At the same occasion, the Global Programme on Fisheries (PROFISH) was launched. The Programme is a new global partnership of developing countries, donors and technical agencies led by the World Bank. These are two significant recent developments that demonstrate national and international commitment towards realizing the potential that fisheries and aquaculture have to contribute to food security, poverty reduction and economic development (FAO, 2007).

In 2004, the FAO Council, in Resolution 1/127, established the South West Indian Ocean Fisheries Commission (SWIOFC) under Article VI of the FAO Constitution. As the newest regional fisheries body (RFB) of its type, it seeks to promote the sustainable development, conservation, rational management and best utilization of fishery resources in the region, with a special emphasis on fisheries targeted at non-tuna species. SWIOFC's membership is open to coastal states whose territories are situated wholly or partly within the area of the Commission (i.e. the Southwest Indian Ocean) The Commission held its first meeting in April 2005 in Mombassa (Kenya) and its second meeting in Maputo (Mozambique) in August 2006 (FAO, 2007).

In striving towards achieving sustainable fisheries, African countries have undertaken a number of initiatives: Twenty-five countries in West and Central Africa are participating in the Sustainable Fisheries Livelihood Programme (SFLP), in partnership with the Department for International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom and Northern Ireland and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO). Among others, the SFLP assists governments in drafting policy and action plans that incorporate some of the provisions of the Code of Conduct for Responsible Fisheries (CCRF) and subsequently, integrating them into large-scale programmes like the National Programmes for Poverty Alleviation (Allison, E.H. and Badjeck, M-C, 2004).

Increasingly, African countries are designating nationally protected marine areas and the practice of dynamite fishing has been eliminated from some of these areas (UNEP, 2002). Countries are also regulating beach seines and developing alternative activities to improve the livelihoods of poor fishermen. Projects identified in the NEPAD coastal, marine and freshwater resources programme include those addressing biodiversity and those employing integrated management approaches in these environments. Strengthening management, monitoring, control and surveillance capacity in fisheries management organizations in sub-Saharan Africa is one of the projects proposed (UNEP et al, 2003).

5.4.1 Challenges and constraints

The capacity of most coastal nations to utilize their coastal and marine assets, while simultaneously protecting them from degradation, is lacking. Competition for space is intense around developing cities, where urban sprawl is making inroads into coastal areas. Key issues in the management of the coastal zone and offshore waters include the loss of biodiversity and habitats through human-related pressures, the impacts of which have become increasingly acute within the last 50 years.

Coastal ecosystems, especially estuaries and lagoonal wetlands, are becoming increasingly impacted by activities within river catchments, with deforestation, intensive agriculture, damming and irrigation all changing the nature of material fluxes. Coastal tourism development raises important issues of sustainability. The construction of hotels and transport infrastructure and the pressures of tourist numbers involve habitat loss and physical shoreline change and impact adversely on the living resources, especially those of coral reef ecosystems. At the global level, human-induced atmospheric warming has been contributing to a slow but persistent eustatic sea-level rise and significant climatic changes in the region. In the last decade, episodes of unusually high sea temperatures have caused widespread mortality of reef coral.

The overexploitation of fisheries at artisanal and industrial scales using unsustainable fishing methods, and the introduction of coastal ecosystems of invasive alien, are further concerns. Overexploitation of fisheries has two main drivers- at the artisanal scale, poverty and population growth among coastal communities and, at the industrial scale, commercial incentives and subsidies available to foreign fleets operating under license, or in some cases, illegally in Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZs).

Data collection and the development of inventories remain a challenge. The quality of reported statistics for fisheries, especially for fish catches, numbers of fishers and fishing boats is varied and in some cases unreliable.

The high incidence and increasing sophistication of Illegal, Unregulated and Unreported (IUU) fishing continue to undermine the work of Regional Fisheries Management Organizations (RFMOs). The continuing widespread use of flags of noncompliance and ports of convenience exacerbates the scope and extent of IUU fishing. The criminal aspect of IUU fishing is also coming to the fore as organizations take measures against offending fishing vessels and their owners, and RFMO secretariats sometimes receive threats intended to make them withdraw measures that combat IUU fishing.

5.4.2 Lessons learned and the way forward

The will and capacity of countries to manage their coastal and marine resources in ways that promote human well being, for present and future generations, are important issues. Effective governance at community to global levels is a prerequisite for environmental stewardship, while the development and maintenance of that stewardship depends on a sustained commitment to human and technical capacity building. Capacity building in monitoring and enforcement at community level offers important opportunities. Community-based or participatory monitoring has been very

effective in increasing the manpower available for monitoring and at the same time enhancing environmental awareness and ownership among community members.

Given the transnational issues involved in an ecosystem-wide approach to catchment, coastal and marine resource management, national legislation and management plans should place priority on the coordination of sector interests, with the involvement of all resource users. Policies should reflect the marked increase in environmental degradation over the last 50 years, as well as acknowledge the priorities for taking action.

Although the success of coastal tourism is subject to local security issues as well as global economic pressures, its sustainability depends, above all, on the protection and beneficial management of those assets. The short-term aspirations of developers must be appraised in the longer-term contexts of the sustainability of the amenity that has attracted those developers in the first place and of the implications of climate change. In particular, tourism development should aim to avoid the sidelining and alienation of indigenous communities by involving them in eco-tourism. Oil and natural gas development and mineral extraction have a potential for increasing the general levels of economic security and human well being in the short to medium term, but these resources are finite and there is a need to diversify into sustainable ventures.

Given that initiatives of actors at all levels to address the challenges of the coastal and marine environment commonly have overlapping objectives, there is merit in improved coordination and cooperation. Partnerships are therefore increasingly important in addressing coastal and marine management issues. Additionally, sustained financing is required to achieve maximum benefits to the coastal and marine environment and the economies that depend on them.

5.5 Sustainable forest management

According to the FAO State of World's Forests (2007), in 2005, forest cover in Africa was estimated at 635 million hectares. This accounted for about 16 percent of the global forest area (FAO, 2007a) and 21 percent of Africa's land area. Forests provide multiple goods and services that are vital for poverty reduction and sustainable development in Africa and at global level. Over two-thirds of Africa's 600 million people rely directly or indirectly on forests for their livelihoods including food security (CIFOR, 2005). Fuel wood value represented 35 percent of the total value of wood removals in 2005. The overall contribution of the forest sector to GDP increased from US\$7.3 billion in 1990 to about 7.7 billion in 2000 (FAO, 2007a). A recent estimate puts the worldwide value of rainforests for carbon sequestration at U.S. \$1.1 trillion, with more than U.S.\$ 806 billion of that value in African countries (Conservation International, 2006).

In spite of the importance of forest, forest cover in the region has been declining at one of the fastest rates in the world. Africa and Latin America and the Caribbean are currently the two regions with the highest forest cover losses. At a net annual forest loss of about four million hectares, Africa lost over nine percent of its forests between 1990 and 2005 (FAO, 2007a; FAO 2007b). Africa's forests are under threat across the entire continent from a number of factors. The continent accounted for 64 percent of the global area burned by wild fires in 2000. This accounted for 7.7 percent of the total land area of Africa (FAO, 2007b). Agricultural expansion and high population growth rates are also exerting great pressure on forests. For instance, the population of over 50

million people inhabiting the Congo Basin relies on shifting cultivation to provide their non-protein dietary needs, and approximately 14 percent of the forest has been converted to agriculture. It is therefore feared that if agricultural practices do not intensify and remain largely unchanged, almost all forests in the Congo Basin might be converted to agricultural lands by 2025 (WWF, 2006).

The fact that only a small proportion of the total forest area is legally protected is another factor that contributes to forest loss. Estimates are that closed humid forests comprise only about 13.8 percent of total protected areas in Africa with much of the 26,300,000 hectares of biodiversity-rich tropical evergreen broadleaf forests in Africa remaining unprotected (UNEP et. al., 2003). Evidence is mounting that forests will be profoundly affected by climate change, such as increasing damage to forest health caused by the greater incidence of fire, pests and diseases. At the same time, new investments in forests to mitigate climate change lag behind the optimistic expectations of many, following the entry into force of the Kyoto Protocol in 2005 (FAO, 2007b).

Forest-related JPOI targets include accelerating the implementation of the Intergovernmental Panel on Forests / Intergovernmental Forum on Forests (IPF/IFF) proposals for action by countries and by the Collaborative Partnership on Forests, and intensifying efforts on reporting to the United Nations Forum on Forests (UNFF). With specific reference to Africa, the JPOI calls for actions to provide financial and technical support for afforestation and reforestation in Africa and to build capacity for sustainable forest management, including combating deforestation and measures to improve the policy and legal framework of the forest sector. The NEPAD Environment Initiative includes a programme on forests.

5.5.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

Regional and sub-regional agreements, partnerships and programmes to promote Sustainable Forestry Management (SFM) have been established. For example, with assistance from FAO, the Convergence Plan of the Conference of Ministers in Charge of Forests in Central Africa (COMIFAC) has been developed and approved. The Plan provides a framework for harmonizing forest policies and programmes and serves as a basis for the formulation of national forest programmes.¹⁷ The Congo Basin Forest Partnership (CBFP), an association that brings together some thirty governmental and non-governmental organisations to promote the conservation and responsible management of the Congo Basin's tropical forests, has been set up. The United States of America facilitated the Partnership in 2003 and 2004. France has been facilitating the Partnership since February 2005.¹⁸

A forest programme has been developed as part of the NEPAD Environment Action Plan with support from UNEP and GEF funding. Regional eco-certification schemes on timber production have also been initiated as part of the strategies to promote SFM in the region. Furthermore, the

¹⁷[http://209.85.165.104/search?q=cache:qyx3qEV6lmEJ:ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/009/a0970e/a0970e11.pdf+Convergence+Plan+of+the+Conference+of+Ministers+in+Charge+of+Forests+in+Central+Africa+\(COMIFAC\)&hl=en&ct=clnk&cd=3&gl=us](http://209.85.165.104/search?q=cache:qyx3qEV6lmEJ:ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/009/a0970e/a0970e11.pdf+Convergence+Plan+of+the+Conference+of+Ministers+in+Charge+of+Forests+in+Central+Africa+(COMIFAC)&hl=en&ct=clnk&cd=3&gl=us)

¹⁸ CBFP (2007). Congo Basin Forest Partnership (CBFP). <http://www.cbfp.org/nouveau.htm> Accessed on June 20, 2007

African Timber Organization (ATO) principles, criteria and indicators for the sustainable forest management of African natural tropical forests, developed with the support of the International Tropical Timber Organization (ITTO), provide an important basis for aligning forest management practices in the region.¹⁹

National actions

Countries have undertaken a wide range of measures and actions aimed at mitigating and reversing the trend of forest loss. Substantial effort has been made mostly by North African countries to establish planted forests. Improvements have also been made in Rwanda and Swaziland (FAO, 2007a). With funding from FAO, two thirds of African countries have been supported to develop, and are at different stages of implementing National Forest Programmes (NFPs). The NFPs translate the principles of SFM into domestic action (FAO, 2006).

According to the State of World's Forest (2007), a majority of countries in Africa have adopted new forest policies and forest laws, and efforts are being made in many countries to improve law enforcement (FAO, 2007a). Countries are also making progress in integrating forestry issues into poverty reduction strategies. Namibia, Niger, Tanzania and Uganda are well advanced in this regard (Geller and McConnell, 2006). Integrated forest monitoring systems are also being established.

5.5.2 Challenges and constraints

Among the main challenges faced by the region in achieving sustainable forest management are: high rates of poverty; insufficient financial resources and inadequate institutional capacity to manage forests sustainably; weak information collection and dissemination capacity, which inter alia, prevents forest authorities from building a solid case to capture the attention of decision-makers; inadequate land tenure policies and access rights to forest resources, which constrain investment in sustainable forest management; and civil conflict.

5.5.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Linking NFPs to PRSs and therefore to the annual and medium-term budgeting frameworks improves the chances of forestry receiving additional government funding. However, these links are still weak in many countries. The forest sector should therefore work with national development planning, statistical and other authorities to identify and provide in a timely manner, both the qualitative and quantitative contributions of forestry to poverty alleviation, in order to support enhanced integration of forestry plans into national development plans, including PRSs.

The emergence of regional and subregional initiatives presents opportunities to galvanize actions for sustainable forest management. They have a great potential of addressing cross-boundary issues related to deforestation. These initiatives however need to be linked and coordinated with national development processes, in order to accelerate their implementation and achieve greater impact on deforestation.

¹⁹[http://209.85.165.104/search?q=cache:qyx3qEV6lmEJ:ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/009/a0970e/a0970e11.pdf+Convergence+Plan+of+the+Conference+of+Ministers+in+Charge+of+Forests+in+Central+Africa+\(COMIFAC\)&hl=en&ct=clnk&cd=3&gl=us](http://209.85.165.104/search?q=cache:qyx3qEV6lmEJ:ftp://ftp.fao.org/docrep/fao/009/a0970e/a0970e11.pdf+Convergence+Plan+of+the+Conference+of+Ministers+in+Charge+of+Forests+in+Central+Africa+(COMIFAC)&hl=en&ct=clnk&cd=3&gl=us)

There still remains a gap that needs to be bridged between policies and plans on the one hand, and practice and implementation on the other. Assistance provided for sustainable forest management should increasingly be targeted at integrated interventions at local government levels, the private sector and the local community levels, in order to translate the new forest policies and plans into actions that meet livelihood needs of forest-dependent communities.

Schemes based on payment for forest ecosystem services present opportunities for sustainable forest management in the region. There is however need to develop and execute such schemes with local community livelihood priorities and benefits in sharp focus.

Fires constitute a big threat to the health of forests. Countries need to be supported to strengthen and implement fire management programmes. Countries also need to establish and/or strengthen cooperation and networks for management of trans-border fires.

5.6 Biodiversity

The Africa Environment Outlook (AEO) of 2002 states that Africa has a rich and varied biological resources forming the region's natural wealth on which its social and economic systems are based. The humid tropical forests of equatorial Africa are among the most productive ecosystems in the world. However, even the arid areas of Africa (desert and Sahel regions), harbour many plant and animal species. Six out of the 25 internationally recognized biodiversity hotspots are in Africa. These are: the Mediterranean Basin Forests, the Western Indian Ocean Islands, the Cape Floristic Region (South Africa), the Succulent Karoo (shared between South Africa and Namibia), the Guinean Forest, and the Eastern Arc Mountain Forests (Eastern Africa). According to the AEO of 2006, about 1000 vertebrate species occur in just four of the 119 eco-regions (covering about eight percent of Africa's total area); a quarter (1,229 species) of the world's approximately 4,700 mammal species occur in Africa, including about 960 species in SSA and 137 species in Madagascar; and more than 2000 bird species, constituting more than a fifth of the approximately 10000 bird species in the world. Africa has about 950 amphibian species (UNEP, 2006).

These biodiversity resources underpin the livelihoods of millions of people. Four hundred million Africans, two-thirds of SSA's people, rely on products from its forests. Wild resources and non-timber forest products provide up to 35 percent of rural household incomes in Zimbabwe, and more than 50 percent in Senegal (Malloch, 2004). Kenya earns some US \$ 700 million a year in foreign exchange from tourism based largely on its ecosystems, wildlife and landscapes both terrestrial and marine (Steiner 2007). Returns from wildlife management were US\$350,000 in 2002 for the Sankuyo community in Botswana and US\$154,000 in 2003 for the Nyae Nyae community in Namibia (Roe and Bond, 2007). In hyper-arid Mali, fish makes up 60 percent of the total animal protein consumed annually, and in Central and Western Africa, bushmeat (wild animals and birds) is a major source of animal protein, making up more than 80 percent of consumption in some areas (UNEP, 2006). The maintenance of healthy and productive biodiversity resources is therefore vital in Africa's quest to achieve the MDGs and attain sustainable development.

Unfortunately the biodiversity resources upon which a multitude of livelihoods are intricately linked, is under extreme pressure resulting from: habitat loss and change; overexploitation as a

result of illegal hunting for food, medicinal, or commercial use and national and international trade; and introduction of invasive alien species; and climate change. The ultimate causes of habitat loss in Africa are human population growth and the resulting demand for space, food and other resources; widespread poverty; a dependence on natural resources and economic pressures to increase exports, particularly agricultural produce, timber and mineral products. Lack of recognition of indigenous knowledge and property rights also pose serious threats to biodiversity conservation.

A key JPOI biodiversity target is for countries to achieve a significant reduction in the current rate of loss of biological diversity, by 2010. With specific reference to Africa, the JPOI calls for, among others, the establishment and support of national and cross-border conservation areas to promote ecosystem conservation; respect of local traditions and cultures and promotion of the use of indigenous knowledge in natural resource management and eco-tourism; and support for the conservation of Africa's biological diversity, the sustainable use of its components and the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising out of the utilization of genetic resources, in accordance with commitments that countries have under biodiversity-related agreements to which they are parties. These include the Convention on Biological Diversity and the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora, and regional biodiversity agreements.

Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

In July 2003, AU adopted the African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (ACCNr). This Convention replaces the original one adopted in Algiers in 1968. The Convention commits African countries to development that is based on the achievement of ecologically rational, economically sound, and socially acceptable policies and programmes, which recognize the human right to a satisfactory environment, as well as the right to development. By June 2007, 34 countries had signed, and six had ratified the revised Convention.²⁰ In addition, the NEPAD Environment Initiative has been developed and encompasses programmes on conserving wetlands; preventing, controlling and managing invasive alien species; and cross-border conservation or management of natural resources, including forests and biodiversity.

National actions

African countries have expressed commitment to contribute to global efforts directed at the conservation of biodiversity, the sustainable use of biological resources and the equitable sharing of the benefits arising out of the utilization of genetic resources by ratifying the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD). As of May 2007, 52 (98 percent) of African countries had ratified or acceded to the CBD²¹. With funding from GEF and assistance from UNDP, UNEP and the World Bank, African Countries are translating provisions of the Convention into action through the

²⁰ <http://www.africa-union.org/root/au/Documents/Treaties/List/Revised%20Convention%20on%20Nature%20and%20Natural%20Resources.pdf>

²¹ CBD List of parties. <http://www.cbd.int/convention/parties/list.shtml>

development of National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans (NBSAPs).²² As of May 2007, 37 countries had their NBSAPs posted on the CBD website.²³

In 2005, UNEP assisted Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia, Botswana, Ghana and Zambia to undertake studies on Access to Benefit Sharing (ABS) - part of measures to enable the countries implement the CBD using the Bonn Guidelines. Experiences and challenges faced by these African countries in the course of adapting the Bonn Guidelines to their existing national regimes were brought out.²⁴ Furthermore, African countries have ratified the Cartagena Protocol on Biosafety. The Protocol adopted in 2000, has the objective of contributing to ensuring an adequate level of protection in the field of safe transfer, handling and use of living modified organisms resulting from modern biotechnology. By May 2007, 40 African countries had ratified or acceded to the protocol.²⁵ UNEP, with funding from GEF, has assisted over 40 countries to develop National Biosafety Frameworks comprising biosafety policies, administrative arrangements and regulatory regimes for implementation of the Biosafety Protocol.²⁶

African countries have also subscribed to the Ramsar Convention. By May 2007, 47 African countries were parties to the Convention and had designated 231 Wetlands of International Importance for the conservation of wetland biodiversity.²⁷ As part of international effort to counter species loss, African countries are also parties to the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species (CITES). As of May 2007, 52 African countries (98 percent) were Contracting Parties to the Convention.²⁸ CITES is credited for stemming the slaughter of the African elephant with its ban on international ivory trade in 1989.

Species reintroduction, ex-situ plant propagation, tightening controls on importation of products of animal or plant origin are some additional efforts to counteract the recent rapid loss of species loss. Participation of indigenous peoples in biodiversity conservation is now being assured through increasing efforts to understand indigenous knowledge systems and to promote their continued application.

One of the typical responses to warnings of natural habitat loss has been to increase the number and extent of protected areas. The Africa Environment Outlook (AEO) of 2002 noted that only six African countries (Botswana, Burkina Faso, Namibia, Rwanda, Senegal and Tanzania) had more than the international target of 10 percent of their land under protection. However, during the period 2000 to 2005, African countries designated over 3.5 million hectares of forests to be managed primarily for conservation of biological diversity, raising the total to almost 70 million hectares (FAO, 2007). Progress is being made in creating cross-border conservation areas. Examples include the Greater Limpopo Transfrontier Park initiative between Mozambique and South Africa, the Kgalagadi Agreement establishing a park between South Africa and Botswana, and the Tuli Park between South Africa, Botswana and Zimbabwe. Another example is the cooperative endeavour of

²² <http://www.cbd.int/doc/training/nbsap/train-present-2007-intro-nbsap-en.pdf>

²³ <http://www.cbd.int/nbsap/list.shtml>

²⁴ UNEP official sources, 2007.

²⁵ <http://www.biodiv.org/biosafety/signinglist.aspx?sts=rtf&ord=dt#ga>

²⁶ UNEP official Sources, 2007.

²⁷ Ramsar website. <http://www.ramsar.org/>. 25 May 2007

²⁸ CITES List of Contracting Parties. <http://www.cites.org/eng/disc/parties/alphabet.shtml> Accessed on MAY 15, 2007

Benin, Burkina Faso and Niger, supported by partners such as France, to protect the extensive transboundary complex of the Pendjari and Arly national parks (UNEP, 2006).

5.6.1 Challenges and constraints

Among the challenges experienced by countries in the region in the conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity and the equitable sharing of the benefits arising out of the utilization of genetic resources are: limited technical and financial capacity; gaps in information and knowledge ; weak institutional frameworks; limited national capacities for sustainable land-use planning and law enforcement; difficulty in convincing different sectors to induce multi-stakeholder interventions; lack of mainstreaming of NBSAPs into decision-making and resource allocation frameworks of governments; inadequate coordination among the actors; and political instability and war in some countries. Other challenges are inadequate access to affordable appropriate technology and difficulty in ensuring that economic benefits arising from the use of genetic resources do accrue to African countries and local communities remains a challenge.

5.6.2 Lessons learned and the way forward

More holistic solutions involving other sectors in biodiversity conservation are needed. Furthermore, adopting collaborative approaches at multiple levels can be important for achieving biodiversity conservation objectives. Therefore, in order to scale up implementation of national and local actions to conserve biodiversity, there is need to effectively integrate biodiversity strategies and action plans into national development plans, including poverty reduction strategies, and into sectoral, local and private investment plans.

There is need to put in place appropriate incentives to encourage all stakeholders to become involved with conservation. For instance, direct economic incentives include provision of tax breaks for communities or businesses involved in biodiversity conservation. Additionally, secure land and resource tenure can stimulate investment in biodiversity conservation. Furthermore, regional and subregional programmes and networks should be established and/ or implemented to facilitate information sharing and collaboration, in order to scale up conservation activities and address cross-border biodiversity issues.

Quantitative valuation of biodiversity resources, linking its contribution to poverty reduction and economic growth, should be carried out to provide a compelling body of biodiversity information essential to support, urgent decision-making. This should include mainstreaming into development frameworks and funding allocations that are necessary to slow and reverse the region's increasing loss of biodiversity.

Local communities and indigenous populations suffer disproportionately from loss of biodiversity and ecosystem services as a consequence of being the most directly dependent groups on biodiversity resources and services. It is therefore essential to ensure the effective participation of civil society, local communities and indigenous peoples in national and regional processes on biodiversity conservation, so that they are afforded the opportunity to influence decisions that impact on their livelihoods.

The complementarities among the Rio Conventions call for a synergistic approach in their implementation. Coordination should be ensured and synergy established between NBSAPs and National Forest Programmes (NFPs), NAPAs for Climate Change and NAPs for drought and desertification. In this regard, African countries should develop and/or strengthen national frameworks to promote coordination and joint actions in their implementation.

The NBSAPs and other strategies for biodiversity conservation should be reviewed and updated to include national targets for 2010, and support provided to accelerate their implementation.

5.7 Climate Change

Climate change, as a result of rising concentrations of anthropogenically-produced green house gases in the atmosphere, is one of the most serious threats to sustainable development. Although Africa is contributing a small share of carbon dioxide emissions - projected to reach only about 3.8 percent of the global pool by 2010²⁹, the region is extremely vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. This vulnerability is due to widespread poverty, poor infrastructure, high illiteracy rates, overexploitation of natural resources and conflicts, and the fact that a large share of economies depends on climate-sensitive sectors mainly rain-fed agriculture.

According to the Report of the 4th International Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Assessment released in 2007, by 2020, between 75 and 250 million people are projected to be exposed to an increase of water stress due to climate change in Africa. If coupled with increased demand, this will adversely affect livelihoods and exacerbate water-related problems. The report further states that more agricultural production, including access to food, in many African countries and regions is to be severely compromised by climate variability and change.

The area suitable for agriculture, the length of growing seasons and yield potential, particularly along the margins of semi-arid and arid areas, are expected to decrease. This would further adversely affect food security and exacerbate malnutrition in the continent. In some countries, yields from rain-fed agriculture could be reduced by up to 50 percent by 2020. Local food supplies are projected to be negatively affected by decreasing fisheries resources in large lakes due to rising water temperatures, which may be exacerbated by continued over-fishing.

The report also states that towards the end of the 21st century, projected sea-level rise will affect low-lying coastal areas with large populations. The cost of adaptation could amount to at least 5-10 percent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Mangroves and coral reefs are projected to be further degraded, with additional consequences for fisheries and tourism. Already, variations in rainfall patterns have led to incidences of drought and flooding, often with disastrous consequences for populations and for the environment (UNEP, 2002).

In order for Africa to mitigate and adapt to impacts of climate change and achieve sustainable development, the JPOI in its Africa chapter, calls for actions to assist African countries in mobilizing adequate resources for their adaptation needs relating to the adverse effects of climate change, extreme weather events, sea level rise and climate variability, and to assist in developing

²⁹ Balgis Osman-Elasha. Africa's Vulnerability to Climate Change and Opportunities for Adaptation. In Tiempo Climate Newswatch. <http://www.tiempocyberclimate.org/newswatch/feature070302.htm> Accessed on June 15, 2007.

national climate change strategies and mitigation programmes, and continue to take actions to mitigate the adverse effects of climate change in Africa, consistent with the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). Additionally, NEPAD places emphasis on monitoring the impacts and effectively addressing the threats of climate change.

Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

A programme on climate change has been developed as part of the NEPAD Environment Initiative. This climate change programme aims at supporting African countries to meet their commitments and priorities associated with the implementation of the UNFCCC and its Kyoto Protocol (UNEP et al., 2003). Capacity building for monitoring, prediction and timely early warning in the region is being supported by the WMO-funded Drought Monitoring Centre (DMC) located in Nairobi, Kenya and sub-centres in Niamey, Niger and Harare, Zimbabwe (UNEP, 2005).

National actions

African countries have ratified and are implementing the UNFCCC, which promotes stabilization of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere, at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic interference with the climate system. As of June 2007, out of 53 African countries, 52 (98 percent) had ratified or acceded to the UNFCCC.³⁰ These countries are at various stages in identifying possible climate change impacts and adaptation strategies by preparing and submitting National Communications to the UNFCCC.

With support provided mainly through UNEP, several African countries have completed their first communication and have begun their second. Through the Least Developed Countries (LDC) Fund, African countries are also at different stages of preparing their National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs), which identify priority activities that respond to their urgent and immediate needs. By June 2007, 10 African countries (Comoros, Djibouti, Eritrea, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritania, Niger, Rwanda and Senegal) had completed and submitted their NAPAs.³¹

African countries are also engaged in the implementation of the Kyoto Protocol that commits industrialized (Annex 1) countries to reduce emissions of six greenhouse gases (excluding ozone and water vapour) by an average of about five percent below 1990 levels between 2008-2012. As of June 2007, 46 African countries (87 percent) had ratified or acceded to the Protocol³², which came into force on the 16 of February 2005.

Within the framework of the Protocol, the World Bank Special Effort for Africa Programme has provided support in the development of eight community development carbon fund projects in Kenya, Ethiopia, Tanzania and Uganda (UNEP, 2005). With support from UNEP, another 21

³⁰ List of Non-annex I parties. http://unfccc.int/parties_and_observers/parties/non_annex_i/items/2833.php. Accessed June 27, 2007.

³¹ National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs). <http://unfccc.int/adaptation/napas/items/2679.php> Accessed June 27, 2007.

³² Parties to the Kyoto Protocol. <http://maindb.unfccc.int/public/country.pl?group=kyoto> Accessed June 27, 2007.

projects from various countries have been developed and submitted for approval.³³ These projects are to be funded within the framework of the Clean Development Mechanism (CDM), which aims to enable Annex I Parties to meet their emission reduction commitments under the Protocol, while facilitating sustainable development in Non-Annex I Parties.

Countries are developing and deploying new, innovative and other technologies and methods to deal with challenges brought about by climate variability and changing climate. These include the use of drought resistant crops, crop diversification, improved farming technologies, water conservation and harvesting technologies, use of efficient non-polluting energy sources and mosquito nets for malaria control (UNEP, 2005).

5.7.1 Challenges and constraints

The challenges faced by African countries in mitigating and adapting to climate change impact include: inadequate technical and institutional competence, particularly absence of, or non-operational Designated National Authorities (DNAs) in some countries; inadequate financial resources for country level activities; low awareness; poor competitiveness of African CDM projects due to high transaction costs; complex and stringent approval processes for the CDM projects; and low levels of research and scientific capacity on vulnerability, impact, mitigation, adaptation assessment and evaluation. The other challenge faced by the region is its low access to clean and efficient technology. Furthermore, lack of observational climate data in Africa impedes understanding of current and future climate variability and change.

5.7.2 Lessons learned and the way forward

Sustainable development can reduce vulnerability to climate change by enhancing adaptive capacity and increasing resilience. Furthermore, climate change needs to be tackled in an integrated manner. At present, however, few plans for promoting sustainability have explicitly included either adapting to climate change impacts, or promoting adaptive capacity (IPCC, 2007). African countries therefore need support in enhancing and promoting policy coherence and the integration of climate change mitigation and adaptation concerns into priority development policies and programmes, including poverty reduction strategies.

Africa has a low capacity to mitigate and adapt to the impacts of climate change. There is need therefore, to provide funding and other assistance to improve technical and institutional capacity and skills to support the development, and accelerate implementation of NAPAs.

Deforestation remains a major threat to forest cover, which has been recognized as an important aspect in climate change mitigation. Incentives for limiting deforestation need to be promoted. Avoiding deforestation should be encompassed in global and regional climate regimes.

Working with civil society and community-based organizations to strengthen the social, economic and technical resilience of vulnerable local communities not only promotes adaptation to climate change, but also sustainable development. The region needs to continue strengthening capacity and

³³ Official Sources. UNEP 2007.

implement tangible programmes to address adaptation at local levels, where vulnerabilities are most pronounced.

5.8 Drought and desertification

Drought and desertification are at the core of serious challenges and threats facing sustainable development in Africa. Two thirds of Africa is classified as deserts or drylands. These are concentrated in the Sahelian region, the Horn of Africa and the Kalahari in the south. It is estimated that two-thirds of African land is already degraded to some degree and land degradation affects at least 485 million people or 65 percent of the entire African population. Estimates from individual countries report increasing areas affected by or prone to desertification. In Ghana, desertification is said to be creeping in at an estimated 20,000 hectares per year. Seventy percent of Ethiopia is reported to be prone to desertification, while in Kenya, around 80 percent of the land surface is threatened by desertification. Nigeria is reported to be losing 1,355 square miles of rangeland and cropland to desertification each year. Drought is one of the most important climate-related disasters affecting many countries of Africa, which have already witnessed a high frequency of occurrence and severity of drought. Climate change is set to exacerbate trends of climate-related disasters, including drought. Current climate scenarios predict that the driest regions of the world will become even drier, signalling a risk of persistence of drought in many parts of Africa, which has a large area of drylands.

Drought and desertification have far reaching adverse impacts on human health, food security, economic activity, physical infrastructure, natural resources and the environment, and national and global security. The consequences are mostly borne by the poorest people and the Small Island Developing States (SIDS). With two-thirds of arable land expected to be lost in Africa by 2025, land degradation currently leads to the loss of an average of more than three percent annually of agriculture GDP in the SSA region. If land degradation continues at the current pace, it is projected that more than a half of cultivated agricultural area in Africa could be unusable by the year 2050 and the region may be able to feed just 25 percent of its population by 2025. Drought and floods on the hand account for 80 percent of loss of life and 70 percent of economic losses linked to natural hazards in SSA. The drought of 2002–2003 resulted in a food deficit of 3.3 million tonnes, with an estimated 14.4 million people in need of assistance in the subregion.

WSSD identified combating desertification and mitigating the impacts of drought among the priority actions needed to enable developing countries achieve their poverty reduction goals and targets. The Summit called for among other things, the provision of financial and technical support for Africa's efforts to implement the United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (UNCCD) at the national level and integrate indigenous knowledge systems into land and natural resources management practices, as appropriate. It also called for improving extension services to rural communities and promoting better land and watershed management practices, including through improved agricultural practices that address land degradation, in order to develop capacity for the implementation of national programmes. The NEPAD Environment Initiative includes interventions to rehabilitate degraded land and to address the factors that led to such degradation.

5.8.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

Strategies and programmes to address drought and desertification have been developed at subregional and regional level. Four Subregional Action Programmes (SRAPs) on desertification have been developed under the auspices of African subregional institutions namely: the Permanent Inter-State Committee on Drought Control in the Sahel (CILSS) and the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) for West Africa and the Chad subregion; Arab Maghreb Union (AMU) for AMU subregion; Southern African Development Community (SADC) for Southern Africa subregion; and the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD) for Eastern Africa subregion. The SRAP for the Central Africa region is being prepared under the auspices of the Central African Forest Commission (COMIFAC).

Under the auspices of the Regional Coordination Unit (RCU) hosted by the AfDB, a Regional Action Programme (RAP) has been finalized. The NEPAD Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP) and Environment Initiative have been developed. These two comprise pillars and programmes that are pertinent to drought impact mitigation and the control of land degradation and desertification. Other programmes with a bearing on drought and desertification include the ECA-AU-AfDB Initiative on Land policy in Africa; and the Green Wall for the Sahara programme. Centers charged with timely monitoring of drought and issuing early warnings have been established. These include the IGAD Climate Prediction and Applications Centre (ICPAC) in Nairobi and the SADC drought-monitoring centre in Harare. Furthermore, the Africa Regional Strategy and Programme of Action for Disaster Risk Reduction has been developed.

National actions

African countries have responded by signing the UNCCD. All African countries are parties to the Convention and are carrying out various activities to fulfil their obligations under the Convention. With the support of development partners, African countries are developing and implementing their National Action Programmes to combat desertification (NAPs). As of April 2007, NAPs had been developed and adopted by 42 African Countries. The majority of the remaining countries have launched NAP processes. The NAP processes have contributed significantly to the strengthening of capacity of various stakeholders to deal with drought and desertification. These processes have also triggered and resulted into institutional reforms such as the establishment of National Coordinating Bodies (NCBs) on desertification control.

Though generally at its infancy, implementation of NAPs has commenced in some countries. Countries such as Burundi, Kenya, Tunisia, Burkina Faso and Uganda have integrated NAPs into National Development Plans, especially the Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRSs). Countries have also put in place, and are implementing other policies, strategies and programmes, which contribute to desertification control and drought impact mitigation. These include programmes on preventing land degradation and /or restoring degraded lands, integrated water resources management, and promotion of efficient energy use and renewable sources of energy. Activities are also underway to set up and implement systems for monitoring drought and land degradation, early warning and

disaster management. For instance, more than 30 countries have platforms for Disaster Risk Reduction (DRR) that cover drought.

International community support

Financial and technical support provided through bilateral and multilateral agencies has been instrumental in the development and implementation of the above programmes. The Global Environment Facility (GEF) has provided support to countries through its Operational Programme on Sustainable Land Management (SLM). This includes support for the NAP processes and for pilot projects to combat land degradation in the region. Furthermore, in June 2007, GEF approved US \$150 million funding for the Strategic Investment Programme (SIP) for Sustainable Land Management for SSA. The programme aims to restore soil fertility, helping boost food security, increase farm incomes, maintain ecosystem services, and engage local communities to better manage their lands in 28 countries in SSA. The UNCCD Global Mechanism (GM) has also been instrumental in mobilizing support for UNCCD implementation in the region. African countries in partnership with development agencies have initiated and developed TerrAfrica as a special catalytic partnership effort to scale up harmonized support for effective and efficient country-driven SLM practices in SSA.

5.8.2 Challenges and constraints

The region is confronted with many challenges and constraints that have hampered progress in the development and implementation of measures to combat desertification and to mitigate the impacts of drought. The main ones include the following: poor coordination and collaboration among actors; insufficient political will; lack of in-depth understanding and appreciation of drought and desertification issues, especially their links with and benefits to poverty reduction; weak institutional capacity including poor arrangements, lack of legislative backing and inadequate human resources, which constrain effectiveness of organs such as NCBs; inadequate policies and poor enforcement of legislation to guarantee clear legal ownership and access rights to land, water and other natural resources; and lack of financial resources, which is a systemic, and one of the most pressing constraints to most countries and regional programmes on the implementation of desertification control plans. Other constraints include inadequacy and poor accessibility of information on drought and desertification, and political instability and conflicts faced by some countries in the region.

5.8.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

National Development Plans are important platforms for securing attention and resources for implementing interventions to address impacts of drought and combat desertification. There is therefore need to integrate systematically, priorities identified in the NAPs and other SLM processes into NDPs, including National Strategies for Sustainable Development (NSSDs) and PRSs. This will serve as one of the means to mobilize resources for NAP implementation and to foster medium and long-term political commitment for drought mitigation and desertification control programmes.

There is an urgent need to up-scale the implementation of NAPs and other SLM plans with a special focus on concrete, on the ground community programmes and activities that have an objective of achieving measurable results on SLM and poverty reduction. This requires actions to establish accessible and innovative mechanisms for channelling increased levels of support, particularly financing to farmers and other frontline natural resources managers; and to mobilise and empower local authorities, civil society, private sector and local communities through increased capacity building that is linked to tangible results on poverty reduction, and integrative natural resources management.

Information for education, policy advocacy and planning, as well as monitoring of trends and impact of interventions on drought and desertification are central to the success of efforts in combating drought and desertification. Measures therefore need to be taken to strengthen the information base on drought and desertification and to enhance knowledge application, including through identification, documentation, dissemination, and sharing of best practices through programmes carried out at the regional, subregional and national levels.

There is need to establish and promote incentives for and address barriers to agricultural development and sustainable land and other natural resources management by among others: providing dryland areas with increased access to appropriate and affordable agricultural technologies such as drought resistant crop varieties, affordable credit facilities and links to markets; developing economic and social infrastructure such as roads, and energy and water supply infrastructure, in order to facilitate local people in the affected areas to manage their own development; and carrying out reform and/or effective enforcement of land and other natural resources regulatory frameworks to promote secure tenure and/ or access rights to land, water and other natural resources.

The management of, and adaptation to drought and desertification impacts, especially in view of the expected climate change and the high vulnerability of the region to climate change impacts needs to be strengthened. This requires actions to strengthen the following: capacity for systematic climate observations by specialized centers; timely climate information outreach and application; early warning systems and drought risk management institutions; knowledge networking platforms and tools such as subregional and regional forums; and the use of information communications technologies based on a mixture of traditional and modern technology.

5.9 Natural Disaster risk reduction

Disasters related to meteorological, hydrological and climate extremes are increasing across the region, exacerbated by unplanned and unregulated land use, lack of environmental controls, poor enforcement of building standards, urbanization, and other factors that increase the vulnerability of people, property, and infrastructure. Hydro-meteorological events cause the majority of loss of life and economic losses in SSA. These include floods, droughts, tropical cyclones and strong winds, storm surges, extreme temperatures, forest fires, sand or dust storms, and landslides. Africa has the highest mortality-related vulnerability coefficients for droughts and very high coefficients for cyclones and volcanoes. Since the early 1980s, drought has been a perennial feature in most parts of the region. Floods are among the most devastating natural hazards in Africa and flash floods are one of the greatest hazards arising from tropical cyclones and severe storms. Drought and floods

account for 80 percent of loss of life and 70 percent of economic losses linked to natural hazards in SSA. Epidemics and famine, the next most significant cause of loss of life in SSA, are strongly linked to meteorological and hydrological conditions. The ongoing climate change process will result in increased intensity, frequency and variability in the patterns of those hazards (ISDR and World Bank, 2007b).

North African countries are also subject to a range of natural hazards, but these natural hazards are not evenly distributed. In particular, in some cases major population centers along coasts, including Algiers, Alexandria and Tunis, are at significant risk. Floods may be the most frequent event across the region, but the most damaging in human and economic terms are earthquakes. Algiers is exposed to significant earthquake hazard. The trends in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) both in terms of natural hazards and also of population, social and environmental dynamics are more hazards and more risks; more people vulnerable and more assets threatened (Buckle, P., 2007).

The JPOI states that an integrated, multi-hazard, inclusive approach to address vulnerability, risk assessment and disaster management, including prevention, mitigation, preparedness, response and recovery, is an essential element of a safer world in the 21st century. Further, in its Africa Chapter, the Plan enjoins States to deal effectively with natural disasters, including their humanitarian and environmental impacts. Issues of conflicts have already been discussed in the different sections of the chapter on sustainable development governance in Africa. This section is therefore limited to disaster risk reduction.

The Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA), 2005-2015, adopted by 168 countries in Kobe in January 2005, provides a framework for all stakeholders to contribute to the reduction of risk of disasters at the international, regional and national levels. The World Bank and the United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (ISDR) joint publication on the status of disaster risk reduction in the sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) region (2007), is the principal information source of this section. Information on North African countries is extracted from the Provisional Report of the Preliminary Regional Stocktaking of Natural Hazard Risk and Disaster Management Capacity for MENA.

5.9.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

In response to growing risks, notable efforts have been made at the regional, sub-regional, and national levels to reduce vulnerability. At the regional level, the AU Commission, together with the NEPAD Secretariat, has developed the African Regional Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction and a Programme of Action for the Implementation of the Africa Strategy (2005-2010). Implementation of the Strategy rests at the subregional and national levels. The First African Ministerial Conference on DRR adopted the Programme of Action in 2005. In 2006, AMCEN mainstreamed the Africa DRR strategy into its five-year programme. At the subregional level, IGAD has developed a subregional strategy for disaster reduction. ECOWAS in early 2007 approved a subregional Common Policy and mechanisms for DRR. SADC has revised its subregional strategy, factoring in

DRR, and ECCAS has established a subregional center for DRR in the Republic of the Congo and is developing a subregional strategy.

National actions in SSA

Several SSA countries have reinvigorated efforts to address growing disaster risks in a proactive way, including the development of strategies and mechanisms to reduce the potential impacts of disasters before the event occurs. In Cameroon, Ethiopia, and Lesotho, for example, policies, legislation, plans, and agencies for disaster management have advanced considerably. PRSPs for countries such as Gabon, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, and Niger have incorporated aspects of natural disaster risk management as part of a national poverty reduction strategy. In support of these efforts to integrate risk reduction strategies into development strategies for good governance, sustainable economic growth, and poverty reduction, ISDR and the World Bank have developed a number of initiatives in the region.

Under the new Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and Recovery (GFDRR), regional disaster risk reduction initiatives in partnership with SSA countries are being promoted to develop proactive and strategic approaches to managing hazard risks. In this context, an analysis of the state of disaster risk management in the region was carried out to identify priorities and propose a strategic approach on how to better support countries in their efforts to protect their investments in poverty reduction and to promote sustainable development. A total of 33 countries participated in the survey, providing country reports on the state of disaster risk reduction. These countries are Botswana, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Union of Comoros, Democratic Republic of Congo, Republic of Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, The Gambia, Guinea Bissau, Kenya, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

The findings revealed that the region has made significant progress in DRR and a number of policies, institutions, and organizations have been set up to mainstream DRR. National Disaster Management Organizations have been established, legislation is in place, a number of policy statements have been articulated both in disaster and non-disaster periods, and political commitment towards DRR has been gradually increasing. There is also growing recognition of the region's needs to improve and enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of disaster management and risk reduction.

National actions in MENA countries

Arrangements within most MENA countries exist for emergency management and are organized and coordinated at a national level, either through a specially constituted agency or through the office of the Prime Minister or President. These are typical arrangements for dealing with response activities. These constitute actions directed at containing and controlling the hazard event, immediate protection of life and critical property and with the short-term aftermath of humanitarian aid, debris removal and maintaining public safety. As such, these arrangements do not deal with DRR as a holistic approach to managing natural hazards, disasters and development. Hence the conclusion that DRR in the region is under-developed and is not supported either by a robust

institutional base or by effective and contemporary practice in risk assessment, mitigation and linkage with development activity. However, capacity exists to build on to achieve a holistic approach: Within the region, initial legislative frameworks exist in most countries; there is political will and commitment to link hazards, DRR and long term mitigation and remediation activities through better development policy and practice; and a number of agencies beyond the emergency services are already involved at the periphery of the national DRR process.

In the period since 1980 the World Bank has been involved in more than 40 disaster-related projects in the MENA region. Globally the World Bank has contributed more than \$40 billion towards post disaster recovery projects. This involvement demonstrates not only the Bank's commitment and the commitment of the international community, but also the willingness of MENA (and other) governments to collaborate in disaster management and DRR projects. UNDP is another major partner across MENA and its country reports show that across the region there is a commitment to long term effectiveness in disaster management and to DRR, although the capability has yet to be developed.

5.9.2 Challenges and constraints

The major constraint facing the region is translating gains made into sustainable programmes and investments that tangibly reduce long-term vulnerabilities in the region. This is due to a variety of factors, one of which is inadequate capacity to mainstream DRR at the national and community levels. In some countries, lack of knowledge, skills, competencies, personnel and information at various levels to implement, monitor, and coordinate DRR programmes and projects were identified as hurdles to progress.

Most disaster management institutions also face financing gaps, which impact the extent to which DRR initiatives are actualized. Financing of disaster management projects is a shared responsibility; however, norms for allocating budgets for risk mitigation as part of ongoing development planning, have not been established in many countries.

Other findings, which confirm some of the challenges highlighted in the Africa Regional Strategy for DRR: (i) the lack of effective institutionalization of disaster risk reduction in Africa; (ii) inadequate information management and communication, training and research for disaster risk reduction; (iii) inadequate involvement of citizens in DRR; (iv) limited risk identification and assessment across the region; and (v) weak integration of disaster risk reduction in national development plans.

Countries also identified other major challenges such as reorienting towards DRR from emergency management, weak governance of DRR mechanisms, and weak knowledge and information base for DRR decision-making.

Challenges and constraints in the MENA region include a significant lack of documentation and understanding of the economic cost of disasters in MENA and inadequate institutional base and effective and contemporary practice in risk assessment, mitigation, as well as linkage with development activity

5.9.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Improvement in the identification, assessment, and awareness of disaster risks: There is a need to strengthen knowledge on the variety, geographical coverage, type and extent of disaster risks across the region.

Capacity development and coordination: The lack of technically oriented human resources at national levels has hampered the effective implementation of policies and projects. Cross-sectoral training for all professionals involved in disaster management is vital to the success of the regional strategy, as well as for the implementation of national policies. In addition, there is a need for reflection on coordination between DRR institutions in the region.

Enhancement of knowledge management for DRR: The transformation of disaster management practices towards a DRR approach will occur when knowledge of disaster risks and reduction options is disseminated effectively to all partners. It is therefore necessary for the strengthening of national and regional mechanisms and forums for knowledge transfer.

Increase in public awareness of DRR: Increasing public awareness of disaster risks and reduction options is pivotal to the empowerment of people to protect their livelihoods against disaster risks. Risk reduction information needs to be provided regularly through all means of communications interaction between risk reduction authorities and the public at all levels.

Improvement in Governance of DRR Institutions: Disaster management institutions need to be strengthened, if DRR is to be integrated into development. This requires that the governance of these institutions be improved and that they develop the requisite capacity with adequate and secure resources.

Integration of DRR into emergency response management: DRR needs to be integrated into emergency response and post-disaster rehabilitation and reconstruction activities in the region. A long history of disasters in the region has shown that timely and comprehensive recovery comprising relief, rehabilitation, and reconstruction interventions, can reduce vulnerability and promote development if local coping capacities contribute to sustainable recovery.

Increased financial support for DRR initiatives: Regular development support must factor in disaster reduction to achieve sustainable outcomes in a region that faces current climate shocks, and pervasive social and economic vulnerability.

Mainstreaming DRR into development planning: With many development projects underway in the region, there is a need to proactively factor in disaster risk. There is a need for increased political support to build more holistic assessments of disaster impact into development planning.

Recommendations of the MENA Regional Workshop on DRR and Natural Hazard Risk Management, which was held in Cairo, Egypt from 18-21 April 2007, are similar to those proffered above.

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6. Means of implementation

The JPOI states that the implementation of Agenda 21 and the achievement of the internationally agreed development goals, including those contained in the Millennium Declaration, as well as the Plan require a substantially increased effort, both by countries themselves and by the rest of the international community, based on the recognition that each country has primary responsibility for its own development and that the role of national policies and development strategies cannot be overemphasized, taking fully into account the Rio principles, including in particular, the principle of common but differentiated responsibilities.

While recognizing that NEPAD is an African owned development vision that requires the mobilization of resources from within, African leaders are mindful of the fact that the effective implementation of NEPAD requires massive heavy investments to bridge existing gaps. In this context, African leaders called on the international community to support Africa's efforts in the spirit of the new partnership espoused in the development vision. Subsequently, the international community at WSSD, pledged its support to the implementation of NEPAD, including through utilization of the benefits of South-South cooperation supported, *inter alia*, by the Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD). It also pledged support for other existing development frameworks that are owned and driven nationally by African countries and that embody poverty reduction strategies.

6.1 Domestic resources

Domestic financing of Africa's development results from sustainable high growth rates of the economies, high investment rates resulting from high savings rate and current account surpluses of the balance of payments accounts. Ideally, African countries would prefer to use domestic resources to finance development because it is less volatile than most external capital flows and does not increase their vulnerability to external shocks. In addition, unlike Official Development Assistance (ODA), domestic resources are not subject to conditionalities that limit the policy choices and instruments available to governments. Unfortunately, domestic resources are insufficient to address Africa's development problems (Hammouda, et al, 2006).

It has been indicated that the lack of high and sustained economic growth in Africa is a major explanatory factor for the region's inability to make significant progress in the fight against poverty (Hammouda, et. al, 2006). NEPAD subscribes to all the MDGs and calls for achieving and sustaining an average gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate of over seven percent per annum for the next 15 years. However, NEPAD recognizes that while growth rates are important, they are not by themselves sufficient to enable African countries to achieve the goal of poverty reduction. The challenge for Africa, therefore, is to develop the capacity to sustain growth at levels required to achieve poverty reduction and sustainable development, supported by bridging existing gaps in priority sectors, in order to enable the continent to catch up with developed parts of the world.

6.1.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

African countries have taken several strategies to address their growth and development concerns. At the onset of Africa's de-colonization in the 1960s, and up to the 1970s, many countries adopted

national development plans with the State serving as the engine of growth. The poor economic performance of the mid 1970s and 1980s led to the adoption of Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) by most African countries, with support from the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF). While to a certain extent, the SAPs helped countries in achieving macroeconomic stability, they caused many social problems, which deepened poverty by the end of the 1990s. In order to reduce poverty, enhance gains made in regard to macroeconomic stability and promote the establishment of viable public expenditure systems, the Bank and Fund introduced the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs). Furthermore, in their quest to attain the MDGs, many African countries have now adopted MDG-based Poverty Reduction Strategies as their national development planning frameworks. A remaining challenge is to integrate NEPAD priorities into national development plans, including MDG-based PRSs.

Notwithstanding, there has been a lack of consistency in economic growth for most African countries for the past four decades. The 1960s and early 1970s represented an important period of improved growth for African countries. Between 1974-1979, there was a slight positive average annual per capita growth rate. However, from 1980-1993, there was a negative average annual per capita growth rate. Economic recovery began in 1994 and was sustained in 1996 during which year growth was more widespread (ADB, 1997). Africa's growth of 3.3 percent in 1998, compared with 2.9 percent growth in 1997 was the highest in the world (ECA, 1999). It is encouraging to note that African countries have continued to achieve and sustain positive real growth rates for their economies since 2000. Africa's GDP growth rate increased from 3.5 percent in 2000 to 4.3 percent in 2001 (ECA, 2002). While there was a slight dip in the growth rate of 3.2 percent in 2002, the average growth rate has continued to increase since then (ECA, 2003). Growth rates have been sustained at 4.3 percent in 2003, 5.2 percent in 2004, 5.3 percent in 2005 and 5.7 percent in 2006 (ECA, 2004-6).

Other macroeconomic aggregates have also improved since 2000. Consumer prices inflation fell from an average of 29.1 percent from 1988-97 to 8.5 percent in 2005 (Hammouda, et al, 2006). Despite the Balance of Payments deterioration during the SAP periods of the 1980s and 1990s, the situation has improved since the late 1990s. The region has moved from a current account deficit of 8.1 percent (of exports of goods and services) over the 1988-97 to a surplus of 5.9 percent on 2000. These achievements have been attributed to positive changes in the region such as: improvements in economic policies, reduction in conflicts, better governance, more open trade and investment policies and improvements in commodity prices.

Africa's growth performance in 2006, as in previous years was underpinned by improvements in macroeconomic management in many countries and by strong global demand for key African export commodities, resulting in high export prices, especially for crude oil, metals and minerals. Improved economic management and increases in non-oil commodity prices have more than offset the negative impact of high oil prices on the real GDP growth of African oil importers (ECA, 2007). While on average, the growth rate of Africa has been remarkable since 2000; this growth rate is not enough for most countries where real growth rates have remained low relative to their development goals. With only four countries recording an average real GDP growth rate of seven percent or more during 1998-2006, few African countries are positioned to achieve the MDGs (ECA, 2007).

Saving rates have traditionally been low- below 20 percent of GDP. Between 2000-2004, the savings rate was 17.5 percent compared to 35.6 percent for Asia (Hammouda, et, al. 2006). The low level of savings partly accounts for the low level of investment in Africa. In 2000, UNCTAD estimated that the investment rate in SSA had to increase to 22-25 percent from the 20 percent of GDP in the 1990s to reach a sustainable growth rate of six percent (UNCTAD, 2000). Very few countries have achieved these investment rates. Of 46 countries with adequate data, only nine achieved investment rates of at least 25 percent of GDP during 2000-2003 (World Bank, 2005a).

Another area that needs attention to ensure growth is the private sector (domestic and foreign). The private sector has been recognized as the engine of growth and job creation in Africa. The informal private sector enterprises, including the farmers form the largest sector of African economies and should be recognized as important contributors.

6.1.2 Challenges and constraints

It is clear from the literature that the nature and character of growth is important in impacting positively on poverty (ECA, 2006a). Growth in Africa has not been accompanied by major job creation, raising serious concerns about the continent's ability to reduce poverty. In most African countries, employment creation is not integrated into macroeconomic policy frameworks. For instance, economic activity has shifted away from agriculture to capital-intensive sectors, such as mining and oil production (ECA, 2006b). Therefore, despite the improved growth performance since 2000, Africa still faces the task of addressing poverty. Unlike the other developing regions of the world where poverty has been on the decline, the proportion of people living below the poverty line in Africa increased from 44.1 percent in 1990 to 45.7 percent in 2003. The challenge to a vibrant private sector in Africa is how to create an enabling environment for private sector development.

6.1.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

For growth to have a significant positive impact on poverty, it must be pro-poor in the sense that a higher percentage of the benefits must accrue to the poorest segment of society. The broad policy measures needed for sustained growth include political stability, good governance, macroeconomic stability and good investment climate (Hammouda, et. al., 2006). Africa's agriculture sector, which employs some 70 percent of the work force and generates on average 30 percent of Africa's GDP should be mainstreamed into growth policies. Significant real job creation and poverty reduction can be achieved with agricultural transformation. There is the need for African countries to operationalize the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP), as a framework for restoring agriculture growth, food security and rural development.

There is the need to have higher savings and investment rates in order to achieve growth rates that can make an impact on poverty. There is the need to boost savings rate in Africa through prudent fiscal and monetary policies by improving access of the people to the banking system and boosting the ability of governments to mobilize domestic resources by reviewing the tax collection system (Hammouda, et. al. 2006).

The way forward to creating a vibrant private sector is through short and long term capital (including micro-credit), infrastructure and a stable macroeconomic and political environment. There is need for collaboration between Governments, private sector groups and international financial institutions. In addition, Governments should establish business rules and regulations that provide a level playing field for domestic and foreign businesses. African governments should ensure that private sector enterprises, including multinational corporations, demonstrate corporate social responsibility by integrating social and environmental considerations into their business practices and operations (UN, 2006).

While Government has the responsibility to improve the policy environment, the private sector needs to adopt a more proactive role to overcome constraints. The private sector needs to focus on diversification, particularly into higher value added products, by improving on their productivity, competitiveness and building linkages and partnerships both with foreign investors and enterprises within Africa for mutually transferable skills and technology (UN, 2006).

Mainstreaming the social, economic and environment pillars of sustainable development in development strategies will address the problem related to the lack of integrating employment in development strategies.

6.2 External resources

The domestic resource gaps that arise due to insufficient domestic resources are supplemented by external capital flows. The important capital flows include Official Development Assistance (ODA), debt forgiveness and private capital flows, such as Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), portfolio investment and remittances.

ODA

ODA or Aid is expected to have positive but declining effect on growth of countries as the volume of aid increases. Aid helps countries to augment savings, finance investments, increase labor productivity through investments in health or education and provides a channel for the transfer of technology from the rich to poor countries. The Commission for Africa's Report and the UN Millennium Project Report –“Investing in Development” show that more and well-targeted aid is needed to help Africa's sustainable development and for countries to exit out of the poverty trap. Both Reports also indicate that bold and integrated strategies on a scale needed to meet the challenges are possible and can only be implemented through a strengthened partnership. The UN Millennium Project estimates that incremental ODA needed for Africa's Development in 2010 and 2015 would be \$33 billion and \$65 billion each year respectively (UN, 2005).

Various International Forums (Monterrey, Rome, Marrakech, Paris and Gleanegles) have urged donors to implement their pledges to Africa in three main areas; scaling up of aid, improving aid effectiveness and debt relief. They have urged donors to meet the agreed targets of 0.7 percent of GNP to developing countries. They have also called for actions on the five areas of Aid Effectiveness, which are ownership, harmonization, alignment, managing for results and mutual accountability. They have also called for actions to untie aid, reduce transactions costs of aid

delivery in recipient countries, enhance the absorptive capacity of recipient countries and improve the targeting of aid to the poor.

FDI

FDI is the most important source of external finance for developing countries. FDI has higher potential for stimulating domestic investment, than other forms of private capital flows (Mody and Murshid, 2005; Borsworth and Collins, 1999). FDI is part of private capital equity flows. Private capital flows can be in the form of equity or debt. However, 86 percent of the recent capital flows to Africa have been in the form of equity. This is a positive development considering the high debt position of Africa. Recent equity flows to Africa have been in the form of FDI as opposed to portfolio equity inflows that are highly volatile and often leave countries vulnerable to sudden reversals and investors sentiments (Hammouda, et. al. 2006).

Debt

One of the concerns about high external debt of poor countries is that it stifles growth and makes it difficult for a country to generate enough resources to repay its existing stock of debt (Hammouda, et al 2006). As debt burden and servicing reduce, the capability of African countries to finance development is enhanced. Many African countries remain severely indebted. As a percentage of GDP, Africa's external debt is higher than any other developing region of the world. A substantial proportion of Africa's export earnings have been used for debt repayment, thus imposing a huge debt burden on the continent, perpetuating poverty and contributing to environmental degradation, as well as the inability of African countries to implement sustainable development agreements.

6.2.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Official Development Assistance (ODA)

Aid to Africa increased from just under US\$ 1 billion in 1960 to US\$ 32 billion in 1991. But by the end of the 1990s, aid had fallen to almost half the 1991 level (ECA, 2002). After declining through most of the 1990s, net ODA to Africa began recovering, rising from a total US\$ 15.7 billion in 2001 to US\$ 21.2 billion in 2002 (ADB, 2004) and US\$26.3 in 2003 (ECA, 2005). While ODA has been rising since 2000 in absolute numbers, as a proportion to GDP, ODA in 2004 was five percent, which is below the six percent recorded in 1990 (Hammouda, et. al. 2006).

The capital flows in addition to domestic capital are very small compared to the developmental needs of African countries. Besides, despite the recent increase in ODA, very few countries account for the larger share of the continent's receipt. The top five largest recipients of Egypt, Mozambique, Ethiopia, DRC and Uganda account for 32 percent of annual aid flows, while the top 10 countries receive more than 50 percent of the continent's total aid (ECA, 2006).

In addition to the increase in aid to Africa, some progress has been made in improving the quality and effectiveness of aid through the following (UN, 2006):

- The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness called for increased efforts with specific commitments, at aligning donor support with partner countries' development strategies, harmonizing donor operational procedures, managing aid with a focus on development results and improving mutual accountability for implementing commitments on aid effectiveness; and
- ECA and OECD/DAC, in the first mutual review of development effectiveness, emphasized the importance of mutual accountability and the need to strengthen both donors' and African countries' systems for aid delivery and management.

In conformity with the commitment made to allocate at least half of the increase in ODA to Africa by 2006, the G8 countries increased their assistance to Africa by \$6 billion during the period 2001 to 2004. Based on commitments by G8 and other donors in 2005, total ODA is expected to increase by some \$50 billion per annum in real terms between 2004 and 2010 with the increase to Africa amounting to \$25 billion per annum over the same period (UN, 2006).

The World Bank has launched Aid Effectiveness Review 2006, which is being coordinated with the 2006 **Summary** on Monitoring the Paris Declaration (UN, 2006). NEPAD has also made great strides in international engagement especially in advocacy and in contributing to reversing the decline in ODA (NEPAD Secretariat, 2004 a).

While there is some progress on scaling up aid, only Canada, France, Germany, United Kingdom and the EU have fully complied with their commitments. On Aid Effectiveness, aid from Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden and Norway were judged to be most effective. On the whole donors have made more progress in meeting commitments on debt relief, than in fulfilling the pledges made on scaling up aid and improving aid effectiveness (Hammouda, et al, 2006).

Foreign Direct investment (FDI)

Several actions have been undertaken by African countries to attract FDI. These mainly include enacting attractive and liberal investment codes for in-coming investments. The creation of an Investment Climate Facility (IFC) in 2005 will go a long way to increase the volume of FDI in African countries. The IFC was endorsed by the Commission for Africa and the NEPAD Secretariat and supported by the key multilateral and bilateral donor agencies. It aims to provide \$550 million in grants over seven years to fund over 300 projects mainly in African countries that have signed up for the APRM. The target of IFC is to increase the average annual growth rate in at least 12 African countries by two percentage points in seven years (UN, 2005).

Africa's share of FDI dropped from 25 percent in the early 1970s to just five percent in 2000. Generally, FDI is concentrated on the richer countries of the continent thus further marginalizing the great majority of the poorest African countries. FDI inflows to Africa decreased from US\$19 billion in 2001 to US\$11 billion in 2002. This downturn occurred at a time of worldwide slumps in FDI flows, although domestic factors were also a contributory factor. A slight increase, US\$14 billion was registered in 2003 representing a two percent share of FDI inflows for the region (ADB, 2004; ECA, 2004b). In 2004, FDI increased to US\$20 billion (UN, 2005).

In many African countries, the bulk of FDI flows into the natural resource sector. Oil-producing countries, particularly Algeria, Angola, Chad and Nigeria have been the main beneficiaries of FDI in 2003. However, it was noted that the most attractive countries for FDI are those with large markets such as South Africa, Egypt, Morocco and Nigeria, and those that have addressed impediments to investments by improving the business environment such as Ghana, Ethiopia, Mauritius, Mozambique, Tanzania and Uganda (ECA, 2004a). FDI flows to the service sector, in general, and the electricity, wholesale and retail sub-sectors in particular, have been on the rise in recent years challenging the dominance of the extractive industries. There is also some diversification of sources of flow of FDI. Traditionally, FDI to Africa came from Europe and to a lesser extent from North America. Lately, Asian investments from China, India, Malaysia and South Korea have been increasing in Africa. South African companies are increasingly leading intra-African FDI (ECA, 2005; ECA, 2006).

Japan has pledged to implement an Enhanced Private Sector Assistance Programme providing up to \$1.2 billion in five years to foster small and medium-scale enterprise activity to improve investment climate in Africa. France has pledged to improve the legal environment for business in Africa and has made 70 million Euros available to guarantee a facility for investment in Africa (UN, 2005).

Debt

The G8 meeting in Gleneagles agreed to a proposal to cancel 100 percent of outstanding debts of eligible HIPC to the IMF, International Development Association (IDA) and African Development Fund by countries that are participants in the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative. As of June 2006, existing HIPC initiative has delivered debt relief to 15 African countries (UN, 2006b). Studies have shown that debt relief under the HIPC initiative will increase the annual per capita GDP growth rates of countries by 0.8 to 1.1 percentage points (Hammouda, et al 2006).

Two important initiatives undertaken by the donor community to address the debt issue are the Multilateral and Bilateral Debt Relief Initiatives. Under the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI) donor countries are committed to providing additional resources to the three international financial institutions mentioned above to ensure that debt forgiveness does not erode their financial capacity. Also under the MDRI, debt relief is granted to HIPC countries that since the completion point have demonstrated satisfactory performance in three key areas of macroeconomic policy, implementation of PRS and strengthening public expenditure management system. The MDRI is expected to reduce debt burden indicators for African countries and provide additional financial resources to promote growth and human development (UN, 2006b).

Under the Bilateral Debt Relief Initiatives, individual donors have extended significant debt write-off to some African countries. The Paris Club agreement signed in October 2005 and in June 2006 granted significant debt relief to Nigeria and Cameroon respectively. In December 2005, Zambia received 100 percent debt write-off from France, Japan, and the USA, while in January 2006, Denmark cancelled \$576 million of debt for eight African countries and Spain granted debt write-off of about 65 million Euro (UN, 2006b).

After increasing from US\$ 163 billion in 1982 to US\$309 billion in 1998, Africa's total debt decreased from 305 billion in 2001 to 297 billion in 2003. Africa's total external debt stock stood at \$282 billion in 2005, down from \$305.8 billion in 2004 (IMF, 2006). Although the debt stock

declined considerably relative to GDP (from 35 percent in 2005 to 26.2 percent in 2006) total debt service obligations remained almost unchanged (4.2 percent in 2005 and 4.1 percent in 2006) because of higher interest rates (ECA, 2007). Debt service obligations have been on the rise since 2002 and stood at \$34.6 billion, following a decline from \$32.8 billion in 1977 to \$21.3 billion in 2002. However, in relative terms, the average debt burden for the continent has been declining since the early 1990s. From a peak of 31 percent in 1992, the debt service/exports ratio declined to 11.2 percent in 2005. The debt/GDP ratio declined from 74 percent to 35 percent in 2005.

6.2.2 Challenges and constraints

The low saving and investment rates in SSA countries have increased the role and importance of external resources in financing development in the subregion. It has also increased the challenges that the subregion faces in financing development.

While there have been significant increases in ODA from 2001 through 2005, there is concern that ODA may not be on track to meet the 2010 commitments. ODA must increase by \$4 billion to Africa in 2006 and each year thereafter, but the amount of aid is not rising fast enough in G8 countries. Much of the observed increase is in the form of emergency aid, debt relief and technical assistance that do not necessarily mean financial transfer to developing countries (UN, 2006). There is therefore the challenge of donors honoring their pledges. Additionally, there are four major challenges to aid acquisition. They include: how to improve the effectiveness, and increase absorptive capacity of aid in recipient countries; how to prevent aid dependency through increased internal revenue mobilization; how to maintain domestic revenue levels during period of aid inflows; and how to ensure that aid does not lead to loss of competitiveness through real exchange rate overvaluation (Dutch Disease).

On FDI, it was noted that while there is some level of sectoral diversification of FDI in Africa, the bulk of the flows go into the natural resources sector. Given that the natural resources sector has few linkages with the rest of the economy, the concentration of FDI in this sector may constrain domestic investment in Africa (ECA, 2006). Therefore, the challenge of attracting sustained private capital flows, including remittances, and ensuring that they are in sectors with high value-added and employment impact.

Despite the fact that debt service obligations are reducing at the continent level, at a disaggregated level, they continue to represent a drain on national resources, with many African countries spending more on debt service than on social services such as education and health. Thus debt service is still a critical constraint to development of the continent. The hope that Africa's external debt would be significantly reduced under the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative, and later its enhanced version, would stimulate private capital inflows, has been slow to materialize. While debt forgiveness is welcome, this is insufficient to meet the development financing needs of African countries. The debt owed by SSA countries that qualify for debt write offs under the MDRI represents only 25 percent of the continent's debt stock (ECA, 2006). This presents the challenge of finding an effective and sustainable solution to the external debt crises facing several African countries, in order to release resources for development finance.

6.2.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

It has been observed that capital flows in general are not targeted to sectors that will lead to the sustainable development of African countries. Capital flows policies should be better integrated into national industrial policy by providing incentives in foreign investments that are export oriented and have large positive impacts on employment creation. African countries should design mechanisms for monitoring and managing capital flows by developing statistical capacity to track capital flows and monitoring signs of financial fragility (ECA, 2006).

African countries need to design strategies to increase the contribution of the Diaspora to economic development through incentives and allocating higher proportions of remittances to investment. In addition, returns to human capital should be increased in order to retain human capital.

Estimates have shown that African countries will still need higher volumes of aid in the coming years in order to achieve and sustain higher levels of GDP growth rates and to accelerate poverty reduction. With improvements in macroeconomic policies and institutions, and strong commitment by governments to target growth and poverty activities in the allocation of aid, it is possible for African countries to absorb higher levels of aid and reap more benefits from aid (Commission for Africa, 2005). New aid should be in the form of grants to prevent a new round of external payment crisis. To prevent excessive dependence on aid, African countries should boost efforts to increase domestic revenue mobilization through increased savings, higher tax revenues and reduced capital flight, as well as the use of international trade as a vehicle for resource mobilization (Hammouda, et al 2006).

To build on the current increased momentum of ODA, African countries need to show commitment to economic and social reforms. The increased support for Africa should also be matched by a renewed effort to create effective processes for aid delivery and effectiveness, including significantly improved coordination of aid among donors (UN, 2005).

Given the fact that significant amount of FDI goes into sectors with very little linkages and impacts on national economies, countries must design better investment strategies to attract FDI into the manufacturing and service sectors. There is more opportunity to do so now since the sources of FDI are increasing. To this end, policy makers should improve incentives for investments that promote both domestic and foreign investment. Also governments should invest more in education and skills development and adopt measures to retain human capital, in order to attract investments in higher value-added activities.

The past debt problems of Africa implies that there is the need for a comprehensive integrated approach that would enhance growth, increase exports and raise domestic savings. The strategy should include, increasing development aid, putting in place mechanisms to ensure that resources released from debt relief are invested in productive activities. To this end, African countries should strengthen their expenditure management system and manage post-relief borrowing to prevent the deterioration of their long-term debt sustainability (UN, 2006b).

The cancellation of the debt of 15 African countries by the G8 Finance Ministers is highly welcome. It has however been recommended that the MDRI include both the HIPC-eligible

African countries that have not met the performance criteria and the non-HIPC African countries, including the middle-income African countries that are not part of the HIPC Initiative.

The diversification of Africa's economic and export structures has long been recognized as essential to the sustained growth and accelerated development of the region. International support for Africa's diversification efforts must be accorded very high priority to help African countries develop programmes to process their primary commodities, build trade-related infrastructure and institutions and improve the quality of their exports. Aid for trade measures must complement and not substitute for efforts to improve market access for African exports and to strengthen Africa's participation in world trade (UN, 2006b). Using these as background for cooperation will address most of the challenges.

6.3 South-South cooperation

In addition to the official Multilateral and bilateral donor support for Africa, South-South Cooperation that holds promise for the future development of Africa. Of particular importance are the China-Africa, Japan-Africa, India-Africa and other Asia-African cooperation.

6.3.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

China-Africa cooperation

The first ministerial conference of the China-Africa Cooperation Forum (FOCAC) was held in Beijing, China, in 2000. The conference reached a broad consensus about establishing a fair and just international political and economic order in the 21st century, and discussed how to promote Sino-African economic and trade cooperation. The two official documents adopted at the meeting namely, The Beijing Declaration and the Programme for China-Africa Cooperation in Economic and Social Development, lay the framework for China and Africa to build long-standing, stable and mutually beneficial new relations. To strengthen the FOCAC mechanism and better implement its follow-up actions, the Chinese side established its FOCAC Follow-up Committee in December 2001, which is composed of senior officials from 21 ministries, commissions and agencies. Some African countries, such as Ethiopia, Gabon, Zambia, and the Sudan, have also set up their own institutions for follow-up actions.

The fourth senior officials meeting of the Forum on China-Africa Cooperation, convened in Beijing in August 2005, conducted a mid-term evaluation of the implementation of the Addis Ababa Action Plan for 2004-2006 adopted at the second ministerial conference of the Forum in December 2003. The meeting welcomed the commitment of the African countries and China to jointly work towards the attainment of the objectives and ideals of Africa's socio-economic rebirth as embodied by the NEPAD programmes. The meeting agreed that the two sides have achieved positive results in their cooperation in a number of areas including economic development, trade, human resource training, public health and infrastructure, especially roads and energy (UN, 2006b).

The third summit of the Forum on China-Africa Cooperation was held in 2006. It marked the biggest-ever gathering between Chinese and African leaders. All 48 African countries that have diplomatic relations with China took part. Building on several years of growing exchanges between

China and Africa, the summit approved a three-year action plan (2007-2009) to forge a "new type of strategic partnership", which would be based on pragmatic cooperation, equality and mutual benefit. China also re-affirmed its support to the AU, including building a new Conference Centre at the AU headquarters in Addis Ababa. It likewise reaffirmed its commitment to NEPAD (Harsch, 2007).

Chinese foreign investment in Africa has grown spectacularly since the early 1990s. According to a recent study by the OECD, flows of Chinese direct investment into Africa in 2003 reached \$107 million, more than 100 times the annual level in 1991. Today, some 700 Chinese firms are estimated to hold a total investment stock of \$6.3 billion in Africa. The Beijing summit brought a dozen major new investment agreements totaling \$1.9 billion. They included deals to build expressways in Nigeria, a telephone network in rural Ghana and an aluminum smelter in Egypt (Harsch 2007).

Other Asian Cooperation

The Asian-Africa Trade and Investment Conference held under the Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD) in Tokyo in November 2004 emphasized poverty reduction through growth as an important goal of Asia-Africa cooperation and underlined that increased trade and investment between the two regions would make a significant contribution to the implementation of NEPAD. There was a follow-up signing of a "TICAD-NEPAD Joint Policy Framework for the Promotion of Trade and Investment between Africa and Asia" (UN, 2005).

In April 2005, the Asian-African Summit was held in Jakarta. The Asian and African leaders affirmed strong support for NEPAD and endorsed the need to promote practical cooperation between the two regions in areas such as trade, tourism, investment, industry, finance, ICT, energy, health, agriculture and transportation. The Second Summit held in Doha in June 2005 also committed to support programmes drawn up by African leaders within the framework of (UN, 2005).

Under the auspices of the TICAD, an international conference on consolidating peace in post-conflict African countries was organized by Japan, the UN, UNDP, the Global Coalition for Africa and the World Bank in February 2006 in Addis Ababa. The conference brought together the experiences and lessons acquired in Africa and other regions and put forward recommendations for effective ways to promote peace consolidation in Africa (UN, 2006b).

India has created a line of credit of \$200 million for cooperation on NEPAD projects and has separately allocated \$500 million out of which agreements amounting to \$282 million have been signed under the Techno-Economic Approach for Africa-India Movement, through which assistance is being offered to eight West African countries in projects including urban transport, basic industries, power generation, infrastructure and ICT. The beneficiary countries are Burkina Faso, Chad, Cote d'Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Mali and Senegal, (UN, 2006).

6.3.2 Challenges and constraints

The huge economic and technical cooperation that is taking place with China is laudable. However, there are challenges. Some African commentators have pointed to shortcomings in China's economic involvement in Africa. They have cited the limited regard for environmental and safety standards of some Chinese companies and their tendency to bring in Chinese workers rather than hire Africans. (Harsch 2007).

The nature of trade flows, exports of oil and other raw materials to China and imports of inexpensive manufactured Chinese textiles and clothing seems to follow the old trading relationship between Africa and Europe/America that has led to the poor situation of African countries. This trade pattern negatively affects Africa's own trade objectives.

6.3.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

The sustainable development paradigm ensures that development meets economic, social and environmental concerns. Using sustainable development approaches, as the model for development cooperation with Asia should ensure that most of the challenges outlined above are addressed. The call for a balanced growth of China-Africa trade is a step in the right direction. The decision to more than double the number of African products allowed into China duty-free- a Chinese pledge to voluntarily cap clothing exports to South Africa, is an important response to that call (Harsch 2007).

6.4 Globalization and trade

The pace of globalization of the world economy continues unabated. Capital movements in the form of pure Foreign Direct Investments (FDIs), mergers and acquisitions resulting in ever larger transnational corporations, especially in the services sector, and world trade in goods continue to grow. And while the speed and structure of these changes vary across sectors, it is reasonable to conclude that globalization is alive and well, in spite of some of the hiccups especially in the global trade negotiations arena. However, while the developments present opportunities for those economies that are able to exploit them, they also pose new and major challenges for African countries. Consequently, despite the great opportunities globalization offers, its benefits are still not felt by Africa.

As ECA (2007) notes in its Economic Report on Africa 2007, Africa still remains marginalized despite the double-digit trade growth realized in the first half of this decade. It is true that over the last six years, Africa has increased its exports by 16 percent annually on average, a growth rate that is well above the overall world merchandise exports average growth rate of 10.4 percent. However, it is now clear that the rapid increase in Africa's exports is concentrated in oil-exporting Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries. Moreover, even with the commodities driven recovery, Africa's share of global exports in merchandise remains historically low. The continent's share in global exports in 2005 was 2.8 percent only, roughly equivalent to its 1991 value and less than half its peak value of six percent achieved in 1980. And as ECA (2007) further suggests, the future gains for Africa from globalisation through trade are not assured since this recent appearance of a catch-

up by its exports is not based on the diversification of the export base, but rather on increased oil exports.

In recognition of the major role that trade can play in achieving sustainable development and in eradicating poverty, WSSD encouraged members of World Trade Organization (WTO) to pursue the work programme agreed at their Fourth Ministerial Conference, in order for developing countries, especially the least developed among them, to secure their share in the growth of world trade commensurate with the needs of their economic development. Furthermore, the JPOI in its Africa chapter, urges the international community to improve market access for goods, including goods originating from African countries, in particular least developed countries, within the framework of the Doha Ministerial Declaration. NEPAD enjoins African Heads of State to participate actively in the world trading system and to ensure that the continent's special concerns, needs and interests are recognized in future WTO rules.

6.4.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

More engagement of African countries in the WTO negotiations: Probably one of the most significant developments has been the evolution of the participation of African countries in the actual negotiations. In the past negotiations, including the Uruguay Round, African countries played a peripheral role in the negotiations. But in the current Doha Round, African countries were not only engaged actively in the definition of the mandate for the negotiators, but have been active at every stage, as the negotiations progressed. This engagement does serve to highlight the concerns of Africa and its desire to ensure that multilateralism benefits all in an equitable way.

Organization and more coordination of African countries in the negotiations: The visible engagement of African countries in the negotiations has been driven mainly by a more effective coordination of their participation. The AU Commission has led the political efforts and the coordination of the negotiations. This coordination has been able to maintain a strong solidarity between African countries despite the diversity of their development levels. The current common negotiating framework that African countries are using to inform their positions in WTO has been developed under the coordination of the AU and was endorsed by the AU Summit in Banjul, The Gambia in July 2006.

Technical support provided to African countries: Another important development in the realm of trade negotiations has been the welcome coordinated support provided to African negotiators. Significant technical support by a lot of institutions has been provided to the political process spearheaded by the AU. The ECA has for instance been playing a major role through its African Trade Policy Center (ATPC) with the support of the Canada Fund for Africa and the Royal Danish Government. Other institutions are also playing key roles on the technical support to the political process. These include UNDP, UNCTAD, International Trade Center (ITC) and research networks such as the African Economic Research Consortium (AERC), Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA) and International Lawyers and Economists against Poverty (ILEAP). Civil society organizations have also been active in advocating for African priorities in the trade negotiations. These include non-governmental organizations operating regionally and internationally. The Third World Network, South Center, OXFAM, among others, have played a major role in advocating issues of concern to African countries.

African regional integration: Fostering African regional integration has been a long-standing objective in the continent (see ECA 2006). Several African countries or groupings are involved in bilateral or trade negotiations in order to diversify their export markets and enhance their integration into the global economic system. For example, UEMOA countries are currently negotiating free trade agreements with several North-African countries. COMESA also agreed in its May 2007 Summit, to establish a customs union by the end of 2008. The East African customs union that came into force beginning of 2005 saw in June 2007, an expansion when Burundi and Rwanda were admitted. Similarly, the coordination between SADC-COMESA-EAC is a welcome development and that of ECOWAS-UEMOA. These initiatives will eventually lead to larger integration spaces that will allow room for African producers and exporters to finesse their competitiveness in order to enter the global trading system.

South-South trade: South Africa has been discussing with India and Latin American Common Markets (Mercosur) countries on a potential free trade agreement. With the recent explosion of trade flows between Africa, China and India, several countries also envisage talks with the two Asian nations.

6.4.2 Challenges and constraints

Africa's trade challenges persist. Africa as a region is likely to continue experiencing its current low level of integration in the global trading system unless its trade challenges are addressed. It is noteworthy that African trade challenges go beyond capacity constraints and are both external and internal.

The external trade challenges: These challenges relate mainly to the international trade environment that Africa faces. As a result, they have more to do with the market access difficulties that Africa's exports have to deal with. The main elements of the external trade challenges include tariff peaks, tariff escalation, export subsidies, domestic support policies in developed countries, non-tariff barriers, restrictive rules of origin in preference schemes, and market concentration. All these challenges, apart from market concentration, relate to exogenous policy decisions by African trading partners. The current Doha Round has a mandate to address most of these elements.

The internal trade challenges: The internal trade challenges that Africa faces are already well documented, and they have been the motivation for the need to strengthen development dimensions of the multilateral trading system. The challenges range from institutional to infrastructure deficiencies and the main elements are: weak supply capacities; lack of skills towards better quality products; limited resources for research and development; trade finance; trade facilitation; weak port and transportation infrastructure; and internal trade barriers.

Doha Round continue to disappoint: Unfortunately, progress has been limited and below the expectations of African countries. The limited progress from Doha in 2001 to-date is littered with many missed deadlines. In July 2006, the talks were suspended. And even after their resumption in February 2007, there are still major challenges to be surmounted, especially given the expiry of the "Fast-Track" Trade Promotion Authority on 30 June 2007 that is enjoyed by the White House, which would have enabled the realisation of a Doha Round agreement that is not too watered down

in terms of ambition. One main reason for the deadlock in WTO negotiations appears to be primarily associated with disagreement with the levels of demand and offers on agriculture, a critical area for Africa's development prospects. This lack of progress has clearly been a setback for the multilateral process, prohibiting the international community and especially poorer countries from significant improvements in the multilateral trading system.

The EPAs as development tools not yet assured: Besides the efforts at WTO, which however have not borne any significant results at the modalities level, the rules of origin constraint is likely to be tackled in the case of EU preferences to Africa in the on-going EPA negotiations. But like the Doha Round, these negotiations are also at a crossroads. The ECA in its Economic Report on Africa 2007 puts it more bluntly by noting the growing concern in Africa that EPAs, while representing significant potential for growth and development, also pose great challenges in terms of adjustment costs. The standstill in WTO negotiations also complicates the EPA process. In the absence of evolutions on rules for preferential trade arrangements, important uncertainties remain on the degree of flexibility African countries would have on the length of transition periods and on the coverage of liberalisation. EPA negotiations are probably the major task ahead of African trade policy makers, especially given the slow pace of the Doha Round. They pose great challenges but also real opportunities in terms of development for the continent.

AGOA and EBA not enough without addressing Africa's trade challenges: The US under its AGOA initiative has managed to extend the period under which African countries are still permitted to source inputs, especially fabrics from third countries to 2013. This has been a welcome development. So far, 37 African countries are eligible to the African Growth Opportunity Act (AGOA), which grants African countries quasi duty free quota free access to the US market. On the other hand, 34 African countries are LDCs and therefore are eligible to the European Union's Everything-but-Arms (EBA) scheme. Other non-LDC African countries are either beneficiaries of the EU's General System of Preferences (GSP) or are party to a bilateral Free Trade Agreement (FTA) with the EU.

Other duty-free quota-free market access programmes by countries such as Japan, Canada, complement these two schemes and other developed and advanced developing countries under the aegis of the Duty-Free, Quota-Free (DFQF) deal from the Hong Kong Ministerial Conference of December 2005. However, market access alone without addressing the internal trade challenges, is not sufficient to help African countries participate in and enjoy the globalisation process.

Case for Aid for Trade to help Africa maximize benefits from globalization: Even if the external trade challenges faced by Africa were to be addressed either through the Doha Round, the EPA negotiations, and other bilateral arrangements, Africa is unlikely to witness any dramatic change in its development prospects through trade for several reasons. Indeed, in the context of negotiations, research at ECA has shown that while there are gains still to be realized from the market access agenda in WTO, most of these gains could accrue to other developing countries (Karingi et al. 2007). There will be little benefits for Africa from the multilateral negotiations given the current structure of African economies, and so their marginalization in the global trading system is likely to continue. African countries lack the capacity to exploit the trading opportunities that might be presented by the solutions to the external challenges. And it is this lack of capacity to exploit trading opportunities that proponents of Aid for Trade (AFT) expect to address. The capacity-

enhancing investments in economic and social infrastructure and removal of supply constraints all require significant amount of resources.

6.4.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Coordination and harmonization of policies and positions are crucial to the success of African countries endeavors in the global trading system. So far, the negotiations results reflect and capture a lot of the issues that African countries have presented as their positions. For example, in areas such as agriculture negotiations, the discussions to this point in the Doha Round recognize that the overall ambition of the Round will be determined by how well it addresses those concerns of African countries e.g. tariff peaks, tariff escalation, removal of export subsidies, reform of domestic support measures etc.

Another important lesson relates to the need to combine trade reforms with complementary adjustment support measures. Unlike in previous trade agreements, it is now generally accepted that African countries cannot participate fully in the global trading system until and unless trade reforms are complemented with strong adjustment support in the real sectors, infrastructure, and institutions. Hence, both the major negotiations that Africa is engaged in; WTO and EPAs, foresee agreements that will have strong and broadly defined Aid for Trade facility.

6.5 Regional integration

Regional integration and the creation of an African common market has been a vision of African leaders since the early years of independence. The leadership of the new independent Africa realized earlier on that political freedom goes in tandem with full economic powers. It was therefore important to the leadership that continental economic integration is achieved. The leadership also believed that economic synergy could be gained from economic integration, as the economic advantage of a whole regional community is greater than the sum of the economic advantage of its separate member states. The need for economic integration was also propelled by a new world economic order, with the formation of regional blocks across all the continents, borderless globalisation, advances in information and communication technology and multilateral trade negotiations under the WTO, among others.

WSSD urged the international community to support African countries to improve regional trade and economic integration between African countries and to attract and increase investment in regional market infrastructure. NEPAD acknowledges the need for African countries to pool resources and enhance regional development and economic integration, in order to improve their international competitiveness.

6.5.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

In the last two decades, African leaders have rekindled their goal of establishing a continental African Economic Union. The 1980 Lagos Plan of Action (LPA) of the then Organization of African Unity (OAU) emphasizes a greater need for a pan-African programme of economic cooperation and integration. The leadership of the continent re-echoed their commitment of an

integrated Africa and followed up the LPA with the proclamation of the 1991 Abuja Treaty, which calls for the establishment of the African Economic Community (AEC).

Under the framework of the Abuja Treaty, Africa would become an economic union by 2027, with a common currency, full mobility of the factors of production and free trade among the 53 countries that make up the continent. To achieve this vision, Article Six of the Treaty lays down a timetable for the process of integration, or the creation of the AEC to be carried out over a period of 34 years (1994-2027), in six different stages of different duration. However, the Sirte Declaration of 1999 and the Constitutive Act, which transformed the OAU into the African Union, find the timeframe for the Abuja Treaty too long, and call for the speeding up of the integration agenda.

Africa is making some progress in its attempts to integrate. However, the results are mixed. Improvements have been made in the areas of trade, communications, macroeconomic policies, and transportation. The West African Economic and Monetary Union (UEMOA), the East African Community (EAC) and the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), have made significant progress in trade liberalization and facilitation. In the area of movement of people, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) has made remarkable strides. The Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the East African Community (EAC) have progressed in the area of infrastructure. For peace and security, ECOWAS and SADC have to be commended for gains made.

In the transportation sector, RECs are embarking on methods to promote unrestricted facilitation, reduce cost and improve overall efficiency. However, it still remains that transport costs in Africa are exorbitant. Also, one finds that throughout the continent, many road, air and rail networks are not connected.

Regional integration has brought marked improvements in the communication sector in some parts of the continent. This may be in part, due to the global revolution in the telecommunication technology and the growing commercialization and privatization of national services. While SADC, ECOWAS, COMESA, the Arab Maghreb Union (UMA in French) have increased connectivity, the Central African Economic and Monetary Community (CEMAC), ECCAS, the Economic Community of Great Lakes Countries (CEPGL) are lagging far behind.

There are checked results to report in the areas of energy. With the aim of minimizing energy costs, RECs are exploiting economies of scale through larger supply systems and developing benign power sources. Some member States in ECOWAS, SADC and EAC have made appreciable progress.

Knowledge sharing on best practices among RECs is a product of regional integration. For example, the Southern African Centre serves SADC region for Cooperation in Agricultural Research and training in Southern Africa.

On free mobility of people, ECOWAS and the EAC have made significant progress. In an attempt to eradicate barriers to cross-border movements of people, ECOWAS has introduced the ECOWAS Passport. The EAC has also introduced a common passport valid within the community, to facilitate cross-border movement of the nationals of its members.

On the production and use of public goods through collective efforts and resource pooling, not much can be said. However, ECOWAS and SADC have had success in the area of peace and security. Progress needs to be made in programmes for combating crimes, HIV/AIDS, technological backwardness and in harnessing physical resources.

6.5.2 Challenges and constraints

Lack of political will: Despite their good intentions, African Leaders lack the political will and commitment to push forward the regional integration agenda. One reason for this is the absence of enforcement mechanisms to deal with African States that decide not to adhere to protocols and treaties they are signatories to. In addition, member States may give priorities to commitments made on various multilateral, bilateral and regional agreements that are in conflict with the goal of regional integration. Consequently, the integrity and credibility of African leaders to be part of an integration process suffer tremendously.

Overlap and duplication of integration groupings and multiplicity of membership: The multiple memberships of countries in various RECs, the overlap and duplication of functions of the RECs also act as stumbling blocks to the integration agenda. With the exception of a few countries, most African countries belong to more than one REC. The goals and objectives of the integration institutions are very similar. The existence of multiple RECs and overlapping membership in Africa's integration process therefore create unhealthy multiplication and duplication of efforts and the misuse of the continent's scarce resources. Moreover, by being affiliated to more than one REC, African countries become partially committed to the full integration process, as their loyalty is shared among the RECs they belong to.

Fear of losing sovereignty: African leaders fail to pursue integration agenda because of the fear of losing sovereignty. Member countries of RECs do not follow integration arrangements because they fear that the costs of losing sovereignty far outweighs the costs of not implementing integration policies. Most Secretariats of the RECs have no legal power to ensure that member countries fulfil their obligations, rendering the road to the AEC very bumpy.

Lack of a compensation mechanism: The lack of a compensation mechanism for the losers of the integration process also acts as a constraint for the full implementation of integration schemes. Tariffs and other trade taxes account for a large share of the revenues for many African countries. The potential loss of this size of revenue, if all the protocols of the integration process are implemented, could inhibit the integration process, even if the potential benefits of integration outweigh the cost. In addition, if countries are at different stages of development, the gains from integration are disproportionate, thereby making some member countries reluctant to fully commit to the integration process. Moreover, where there is an agreement on the gainers compensating the losers, it is not clear how a sustainable working formula could be agreed upon. This issue stands out as very contentious for the RECs and an amicable solution is yet to be arrived at.

Weak infrastructure: Economic integration on the continent would not be successful without physical integration. However, compared to world standards, Africa's infrastructure network is generally very weak. The total length of roads in Africa is two million kilometres, out of which

about 28 percent is asphalted. The railway network on the continent is very poor in many parts of the continent, particularly West and Central Africa. The maritime transport and port, which accounts for about 95 percent of Africa's international trade, are fitted with sub-standard equipment. Compounding the problems of inadequate infrastructure, are the numerous roadblocks on African highways, delays at border posts, long and inappropriate customs clearance and corrupt officials.

Poor macroeconomic environment: The success of regional integration also hinges critically on member countries pursuing convergent macroeconomic policies. Misalignments of tariffs, inflation, exchange rates, debt to GDP ratios, rate of money growth and other vital macroeconomic variables between member countries, would be disruptive to the regional integration process. In addition, these misalignments could lead to rent-seeking activities by government and private individuals that could stifle legitimate investment opportunities. This could contribute to the demise of the economy of a member country, weakening the whole integration process. It is therefore imperative that the process of strengthening regional integration includes guidelines for the convergence of macroeconomic and trade policies of the entire region, so as to strengthen the overall regional integration agenda.

Weak financial environment: Strengthening and deepening Africa's financial markets and institutions are also essential for mobilizing financial resources needed to finance integration projects such as infrastructure. These institutions also enhance the payment system and contribute to facilitating trade within and outside the regional communities. In addition to improving the financial markets, efforts must be made to encourage RECs to establish development banks in their regions to assist member countries in financing infrastructure projects. However, the integration of the financial markets in Africa requires the harmonization of national policies and procedures governing these markets and institutions across member countries.

6.5.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Regional integration offers the most credible strategy for tackling Africa's development challenges, internal and external, because many of the weaknesses described above overwhelm the limited capacities and resources of individual countries. Collective efforts, with dynamic political commitment to integration, can help overcome many daunting challenges.

Deepening regional integration in Africa would require a thorough assessment of integration performance at the national, regional, and continental levels, taking into account new continental and global realities. A key objective must be to expand opportunities for investment that increase African incomes and tap unexploited resources—reducing dependence on the outside world and creating conditions for self-sustained, autonomous development. Such development can come about only by transforming Africa's production structures.

Understanding the role of cooperation and integration in meeting the challenges of African development also requires going beyond traditional issues to objectives not strictly covered by RECs. Peace and security, environmental issues, and Africa's global commitments cannot be divorced from the concerns of regional integration. In some parts of Africa conflicts and instability have stalled regional integration. HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other infectious diseases threaten to

thwart integration in vast parts of the continent. And globalization poses enormous challenges to Africa's economic prospects. All these issues need to be included in an assessment of regional integration in Africa.

Africa's integration faces enormous constraints and challenges. Some are due to overly ambitious goals relative to limited resources and capacities. But given the many issues that Africa must overcome to maintain and achieve respectable growth, the lack of significant achievements is not surprising. The systemic problems that hamper the development of national economies also impede Africa's integration.

6.6 Transport for sustainable development

Efficient transport infrastructure and services are vital prerequisites for Africa's development and integration. Interregional and overseas transport facilitates the expansion of trade. In a rapidly changing international environment characterized by globalization and competition, coupled with the challenges of economic integration and international trade, sound transport infrastructure network and services will facilitate the continent's full participation in the globalization process.

Transport integration in Africa would facilitate the creation of a single economic space that would lead to free movement of goods and people. For transport to play its role and have an effective impact on the integration of the continent, there will be a need for: physical integration of networks; operational integration; user-service provider interface; convergence of policies; joint planning and development of transport facilities and systems; harmonization of standards; joint cross-border operations; cross-border investments; and accession to international treaties and conventions.

During the last decade, transport development has made some positive contributions to the economic development of Africa. At the same time, it has constituted an important source of externalities, which are not internalized in many cases due to the failure of national policies in reaching the aim of equalizing private and social cost, as well as satisfying the needs of users. The current development of transport is still neither satisfactory, nor has it contributed to reducing poverty in Africa, particularly in rural areas where most of the poor, especially women, live. Provision of good transportation services and infrastructure constitutes a necessary precondition for African economic growth.

WSSD recognized the need for an integrated approach to policy-making at the national, regional and local levels for transport services and systems to promote sustainable development. In its Africa chapter, the JPOI advocates for support to African efforts to develop affordable transport systems and infrastructure that promote sustainable development and connectivity in Africa. Transport is an integral component of NEPAD's infrastructure programme. The sector objectives are to: reduce delays in cross-border movement of people, goods and services; reduce waiting time in ports; promote economic activity and cross-border trade through improved land transport linkages; and increase air passenger and freight linkages across Africa's subregions.

6.6.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

At the policy level

At the request of African countries the United Nations General Assembly declared 1978-88 the first Transport and Communications Decade for Africa (UNTACDA I) and 1991-2000 the second Transport and Communications Decade for Africa (UNTACDA II). The decades focused the attention of development partners on Africa's infrastructure. As a result, programmes were developed to establish an efficient integrated transport and communications system, as a basis for physical integration and trade. In March 2002, African countries adopted the successor arrangement of UNTACDA II, which provides the following vision to transport development in Africa: "Develop integrated transport and communication systems to provide the continent with safe, reliable, efficient and affordable infrastructure and services, so as to promote regional integration, address the needs of the poor, reduce the impact of HIV/AIDS, empower women, underpin economic growth and enhance Africa's position in the global markets"

African countries and RECs have been making serious efforts over the past years to expand their transport infrastructure and improve their services to ensure their sustainable development. In this regard, many policy reforms have taken place to attract the private sector and to establish road funds. However, due to lack of appropriate policy frameworks in the sector and the problems associated with institutional structures, the growth and efficiency of the sector has been impeded. The Trans-African Highways programme (TAH) was conceived in the early 1970s. ECA, AfDB and the African Union (AU) are its main promoters. The TAH programme is composed of sections of trunk roads, which make up the principal Trans-African routes and the adjacent access roads serving the different sub-regions; but the missing links are high, constituting about 33 percent of the total links.

Africa has 15 landlocked countries and their transportation needs to the seaports have to be adequately provided for. Cumbersome administrative procedures and poor facilities within transit countries are detrimental to the advancement of international trade in these landlocked countries. To address these bottlenecks, a number of transport corridors have been identified for development. In this connection, many of such landlocked countries and their coastal neighbors have developed bilateral and multilateral agreements to facilitate the movement of goods and people, but these arrangements are being frustrated, since some of the major provisions are in conflict with national laws and regulations. In August 2003, the Almaty Programme of Action to address the special needs of landlocked developing countries was adopted. The Programme is a new global framework for transit transport cooperation for landlocked and transit developing countries, taking into account the interests of both landlocked and transit developing countries.

The Sub-Saharan African Transport Policy (SSATP), a joint initiative of ECA and the World Bank, aims at promoting and facilitating integrated policies and strategies for transport sector capacity building. SSATP is a partnership involving 33 African countries and several donors. The programme defined a long-term development plan for 2008-2011, to boost the transport development agendas of the member countries, the RECs and NEPAD, and to support poverty reduction and economic growth objectives. In an effort to coordinate the transport activities of

RECs, the Regional Economic Communities Transport Coordination Committee (REC-TCC) was established in 2005 with the support of SSATP.

In 2002, NEPAD developed the Infrastructure Programme Short-Term Action Plan (STAP) to bridge the gaps of infrastructure and services in African countries. For each of the infrastructure sectors – transport, communications, energy, and water and sanitation - the plan covers four common areas, namely (i) facilitation – establishment of policy, regulatory and institutional framework to create suitable environment for investment and efficient operations; (ii) capacity building initiatives to empower particularly the implementation institutions to meet their mandates; (iii) physical or capital investment projects; and (iv) studies to prepare new priority projects.

In April 2005 the Conference of African Ministers in charge of transport adopted a matrix of transport targets and indicators for the realization of the MDGs. The outcome of the conference was endorsed by the AU Summit in Sirte, Libya in July 2005 and subsequently submitted to the UN General Assembly in September the same year, as part of the contribution of Africa in the review of the implementation of the MDGs.

Financial efforts to support infrastructure development

To advance economic integration, RECs have established institutions to support regional financial cooperation. Regional development banks operate in CEMAC, COMESA, EAC, ECOWAS, UEMOA, and UMA. These institutions provide finance to undertake projects at the national and regional levels. In SADC the South African Development Bank serves the interest of all community members. Some RECs such as UEMOA and CEMAC have also created special funds for community development used for financing projects with the potential to promote regional integration.

In recent years a number of infrastructure funds have been created in Africa. For example, the NEPAD-Infrastructure Project Preparation Facility (NEPAD-IPPF) was established in 2003 with seed funding from the Canadian Government. In 2005, it was transformed into a multi-donor facility. The key objective of NEPAD-IPPF is to assist African countries, RECs and related infrastructure development institutions, to prepare high quality, viable regional infrastructure projects in energy, transboundary water resources management, transport, and ICT, which would be ready to solicit financing from public and private sources in support of the objectives of NEPAD. A secondary objective of the NEPAD-IPPF, is to support the creation of an enabling environment of private sector participation in infrastructure, as well as support targeted capacity building initiatives in infrastructure development to enhance the sustainability of existing and planned infrastructure on the continent.

Progress

Currently, Africa's road network is about 2,299,070 km. This is 234,457 km or 11.36 percent longer than what was reported at the end of UNTACDA II in 2000. All the subregions of the continent have also witnessed increases in their road networks, although to varying degrees (World Fact Book, 2006). The African rail network is currently estimated at 89,380 km, and the density at 2.97 km per 1,000 square km. The network situation is as follows: North Africa – 19,931 km -;

West Africa – 9,717 km; Central Africa – 2,526 km; East Africa – 19,293 km -; and Southern Africa – 38, 513 km.

Maritime transport accounts for over 90 percent of Africa's international trade. Facilitation in this sub-sector is vital both for the continent's economy and for the world economy, particularly in this era of globalization and liberalization. Ports are therefore important hubs having a major impact on economic development on the domestic scene and internationally. Africa has around 80 major ports along its entire littoral. Liberalization policies, better port management, increased competition among ports, as well as competitive strategies on the part of ship owners have led to substantial improvement in the productivity of some African ports.

Air transport plays a critical role in African integration and development; the sub-sector has received a major breakthrough since the adoption of the Yamoussoukro Decision in 1999. The Decision resulted in speeding up the liberalization of access to air transport market in the region. It also brought airport and air space management reforms, which showed a better advantage of competition resulting from free access to the air transport. Africa has 117 international airports, which handle 5.2 percent of passengers and 3.6 percent of freight traffic of global air transport. The Yamoussoukro Decision has the potential to significantly improve the sector in the continent. However, inadequate infrastructure in many African countries and the reluctance of some countries to implement the Decision may hamper the full realization of this potential.

6.6.2 Challenges and constraints

In general, transport infrastructure and services development in Africa face the following challenges: lack of appropriate and adequate policy coordination and implementation; inadequate financing for expansion and maintenance; lack of appropriate human and institutional capacity; inadequate safety and security; unexploited technological development; lack of appropriate database; poor transport facilitation measures; high transportation costs; disjointed and inappropriate networks; and poor contribution to urban and rural development and poverty reduction.

6.6.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

The transport sector is very important to the socio-economic development and integration of the continent. However, the financing requirements to reduce the gap between the performances of African transport, with those of the rest of the world are enormous. But infrastructure in Africa has to compete with other sectors, such as agriculture, health and education, for government resources.

On the way forward, the continent needs to adjust its policies, build physical and human capacities, modernize management, attract more private sector, improve transport facilitation, adopt appropriate corridor approach, reduce transportation cost, improve safety and security, take into account poverty reduction dimension in infrastructure development policies, and introduce new technologies.

To reposition Africa's transport systems, RECs need to be supported, but they also need to actively support other regional efforts to foster transport integration in Africa. With the support of such pan-

African bodies such as AU, ECA and AfDB, RECs and African leaders need to build on successes of the past decade and emulate best practices elsewhere in the world. This will require good governance, and improved peace and security.

6.7 Science, technology and innovation for sustainable development

Science, Technology and Innovation (STI), has an important role to play in the attainment of the continent's sustainable development objectives. Yet, this is one of the most neglected sectors in the development drive of countries. Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, science and technology investments were not prioritized despite considerable empirical evidence from South-East Asia and other regions showing that investment in science and technology yields direct and indirect benefits to national economies. Africa's continued low investment in science and technology is also manifested in the declining quality of science and engineering education at all levels of educational systems. There are very few Research and Development (R&D) experts in the continent. In many countries, infrastructure for R&D has been neglected and is decaying. Institutions of higher education, particularly universities and technical colleges, are in urgent need of renewal after many years of neglect and disorientation from local and national priorities. However, developments at the international and regional levels from 2000 to date provide new sources of optimism and action.

In the area of Information and Communications Technologies (ICTs), the world is currently entering what is commonly referred to as the Knowledge Society, which is driven by information and intellectual information products as the raw materials. In this context, the ability to transmit information over the information and communications infrastructure is a key resource for any nation to participate effectively in the global information society and to address the development challenges. The successful deployment of ICTs can contribute to sustainable development by closing the digital divide between the North and the South and within developing countries.

WSSD underlined the importance of science-based decision-making, by inter alia calling for: integrating scientists' advice into decision-making bodies; partnerships between scientific, public and private institutions; improved collaboration between natural and social scientists, and establishing regular channels for requesting and receiving advice between scientists and policy makers; making greater use of integrated scientific assessments, risk assessments and interdisciplinary and inter-sectoral approaches; and increasing the beneficial use of local and indigenous knowledge. Strengthening and creating centers for sustainable development in developing countries are encouraged, as well as networking with and between centers of scientific excellence and between science and education for sustainable development.

Furthermore, the Africa chapter of the JPOI made a strong call to the international community, to support African countries in developing effective science and technology institutions and research activities capable of developing and adapting to world-class technologies. The chapter also stipulates the following imperatives in the area of ICT: bridge the digital divide and create digital opportunity in terms of access, infrastructure and technology transfer and application through integrated initiatives for Africa; create an enabling environment to attract investment, accelerate existing and new programmes and projects to connect essential institutions and stimulate the adoption of ICT technologies in government and commerce programmes and other aspects of

national economic and social life. Additionally, NEPAD emphasizes the importance of science and technology platforms and the imperative of bridging the digital divide, by investing in ICT.

6.7.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Regional initiatives

The most significant development in STI for Africa in the last four years is the establishment of the NEPAD Science and Technology Consolidated Plan of Action (CPA) and the establishment of the African Ministerial Council on Science and Technology (AMCOST) of the AU that drives the CPA. The CPA identifies key priority areas for Africa to work on, and the strategies and policy processes for their implementation. Key thematic clusters include biodiversity, biotechnology and indigenous knowledge; energy, water and desertification; materials science, manufacturing, lasers and post-harvest technologies; mathematical sciences; information, communication and space science and technology. The implementation strategy envisages mobilization of a network of centers of excellence to do the work at national and regional levels. This model is underway in the biosciences, mathematics, materials, and water science and technology. Other clusters are to be rolled out in the 10-year lifetime of the CPA. Major initiatives are planned in STI indicators through an African STI Observatory.

Political leadership for the CPA is exercised by AMCOST, which recently initiated the AU Summit on science and technology that brought STI issues to the topmost agenda of the continent. Sub-regional cooperation in science, technology and innovation is strengthening, particularly in Southern Africa with the development of protocols for cooperation. UN supports NEPAD science and technology through its UN science and technology cluster consisting of over 10 agencies working through the Regional Consultation Mechanism (RCM) coordinated by ECA, in close collaboration with the AU Commission and AfDB.

African governments also recognize the importance of research and development in building an inclusive information society in the continent. In this context, ECA is spearheading knowledge building, research and innovation through the following institutions: the Inter University Council of East Africa; the Addis Ababa University; the Centre for Applied Linguistic of Cameroon; and the Eduardo Mondlane University in Mozambique. Projects being implemented in these institutions are yielding important results. These include, enhancing research capacities on software development, including the use local languages, and empowerment of entrepreneurs to establish knowledge-based companies.

Putting in place a Capable State is one of the objectives of African leaders towards meeting the MDGs and improving delivery of services to the population. Part of this government transformation in Africa is the introduction of e-government initiatives. This process is ongoing in several member States. In this regard, and in order to recognize countries' current efforts on e-government and also to stimulate new initiatives, ECA launched in May 2007, the Technology in Government Award (TIGA), which aims to encourage the use of ICTs in the delivery of public services. Sixteen projects benefited from the first Award.

National actions

Some African countries are in the process of establishing policies and institutions on STI for sustainable development, mainly in the form of National Environment Management Authorities. But these are mainly focused on the modern sectors of the economy and have not yet impacted traditional activities such as peasant agriculture. Recent focus on science-based Sustainable Modernization of Agriculture and Rural Transformation (SMART) through the CAADP and the African Green Revolution Alliance, headed by former UN Secretary General Kofi Annan, is very encouraging. Several countries are participating through plans for modernization of agriculture or agriculture-led industrialization strategies (Uganda, Malawi, Nigeria, Ghana and Ethiopia are promising examples).

Communities of practice in STI for sustainable development are getting strengthened in some countries and also regionally, to generate data and give policy advice for science-based decision making. This is particularly evident in Southern and Eastern Africa, and through the new Network of Science Academies in 14 African countries.

As regards ICT, most African countries have developed National Information and Communication Infrastructure (NICI) policies and plans in the framework of the African Information Society Initiative (AISI), which establishes the necessary guidelines and institutional mechanisms to promote an environment that is favorable to competition and investment.

International community support

There is renewed impetus in the international community's support to Africa in the area of STI. The UN Science and Technology Cluster in support of NEPAD is active in areas of STI policy review, basic sciences and engineering, STI indicators, science and technology parks, energy, water and desertification, ICT, African Green Revolution and biotechnology. The G-8 has made several major pledges, particularly in strengthening university STI. African STI practitioners in the Diaspora are also involved in building world-class STI universities in Africa.

Traditional bilateral agencies and international NGOs such as Swedish Agency for Research Cooperation (SAREC), International Development Research Center (IDRC), International Foundation for Science (IFS), Third World Academy of Sciences (TWAS), International Council for Science (ICSU) and Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) continue their focus on building STI capacities and communities in the basic sciences, engineering and agriculture. These have been complemented very recently by heightened activity of USA-based private foundations in the areas of agriculture (African Green Revolution Alliance) and health (Bill and Melinda Gates, Bill Clinton etc.) The World Bank and the AfDB have launched or re-launched STI strategies focusing on African STI. South-South cooperation is picking up through the Group of 77/ Consortium on Science, Technology and Innovation for the South (COSTIS), and through bilateral STI activities of Japan and emerging countries like India, China and Brazil. EU is ramping up its interest in EU-Africa research and development collaboration through partnerships with South Africa, ECA and African Academy of Sciences.

6.7.2 Challenges and constraints

Inadequate awareness of the importance of STI for sustainable development, both at governmental and community levels, remains the main challenge. It leads to inadequate government leadership and investment in proper STI strategies, systems, policies, capacities and institutions. For example, most African countries devote about 0.2 percent of GDP to STI, far below the one percent called for in numerous declarations, and way below the four percent developed countries invest. Communities are unable to adopt STI in their economic activities in order to increase productivity, improve their quality of life and meet development goals. Unsustainable subsistence agriculture with inadequate STI inputs – scientific knowledge, tools and methods predominates. Inadequate capacity, institutional and policy frameworks to promote STI for sustainable development, prevails.

Other problems plaguing the continent's science, technology and innovation system include weak or no links between industry and science and technology institutions, a mismatch between research and development activities and national industrial development strategies and goals. As a result, research findings from public research institutions do not get accessed and used by local industries and particularly small and medium-sized enterprises.

Recent enhanced international interest in Africa's natural resources, especially from the West and the East, has raised concerns about Africa's capacity to participate in STI for the sustainable development and exploitation of these resources.

An ECA study has identified several bottlenecks, which prevent the continent from being competitive in the ICT sub-sector. These include high licensing fees, lack of national standards for Business Process Outsourcing (BPO), high infrastructure costs, difficulties in accessing finance for start-up / expansion of BPO operations, political instability and bureaucracy.

6.7.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Awareness raising, policy analysis and advocacy on issues of STI for sustainable development remain major opportunities for the international community. Opportunities are abound for the international community in STI through regional and interregional collaboration and networking. There is a need to harness the enhanced international interest in Africa, which is leading to prospects of rapid growth, investment and opportunity.

Emerging sectors with such growth prospects include natural resources (led by oil, minerals and timber); infrastructure; energy; agriculture; biotechnology and ICTs. This harnessing can be achieved by building platforms for technological learning, technology transfer, capacity building and knowledge generation and sharing of best practices linked to the emerging sectors. ECA is developing one such platform between Africa and Europe, while the G77 and China have developed a South-South Consortium on Science, Technology and Innovation for the South (COSTIS). Both platforms represent a unique blend of political power and scientific and technical expertise, because they will provide a unique platform for governmental agencies responsible for funding research and development to interact with leaders in academia and industry.

The international community will benefit from closer collaboration with NEPAD, AU Commission and AfDB, and from mobilizing communities of practice and other stakeholders in STI for sustainable development.

An ECA study, which examined efforts made by member States on job creation taking advantages of the potentials of ICT in developing an information economy, recommends that African countries should position themselves especially in the areas of outsourcing, taking advantages of low wages, multi-lingual environment, favorable time zone, large pool of ICT graduates, Diaspora awareness and improved ICT infrastructure.

6.8 Capacity building

African governments have the responsibility to build institutions that suit the African reality, including those that are capable of supporting African democracy and nation building and creating circumstances in which people feel secure to carry out daily activities. Governments are responsible for creating policy environments, as well as the actual policies that give effect to their national programmes for economic and social development. Governments are also responsible for creating economic and investment environments in which business can thrive and economies can grow. Governments need to create a dispensation to protect precious natural and cultural heritages for generations to come. Increasingly, governments are also responsible for building alliances and partnerships across national borders since policy constraints will not be effectively addressed if attention is only paid to nation-state boundaries. Furthermore, the current global setup requires countries to be able to engage in the global economy in an optimal manner. These roles of government demand capacity that might take different forms, all of which need building. Governments must embrace a broad perspective of capacity building in order to ensure appropriate capacity to fulfill their many different roles³⁴.

NEPAD, which is underpinned by the energizing and revitalization of development institutions through the adoption of policies and strategies that will enable accelerating implementation of development initiatives and sustain economic growth over time, has a great stake in capacity building initiatives in the continent³⁵. Given the role of the private sector in driving the development agenda forward, its partnership with governments in building adequate and appropriate capacity in countries is crucial. The AU/NEPAD defines Capacity building as a process of enabling individuals, groups, institutions or societies to define, articulate, engage and actualise their vision of developmental goals by building on their own resources and ideas and making strategic use of other available resources and ideas that can be organically applied to their situation/context. In this context, capacity building is seen to involve three focus areas namely, human resource development, organizational development and institutional development.

WSSD called for enhancing and accelerating human, institutional and infrastructure capacity-building initiatives and promoting partnerships that respond to the specific needs of developing

³⁴ Adapted from a keynote address by Geraldine J Fraser-Moleketi, Minister for Public Service and Administration, South Africa and Chairperson of the 5th Pan African Conference of Ministers for Public and Civil Service at the occasion of the NEPAD workshop on Developing a Capacity Building Strategy for Africa, held in Johannesburg, South Africa 21 – 23 November 2006.

³⁵ Ibid

countries in the context of sustainable development. It also called for support to local, national, subregional and regional initiatives with action to develop, use and adapt knowledge and techniques and to enhance local, national, subregional and regional centers of excellence for education, research and training in order to strengthen the knowledge capacity of developing countries and countries with economies in transition through, inter alia, the mobilization from all sources of adequate financial and other resources, including new and additional resources.

Furthermore, the Summit enjoined the international community to provide technical and financial assistance to developing countries, including through the strengthening of capacity-building efforts, to: assess their own capacity development needs and opportunities at the individual, institutional and societal levels; design programmes for capacity-building and support for local, national and community-level programmes that focus on meeting the challenges of globalization more effectively and attaining the internationally agreed development goals, including those contained in the Millennium Declaration; develop the capacity of civil society, including youth to participate, as appropriate, in designing, implementing and reviewing sustainable development policies and strategies at all levels; and build, and where appropriate, strengthen national capacities for carrying out effective implementation of Agenda 21.

6.8.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Building global support and partnerships with global and regional institutions is a necessary endeavor that generates commitment for the African capacity development effort. Forging strategic partnerships is not only important in resource mobilization, but also important with respect to technical assistance and sharing of lessons and best practice³⁶. In this context, African countries have partnered with many institutions in an effort to address the challenges of capacity building in Africa. The World Bank has been at the forefront of such partnership. The Bank has contributed to the establishment of institutions such as the African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF), launched the Partnership for Capacity Building in Africa (PACT) and has used its loan facilities to assist countries to build their capacity. Between 1995 and 2004, the World Bank provided some \$9 billion in lending and about \$900 million in grants and administrative budget to support public sector capacity building in Africa. Other agencies such as AfDB, UNDP and ECA have also been among the major players in advocating for, promoting or funding capacity building initiatives (ECA, 2007; http://www.worldbank.org/ieg/africa_capacity_building/, 08-10-07). Several other bilateral agencies and donors have also undertaken various aspects of capacity building in Africa. However, lack of coordination of these activities, leads to inefficiencies arising out of duplication of efforts and other problems.

ACBF, based in Harare, Zimbabwe, is an independent, capacity-building institution established on February 9, 1991 through the collaborative efforts of three multilateral institutions (AfDB, the World Bank and UNDP), African governments and bilateral donors. The Foundation has added value to capacity building, development management, good governance and poverty reduction, through the channeling of resources into building economic policy analysis and development

³⁶ Culled from the keynote address of the Minister for Public Service and Administration, the Republic of South Africa, at the 5th Pan African Conference of Ministers of Public Service 12-15 December 2005, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

management capacity in sub-Saharan Africa. <http://www.acbf-pact.org/aboutACBF/> 08-10-07. As at 2006, ACBF had committed more than US\$290 million to capacity building in some 40 African countries and in the strengthening of RECs to take forward more purposefully, commitment to regional integration. ACBF is a significant partner institution to NEPAD with which it signed a memorandum of understanding in January 2004, and of the AU, whose Commission it is providing capacity building support (Sako, S. 2006). The African Economic Research Consortium (AERC), established in 1988 and based in Nairobi undertakes advanced policy research and training in economics and economic management on the continent. It promotes funded research among economics experts in Africa. It has also established training for MA degrees in Economics and Economic Policy Management in selected universities in the subregions of Africa.

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) launched a new Initiative in 2002 to support capacity building in Africa. The Initiative's strategic goal is to strengthen the capacity of African countries to design and implement their poverty-reducing strategies, as well as to improve the coordination of capacity-building Technical Assistance (TA) in the poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP) process. The initiative therefore aims to increase the volume of Fund TA to Africa in its core areas of expertise, with a focus on capacity-building, as well as raise the effectiveness of TA through a more rapid and better-informed response, closer monitoring, and enhanced government accountability for TA outcomes. As part of the Initiative, three African Regional Technical Assistance Centers (AFRITACs) have been established. The East AFRITAC, opened in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, in 2002, now serves seven countries in East Africa (Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Uganda). The West AFRITAC opened in Bamako, Mali, in 2003, to serve ten countries in West Africa (Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea-Bissau, Guinea, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Senegal, and Togo). Most recently, in 2007, the Central AFRITAC was opened in Libreville, Gabon. The AFRITACs are financed by contributions from 24 donor partners, the IMF, as well as by in-kind contributions by host governments.

The Centers' activities take place in close cooperation with the AfDB and donor partners. This facilitates the design, implementation, and monitoring of ongoing TA programmes in member countries. Some training activities are carried out jointly with the ACBF of which the IMF is a member. The Fund participates in the activities of PACT, and is a member of its implementing agency, ACBF. The Fund's proposed contribution to ACBF's next five-year pledging period is \$4 million. This would be earmarked to finance ACBF training activities to be designed and implemented jointly by the ACBF and by the AFRITACs.

The AU/NEPAD has recently developed a Capacity Development Strategic Framework (CDSF), which will guide capacity building activities on the continent. The objectives of the CDSF include: developing processes and systems for empowering country leadership teams with the knowledge, information and values that espouse accountability at all levels, especially to the citizens; creating space for stakeholder participation, influence critical engagement by improving communications on the use of sub-regional and continental spaces; developing and continuously reviewing sets of criteria that enable citizens and different stakeholders to challenge leadership on accountability and build their critical consciousness; supporting initiatives that foster a culture of commitment and adherence to due process and policies by governments, business and civil society actors; and building networks and constituencies of expertise beyond Africa through a programme for engaging Africans in Diaspora. The key drivers for the CDSF include leadership

transformation, knowledge economy, mobilization and participation of African people, mobilization and utilization of African skills, enhancing access to and maximization of African resources, coordination and harmonization of capacity of capacity-builders, communication and gender mainstreaming. The operationalization of the CDSF will involve processes and institutions at the country level, regional level and continental level.

Challenges and constraints

In spite of the many efforts to address capacity building deficits, the problem has continued to persist. The major challenges include: capacity-building efforts that have been poorly coordinated and not highly valued; poor attitudes and mindsets driving development; limited institutional focus towards advisory development; poor coordination and inadequate integration of efforts in capacity building; ineffective mobilization and utilization of African Capacity; wide gap between commitments and implementation; inadequate committed and accountable leadership; high dependency on external capacity; poor mobilization and utilization of capacity in the Diaspora; and inadequate diagnosis of the real issues in capacity development.

Lessons learned and way forward

Any capacity building programme is obliged to clearly tie in with, and take forward the developmental agenda. A capacity development strategy must logically flow from this vision from which the developmental objectives emanate.

In order to ensure that capacity building in Africa achieves the desired results, it must be seen in its correct perspective. The AU/NEPAD framework gives a model within which capacity building can be prioritized and coordinated. Capacity building itself must be seen as a political concept. It speaks to the idea of having the power and the ability to, in the first place, determine a strategic, political agenda, and then, secondly, to implement the agenda once decisions have been made. In the policy sense, it is having the capacity to make good policy decisions, as well as the capacity to implement the policy agenda of a particular government.

There is need for conducive environment for citizen participation in governance and policy processes. Such a conducive environment should guarantee and protect citizens' human rights and the democratic expression requisite to holding those in power accountable. Since it has been noted above that most capacity support remains fragmented, there is need for a coordinated and integrated capacity. This should focus on all spheres of governance, from the community to the local, as well as the national, regional, and continental levels, including key institutions and stakeholders. Sector-specific capacity building strategies need to be strengthened, well targeted and coordinated.

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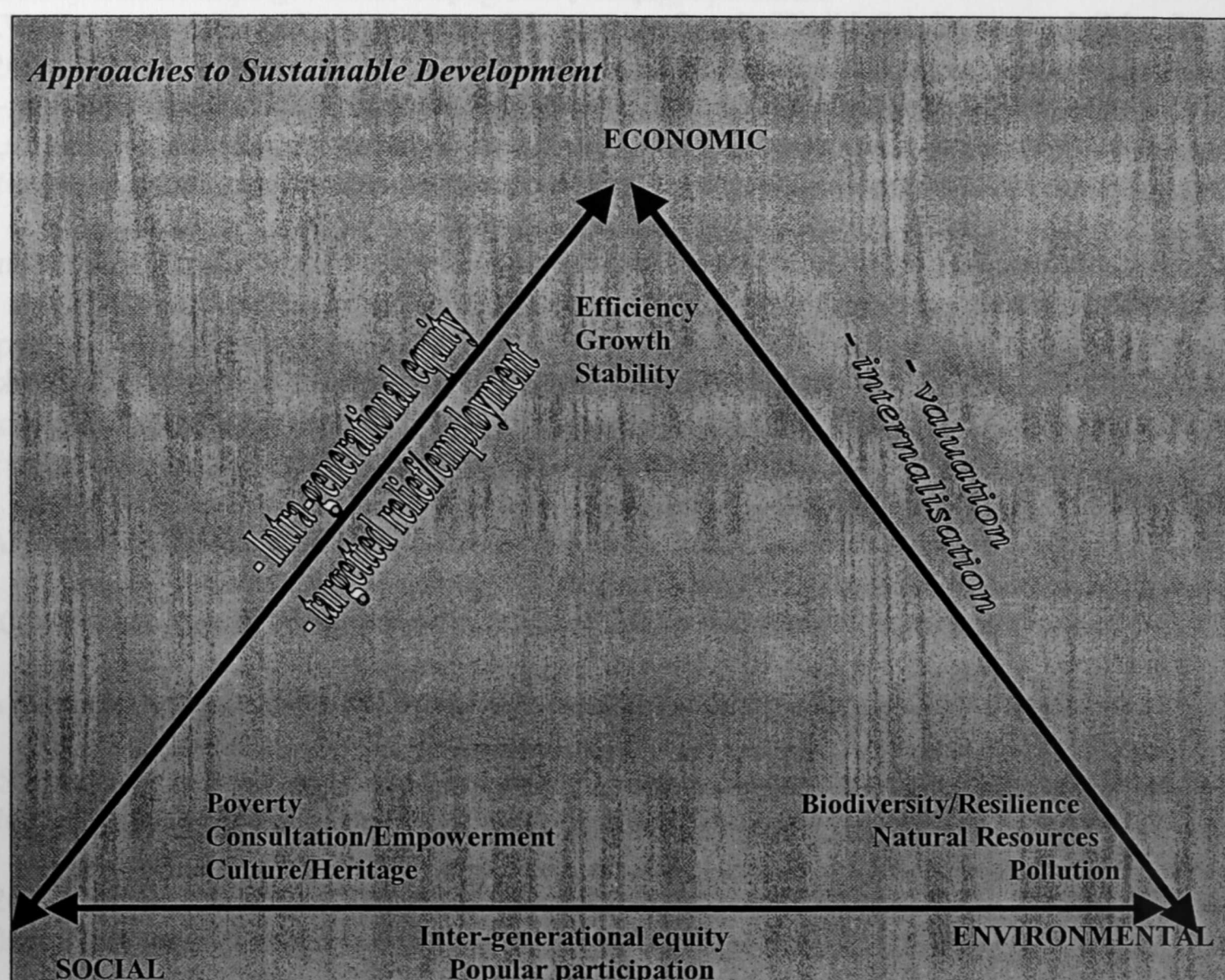
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7. Harnessing the interlinkages

WSSD broadened and strengthened the general understanding of sustainable development, particularly, the important linkages between social and economic development, and environmental protection. The Summit recognized these three components of sustainable development, as interdependent and mutually reinforcing pillars, hence the emphasis placed on promoting their balanced integration. The interfaces between them are important (see figure below). According to Munashinge, (1996), the economic and social elements interact to give rise to issues such as intra-generational equity (income distribution) and targeted relief for the poor. The economic-environmental interface has yielded ideas on valuation and internalization of environmental impacts. Finally, the social-environmental linkage has led to renewed interest in areas like inter-generational equity (rights of future generations) and popular participation.



Source: Munasinghe, 1996

The above suggests a broad integrated conceptual approach in which the net benefits of economic activities are maximized, subject to maintaining the stock of productive assets over time, and providing a social safety net to meet the basic needs of the poor. It calls for appropriate institutional and strategic frameworks and supporting systems that foster an integrated approach. NEPAD and the Commission on Africa Report clearly articulate the interlinkages between Africa's many development challenges. The Africa Environment Outlook (2006) underscores the interdependency between environmental concerns and various facets of development, and calls for an interlinkages

approach. And the various thematic reports of the UN Millennium Project, demonstrate the interlinkages between the different MDGs, and the need for adopting an integrated approach in pursuit of their attainment in an efficient and effective manner. Therefore, these global and regional-level responses, individually and collectively, provide opportunities for enhancing synergies and promoting interlinkages in addressing the region's development challenges.

7.1 Good governance- an important prerequisite to sustainable development

The Summit acknowledged that good governance within each country and at the international level is essential for sustainable development. And that peace, security, stability and respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, including the right to development, as well as respect for cultural diversity, are essential for achieving sustainable development and ensuring that sustainable development benefits all. Against this backdrop, the Summit undertook to strengthen and improve governance at all levels and called for more effective democratic and accountable international and multilateral institutions. Moreover, NEPAD and the JPOI, recognize peace, security and good governance as important prerequisites to achieving sustainable development in the region. The Commission on Africa puts it aptly- "There can be no development without peace, but there can be no peace without development. Therefore, investing in development is investing in peace".

Conflict is one of Africa's classic vicious circles. Causes of conflict in Africa have already been discussed under chapter two. However, the youth conflict nexus is quite important and therefore needs highlighting. Young people constitute the majority of the African population and are perceived as the future of the continent and its best opportunity of finding sustainable solutions to its most critical problems. However, the worsening conditions for this vital section of the population, in particular, high unemployment combined with a high incidence of HIV/AIDS, and poor access to health and educational services, have become a potential source of threat to peace and stability in the region. Measures to address this challenge should include improving access to productive assets for youth, empowering them politically and economically, creating and expanding income-generating activities and involving them in community-based decision-making, so as to provide them with the opportunity to become active agents for building peace, preventing conflict and promoting a culture of peace (UN, 2005; UN, 2006).

The Commission on Africa Report notes that Africa's blessings proved also to be a curse. For the history of the past four decades reveals that countries with the most oil, diamonds and other high-value natural resources, are among those which have experienced the most war and armed conflict. These arise as a result of disputes involving the ownership, management and control of these resources. The illegal exploitation of natural resources in conflict-prone and conflict ridden countries is one of the contributory causes of conflict and of its recurrence, as experienced in Angola, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Sierra Leone and Liberia, where natural resources have provided major funding for the perpetuation of wars. For African countries emerging from conflict, a major challenge is to develop mechanisms to promote responsible, economically productive resource management and to ensure equitable distribution of wealth to all stakeholders. Inadequate global economic and financial regulations, high profit margins and weak administrative and technical capacity in a number of African countries make managing the natural resource sector particularly difficult. The difficulty of integrating incompatible land tenure systems, for which the

local communities have varying degrees of recognition and respect, remains a major challenge in some African countries (Commission on Africa, 2005; UN 2005; UN, 2006).

All this has had a knock-on effect. Investors, both domestic and foreign, see Africa as an undifferentiated whole – war in one country casts long shadows not just over neighboring states, but over the whole continent. As a result, Africa seems to many outsiders an unattractive place in which to invest or keep their money. And what money is made in Africa is encouraged to flow out. Around 40 percent of African savings are kept outside the continent, compared with just six percent for East Asia and three percent for South Asia. What is true of money is also true of people. Many educated Africans have over the years quit their homelands because they are frustrated at not being able to put their skills to good use. They can also earn more and have a better life elsewhere. Africa loses an average of 70,000 skilled personnel a year to developed countries in this brain drain (Commission on Africa, 2005). It is therefore by no coincidence that NEPAD has, as one of its foundations, the expansion of democratic frontiers and the deepening of the culture of human rights.

7.2 The MDGs, peace and security

The UN Millennium Task Force notes that the MDGs not only reflect economic targets, global justice and human rights- they also are vital to international and national security and stability. Poor and hungry societies are much more likely than high-income societies to fall into conflict over scarce, vital and natural resources. Many world leaders in recent years have rightly stressed the powerful relationship between poverty reduction and global security. While violent conflicts surely result from a combination of factors, research suggests a strong causal impact of poverty and adverse income shocks on the onset of conflict. The risk of civil conflict declines steadily as national incomes increase. Negative economic growth shocks increase the risk of civil conflict dramatically. Achieving the MDGs should therefore be placed centrally in international efforts to end violent conflict, instability, and terrorism. Investing in development is especially important to reduce the probabilities of conflict, and development strategies should take into consideration their possible effects on reducing (or inadvertently increasing) the risks of conflict.

7.3 Interlinkages between the MDGs

Long-term poverty reduction requires sustained economic growth, which in turn depends on technological advancement and capital accumulation. The MDGs play two roles in the growth process. First, the Goals are ends in themselves, in that reduced hunger, gender equality, improved health and education, and broader access to safe water and sanitation, are direct goals of society. Second, the Goals are also “capital inputs” to economic growth and further development. A healthier worker is a more productive worker, as is a better-educated worker. Improved water and sanitation infrastructure raises output per capita through various channels, such as reduced illness. So, many of the Goals are a part of capital accumulation, defined broadly, as well as desirable in their own right.

Poverty and hunger

Hunger is both a cause and an effect of poverty. It holds back economic growth and limits progress in reducing poverty. The negative economic impact of hunger is dramatic, with annual losses of at least 6–10 percent in labor productivity and hence in Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Poor and hungry people often face social and political exclusion. They have little access to education, health services, and safe drinking water.

Good health, coupled with safe water and good sanitation, is vital for maintaining adequate nutrition. Common infectious diseases and parasites prevent people from absorbing and utilizing food properly. The interaction works both ways: malnutrition and hunger are the number one risk factor for illness worldwide. For example, malnourishment weakens the immune system and strength of those affected by HIV/AIDS, making them succumb more quickly to the disease. Hungry people are highly vulnerable to crises and hazards because of their poverty. The crises may be caused by natural disasters, such as major droughts or floods, or by manmade disasters, such as war. The hazards include factors such as insecure rights to land and other natural resources, lack of improved agricultural technology, inability to store produce after harvest, environmental degradation, lack of income-earning opportunities, poor health, and so on. It is particularly important that hunger reduction should be a major part of poverty reduction strategies, since little progress in reducing poverty is likely, as long as large numbers of people suffer from malnutrition.

Education and gender

Access to basic education, in addition to being recognized as a human right, and a vital part of individuals' capacity to lead lives they value, is an important instrument with which people can improve their lives in other ways. Education enhances the capacity of poor people to participate in the political process and thus to organize for other social and political rights and to demand governments that are more representative and accountable. Better-educated people earn more, not only or primarily because they are better credentialed, but also because they are more productive. A workforce that is more skilled and has more knowledge also contributes to higher economic growth. Private returns to education are not confined to higher wages and incomes. Independent of their household income, mothers with primary education have better access to the information they need to help keep their children healthy. Education, particularly girls' education, has social returns to society at large as well, since society captures some of the benefits of improved health, lower fertility, and the at-home education that educated mothers transfer to their children. Women with limited education become mothers at a young age and are unable to space their births appropriately, and lack awareness of good nutrition and child nurturing practices. They have a high risk of giving birth to babies with low birth weights, perpetuating a vicious circle of malnourishment down the generations. More education, particularly of women, is strongly associated with better family health and improved capacity to plan and time births. Education that is broadly shared ensures that growth itself will be broadly shared. Education that reaches the poor, women, and marginalized ethnic groups, brings private benefits to them, as well as benefits to society as whole by reducing inequality, diminishing discrimination, and creating more cohesion in the long run.

Health

Improved health has pervasive direct and indirect effects on raising both the level and the growth rate of income. Economic growth, in turn, is necessary to pull countries out of poverty traps, including the vicious circle of disease and deprivation that characterizes them. At the individual level, serious health conditions can push already poor people even deeper into poverty when disabling illness prevents workers from earning income or the out-of-pocket cost of obtaining healthcare has catastrophic impact. Reducing parasitic and infectious disease burden improves nutrition levels. Birth spacing protects maternal and child nutrition and health. Improved health enhances educational outcomes by improving cognitive abilities and attendance rates. AIDS prevention and treatment reduce the number of orphans, who are less likely to complete primary education. Reproductive health services reduce the withdrawal of girls from school related to sibling care burdens caused by unplanned pregnancies or due to adolescent pregnancy. Family planning services facilitate employment and social participation opportunities for women, strengthen partner relationships, and provide a greater sense of well-being. Access to emergency obstetric care in the event of pregnancy and delivery complications saves women's lives. Access to family planning services reduces total fertility rates to levels people desire, thus mitigating population pressures on the environment.

Box 1: Health, education and poverty

Africa's record on human development is poor compared to that of East and South Asia. The decades, in which Asia was investing, the 1970s and 1980s, were the years of crisis when African governments were slashing the budgets of both clinics and schools at the behest of the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Evidence shows that IMF and World Bank economic policy in the 1980s and early 1990s took little account of how these policies would potentially impact on poor people in Africa. Many health and education systems began to break down. And all of this came just as AIDS began to take its deadly toll. All this illustrates another of the vicious circles so typical of poverty traps. Without functioning clinics and schools, a healthy and skilled workforce is harder to achieve; without such a workforce one of the key conditions for creating economic growth is removed; without economic growth there is no money to invest in clinics and schools. Africa's problem is that all these vicious circles interlock. That is why tackling them requires strong action in all these areas, at the same time.

Commission on Africa, 2005

Environmental sustainability

The pursuit of environmental sustainability is an essential part of the global effort to reduce poverty, because environmental degradation is inextricably and causally linked to problems of poverty, hunger, gender inequality, and health. Livelihood strategies and food security of the poor often depend directly on functioning ecosystems and the diversity of goods and ecological services they provide. Insecure rights of the poor to environmental resources, as well as inadequate access to environmental information, markets, and decision-making, limit their capacity to protect the environment and improve their livelihoods and well-being.

Time that women and children, especially girls spend on collecting water and fuelwood reduces their opportunity for income-generating activities and study time, respectively. Women's unequal rights and insecure access to land and other natural resources limit opportunities for accessing other productive assets. Environmental risk factors account for up to one-fifth of the total burden of disease in developing countries. Water and sanitation-related diseases and acute respiratory

infections, primarily caused by indoor air pollution, are leading causes of mortality in children under the age of five. Indoor air pollution and carrying heavy loads during late stages of pregnancy put women's health at risk before childbirth. Water is a factor of production in agriculture, industry, and other economic activities. Investments in water infrastructure and services are a catalyst for local and regional development. Improving the lives of slum dwellers helps combat HIV/AIDS, improve environmental sustainability, and address gender inequality.

Therefore, protecting and managing the natural resource base of economic and social development and changing consumption and production patterns are fundamental requirements for poverty eradication. Achieving environmental sustainability requires carefully balancing human development activities, while maintaining a stable environment that predictably and regularly provides resources such as freshwater, food, clean air, wood, fisheries, and productive soils; and that protects people from floods, droughts, pest infestations, and disease. Since rich countries consume far more environmental resources and produce more waste than poor countries, many environmental problems (such as climate change, loss of species diversity, and management of global fisheries) must be solved through a global partnership between developed and developing countries.

Global partnership for development (trade, science and technology)

Openness to trade is associated with higher incomes and better economic performance. Openness to trade gives firms and households' access to world markets for goods, services, and knowledge, thus lowering prices, increasing the quality and variety of consumption goods, and fostering specialization of economic activity in areas where countries have a comparative advantage. Trade generates more investment and fosters higher productivity of domestic industries as a result of competition and access to knowledge. Trade is important for generating the positive externalities that are associated with learning through the diffusion and absorption of technology.

However, the quality of infrastructure, education and training, and the labor force, among other factors, will play an important role in determining the relative costs of production and the competitiveness of firms. Furthermore, trade performance and the gains from trade enjoyed by a country also depend on what trading partners do. Foreign market access restrictions may lower (raise) the prices of exports (imports) and have negative effects on the terms of trade, the incentives to investment, and the growth potential of developing countries. That is, international policy settings also matter. For developing countries to benefit from their comparative advantage (low labor costs, resource endowments) and expand their trade, the restrictions and barriers to their exports of goods and services must be removed, along with anticompetitive practices and distortions in key sectors such as agriculture and services.

A nation's ability to solve problems and initiate and sustain economic growth depends partly on its capabilities in science, technology, and innovation. For example, science, technology, and innovation reduce poverty by contributing to economic development. They alleviate hunger by improving nutrition, increasing yields of cash and subsistence crops, improving soil management, and creating efficient irrigation systems. ICTs can increase education by facilitating distance learning, providing remote access to educational resources, and enabling other solutions. Many technologies hold the promise of significantly improving the conditions of women in developing countries (by improving energy sources, agricultural technology, and access to water and sanitation,

for example). Many health interventions, including the treatment and prevention of malaria, HIV/AIDS, drug-resistant tuberculosis, and vitamin and other micronutrient deficiencies, require new treatments and vaccines. The production of generic medicines holds the promise of improving poor people's access to essential medicines. Improved scientific as well as traditional or indigenous knowledge at the local level will be indispensable for monitoring and managing complex ecosystems, such as watersheds, forests, and seas, and for helping to predict (and thereby manage) the impact of climate change and the loss of biodiversity. Access to water and sanitation will require continuous improvement in low-cost technologies for water delivery and treatment, drip irrigation, and sanitation.

7.4 The need for a holistic and integrated approach

The foregoing clearly demonstrates the need for a holistic and integrated approach in addressing Africa's sustainable development challenges. The work of the UN Millennium task forces shows that no "silver bullet" exists to reach any individual target, let alone the ensemble of Goals. Required instead are integrated strategies for complementary and mutually reinforcing interventions. Similarly, the Africa Environment Outlook (2006) advocates for the adoption of an interlinkages approach to the challenges facing Africa. An interlinkages approach recognizes the complexities inherent in ecosystem dynamics and their interface with the equally complex social, economic and political dynamics inherent in human development and governance, particularly policies, laws and institutions. It stresses the importance of coordination of action across the relevant dimensions of sustainable development.

By adopting an interlinkages approach, policy may maximize the opportunities across a number of domains. When effective institutional systems are developed to implement an interlinkages approach, it can give policymakers the advantage of having a better grasp of the range of options available, the costs and benefits of their decisions, and how to determine the interagency links that are necessary to promote "joined-up policies". An interlinkages approach in the formulation of policy and the development of programmes can help to ensure that interventions are more relevant, robust and effective, and that these policies are based on principles that are cross-sectoral and interdisciplinary. It can also help to sharpen the focus of policy and action, while at the same time ensuring that spatial and temporal factors across multiple sectors and ecosystems are fully considered. Interlinkages may help bring into focus certain issues, such as gender, that are often neglected.

Policies that are comprehensive and adopt an interlinkages approach provide better opportunities for addressing multiple, related challenges and for developing effective solutions. The UN Millennium task force on investment noted that to achieve the MDGs, huge new investments and, in many cases, better policies and institutions are needed. The task force called for the development of MDG-based poverty reduction strategies, embedded in a 10-year MDG framework. The process of developing the MDG-based poverty reduction strategy should be open and consultative, including all key stakeholders. The strategy should take into account issues such as gender equality and must be created and implemented in an environmentally sustainable manner right from the start. The Commission on Africa also underlined the importance of gender equality and urged African governments to include environmental sustainability considerations in poverty reduction strategies.

Several Conferences and Summits have also called for the establishment of institutions and development of policies and strategies that are responsive to the requirements of sustainable development. The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in 1992, as well as WSSD recommended that governments should establish national coordinating institutions for sustainable development or similar entities, otherwise known as National Councils for Sustainable Development (NCSDs). The Conference and Summit also called on countries to prepare and implement National Strategies for Sustainable Development (NSSDs). The JPOI states that where applicable, NSSDs could be formulated as poverty reduction strategies that integrate economic, social and environmental aspects of sustainable development. Related to this is the call made by the World Summit on Development, for countries to adopt by 2006, and implement comprehensive national development strategies to achieve the internationally agreed development goals and objectives, including the MDGs.

Africa's response

ECA undertook a review of the establishment and functioning of NCSDs in Africa. The review entailed a questionnaire survey, which was completed by National Focal Points for Sustainable Development (NFPs) in ³⁷23 countries and a desk review, which provided information on ³⁸14 additional countries. The review commenced in 2004 and culminated in the publication of a report in December 2005, entitled "National Councils for Sustainable Development: A Review of Institutions and their Functioning". This section is informed by the said publication, and the ongoing study on National Strategies for Sustainable Development (NSSDs) provides updates on some issues. Actions taken and progress made in relation to poverty reduction and MDG-based strategies are highlighted in chapter two.

7.4.1 Concrete actions taken and progress made

Institutional framework

Most countries have established NCSDs. Of the 37 countries studied, only two (Zambia and Burundi) had not yet established such an entity. Among the survey countries, 36 percent had bodies that are multi-stakeholder entities with names mirroring NCSD or closely related. However, it was striking that none of these had a broad mandate with corresponding broad-based activities that addressed all three pillars of sustainable development. Further, among the 35 NCSDs, 43 percent were multi-stakeholder environment-related entities or single environment agencies, and 46 percent had environment-related mandates. Among the NCSDs of survey countries whose activities are specified, 71 percent executed environment-related activities. Notwithstanding, it was encouraging to note that among the 35 countries that had established NCSDs, eight (23 percent) had recognized that their bodies were not NCSDs in the strict sense; an additional two (6 percent) stated that their

³⁷ Algeria, Benin, Botswana, Cameroon, Central Africa Republic, Egypt, Ethiopia, The Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe

³⁸ Burkina Faso, Burundi, Comoros, Djibouti, Guinea Bissau, Madagascar, Mauritania, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Togo, Sao Tome and Principe, Tunisia, Uganda,

bodies were of an interim nature, and seven (20 percent) were in the process of establishing “proper” NCSDs.

A ³⁹16-country analysis on NSSDs currently being conducted by the Commission has revealed that national focal points for sustainable development are gradually changing from Environment Ministries/ Agencies to Finance and Planning Ministries/Commissions. This is an important step forward considering that Finance and Planning Ministries/Commissions are responsible for coordinating development planning in countries. However, this change will only yield desired results, if appropriate coordination and integration mechanisms that address the three pillars of sustainable development in a balanced manner are put in place.

With regard to the location of the NCSDs within government administrative structure, the NCSD report states that all countries with bodies located under the Office of the President/Prime Minister considered that the high-level positioning ensures effective coordination of policies and plans. With respect to NCSDs located in ministries, it was suggested that such location ensures continuity and effective collaboration with other sectoral ministries. However, inter-ministerial rivalries presented a major threat to their effective functioning. Seventy-eight percent of NCSDs, chaired by the Prime Minister, President or Vice President, or located under their Offices, executed environment-related activities. This was also true for those NCSDs with broad mandates. Thus, the observation that the location of the body within government administrative structure is useful, but a weak indicator compared to the actual policy influence of the body, and invariably, the demonstrated political will is quite pertinent.

More than half of the specified NCSDs in the study countries had been decentralized. This was closely linked to the local government decentralization process, which invariably, is linked to the democratization process in the region. Coordination between the bodies and their decentralized structures was mostly assured through various multi-stakeholder committees, which allowed for direct communication.

Representation, collaboration, coordination, integration and participation of major groups

Membership of government institutions to most NCSDs cut across all sectors. Representation from environment and natural resources, planning and finance-related government ministries and agencies, was quite satisfactory. However, representation from social sector related ministries and agencies needed improving. Major groups were represented in most NCSDs. However their representation was generally not broad and more needed to be done in terms of the representation of certain groups, particularly workers and trade unions, parliamentarians, indigenous people, farmers, women and youth groups.

There was generally a good level of collaboration in the execution of activities, and mechanisms for coordination had, to varying degrees, been established in a large majority of survey countries. Countries used coordination, participatory, consultative and sensitization mechanisms and approaches to integrate the three pillars of sustainable development into their work. Although none of the survey countries had a specific strategy for stakeholder participation, this had been

³⁹ Algeria, Benin, Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique The Gambia, Senegal, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Tunisia, Uganda and Zambia.

institutionalized through incorporation in thematic, national and sectoral policies and strategies, and as a matter of standard practice.

Policies, strategies, plans and legislation

The NCSD study findings revealed that countries had adopted different combinations of policies, strategies and plans, to address sustainable development issues. Some countries had revised their policies to take into account principles of sustainability, participation, efficiency as well as integrative, and harmonized development. The 16-country NSSD study also revealed that 10 countries (Algeria, Cameroon, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Mauritius, The Gambia, Tunisia, Uganda and Zambia) were in the process of implementing their NSSDs. Of the remaining countries, the NSSD of one had been approved, but was yet to be implemented (Senegal). The NSSDs of Benin and Mozambique had been developed and were awaiting approval, while those of Morocco and South Africa were under development. Only Sierra Leone indicated that no action had been taken towards developing a NSSD.

The NSSD types being implemented were quite diverse. Two highlighted the environmental dimension (Algeria and Tunisia), two highlighted the economic dimension (Kenya and Mauritius) and three were poverty reduction strategies (Cameroon, Ghana and Uganda). The remaining three, were a national development plan (Zambia), a national long-term vision document (The Gambia) and a "NSSD" (Malawi). Among the NSSDs that were yet to be implemented, one highlighted the environmental dimension (Mozambique) and two were "NSSDs" (Benin and Senegal). Priorities addressed by the different NSSDs vary in comprehensiveness, but most covered the four dimensions of sustainable development. The manner and levels of integration and participation also varied.

Countries' views on the 2005 World Summit national development strategy-related resolution

The NSSD study explored countries' views and implementation of the 2005 World Summit Resolution on national development strategies. The majority of responding countries viewed the MDGs as integral to this resolution. Among the responding countries, all nine that were implementing their NSSDs were of the view that this resolution had been addressed through existing national planning frameworks, policies and strategies. Nonetheless, Kenya, Cameroon and Mauritius added that the requirements would be better articulated in ongoing or planned strategic processes. As regards supporting processes, Ghana regarded capacity building as an important requirement for successful implementation, while The Gambia called for meaningful partnership among all stakeholders.

Regarding the four countries that were yet to implement or were in the process of developing their NSSDs, Senegal was of the view that its NSSD, as well as other strategies and planning processes, together, meet the requirements of the resolution, while Benin alluded that the country's many development strategies would suffice. However, Benin advanced that ensuring consistency of the different strategies and integrating them into a coherent national development strategy would be ideal. Meanwhile, Morocco and South Africa were of the view that their respective NSSDs under development would adequately satisfy the related requirements of the resolution. Sierra Leone's view was that the country's PRS has adequately responded to the requirements of the resolution.

Funding and implementation experiences

Funding is clearly a constraining factor to the effective functioning of NCSDs, and the implementation of the sustainable development agenda in Africa. The location of the NCSD under a high level office (Office of the President / Prime Minister) did not automatically guarantee adequate funding. Many development partners support sustainable development-related activities. Most countries had not established financing mechanisms to generate additional funds, but continued to depend on government budgetary allocations and donor funds.

Support to the institutionalization and development of NCSDs and NSSDs

Many agencies support Africa’s efforts in the establishment of institutional and strategic frameworks for sustainable development. These include, United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), the Earth Council, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the World Bank, International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED), United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), Department For International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom (UK), Network for Environment and Sustainable Development in Africa (NESDA), and International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD).

7.4.2 Challenges and constraints

Inadequate institutional capacities, funding and/ or human resources are major constraints, which have stalled progress and even eroded gains made, especially in countries where civil wars and political unrest persist. Factors that present the most threat to the implementation of the sustainable development agenda are conflicting or overlapping mandate/ legislation resulting in institutional rivalries and parallel processes. Others include Africa’s marginalization in the globalization process, the unsustainable debt burden, population pressure and social inequalities.

A major challenge in Ethiopia was the slow integration of environmental concerns in development plans, while the lack of integration of the three pillars of sustainable development was a problem in South Africa. The lack of integration gives rise to parallel coordinating structures with clearly defined, but not necessarily converging strategic objectives. Lack of coordination, delayed in decentralization, and lack of monitoring and evaluation mechanisms caused major setbacks in Mauritania’s implementation process.

Challenges surfacing from the ongoing16-country NSSD study related to process and capacity issues, as well as meeting sectoral development priorities. In addition to these, monitoring, evaluation, prioritization of needs and donors honoring their commitments, as well as aligning their development assistance objectives to recipient country priorities, were major concerns expressed. The table below provides a snapshot of these challenges.

Challenges

Challenges										
No	Country	Challenges								
		Ownership/ commitment	Governance/ participation	Integration/ coordination	Capacity			Sectoral development		
					Inst.	Tech.	Fin.	Social	Econ.	Env.
1	Algeria							X	X	X
2	Benin			X				X		
3	Ghana	X	X	X	X	X				
4	Kenya		X		X	X	X			
5	Malawi			X			X			
6	Mauritius								X	
7	Morocco		X		X	X		X	X	X
8	Senegal							X		X
9	Sierra Leone				X	X	X			
10	South Africa		X	X				X	X	
11	Zambia		X				X			

7.4.3 Lessons learned and the way forward

Given the shortcomings in the institutional frameworks for sustainable development, countries should be assisted to establish or strengthen (as appropriate) NCSDs that are responsive to the requirements of sustainable development. The name, mandate, location and organizational structures of newly established NCSDs should allow for horizontal and vertical linkages, and ensure that the three pillars of sustainable development are appropriately addressed. In restructuring and strengthening existing NCSDs, it should be ensured that structures and achievements are built upon and continuity assured.

The composition of NCSDs should be broad-based taking into account countries' respective sustainable development priorities and specificities. Trade unions, indigenous peoples, parliamentarians, farmers, women and youth groups should be better represented in NCSDs, and private sector representatives should be empowered to be more actively engaged in activities.

Countries are gradually developing policies, strategies and plans for sustainable development. However, the multiplicity of policies, strategies and plans should be carefully considered and rationalized in order to avoid duplication of efforts and to save on scarce resources. If existing strategies are found wanting, they should be strengthened taking into account sustainable development principles, country needs, priorities, specificities and lessons learned, rather than initiating completely new processes.

The design of policies and strategies should include investment plans that adequately address resource requirements. Countries should also be assisted to identify and establish/ strengthen innovative financing mechanisms to supplement government and donor funds. The scarcity of financial resources also calls for well-targeted spending and prudent management of resources. This should include prioritization of activities and joint implementation.

Countries should be assisted to adopt or enhance the use and application of approaches and tools including models for policy analysis, integrated assessments and environmental/natural resource accounting with a view to achieving a balanced integration of the three pillars of sustainable development.

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