

Sustainable Peace and Security in Africa: Strategy for Attainment of Agenda 2063 of African Union

Osimen Goddy Uwa, Ph.D* & Emeka Charles Iloh, Ph.D**

Department of International Relations & Diplomacy, Afe Babalola University Ado-Ekiti

doi: <https://doi.org/10.37745/gjahss.2013/vol11n36685>

Published: April 12, 2023

Citation: Uwa O.G. & Iloh E.C. (2023) Sustainable Peace and Security in Africa: Strategy for Attainment of Agenda 2063 of African Union, *Global Journal of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences*, Vol.11, No.3, pp.66-85

ABSTRACT: *Armed conflicts have become a regular realism in Africa for so long and the continent is predominantly conflict-prone and has also accommodated more than one third of international violent conflicts in the last few years. The resurgence of conflict in Africa after the Cold War is mostly worrisome and disturbing. Despite these challenges and threats posed by conflict in the region, there is a lack of a common approach in terms of proper policy formulation for appropriate prevention and management of these conflicts that occurs in the continent. The presence of violence conflict and insecurity on the African continent is obvious and apparent. Therefore, the trust of this paper seeks to examine these overlapping issues and attempts to provide a possible solution in resolving them. Data were obtained using secondary sources and the data were analyzed qualitatively. The causes of conflict and insecurity were revealed. The paper also observed that the prospect of achieving Agenda 2063 of African Union is profoundly depends on proper mechanisms for conflict prevention, management and resolution in the region. Therefore, the paper recommends among others, that the putting into practice of the African policy on Governance Architecture must be given the required importance as APSA and AGA are two sides of one coin. Whereas AGA focuses on comprehensive questions of governance, APSA places importance on the instruments for conflict management, resolution, and peace-building. These two must work together, as this will not only bring about peace and security needed in the continent of Africa but, will also guaranteed and serve a lead way for the Attainment of Agenda 2063 of African Union.*

KEYWORDS: conflict, sustainable peace, security, agenda 2063, African union, Africa.

INTRODUCTION

Africa has been the place of some of the world's most violent conflicts in the last few years, with those in Angola, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Rwanda, Somalia, Sudan Uganda and most recently Mali each resulting in the deaths through battlefield casualties or war-induced famine and disease of millions of persons. Kane, (2008) has rightly observed, "the regularity of conflicts in Africa has

become one of the distinct characteristics of the continent”. According to Obasanjo (2014) ‘the number of African countries affected annually by violent conflict increased from certain number before independence of most Africa countries and dropped again during the 2000s and the number of African countries currently entangled in violent conflict in recent time rose sharply, as groups contested the legitimacy of post-colonial governance structures. Gilpin, (2015) believes that weak governance, historical animosities, exclusionary politics, contested legitimacy, resource competition, external factors, globalized conflicts and extremist ideologies have combined to create various episodes of violent conflict across the African continent since most countries gained independence in the 1960s. Millions of lives lost and unaccountable properties destroyed. Violence in the continent has cost many African countries billions due to wanton destruction and foregone economic gains, in spite of numerous attempts to foster sustainable peace and development in the region (Gilpin, 2015).

Though, the African continent has no doubt witnessed many transformations in the last several decades, ranging from advances in the use of communication technology, to rapid economic growth triggered by an expanding market for Africa’s commodities, and a burgeoning youth population able to innovate in this environment. At the same time, our potential to translate these transformations into stable peace and development for African people is hampered by the continuing threat of armed conflict, along with its transmutations. Armed conflicts have become a recurrent reality in Africa since independence (Obasanjo, 2014).

The causes of conflict in Africa are numerous, among the economic causes are:

unfriendly global economic atmosphere and African weakness to the variations in external conditions such as terms of trade, external debt weight, change from a global economy based on the illaudable exploitation of natural resources from most African economies to another based on the exploitation of knowledge, capital flights, brain-drain and information, which have consistently affecting national incomes accompanied by reduction in social spending, food insecurity, and increasing poverty, low GDP and economic inequities as well as poor economic performance (Obasanjo, 2014).

On the socio-political and cultural angle, conflicts in Africa are openly connected to the situations close to the attainment of independence by many African countries, with arrays of ethnic fractions or composition of the independent states. To some extent, arising from these factors, resulted to unhealthy completion and later included under the generic label "governance". Exclusion or perceived exclusion from the political process for reasons of personal, ethnic or value differences, lack of socio-political unity, lack of genuine access to national institutions of governance, reliance on centralized and highly personalized form of governance, perception of inequality and discrimination, constitute major socio-political causes of conflicts in Africa (Francis, 2011). According to Alabi, (2006) ‘while many of the causes may be historic in nature, the glitches are caused by the quality of leadership and lack of political options. The effect of ethnic diversity in

intra-state conflicts is widely debated in Africa. It is therefore, contradictory that though an African continental identity is undoubtedly acknowledged and expounded by all Africans, the accomplishment of national identity has been more tough in the continent, manifesting into one conflict or the other (Alabi, 2006).

Thomson (2004) advanced Colonialism and Imperialism as the reason responsible for the crisis and conflicts in African state. The nature of the historical processes, which led to its formation contributed or the sole reason why Africa continent is conflict prone. The colonial era may have been relatively short in duration but its effect on the continent of Africa both political environment and social life was devastating. Zartman (2000) believes that Imperial struggle during the ‘scramble for Africa’ in the nineteenth century had a deep effect on the formation of the African state and the expansion of African notions of security and good governance. The enduring colonial legacy is perhaps best seen in the enduring schism between Francophone and Anglophone Africa. Thomson (2004) argued that whether it was for economic, strategic or cultural reasons, arguably the most obvious legacy of colonial rule was the division of Africa between the European powers into modern states through agreements ratified at the 1884–85 Berlin Conference (and after), resulting in an uncomfortable fit for Africa’s 3 315 ethnic groups within Africa’s current 54 ‘nation-states’.

On this note, many researches have carried out related research in previous years but were merely concern about the development status of Africa without looking at some of these factors that have hindered development in Africa or denied the continent of her “God given blessings” for several years. The aim of the paper was to discuss the complexity of establishing a realistic evaluation on peace and security in Africa, rejecting the determinism of the “Afro-pessimistic” rhetoric. There are no unpretentious and easy explanations for conflicts in Africa, and the models that have been advanced are both numerous and contradictory. Secondly, most of the articles have always been on academic background or point of view. Therefore, attempt or efforts are made on this paper to look at some of the factors that have hindered Africa in attaining her potentials for so many years. This paper also provides a brief overview of the nature of conflict and insecurity in Africa as well as how it endangered the attainment of agenda 2063 of African Union if proper measures are not put in place. To achieve these laudable objectives of this paper, it was divided into various sections. The first part of the paper looks at some of the important concepts in the study. The second part focuses on the nature of conflict and (in) security in Africa while, the next section focused on the causes and effects of conflict. The paper also reviews the challenges of AU mechanisms in conflict prevention, management and resolution in Africa; and the gap in dealing with them. Some relevant policies were recommended for sustainably breaking the cycle of conflict and insecurity in the continent that in turn could bring to bear or result to sustainable peace and security, and consider how much progress has, in fact, been made in recent decades.

Conceptual Clarification

Concepts clarified in this section include Conflict, Peace and Security.

Concept of Conflict:

This section explains what conflict entails generally in the society. Different scholars have forwarded their ideas related to the prevalence of conflict in any society. For some, conflict has a positive dividend in making human beings able to design a new way to solve their social, economic and political problems and to progress into a better way of life (Coser, 1956:65). There is no society living without conflict and there is a dialectical relation between conflict and progress in a society. Conflict is as natural as the concept of peace contrary to the global or universal conception. For Coser (1956:8) conflict is:

“the struggle over values or claims to status, power, and scarce resources, in which the aims of the groups or individuals involved are not only to obtain the desired values but to neutralize, injure, or eliminate rivals”.

The most important issue in conflict is its prevention and management so that it could not become violent and destructive. Conflict is defined as something that results from opposing interests involving scarce resources, goal divergence and frustrations (Niklas and Mikael, 2005). The frustration-aggression dynamics is one issue that has got emphasis in the social-psychological conceptualization of conflict. On other hand, the word conflict can be defined as clash, competition or collisions of mutual interference of opposing incompatible forces or qualities, ideas, interests and wills (Gove, 1976:476). For political scientists, the term conflict is defined as antagonistic encounters or collisions of interests, principles, ideas, policies or programs that characterize many interactions carried on within or between political systems (Plano, 1973:77). Political conflict has many manifestations, ranging from verbal expressions of disagreement to outright physical combat. Faleti, Olaniyi, Yesufu and Durojaye, (2010) sees Conflict as an inevitable part of life which have different set of beliefs, backgrounds, opinions, ideas and views about life. However, conflict may generally exist wherever or whenever incompatible activities occur and may result in win-lose character. The resolution, transformation and management of conflict may also produce a win-win situation. Kareen, (2000) agreed that conflict is a negation which is anchored on behavioural norms. It is a negative or over-reaction to situation, idea, principles and other forms of behaviour. Once there is the cause for inter-group relations, conflict becomes inevitable and peace must be given a chance. For Boulding (1962:5) “is a situation of competition in which the parties are aware of the incompatibility of potential future positions and in which each party wishes to occupy a position that is incompatible with the wishes of the other”.

Pruitt & Rubin (1986:4) sees conflict as “a perceived divergence of interests, or a belief that the parties’ current aspirations cannot be achieved simultaneously. Human goals and aspirations will always clash. It is therefore unreasonable to hold the vision of a world without conflict. Conflict will always occur in any environment where there is more than one person or group (Albert 2001:3). It has been defined as the existence of non-compatibility or disagreements between two actors (individuals, groups, organizations or nations) in their interaction over the issues of interests, values,

beliefs, emotions, goals, space, positions, scarce resources, etc. The psychological antagonisms are such things as incompatible goals, mutually exclusive interests, emotional hostility, factual or value dissensions and traditional enmities; while antagonistic interactions ‘range from the most direct, violent and unregulated struggle to the subtlest, indirect and highly regulated forms of mutual interference.

Adelue and Kamolafe (2000) defined conflict as a dispute or struggle between two parties that is characterized by overt expression of hostility or international interference in the goal attainment of the opposing inaction of another person, group of persons/parties. Imhabekha (2000) defined conflict as a violent collision, a struggle or context, a battle or a mental struggle which can be destructive in any organization. Akinwunmi (2005) defined conflict as something that exists whenever an action is incompatible with another thus preventing, obstructing and interfering with in some ways that makes the action less likely or less effective.

According to Hogan (2006:76-77) in the Academic’s dictionary of sociology sees: “conflict can be defined as direct and conscious struggle between individuals or groups for the same goal. Defeat of the opponent is seen as essential for achieving the goal”. Hogan enunciated further that ‘in conflict (unlike competition), opponents are primarily oriented toward each other rather than toward the object they seek. In fact, because of the development of strong feelings of hostility, the achievement of the goal may at times be considered secondary to the opponent’s defeat.

This corroborates Akpuru – Aja’s definition and position on conflict when he defined conflict as “an attitude, a behavior or action or a process that introduces strains and stresses in the relationship between two or more parties or goals” (Akpuru – Aja, 2007:15). Akpuru- Aja is of the position and rightly so, that, ‘in conflict, parties perceive or treat each other as a stumbling block that will result in frustrating the other in attaining a set of goals, or even furthering one’s interests. Contrasting images of each party’s intentions, inactions or actions may also create a situation of conflict’ (Akpuru- Aja, 2007:15) Ntunde and Ugwu (2005:637) refers to conflict as disagreement, which results from differing interests, ideas, doctrines, perceptions and orientations in social living. Francis (2011:2) on the other hand defined conflict as the pursuit of incompatible interests and goals by different groups.

A conflict could characterize the inner emotional and psychological state of the individual and relationships within or between different social groups such as the family, town, state, cultures or even civilizations. It could be understood as the opposite of cooperation, harmony, accord or even peace (Sewanyana, 1997). Some scholars differentiate two ways of conceptualizing conflict. For example Niklas and Mikael (2005) differentiated between a traditional and more recent perception of the concept of conflict:

According to the traditional definitions, conflict is the result of opposing interests involving scarce resources, goal divergence and frustration. In more recent perceptions of the conflict concept, we suggest that conflicts should not be defined simply in terms of violence (behaviour) or hostility (attitudes), but also include incompatibility or differences in issue position (Niklas & Mikael, 2005:7).

Thus, in this study, conflict is conceptualized incorporating both ideas: i.e., conflict as an outcome of opposing interests involving scarce resources, goal divergence and frustration and as incompatibility or difference in issue position. From these definitions, some valuable insights have been given about conflicts which imply that conflict is organic and instinctual; that is to say that conflict is a basic instinct in humans (and may be so for non-humans) and such basic instincts can be used for solving both individual and collective problems.

It is indeed, pertinent to note that there seems to be one form of conflict or the other in Africa, although varied in nature and dimension. Although conflict is by its nature complex, the nature of conflict varies from one conflict to another. In other words, the nature is largely induced by the cause of a particular conflict. Above all, a conflict situation creates chaos and makes the environment unsafe for life and property. In a conflict situation, threat, fear, anxiety, and general insecurity become the order of the day. Conflict indexes include, among others, mutual image of misunderstanding, hate speech or hostile utterances, action and responses that seek to put the interest of the other party in a disadvantaged position.

Concept of Security

Though, the meaning of security has been generating a great debate among scholars in recent time. To begin with, it is worth defining what is actually meant by the term 'security'. Neither security – nor its opposite, insecurity – are objective or measurable feelings; they are, as Wood and Shearing (2007) argue that security is, "Imagined". The experience of the world in recent time emphasizes a paradigm shift in security discourse (Osimen & Aisedion, 2021). Traditionally, the State is the custodian and ultimate beneficiary of the monopoly use of violence as advocated by Max Weber. Monsuru (2014) sees security as any internal or external threat which challenges the authority of the State in an attempt to achieve certain goal through violence means. But, on the question of definition of the term security, it is not a mischief to say that there are various definitions of the term (security) without any consensus among scholars in their conceptualization. Thus, to some, security can be defined as:

an all-encompassing condition in which individual citizens live in freedom, peace and safety; participate fully in the process of governance; Enjoy the protection of fundamental rights; have Access to resources and the basic necessities of life; And inhabit an environment which is not detrimental to their health and wellbeing (see South Africa White Paper on Defence, 1996).

Not only in terms of the internal security of the State, but also in terms of secure systems of Food health, money and trade. Security is a condition of freedom from danger and risk of threat that transcends military threat to include other forms of threat. Adetula, (2015) opined that threats to national /regional security are often assessed in terms of the extent of risk they constitute to the pursuit of national/regional interests. In virtually all cases, the security situation of a country or region is a function of its ability to anticipate, prevent, manage and effectively respond to threats. In this sense therefore, threat is the basis for any security concern; the *raison d'être* of any security consideration. Osimen & Aisedion, (2021) argued that threat analysis must be broad and encompassing enough to accommodate all forms of interference with a country/region's security in any of its spheres: economic, social, military, territorial, political, cultural, etc. There is indeed great wisdom in going beyond the minimalist theory of threat (Ukpabi, 1987). In this regard Adetula, (2015) believed that the fundamental concern of national/regional security is the protection and extension of national values against existing and potential adversaries.

Concept of Peace/ Sustainable Peace:

Sustaining peace requires an understanding of the underlying structural drivers of conflict beyond the immediate triggers. Thus, a clear distinction between the “absence of conflict” and “durable peace” must be underscored (Igbuzor, 2011). An absence of conflict does not necessarily imply that a society is operating at the frontier of peaceful conditions. While conflicts may be concentrated in a few countries the underlying risk factors are widespread. The latency of conflict suggests that it is critical to address these structural drivers of conflict even in the absence of conflict:

Thus, assessment of conflicts must “go beyond the dichotomy on fragility, and look for dimensions of fragility that may be present even in supposedly non-fragile countries” (UNDP, 2016). However, peace has been defined by most analysts, as the absence of war, fear, conflict, anxiety, suffering and violence (Francis, 2006; Igbuzor, 2011).

Galtung, (2011) has also attempted to offer a comprehensive and holistic conception of peace. He links it directly to the issue of sustainable development. He defines peace as a process involving activities that are directly or indirectly linked to increasing development and reducing conflict, both within specific societies and the wider international community. Ibeanu, (2003), sees “peace as the absence of war” and by logical extension, war is the absence of peace. He went further to state that whereas this simplistic understanding of peace is attractive, it is still inadequate for appreciating the true meaning and nature of peace, thereby necessitating the need to explore other interpretations, especially those of instrumentalists, functionalists, sociologists and philosophers. The concept of peace and security essentially has to do with the sanctity of life and the absolute necessity to protect and safeguard lives and property. This simply connotes “the absence of threat to life, property and socio-economic well-being of the people Arisi (2013). Peace is a condition in which there is no social conflict and individuals and groups are able to meet their needs, aspirations and expectations. The traditional notion of peace is the absence of conflict which is not enough to bring about

sustainable peace. If a government ends armed hostilities by issuing a ceasefire without addressing its underlying factors, conflict may resume, further disrupting business operations and exacerbating poverty, hunger and inequality.

Galtung (2011) further argued that there are two types of peace: negative peace and positive peace. He defined negative peace as “the absence of violence, absence of war,” and identified three major categories of violence: direct, structural and cultural. Structural violence refers to the unjust systems that marginalize certain groups. Cultural violence pertains to social norms that justify direct and structural violence. Direct violence, such as war and crime, is an outcome of structural and cultural violence. Johan Galtung listed eight factors behind positive peace which are also known as the Eight Pillars of Positive Peace are:

- Well-functioning government;
- Sound business environment;
- Equitable distribution of resources;
- Acceptance of the rights of others;
- Good relations with neighbors;
- Free flow of information;
- High levels of human capital;
- Low levels of corruption.

Galtung described positive peace as the “integration of human society.” Positive peace involves preventing or ending direct violence as well as structural and cultural violence. Unjust social structures and social norms are corrected to avert the occurrence of direct violence. The Eight Pillars of Positive Peace strengthens a society from within by creating an environment that nurtures communities and supports enterprise.

Types and Causes of Conflicts in Africa

The causes of conflict in Africa and somewhere else in the world are many and numerous. Conflicts in human society can derive from one or a combination of sources. Albert (2001:4-5) has identified, among others, competition for resources, manipulation of information, psychological needs and contradictory value systems as major sources of conflict in human societies. When conflicts are not properly resolved, they may lead to escalation, and to violence which may, in turn, engender destructive consequences of unimaginable dimensions.

Conflicts in Africa may be said to have been caused by a multiplicity of factors such as:

- i. First, the political factors; poor governance, state building processes such as the struggle for control of power, and unconstitutional changes of government remain key conflict drivers. Also includes political manipulation, arbitrary borders created by the colonial powers, heterogeneous ethnic composition of African states, inept political leadership, and corruption among others. These are

some of the causes of conflicts in Africa which Obasanjo (2014) described aptly as the continent with the greatest number of conflicts.

- ii. Economically, corruption, struggle for ownership, management and control of natural resources, negative effect of external debt burden and poverty, as well as unequal distribution of these resources constitute major factors that trigger conflicts across the continent.
- iii. Socially, inadequate capacity for diversity management, the real or perceived inequality and discrimination against minorities, marginalization along ethnic and religious lines as well as the alienation and consequent disillusionment of the youth are further additions (Obasanjo, 2014).
- iv. The boundary and territorial conflicts such as the Angolan Bush War in South Africa (1966-1989); the Algeria–Morocco conflict over the Atlas Mountain area (1963); the territorial tensions between Ethiopia and Eritrea (1998–2000); the Kenya–Somali war (1963–67); the Somali–Ethiopian conflict (1964–78); the Egypt–Libya conflict (1977); and the Cameroon–Nigeria conflict over the disputed Bakassi Peninsula (1994).
- v. The resource-based conflicts such as the Niger -Delta conflict in Nigeria the conflict between Sudan and South Sudan over the Abyei region, the Congo-Brazzaville conflict (2007); the Senegal/Mauritania conflict (1989); and the conflict raging in eastern Congo over the last decade. In 2010 and 2019 for instance, conflicts over resources accounted for approximately 35 per cent of all conflicts in sub-Saharan Africa.
- vi. Conflicts linked to secessionist ambitions such as the case of Sudan and South Sudan (1983–2011); the age-long Cassamance rebellion in Senegal; the Cabinda agitations in Angola; and the Biafra civil war in Nigeria (1967–70) which has recently resurfaced in Nigeria.
- vii. Identity-based related conflicts such as inter-ethnic or inter-tribal conflicts have been discovered to be responsible for many conflicts in the continent of Africa. Alabi (2006:57) and Cammack et al (1988:13) have observed that the colonization of Africa by European powers in the 19th century created political units that divided ethnic groups in some cases and combined rival groups in others. Examples of these are the 1994 Rwandan Genocide; the Burundi massacres; the Tuareg uprising in Mali; clan fighting in Somalia and Liberia; Algerian Berbers fighting against the ruling Arab class in Algeria; and the South Sudan conflict. By contrast, the worst outbreaks of violence in Black Africa in the 1990s occurred as a result of the conflict between the Hutu and the Tutsi. The genocides in Rwanda and Burundi in the 1990s were ethnic (Nyakanvzi 1998). The conflict in Somalia was likewise ethnic or, at any rate, sub-ethnic (between clans rather than between tribes) ((Hashim 1997).
- viii. The annexationist related conflicts such as the occupation of the Western Sahara by Morocco in 1975; and British Southern Cameroons in 1961. Annexationist conflicts arise when one nation annexes another nation in part or wholly, or where two nations lock horns over interests that belong to neither of them from the point of view of history and international law. This class of conflict is a curious one, and there are not many examples on the African continent currently. Two cases, however, stand out prominently. These are the Western Sahara conflict involving Morocco and the British Southern Cameroons restoration of independence and sovereignty conflict in post-colonial Cameroon Republic. In both cases, Morocco and Cameroon Republic went beyond their borders to

annex and ‘colonially occupy’ Western Sahara in 1975 and British Southern Cameroons in 1961 respectively.

- ix. The Human Need/Deprivation and Frustration Aggression (Theory) related cause, such as poverty, denial and perceived or real injustice induced conflicts like the militancy in the Niger Delta of Nigeria or the current Boko Haram insurgency in the north-east of Nigeria. Also, the recollections of humiliation, oppression and marginalization, both real and mythologized, are triggered through new threats (Azar and Moon 1986; Deutsch 1991; Ross 1993; Brown 1993).
- x. Finally, colonization and decolonization factors which led to the creation of more independent states in Africa than in any other continent during the postwar era. With independence, the leaders of African states faced the dual challenges of building the institutional apparatus of the state (state-building), while simultaneously constructing an overarching national identity among disparate cultural groups (nation-building). While most developed states had had difficulty responding to these demands separately and sequentially, the newly independent African states were required to respond to both simultaneously. However, one cannot take away the effect of colonialism on Africans. Colonialism was not aimed at creating strong, viable, autonomous states. The newly independent African states were usually left with little institutional support, wealth or university-trained specialists from the departing colonizers (Gurr 1970).

Majorly, the causes of conflict in the society according to Osimen, (2017) are:

- **Resources:** Human wants are generally said by economists to be insatiable. The resources are limited and human want are unlimited, therefore, the struggle for the limited available resources would result to destructive dimension or conflict.
- **Value Systems:** Conflict may occur as a result of contradicting value system such as religious beliefs, ideological position and culture most cases, people could die for what they believe in.
- **Psychological Need:** This involves personal and group self-actualization. Some people are innately trouble maker and their presence would always pollute any social atmosphere. The problems created by such people are, most of the time, neither related to resources; they could be products of malfunctional value systems. For instance, When people are denied of love or friendship, it can result to frustration and then, open for conflict.
- **Information:** The way information are passed or circulated in a particular environment could either cause conflict or build peace.

Effects and Consequences of Conflicts in Africa

The consequences and effects of violent conflicts in Africa are various which have not only contributed to violent conflict and insecurity in Africa but has also been identified as one of the most significant and immediate triggers for forced migration and displacement in the region. Nnoli (2003:71) has highlighted the negative consequences of conflict. According to him, conflicts result in loss of lives and property as well as the destruction of the environment. He further stressed that, conflicts delay development and weakens the stability of communities involved. The rapid increase

in refugee and migration flows in Africa according to statistics revealed or shows that the Horn of Africa and East Africa region currently harbors the highest number of refugees in Africa with over 3.4 million which represents 32% of total refugees in Africa with Sudan (1,040,308), Uganda with 1, 05 million follow by Ethiopia with 800,464. This is creating both economic and security challenged in Africa. Conflict has over time sees by many scholars as a major factor or root-cause of Africa problems. Conflicts in Africa have also combined to compound the problem of unemployment in the continent. Today, throughout Africa, high rate of unemployment, particularly of youths, is a major source of concern; death/ loss of lives; young, old, male, female, civilians and military men alike, have lost their lives to various wars and conflicts on the continent. For instance, in the 1994 genocide in Rwanda,(Global coalition 2004:7) argued that about 800,000 Rwandans were reportedly massacred. Similarly, the Burundi civil war claimed over 200,000 lives as at the year 2000. In Liberia, over 250, 000 lives were lost in the country's fourteen year civil war between 1990 and 2004; Also, poverty Continued strife and political instability in most countries of Africa hurt the continent's economic fortunes. Indeed, the disruptive impact of war and crisis on the economy of Africa has been considerable and alarming. The political stalemate and periodic eruptions of violence have resulted in significant cumulative declines in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the African continent.

African Union Mechanisms for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution

The African Union as leads policy making and implementation of decisions aimed at ensuring that Africa achieves Aspiration 4 of Agenda 2063 which aspires for "A peaceful and secure Africa" through the use of mechanisms that promote a dialogue-centred approach to conflict prevention, management and resolution of conflicts and establishing of a culture of peace and tolerance nurtured in Africa's children and youth through peace education. The Protocol entered into force on 26 December 2003 following ratification by 27 of the AU's 54 member states (Cilliers, & Sturman,(2004). The Agenda 2063 flagship initiative of eradicating guns from the continent is at the core of activities being put in place to ensure Africa is a more peaceful and stable continent. The key AU Organ for promoting peace and security on the continent is the Peace and Security Council (PSC) which is the standing decision-making organ of the AU for the prevention, management and resolution of conflicts. It is a collective security and early warning arrangement intended to facilitate timely and efficient responses to conflict and crisis situations in Africa (See Assembly of the African Union Article 2(1)). It is also the key pillar of the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA), which is the framework for promoting peace, security and stability in Africa. PSC replaced the Cairo Declaration and superseded the resolutions and decisions of the OAU's MCPMR. The objectives of the AUPSC are therefore not new to the African political landscape, and they complement the principles enshrined in Article 3 of the CAAU while echoing the collective security framework suggested by the 1991 Draft Kampala Document for the Conference on Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation in Africa. Some of the key objectives of the AUPSC are to:

- i.promote peace, security and stability;
- ii.guarantee the protection and preservation of life and all property, the well-being of the African people and their environment, as well as the creation of conditions conducive to sustainable development;
- iii.anticipate and prevent conflicts;
- iv.promote and implement peace-building and post-conflict reconstruction activities;
- v.co-ordinate and harmonise continental efforts in the prevention and combating of international terrorism;
- vi.develop a common defence policy; and
- vii.promote and encourage democratic practices, good governance and the rule of law; protect human rights and fundamental freedoms; respect for the sanctity of human life and international humanitarian law.

The Department of Peace and Security of the African Union Commission (AUC) supports the AUPSC in carrying out its responsibilities under the PSC Protocol and leads the AUC activities related to peace, security and stability across the continent. The Department supports various peace and security offices and missions and works with special representatives appointed by the AUC Chairperson in the area of peace and security. The Department also oversees the African Centre for the Study and Research on Terrorism and also advocates for the signing and ratification by member states of the various AU treaties in the areas of peace and security.

Peculiarity of Aspiration 4: A “Peaceful and Secure Africa” in Agenda 2063 of African Union “the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognizes that “sustainable development cannot be realized without peace and security; and peace and security will be at risk without sustainable development. Achieving sustainable development and sustainable peace are the two sides of the same coin, representing the two pillars of the UN system. “No peace, no development”, “no peace, no justice” and “no development, no security” are commonly used slogans that illustrate the impossibility of separating one from the other (UNDP, 2016).”

Therefore, the Agenda 2063 of the AU is unachievable without sustainable peace and security in Africa. Agenda 2063 is a shared framework for inclusive growth and sustainable development for Africa to be realized in the next fifty years. It is a continuation of the pan-African drive over centuries, for unity, self-determination, freedom, progress and collective prosperity pursued under Pan-Africanism and African Renaissance. It builds on, and seeks to accelerate the implementation of past and existing continental initiatives for growth and sustainable development. It was agreed upon by the African leaders in 2013 through the 50th Anniversary Solemn Declaration during the commemoration of the Fiftieth Anniversary of the Organization of African Unity (OAU). Agenda 2063 is anchored on the AU vision and is based on the seven aspirations derived from the consultations, namely:

A prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development; 2. An integrated continent, politically united, based on the ideals of Pan Africanism and the vision of Africa's Renaissance; 3. An Africa of good governance, respect for human rights, justice and the rule of law; 4. A peaceful and secure Africa; 5. An Africa with a strong cultural identity, common heritage, values and ethics; 6. An Africa whose development is people-driven, relying on the potential of African people, especially its women and youth, and caring for children; and 7. Africa as a strong, united, resilient and influential global player and partner.

But issues related to conflicts, peace and security in Africa have continue to generated a constant international debate in recent decades that other important political, economic or social aspects also taking place in the continent since its independent processes have been marginalized and obscured Grasa & Mateos, (2010). Some of the visions are:

- i. Mechanisms for peaceful prevention and resolution of conflicts will be functional at all levels. As a first step, dialogue-centred conflict prevention and resolution will be actively promoted in such a way that by 2020 all guns will be silent. A culture of peace and tolerance shall be nurtured in Africa's children and youth through peace education.
- ii. Africa will be a peaceful and secure continent, with harmony among communities starting at grassroots level. The management of our diversity will be a source of wealth, harmony and social and economic transformation rather than a source of conflict.
- iii. Africa shall have:
 - An entrenched and flourishing culture of human rights, democracy, gender equality, inclusion and peace;
 - Prosperity, security and safety for all citizens; and
 - Mechanisms to promote and defend the continent's collective security and interests.
- iv. We recognize that a prosperous, integrated and united Africa, based on good governance, democracy, social inclusion and respect for human rights, justice and the rule of law are the necessary pre-conditions for a peaceful and conflict free continent.
- v. The continent will witness improved human security with sharp reductions in violent crimes. There shall be safe and peaceful spaces for individuals, families and communities.
- vi. Africa shall be free from armed conflict, terrorism, extremism, intolerance and gender-based violence, which are major threats to human security, peace and development. The continent will be drugs-free, with no human trafficking, where organized crime and other forms of criminal networks, such as the arms trade and piracy, are ended. Africa shall have ended the illicit trade in and proliferation of small arms and light weapons.
- vii. Africa shall promote human and moral values based on inclusion and the rejection of all forms of terrorism, religious extremism and other forms of intolerance, irrespective of their motivations.
- viii. By 2063, Africa will have the capacity to secure peace and protect its citizens and their interests, through common defence, foreign and security policies.

Nature of Conflicts in Africa

From 1960 until the present day, fifty percent of Africa's states have been ravaged by one form of conflict or another (Obasanjo, 2005). The post-Cold War conflict resurgence is particularly disturbing. Armed conflict has been a recurring reality in the analysis of postcolonial Africa. According to Lindemann (2008), since the 60s, a total of 24 sub-Saharan African countries (*i.e.*, almost 50% of African states) have suffered war, while 22 other countries have managed to "avoid it". "Freedom wars", "intractable wars", "proxy wars" (substitute wars or wars controlled from abroad, typical conflicts of the context of bipolar dispute) or "post-Cold War conflicts" have sparked a major review of its causes and consequences, sometimes very biased and reductionist, based on very different sources, methodologies and data. For example, in East Africa, the war in South Sudan, the collapse of the State in Somalia, and the conflicts in Rwanda and Burundi, the situation in Ethiopia as well as the wars in former Zaire, are significant examples of protracted conflicts. These conflicts were only addressed superficially, their intensity notwithstanding. In spite of all the urgency concerning the conflict in Burundi, the focus was mainly on diplomatic interventions by several agencies and actors. These interventions ended up with the establishment of War Crime Tribunals with none of the actors giving any consideration for the need to address the deep concerns of the parties in the conflict. The tribunals seem to have been intended for punishing individuals chosen for destruction by the powerful stakeholders rather than for unearthing the causes of conflict that remain deeply rooted in the respective societies. It is difficult to imagine how the War Crimes Tribunal in Rwanda helped to bring justice to the situation bred, for instance, by colonialism and the de-colonisation process in Burundi and Rwanda. The case was not different in Sierra Leone and Liberia.

In the case of the intractable fratricidal war in South Sudan, intervention was mainly intermittent from 1990 and undertaken by the Djibouti-based IGADD/IGAD. In spite of the colonial basis of this conflict, it was difficult for many years to state any willingness on the part of the agencies to seek a lasting solution by addressing the profound causes of conflict. Cohen (1996:4) summed it all when he affirmed that East Africa in general was a sub-region where neither the African Union (AU) nor the international community had been able to advance conflict management significantly beyond humanitarian intervention. In West Africa, ECOWAS has, since 1990, been involved in peace-keeping operations. The conflicts in Liberia and Sierra Leone were two situations in which ECOWAS sent in troops with financial and material support from the international community, notably the United States (Cohen 1996). In spite of the huge cost of the wars in Liberia and Sierra Leone in terms of human lives and material, the peace-keeping interventions focused mainly on achieving what these actors termed 'peace and stability' (Cohen 1996:6).

Efforts on Achieving a Peaceful and Secured Africa

An increasing realisation of the importance of proactive measures to prevent conflicts rather than reactive measures to deal with conflicts resulted in the creation of the CEWS. The CEWS is an appendage of the OAU's MCPMR, which was also integrated into the AUPSC, and is mandated to

supply the Commission (AU Secretariat) with timely information and analysis “to advise the Peace and Security Council on potential conflicts and threats to peace” and to recommend courses of action with the purpose of taking early action (See Assembly of the African Union Article 12(5)–(6)).

At national level, the national governments have also adopted several measures, policies, and initiatives to enhance peace and security in affected countries in Africa. At the sub regional level, the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) has, in accordance with the Constitutive Act of the AU, time after time destined unlawful changes of governments in the continent, which has resulted to impose sanctions against erring member states, and facilitated mediation processes in these conflicts in the case of Mali government in 2021. It has deployed peacekeepers and human rights observers to conflict affected countries. The Inter-Governmental Authority on Development (IGAD) has also intervened in resolving conflicts in Sudan, South Sudan and Somalia. At the continental level, the African Union, since its transformation from the OAU to the AU in 2001, embarked on a paradigm shift from its principle of non-interference to a principle of non-indifference and the right to intervene. Guided by the principle of “African solutions to African problems” the AU has taken significant actions to enhance peace and security in the continent. The adoption of the Protocol Relating to the establishment of the Peace and Security Council, in December 2003, and its framework for conflict-prevention, management, and resolution in Africa that led to the establishment of the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) are commendable. The successes in securing peace were in the focus of the Capacity4Change (C4C) event on 21 March 2018 at the GIZ Representation Brussels. Background of the discussion was the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA) Impact Report as well as a study on the response to triggers of violence-induced conflict. Since 2009 the GIZ supports the operationalization of the APSA.

The AU in recent episode has undertaken several peacekeeping missions in many Africa countries; Burundi, Comoros, Somalia, Darfur, and Central African Republic with significant results. Also worth mentioning are the evolving AU Agenda 2063, which places balancing state and human security as one of its core priorities, the African Common Position on the Post-2015 Development Agenda which explores the interconnectedness between peace, security and sustainable development, and the African Governance Architecture (AGA) which aims at promoting good governance for sustainable peace and security. At the global level, the United Nations has supported the restoration of peace and security in Africa through the adoption of various resolutions, which established peacekeeping missions across the continent. These efforts have been furthered by financial and technical support from various development partners and non-state actors across the globe.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite all these efforts by various actors and stake holders in promoting peace and security in the continent the questions are; what will the future hold for Africa? Is sustainable peace and security in Africa achievable? And will these efforts be enough to eradicate conflict by 2063? Certainly yes! But we need to do more. Much also depends on our ability to engage in hard collective thinking and “horizon scanning” in ways that enable us to inject flexibility when required, into our existing response frameworks. The presence of violence conflict and insecurity on the African continent is obvious and apparent, but all is not self-evidently gloomy. In the past few decades, there have been signs of the winds of change blowing through the continent. Africans can point to examples of successful conflict resolution and reduction take advantage of them. A fundamental moment is now upon us and we cannot hesitate to circumvent them. The long-running debate on achieving sustainable peace and security in Africa is like running a marathon. Implementing existing frameworks and initiatives will require resilience, dedication, resources, and patience; perhaps more patience than we would like it. We must therefore set our minds and put our hands together to achieve this imperative order for Africa. In the words of the late South African President Nelson Mandela, “It always seems impossible until it’s done.” Let us press on in this conviction therefore to work strongly and consistently, towards our goal of achieving sustainable peace and human security in the continent, Africa. Therefore, the following non-negotiable priorities to fast-track the implementation of already existing mechanisms are of utmost importance:

- i. The EU, international communities and national government must continue to reinforce their support and try as much as possible to partner with AU to deal with issues of conflicts and insecurity in the continent of Africa.
- ii. Constitutional Government (Democracy and good governance) must form the basis for running affairs of every government in the continent of Africa through this, peace; security and good governance will be fellow passengers for the Africa we want.
- iii. Africa leaders should as a matter of urgency establishes Pan-African military Force to complement state’s efforts in resolving conflict that occurs in the continent. This would act as a metaphorical fire brigade, putting out fires from one collapsed conflict or war to another. It would serve to teach Africans the art of building a true Africana while, helping us to learn from the successes and failures of ECOMOG in Liberia in preparation for new venture.
- iv. African leaders and policy-makers must reiterate their efforts in terms of capitals, and exhibit the political will needed to ensure the operationalization of an African owned APSA. “African solutions” will ring hollow if we fail to fund our initiatives and programs.
- v. The implementation of the African Governance Architecture must be accorded the needed priority as APSA and AGA are two sides of one coin. While AGA focuses on broader questions of governance, APSA places emphasis on the mechanisms for conflict management, resolution, and peace-building. These two must work together to bring about peace and security in the continent.

- vi. All mechanisms of APSA must equally be implemented for a more comprehensive and broader technique for managing peace and security that occurs in Africa.
- vii. African leaders at all level must as a matter of urgency make intensive efforts to support existing mechanisms and initiatives, building strong substructure of government and feasible institutions to deal with teething predicaments of Africa.

REFERENCES

- Adelue, G. W. & Komolafe, C. T. (2000). A frame work for the study of relationships between organizational characteristics and organization innovation. *Journal of Creative Behavior*, 4(20), 43-45.
- Adetula, V. (2015) "Nigeria's Response to Transnational Organized Crime and Jihadist Activities in West Africa; Discussion Paper: No. X. Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.
- Akinwunmi, O. O. (2005). Conflict and conflict resolution in schools: Implications for educational administration. In Adenokun, A. A. (Ed.). *Aspects in education administration for colleges and universities*. Ogun: Sam Role Ventures.
- Akpuru –Aja, A. (2007). *Basic concepts, issues and strategies of peace and conflict resolution: Nigerian-African conflict case studies*. Enugu: Keny and Brothers Ent. (Nig).
- Alabi, D.T. (2006). "Emerging Trends and Dimensions of the Rwandan Crisis" *African Journal of International Affairs and Development*.
- Albert I. O. (2001). *Introduction to third– party intervention in community conflicts*. Ibadan: John Archers (Publishers) Ltd.
- Arisi, R. (2013), "Good Governance: A Panacea for Peace and Stability in Nigeria Nation," *Public Policy and Administration Research*, Vol 3, 4:124.
- Azar, E. and C. I. Moon. (1986). 'Managing Protracted Social Conflicts in the Third World:Facilitation and Development Diplomacy', *Millennium Journal of International Studies* 15 (3): 393–406.
- Bande, T.M. (2003) "General Survey of Conflicts in the North-West Zone of Nigeria", *Africa Peace Review*. Abuja National War College.
- Boulding, K. E. (1962). *Conflict and defense: A general theory*; New York and London Harper and Row.
- Cammack P; Pool, D; and Tordoff, W. (1988). *Third World Politics: A Comparative Introduction*, London, Macmillan Education Ltd.
- Cohen, H. J. (1996). *Conflict management in Africa*. CSIS Africa Notes, 181 (February).
- Cilliers, J & Sturman, K. (2004). *Challenges facing the AU's Peace and Security Council*". *African Security Review* 13/1. 2004. 97.
- Coser. L. (1956). *Continuities in the study of social conflict*. New York: The free press.
- Brown, Michael E. (1993). *Ethnic Conflict and International Security*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

- Deng, F. (1995). *War of Visions: Conflict of Identities in the Sudan*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution.
- Deutsch, M. (1991). 'Subjective Features of Conflict Resolution: Psychological, Social and Cultural Influences in R. Varynen, ed., *New Direction in Conflict Theory: Conflict Resolution and Transformation*. London: Sage, 120–35.
- Faleti, S. A., Olaniyi, R. O., Yesufu, A. R. & Durojaye, O. B. (2010). *Education for peace II*. Lagos: National Open University of Nigeria.
- Francis, D. J. (2011). *Peace and conflict studies: An African overview of basic concepts*. In Best, S.G. (Ed.). *Introduction to peace and conflict studies in West Africa: A reader*. Abuja: National Universities Commission and University for Peace.
- Francis, J.D. (2006), "Peace and Conflict Studies: An African Overview of Basic Concepts", in S.G. Best (ed), *Introduction to Peace and Conflict Studies in West Africa: A Reader* (Ibadan: Spectrum Books Ltd.), pp.10-24.
- Galtung, J. (2011), "Comprehensive Approach to Peace Research", *International Journal of Peace and Development Studies*, Vol.2, No.1, January, pp.18-32.
- Gilpin, R. (2015). *Understanding the Nature and Origins of Violent Conflict in Africa*: <https://africacenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/Understanding-the-nature-and-origin-of-violence-Raymond-Gilpin.pdf>.
- Global Coalition for Africa (2004). *African Social and Economic Trends, 2003/2004*, Washington, D.C
- Grasa. R & Mateos, O (2010). *Conflict, Peace and Security in Africa: an Assessment and New Questions after 50 Years of African Independence*. ICIP Working Papers: Institut Català Internacional per la Pau Barcelona, 1-46.
- Gove P. B. (1976). *Webster's third new international dictionary*. Massachusetts; G. And C. Merriam company, publisher.
- Gurr, T. (1970) *Psychological factors in civil violence*. *World Politics*, 20(2), pp. 252–253.
- Hashim, A B. (1997). *The Fallen State: Dissonance, Dictatorship and Death in Somalia*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.
- Hogan, M.O. (2006). *Academic's dictionary of sociology* (1st ed.). New Delhi: Academic Publishers.
- Ibeanu, O. (2003) *Aguleri-Umuleri conflict in Anambra state*, In Imobighe, T.A. (ed), *Civil Society and Ethnic Conflict Management in Nigeria*. Ibadan: Spectrum books, Pp 167-222.
- Igbuzor, O., (2006), "Conceptualizing Peace" in Best, S.G. (ed), *Introduction to Peace and Conflict Studies in West Africa* (Abuja: Spectrum Books Ltd.), pp.12-17;
- Imhabekhai, C.I. (2000). "Management of Industrial conflicts in educational institutions for enhanced personal productivity". *International Journal of Education Planning and Administration*, (IJEPA) 1(1), 82-92.
- Kane, I. (2008). *The implementation of the African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance*", *African Security Review*, Vol. 17, No. 4, Institute for Security Studies (ISS)

- Kareen, J. (2000). Basic needs, conflicts and dynamics in groups. *Journal of Individual Psychology* 56(4), 419-434.
- Lindemann, S. (2008) "Do inclusive elite bargains matter? A research framework for understanding the causes of civil war in Sub-saharan Africa", Development Studies Institute, Discussion Paper 15, London School of Economics and Political Science, in: <http://www.crisisstates.com/download/dp/dp15.pdf>
- Mazrui, A. A. (2003). 'Introduction', in Ali A. Mazrui, ed. UNESCO General History of Africa. Vol. VII, Africa Since 1935. Oxford: James Currey, 1–25.
- Monsuru, A.K (2014). Principles of Security Practices & Management, NOUN Course Guide (CSS 743). Published by NOUN, Lagos
- Niklas L. P., Mikeal. (2005). Conflict, conflict management, présentation and beyond a conceptual exploration.
- Nnoli,O. (2003) "General Survey of Conflicts in the South East Zone of Nigeria", African Peace Review: Abuja, National War College.
- Ntunde, F.O. and Ugwu, L.I. (2005). The role of women in conflict resolution. In Yakubu, A.M.,Adegboye, R. T., Ubah, C.N. and Dogo, B. (Eds.) Crisis and conflict management in Nigeria since1980: Governance and conflict management (Vol.II). Kaduna: Nigerian Defence Academy.
- Nwaji, S. (2003). The Administration of higher education in Nigeria. Abeokuta: Gbemi book.
- Nyakanvzi, E. (1998). Genocide: Rwanda and Burundi. Rochester, VT: Schenkman Books.
- Obasanjo, O .(2014). On the State of Peace and Security in Africa.Open address to the Third Tena High-Level Forum on 26th April in Bahir Dar, Ethiopia.
- Ogunu, M. (2000). Essential of personnel management. Ijebu-ode: Pius Debo Press.
- Onoyase, D. (1993). Interpersonal skill for effective personnel administration. Lagos: Uitaman Educational Books.
- Osimen, G.U and Aisedion, R. (2021). Ethical Issues and Security Practice in Nigeria: The Aftermath of #End SARS and the Nigerian Police Force Reform Agenda;International Journal of scientific and research publications.Vol.11(6)pp.11496 <http://www.ijsrp.org/research-paper-0621/ijsrp-p11496.pdf>
- Osimen, G.U (2017). Principle of Conflict Management, Memphis Multimedia Publisher, Ibadan
- Plano J. C. and et al. (1973). Political Science Dictionary, Ilion: Dryden Press.
- Pruitt, D. and Rubin, J. (1986) Social conflict escalation, stalemate and settlement. New York: Newbury Award Record.
- Ross, M. H. (1993). The Management of Conflict. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.See South Africa White Paper on Defence, (1996). An extract Edition. <http://dx.doi.org/10.29322/IJSRP.11.06.2021.P11496>
- Sewanyana, L. (1997)"The use of traditional communications in conflict management: the case of Uganda," Africa Media Review, Vol.11, No. 3, pp.40-69.
- The Assembly of the African Union op. cit., Article 12(5)–(6).
- Thomson, A. (2004). An introduction to African politics (2nd ed). Abingdon: Routledge, 11.

- Ukpabi, S. (1987) "Perception of threat and defence priorities for Nigeria's frontiers" in T.A Imobighe (ed.), Nigerian defence and security: issues and options for policy, Kuru; National Institute for Policy and Strategic Studies, pp. 114 -126
- UNDP (2016) "UNDP support to the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development" United Nations Development Programme: New York.
- Wood, J. & Shearing, C. (2007). "Imagining Security" Devon, UK: Willan, 184pp
- Zartman, I. William ed. (2000). Traditional cures for modern conflicts: African conflict 'medicine'. Boulder, Lynne Rienner Publishers.