STRATEGIC PLAN OF THE AFRICAN UNION COMMISSION

Volume 1: Vision and Mission of the African Union

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Prepared by the African Union Commission
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreword</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the Beginning was Africa</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa Constitutes a Coherent Geographic Mass Teeming with Resources but Long Subjected to Adverse Factors</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In an Increasingly Globalised Economy, Africa is Currently under Threat of Marginalization</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distrust for Constituted Authority, Corruption and Impunity coupled with Human Rights Abuses have kept Africa in a Situation of Conflicts, thereby undermining all initiatives towards Sustainable Development</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Integration is a Crucial Catalyst of Africa’s Renaissance</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEPAD Epitomizes this Will to make Fresh Turnaround for Africa</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African Union, Embodiment of Renewed Pan-Africanism, is the Strategic Tool for Africa to take up the Challenges of the 21st Century</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Vision of African Union is that of an Africa Integrated, Prosperous and Peaceful; an Africa Driven by its Own Citizens, a Dynamic Force in the Global Arena</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Translate the Vision into Concrete Action Seven Missions have been Defined for the Commission of the African Union</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF ACRONYMS

APRM : African Peer Review Mechanism
REC : Regional Economic Community
IGO : Inter-Governmental Organisation
RIC : Regional Integration Community
CSSDCA : Conference on Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation in Africa
NEPAD : New Partnership for Africa’s Development
OAU : Organization of African Unity
AU : African Union

LIST OF INSERTS:

Insert 1: Conflicts in Africa 15
Insert 2: The New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) 18
Insert 3: Stages of the progress to the African Union 21
Insert 4: From OAU (Inter-Governmental Cooperation Organisation) to AU (Integration Organisation) 23
Insert 5: List of the Regional Economic Communities (RECs), the major Inter-Governmental Organisations (IGOs) and Specialised Institutions 29
Insert 6: List of the Organs of the African Union 30
Insert 7: Peace and Security Management Instrument in the Continent 37
FOREWORD

The Commission of the African Union can now focus on three vital documents to discharge the mandate entrusted to it: the first of the three documents deals with the Vision of the African Union and the Mission of the African Union Commission; the second concerns the 2004-2007 Strategic Framework of the African Union Commission, while the third document contains the Action Plans of the various Departments of the Commission. The three documents are intended to structure a programme for the period 2004-2007 which the Commission will submit to the Policy Organs of the Organization in July 2004.

It is important to note that the Vision, Mission and Strategic Framework of the Commission are the outcome of a collective brainstorming and decision-making exercises. The series of brainstorming seminars that took place in Addis Ababa during the months of October, November and December 2003, brought together staff members of the Headquarters of the Commission and those of the Regional Offices, African resource persons and heads of key institutions to debate what are the ambitions, requisite means and resources, commitments and expected outputs of the Commission. In the end, the sessions synergized intellectuals, politicians, civil society and public sector representatives, as well as the African Ambassadors and development partners based in the Ethiopian capital. Underlying the brainstorming and decision-making exercises was the need for citizens’ ownership of African integration by those who have a catalytic role to play in its materialization.

On this score, we cannot but express delight at the fact that the Africa so much desired by the Founders of the African Union is an Africa conscious of its potential and determined to exploit it, particularly by pooling resources; an Africa critical of its own weaknesses and geared to actively participate in global trade; an Africa which cannot afford to wait until tomorrow to have its problems resolved; and an Africa determined to offer to its peoples, basic goods and services at affordable prices.

But how do we attain these objectives? The Strategic Framework of the Commission constitutes the necessary road map. The requisite conditions needed for Africa to become a force to be reckoned with, a force we can rely upon, include among other things, the political will on the part of Member States to achieve integration; the firm commitment of the Commission; the total involvement of the people in the integration endeavour; and the optimal use of all our assets - namely the immense human and natural resources, the diversity and vitality of our cultures, our languages, our sense of solidarity and our readiness to dialogue, etc.

We shall overcome this challenge through a determined effort to map out and implement a strategy for what is possible and achievable. To this end, we will all have to invest our best efforts; first and foremost, our States, because their resolute commitment to build the African Union structure is the prerequisite for success; then, we have the people of Africa, since there can be no integration except one that is desired and driven by the people; and lastly, we have the Organs of the Union which can contribute a great deal to speeding up transformation of the Continent if they are endowed with fresh, commensurate and sustainable resources managed in accordance with business enterprise norms. To this end, the Organs of the Union will have to develop their own performance indicators and commit themselves to producing the right results within established deadlines.

The Commission, for its part, is resolved to fully discharge the role expected of it and to promote within it the values of integrity, transparency, good governance and mutual respect, women’s development as well as the values of solidarity and unalloyed commitment to the cause of the African Unity.

Alpha Oumar Konaré
Chairperson of the Commission
For the Commission of the African Union
In the beginning was Africa

The discovery in Chad in 2003, of the oldest Australopithecus (Toumai) aged seven (7) million years, represented a confirmation that Africa is the motherland of Humanity. Africans were the first to initiate the gigantic human adventure of progress. By communicating with like humans, Africans developed communal hunting and fishing skills and strategies by dint of tools, language, fire and the art of pottery, all of which led to the decisive take off of animal husbandry and agriculture. Africa was the birthplace and source of civilization for the longest period in the history of humanity, a period that people persist in describing wrongly, as “Prehistoric” using one sole criterion – “lack of written records”. In reality, History was born as soon as humans inhabited the earth, as evidenced by the development and flourishing of African agricultural basins, the first religions and marvellous rock art and sculptures.

Moreover, at the dawn of “Antiquity”, Africa remained through Egypt, the driving force and teacher of the whole Universe with its art of writing and centralized authority, its architectural monuments such as the Pyramids, and its sciences and other achievements. That period accounted for one of the high points in the History of Humanity. As a matter of fact, the mother of Egypt was Nubia together with its pre-Saharan extensions, while Egypt itself was undoubtedly the renowned civilization of the Nile, that wonderful river gushing forth from the African womb, a civilization imbued in myth and science.

This whole period of mankind’s history had specific characteristics. It was from the intermingling of various ecological and often complementary regions that the major achievements of the African emerged: firstly, Koush – a period similar to that of the Assyrians; then followed the period of Christian Nubia, and then by Carthage with its memorable encounters with Rome. Then we have Axum, Tekrour, Ghana, Kanem and other empires.

Then came one thousand years of tremendous and wide-ranging progress throughout the Continent from the 7th to 17th centuries. As a matter of fact, it was during this period that the Northern portion of the Continent became a great commercial hub that gave rise to extensive Moslem space which created an impressive civilization born of the interaction and indeed fusion of numerous prestigious heritages bequeathed by ecumenism (Byzantine, Turkey, Arabia, Persia, India, China, Europe and Sub-Saharan Africa). This crude but prosperous period was also marked by the Fatimides, Almoravides, Almohades and Mali, and saw the blossoming of Lalibela in Ethiopia (13th Century),
and of Zera Yacob (15th Century). It saw the prosperity of the Yoruba Kingdoms and the Hausa States, the Benin and Gao Empires, the Kingdoms of Kongo, Luba, Lunda and Great Zimbabwe all of which flourished concurrently with the Egypt of Salah Ed Din and the redoubtable Mamluk. Even the communities with non-centralized power structures did not remain unaffected, as evidenced by the human settlements (bwami) in the Maniema forest (DRC) which no doubt initiated chieftaincy institutions and kingdoms in the Great Lakes Regions. Briefly, during this period, Africa was replete with autonomous civilizations, both small and extensive, and yet sufficiently harmonious; open spaces with linkages even with South-East Asia thanks to the amphibious hegemony of Kiswahili speakers and the Indian Ocean Islands (Madagascar).

When the Portuguese with Bartholomew Diaz followed by Vasco Da Gama appeared on the Indian Ocean after having sailed around the entire African landmass in the 15th Century in search of “Christians and spices”, the contemporary world was already in the making. Events started to unfold rapidly and were characterised by the breakdown and tribalization of past socio-political spaces and by demographic haemorrhage occasioned by the paroxysm of the slave trade.

On the other hand, a black Diaspora sprouted across the continents, while new African hegemonies with increasingly close links with the slave trade system (Bornu, Ashanti, Dahomey, Bambara, Moose) were undergoing spectacular qualitative changes. All this took place before the 19th Century and portrays Africa as a Continent brought together, willingly or by force, by African conquerors who at times were inspired by a proselytising Islam, through Chaka, Ousman Dan Fodio, El Hadj Omar, Samory Touré, Tippu Tib, Mirambo, El Mahdi and others, some of whom were already faced with the colonialist invasion of European countries.

Consequently, the African Continent space criss-crossed by external interests – not without heroic resistance and various forms of rejection strategies - (Abd el Kader, Adb and Lerim, Babemba of Sikasso, Al-Sanusi, Oumar Al-Mukthar, etc.) missed out on the historic initiative of past Africans. Only the apocalyptic upheavals of the two World Wars, the international rivalries among the big powers, the crisis of the colonial capitalist system and the dogged outcries of oppressed peoples, would pave the way for independence. This unique evolutionary trend was part of the historic march to progress by the people of Africa. It however, occurred under ecological, geological and geographic conditions which placed hurdles and obstacles in the way of progress and opportunities.
Africa Constitutes a Coherent Geographic Mass Teeming with Resources, but for Long Subjected to Adverse Factors

Africa is a huge landmass (8,000 km wide and 30 million km² area) stretching deep into the southern oceans. Typified by both equatorial and tropical climates, the Continent is characterized by heat and drought (30% desert space) though traversed by some of the greatest rivers of the world (the Congo, Nile, Niger, Zambezi) which empty reluctantly into the oceans through outlets that cut across coastal mountains.

With 20% of its total area made up of forests, Africa holds the planet’s second lifeline with fabulous bio-diversity (flora and fauna) which has been subject to multiple forms of exploitation.

The Continent is also immensely endowed with mineral and energy resources such as petroleum, gas and uranium, as well as hydroelectric basins. Although still under-utilized, Africa’s mineral reserves account for about 30% of global mineral resources. More specifically, 40% of the world gold and 60% cobalt reserves are to be found in Africa. Its petroleum reserves while currently under exploited, are equally on the increase.

Africa’s agricultural development was often hampered by very fragile soils characterized by lateritization, with the exception of volcanic and sedimentary soils found in river and lake basins. In the absence of agrarian and industrial revolution, nearly 80% of the Continent’s labour force remains mired in manual and archaic agricultural practices in several countries, with increasing dependence on the outside world for provision of inputs and marketing of products. Moreover, the unpredictable rainfall pattern, seasonal and region dependent, has had serious negative impact on effective water management and control techniques as proven by the experience in Egypt and Casamance in Senegal.

Livestock production is similarly hampered by two negative zoological factors, namely: Tsetse fly and trypanosomiasis, as well as the anopheles, the mosquito specie responsible for malaria which has been a critical disease in the history of Africa. The anopheles for instance, forced the European colonizers to abandon some African territories with small-scale farming, while moving away to settle in malaria-free countries which they subsequently turned into settlement colonies.
The above natural but negative elements were compounded by socio-political factors culminating in high migration, further facilitated by availability of space and encouraged by the norms of hospitality to strangers. These factors offer one of the keys to Africa’s historical “model”, namely: instability of human settlements unsuited to accumulation, and itinerant rural labour not conducive to progress. As a matter of fact, in Europe and Asia, population density was able to attain a qualitative threshold whereby, like in the Nile Valley under the Pharaohs, the need for survival called for qualitative and structural technological or institutional changes. However, this critical mass was not attained in many areas of Africa for internal reasons; and as from the 16th Century, for basically external reasons. For instance, in the 16th Century, Timbuktu had a population of between 150,000 and 200,000; but in the 19th Century, the explorer Barth found only 20,000 people in the city, that is ten times less. On the other hand, London counted 120,000 inhabitants in 1582, and ten times this figure at the close of the 19th Century.

The slave trade and colonization on which we need not dwell, due to their complexities, but which we should never forget, played the role of not only slowing down but also of fracturing Africa’s progress. Having been bled by force, for four Centuries, of its best brains and manpower, and of between 30 and 100 million of its best sons and daughters, this state of affairs, necessarily, left indelible marks on the Continent; it left ineffaceable scars not only in terms of property but also in terms of human assets. Admittedly, we must learn to put things behind us. However, this does mean that we should sidetrack or sweep them under the carpet, and thereby fall from amnesty into amnesia. Rather, it means that we should, in all lucidity, understand the facts by establishing the truth, and thereby exercise Justice and celebrate Reconciliation.

Africa has, besides, been long exploited. Shackled by colonization, hundreds of thousands of Africans were killed in wars of conquest and “pacification”. Subsequently, further hundreds of thousands of Africans lost their lives in individual wars, such as the war against Nazism. Then came the dirty colonial wars in which Africans were turned against one another for mutual extermination. The above are some of the factors that militated against development in the Continent.
At this dawn of the 21st Century, Africa portrays the image of a Continent that has taken very little advantage of the economic globalisation which has been gathering momentum since the 80s and is evidenced by tremendous wealth creation. Whereas Asia and Latin America have succeeded in ameliorating their economic situation and integrating themselves into the global economy to their own advantage, Africa seems to be experiencing a lot of difficulties doing the same. Counting 832 million inhabitants which represents 13% of the world population, Africa accounts for only 1% direct foreign investment, 1% global gross domestic product (GDP) and around 2% of world trade, figures which represent a net regression in relation to the 60s. The Continent therefore occupies only an insignificant position in global production and finds itself on the sidelines of the great movements that drive the new global economy under the auspices of the multinational corporations. With the resultant stagnation and decline, Africa is home to the greatest number of least developed countries (LDCs) (35 of the world’s 48 LDCs are in Africa) and poor countries. Over 40% of its Sub-Saharan population live below the international poverty threshold of US$1 per day per capita. Furthermore, according to the FAO, 200 million Africans are currently underfed. This overall picture is further compounded by food insecurity caused by natural disasters such as drought, floods, pest induced destruction, etc. The global consequence is that Africa has continued to depend quite considerably on external official assistance for its survival and to launch its development.

Africa’s marginalisation in the global economy has led many observers to raise questions as to the effectiveness of the stabilization and adjustment policies (SAPs) implemented in the Continent since the 80s with the objective of correcting both budget and balance of payments deficits.

For many, the time has come to revisit these policies and the strategies incidental thereto, because they have generally failed to generate the process of accumulation, nor have they succeeded in speeding up economic growth. Already, by adopting in 1989 “the African Reference Framework for Structural Adjustment Programmes for socio-economic recovery and transformation (CARPAS)”, African Economy and Finance Ministers took the initial steps to reassess these policies while making it clear that the search for balanced external
budget without addressing the root causes of the structural deficiencies in Africa’s economies and societies would be insufficient to achieve sustainable and speedy development.

Without casting doubts on the principles of the market economy, many leaders have rejected the idea of a society governed by only the rules of the market, and are now trying to combine economic efficacy and solidarity, efficiency and equity, growth and sustainable development, short-term gains and long-term prospects. This position was extensively articulated and enriched during the Rio, Copenhagen, Cairo, Vienna, Beijing and Istanbul United Nations (UN) Conferences which focussed respectively on the environment, social development, population, the right to development, the rights of women and human settlements.

A new development paradigm thus came to the fore, leading the international community to craft a terminology whereby sustainable human development was considered as the widening of the opportunities offered to citizens to meet their material, political and cultural needs in a context of recognised diversity and guaranteed pluralism. This paradigm re-legitimises the long-term, as well as planning in the sense of preparing for the future, and re-situates human rights (including the right to water and food) at the centre of the development process. Development per se was understood as a process of liberation, auto-creation and production of material wealth in the symbolic sense and meaning of the word. In the words of Prof. Joseph Ki-Zerbo, this entails a cultural struggle in which, unlike the countries of the North, Africa will deploy all that it has, or better still, all that it is.

Therefore, as far as Africans are concerned, it is no longer a question of catching-up with anything; it is no longer a question of trailing behind any one or being relegated to the sidelines by anyone; rather, it is a question of being at the centre of their own affairs. Africans should devise for themselves watchwords, namely; self-development; self-reliance; self-reliance before development; self-reliance for recognition and development. In other words, the stake for Africa is to formulate a societal project for home-grown development open to the whole world, rather than promote an opening to the world which nips this very home-grown development in the bud.

Having thus clarified the direction of its endeavours for full development, Africa can seek to integrate itself into the globalisation process without losing its soul. It should, for instance, consolidate and diversify its productive base by attracting fresh direct foreign investments and by enhancing its value added so as to produce quality
manufactured goods and services suited to the demands of consumers. By so doing, African countries would be in a position to win the battle for their domestic and regional markets and successfully launch themselves into global markets.

In order to achieve this qualitative leap, Africa must first boost its global competitiveness and remove the macro, mezzo and micro-economic constraints that stand on its way. In so doing, African countries would need to discard the agricultural and industrial specializations inherited from the colonial economy which have not significantly evolved, modernize their agriculture, scale up their industrialization level and achieve virile economic growth (between 7-8% a year).

This novel regional and international competitiveness imperative has inspired new development blueprints in Africa, blueprints which focus further on diversification of the production sector including export-oriented production, opening of developed countries’ markets to African products, and promotion of equitable international trade with a view to significantly reducing poverty in the Continent.

This is all the more necessary as Africa is no longer sure of attaining the social and economic objectives it has set for itself, in concert with the international community’s goals for development, by virtue of the “Millennium Declaration” adopted by the United Nations in September 2000, aimed in particular at halving poverty on the Continent\(^1\).

The centrality of the fight against poverty in Africa is justified all the more in the context of accelerated population growth. As a matter of fact, whereas the global population is currently rising at an annual rate of 1.5%, it is increasing in Sub-Saharan Africa by between 2 and 3% a year. At this rate, the population of the Continent will spiral to 1.5 billion inhabitants by the year 2030, that is nearly double its population at the onset of the 21st Century. This represents both a challenge and an opportunity for Africa.

This accelerated population growth coupled with significant and rapid changes in spatial distribution particularly as a result of urbanization, creates considerable investment needs in the area of physical infrastructure as well as in the social sectors, needs that are far from being met. Furthermore, owing to the young age of Africa’s

\(^1\) US$3,050 Billion would be needed to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. According to UNECA estimates, Africa has to double its economic growth rates (currently at 3.5% average) raising it to at least 7% a year, if it is to attain the objective of halving extreme poverty in the Continent by the year 2015. This presupposes massive investment to the tune of 40% GDP.
population, the relation between dependants and active people is the highest in the world (nearly 1%, whereas this figure has decreased to 0.5% in East Asia).

It is therefore a matter of absolute urgency for Africa to invest in access of disadvantaged groups to social services. Furthermore, from the strict standpoint of economic rationality, improving the social indicators through substantial investment in education, health, maternal and infant protection as well as in the information and communication technologies would contribute to long-term consolidation of the foundations of growth and development.

The youth should be the primary target of these investment initiatives, because in a world in which skills and expertise are constitute key elements in the competitiveness of nations, the young age of Africa’s population could become an asset in future provided the African youth is provided with proper education and appropriate health cover.

However, the implementation strategies adopted in recent years have, unfortunately, not always been commensurate with this imperative of human resource development which in Africa, like elsewhere, constitutes today, more than ever before, the most precious development capital. In particular, official budget allocation to the social sectors, though on the increase, remains far below the actual needs of these sectors.

It is also true that the debt burden reduces the capacity of African countries to allocate greater resources for social programmes; reason for which Africa has continued to demand that the question of its indebtedness be addressed and for more far-reaching measures to be taken within the framework of the HIPC (Highly Indebted Poor Countries) Initiative.

Clearly, the delay experienced in social investment has resulted in the Continent trailing in terms of several social indicators, thereby moving it further away from the possibility of attaining the Millennium Development Goals set for 2015. For instance:

- quantitative and qualitative human resource deficit persists in some key areas, arising from slow progress in education and health. For example, the rate of primary school registration in Sub-Saharan Africa generally stagnated

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2 Africa’s debt rose up to US$281 billion in 2001, a figure representing 51% of the Continent’s GDP and 318% of its exports.
between 1995 and 2000, whereas other regions made progress in these areas;

- the digital divide has continued to widen: the obvious progress towards an information society in which the New Information and Communication Technologies (NICTs) will play a major role in economic and social development, holds out the risk, unless Africa takes the necessary counter measures, of further widening the already very huge gap between industrialized and developing countries, thereby exposing Africans to the danger of isolation. The stake here is similarly to reduce the digital gap within African countries themselves and promote development of the African content in the global network. In this connection, the concept of international digital solidarity intended to put forward a strategy anchored on indirect individual input, deserves special consideration;

- the fragility of eco-systems and the vulnerability of production systems to the vagaries of climate constitute a serious impediment for the Continent. Since many Africans depend on biomass use to meet their food needs, and these agro-silvo-pastoral production systems are very sensitive to the environmental degradations and changes which affect much of the Continent, *per capita* food production fell in 31 out of 53 African countries. Similarly, Sub-Saharan Africa was the only region in the world to experience a decline in real consumption growth during the same period (around -1.3%);

- the AIDS pandemic affecting nearly 10% of Africa’s adult population is spreading with possible debilitating consequences for demography, the economy and societal functioning. For instance, of the eight countries of the world whose life expectancy has declined by over three years, six are to be found in Africa. Concurrently, some diseases have either intensified or re-emerge as is the case with malaria, tuberculosis, plague and sleeping sickness, all of which impact considerably on production and labour productivity.

The above factors add up to lower the human development index in the Continent, an index which itself is closely related to poverty for which it is, in a final analysis, both the cause and the effect. Moreover, as a result of this state of massive poverty aggravated or
occasioned by limited access to social services, the people of Africa live in difficult conditions and, for many, at the very limit of survival.

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**Distrust for constituted authority, corruption and impunity coupled with human rights abuses have kept Africa in a situation of Conflicts, thereby undermining all initiatives towards sustainable development**

The political situation prevailing in the Continent since independence in several African countries is characterized by many negative elements:

- the recourse to force and coups d’état as a means of gaining power or undermining democratically elected Governments. Despite pertinent Treaties and Declarations, Africa experienced 186 coups d’état between 1956 and 2001, half of which occurred in the 80s and 90s, all coinciding with the period of economic management difficulties, structural adjustment programmes and the end of the Cold War;

- the difficult progress of the Continent towards Democracy as evidenced by the reluctant recognition of the rights of opposition parties and opposition forces, press freedom as well as the right of the Civil Society to participate in decision-making and to express its opinion. Disputes over election results, especially presidential elections, with the attendant allegations of fraud sometimes degenerating into show of force and culminating in outright nullification of election results;

- Africa currently portrays the image of a Continent synonymous with violence, a Continent structurally characterised by long standing conflicts that have claimed lots of human lives and occasioned untold destabilisation of States and societies (Insert 1);

Women and children pay the heaviest price for this state of affairs, while the spiralling number of refugees (3 million) and displaced persons (at least 20 million) poses a real threat to human security on the Continent. The exacerbation of religious, ethnic and tribal pressures quite often contributes to or aggravates conflicts. The same is true about the absence of sanctions against human rights violations. Also, at the root of conflicts are economic stakes incidental to exploitation of natural or strategic wealth, at times with the encouragement of external sources.
judicial and legal insecurity derails the basic principles of a state of law, undermines the environment for investment and renders precarious the legal protection of citizens;

the persistent corruption considerably compromises sustainable development.

African leaders are increasingly conscious of the numerous negative factors standing in the way of the Continent’s progress towards economic and social development. They all recognise the interdependence of peace, security, stability, political and economic good governance and respect for human rights. They are aware that unconditional opposition to unconstitutional changes should necessarily be backstopped with deliberate efforts to organise transparent, free and fair elections. Similarly, African leaders understand that unless the imperatives of peace and good governance are taken on board, the Continent’s economic integration would remain illusory, and its economic progress, fragile.

These ideas have been energetically articulated by Africans themselves at many Continental (the Cairo Agenda, the CSSDCA Process, etc.) and international (TICAD Process, China-Africa Forum, United States-Africa Conference and Africa-Europe Partnership) fora; and there is currently wide consensus that, like in other regions of the world, peace and development in Africa go hand-in-hand; that peace is another name for development, and that respect for the cultural, sociological, ethnic and linguistic diversities that characterize the countries of the Continent is Number One prerequisite for development.

**INSERT 1: CONFLICTS IN AFRICA**

The Continent has for the past 40 years been torn apart by inter-State, intra-State, ethnic, religious and economic conflicts. Not less than 26 armed conflicts erupted in Africa between 1963 and 1968 affecting the lives of 474 million people representing 61% of the population of the Continent and claiming over 7 million lives.

Besides, wars did not spare any geographic region of the Continent: the Horn of Africa (Ethiopia, The Sudan, Eritrea and Somalia) Southern Africa (12 conflicts) and West Africa, (some 10 wars) have been the theatre of conflicts. Only North Africa with the exception of Algeria remained relatively conflict-free.

Some of these wars lasted for quite long periods. For instance, the war in Chad persisted for 40 years; in South Sudan, the war lasted 37 years; in Eritrea, 30 years; and in Angola, 27 years, etc.

One of the consequences of armed conflict is the emergence of refugees (currently...
Regional Integration is a Crucial Catalyst of Africa’s Renaissance

Integration is no doubt a vital tool for accelerating the economic, social, cultural and political development of African countries; because affirmation of a common will to come together and for integration is likely to alleviate and indeed eliminate the sources of violent conflicts. Furthermore, enlargement of national markets and harmonization of regulatory frameworks will help create an environment conducive to profitability of investments in the Continent.

Clearly, other measures will be necessary to wipe away the poverty phenomenon and place Africa on the fast track of home-grown development. However, integration is an obligatory and unavoidable approach for weak countries, given the difficulties associated with globalisation. African micro-nation-states in the making are for the most part anachronistic, lacking in visibility and credibility; States without a hold on history; States without clout vis-à-vis contemporary forces dominated by more powerful leader states and multinational entities.

Africa must form vast and viable internal markets to overcome this difficult situation. Such markets will pave the way for inter-African division of labour according to relative domestic and external advantages, and confer on these huge collective entities a genuine power of negotiation with the markets already constituted on other continents.

In so doing, the space which previously slowed down Africa’s History should now, rather accelerate it. This is not tantamount to destroying the frontiers; rather, it involves moving such frontiers towards viable and credible spaces that are not exclusively ethnic nor exclusively religious. In other words, this will entail a determined forward looking “leap” and devise a historic role and fresh ambition. It will also entail constructing new pyramids and giving concrete expression to the dictum that “humans are the saving grace of humans”.
NEPAD Epitomizes this Will to Make Fresh Turnaround for Africa

NEPAD (the New Partnership for Africa’s Development) adopted by the OAU Summit in Lusaka, Zambia, in July 2001, concurrently with the launch of the African Union, represents a perfect illustration of the new will on the part of Africans to change the future of their Continent. This coincidence of the launch of NEPAD and the African Union in many respects reflects the determination of African leaders to turn a new page for Africa. It is also an indication that Africa is back on the world stage.

Thus, having rejected afro-pessimism, Africans are now intent on promoting afro-responsibility, meaning that the future of Africans primarily depends on themselves and that it is incumbent on them to chart an Agenda for Africa. Afro-responsibility also means that, despite the constraints bedeviling our Continent, Africans can regain their proper place in the world through a societal project formulated in a participatory manner and appropriated without a complex; an interdependent and virile society built on the ideals of justice and hard work.

Born of the merger of the Millennium African Programme (MAP) initiated by Presidents Mbeki, Obasanjo and Bouteflika, and President Wade’s Omega Plan, NEPAD (Insert 2) embodies the critical values and principles that should drive the Continent’s economic rebirth, notably: good governance both political and economic; a society built on the rule of law; the region as an operational field – since Africa is divided into five regions – and lastly, involvement of the private sector as an engine of investment and economic growth.

In addition to these fundamental facts, NEPAD has retained eight (8) key sectors, interaction of which will trigger development, namely: infrastructure development, education and training, health, agriculture, the information and communication technologies, the environment, energy and access to developed countries’ markets.

NEPAD therefore marks a new beginning in many respects. It takes on board necessary consultation with the people of Africa, as well as debt related and gender issues. NEPAD is also intended to
promote rational development of Africa’s natural and agricultural resources through judicious financing which will enable the Continent to move away from the spiral of poverty sustained by the debt/assistance binomial as a means of financing development. NEPAD will be fully integrated into the Vision of the African Union and the Action Plans of the Commission in conformity with the Maputo (Mozambique) Summit Decision of July 2003 (Assembly/AU/Decl.8 (II)).

Insert 2: The New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD)

The New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) was launched by the then OAU Summit held in July 2001, in Lusaka, Zambia, as the New African Initiative (NAI). As a socio-economic programme of the African Union, NEPAD’s primary objective is to eradicate poverty in Africa through the establishment of stable peace and security conditions, and promote sustainable economic growth and development, and thus enhance Africa’s participation in global, political and economic affairs. At its inaugural meeting in Durban in July 2002, the AU Summit endorsed the NEPAD Initial Action Plan, covering priority areas which were drawn mainly from the programmes of the Regional Economic Communities. While not involved directly in programme implementation, NEPAD plays the role of advocacy, promotion, as well as mobilization of financial and political support for implementation efforts.

At its Second Summit in Maputo, in July 2003, AU Heads of State and Government adopted a declaration by which NEPAD is to be fully integrated into the structures and processes of the African Union, within a maximum period of three years.

The establishment of NEPAD was marked by the following milestones:

- Merger of the MAP and the OMEGA Plan on 3 July 2001 in Lusaka, resulting in the New African Initiative;
- Approval of the NAI by the Assembly of the OAU on 11 July 2001 in Lusaka, Zambia;
- Establishment of the NEPAD Heads of State and Government Implementation Committee on 24 October 2001, in Abuja, Nigeria;

NEPAD has a three-tier structure, namely:

- Heads of State and Government Implementation Committee (HSGIC):
  - Chaired by President Obasanjo
  - Membership of 20 countries comprising the 5 initiators of NEPAD (Algeria, Egypt, Nigeria, Senegal and South Africa) and 15 countries representing each of the AU recognized regions.
  - Regional Representation is as follows:
    - Central Africa: Cameroon, Gabon, São Tomé and Príncipe
    - East Africa: Ethiopia, Mauritius and Rwanda
    - North Africa: Algeria, Egypt and Tunisia
    - West Africa: Mali, Nigeria and Senegal

- The NEPAD Steering Committee:
  * Composed of the personal representatives of the Heads of State and Government Implementation Committee

The NEPAD Secretariat:
* The NEPAD Secretariat established to coordinate on NEPAD Programmes, which had been the primary responsibility of the 5 initiating countries prior to the set-up of the Secretariat.
* The NEPAD Secretariat is headquartered in Midrand, South Africa.
* Since the establishment of the NEPAD Secretariat, the initiating countries have seconded programme coordinators in the areas in which they had a mandate prior to the establishment of the NEPAD Secretariat.

The NEPAD Secretariat is not involved in direct programme implementation. Its role is in programme development for implementation by RECs, individual countries, the Private Sector and the Civil Society in collaboration with partners. The major role of the NEPAD Secretariat includes facilitation of programme implementation at all levels, mobilization of political and other supports, advocacy and promotion, resources mobilisation and institutional networking for programme implementation at all levels.

To allow for effective operationalization, supervision of the key sectors was assigned as follows: Human development (education and health): Algeria; Good political governance, peace, security, democracy: South Africa; Market access, product diversification, agriculture: Egypt; Private economy good governance: Nigeria; Infrastructure, Environment, NICT, Energy: Senegal.

**NEPAD Priority Areas**

NEPAD has 8 priority initiatives, with various programmes at different stages of development and/or implementation in the following areas:

* Peace, Security, Democracy and Political Governance Initiative
  - This includes the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) which is the mutually agreed instrument for self-monitoring by the participating member governments of political, economic and corporate governance values, codes and standards contained in the Declaration on Democracy, Political, Economic and Corporate Governance. The Structures of the APRM are as follows: African Peer Review Mechanism Forum; the Panel comprising 7 African personalities chaired by a President, and the Secretariat based in South Africa.

* The Economic and Corporate Governance Initiative

* Sectoral Priorities
  - Bridging the Infrastructure Gap, which includes
    - Bridging the Digital Divide: Investing in Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs)
  - Energy
  - Transport
  - Water and Sanitation

* Human Resource development Initiative, including Reversing the Brain drain
  - Bridging the Education Gap
    - Reversing the Brain Drain
    - Health
* Agriculture
* The Environment Initiative
* Culture
* Science and Technology
* Mobilising Resources

* Diversification of production
* Agriculture
African Union, the Embodiment of Renewed Pan-Africanism, Constitutes the Strategic Tool for Africa to take up the Challenges of the 21st Century

Christened in Durban, South Africa, in July 2002, after a transition period of three years and preceded by several Summit and Ministerial level meetings (Insert 3), the African Union (AU) draws inspiration from several conceptual and programmatic sources prominent among which are:

- the **OAU Charter** (1963) and the major Decisions marking the history of the OAU;

- the **Lagos Plan of Action** adopted in April 1980 by an OAU Extraordinary Summit. This Plan of Action was never implemented since a majority of African States have been obliged to pursue stabilization and structural adjustment programmes;

- the **Abuja Treaty** adopted in 1991 which proposes economic integration of the Continent as a way of enhancing development; establishment of the African Economic Community with the Regional Economic Communities (RECs) as its building blocks; the phased establishment of the Pan-African Parliament, the African Court of Justice and ECOSOC; and recognition of the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights;

- the **Arusha Declaration (1990)** on Popular Participation in Development;
- the **CSSDCA (2000)** which adopted a Memorandum on Civil Society participation, transparency and principles of action in four key areas known as "the Four Calabashes", namely:
  - collective security;
  - stability: rule of law, good governance, human rights, democracy, etc.
  - development: promotion of economic cooperation and integration;
  - cooperation: Member States to act jointly and collectively;

- **NEPAD (2001)** which aims at building “a partnership for development” between various players of national life and also between African leaders and the International Community.

Anchored by the above foundations, the African Union was celebrated by all Africans as a historic opportunity to renew, from the conceptual and programmatic stand points, the Pan-Africanism that was born at the close of the 19th Century, and to endow Africa with the requisite capacities to take up the challenges of the 21st Century. These challenges include rapid and sustainable development, poverty eradication and effective integration of the Continent into the global economy and society. Pan-Africanism whose objectives were, *inter alia*, to build African unity through establishment of a United States of Africa, had the ultimate goal of not only eliminating colonial borders and frontiers but also eradicating the differences arising from ethnic, racial or linguistic pluralism. However, this Pan-Africanism had only limited impact on the process of building African Unity due to the fact that the OAU had espoused the principle of respect for the boundaries inherited from colonialism, and also due to lack of political will.

**Insert 3: The Stages of the Progress to African Union**

Since 1999 a series of Summits and Ministerial meetings paved the way for the establishment of the African Union, notably:

**Sirte (9.9.99): OAU Special Summit**
- Libyan proposal for a federal United States of Africa with Pan-African Parliament to be established in accordance with the model of the American Congress;
- Sirte Declaration on the establishment of the African Union.

**Abuja (May 2000): CSSDCA’s 1st African Ministerial meeting:**
- Called on African leaders to implement the Sirte Declaration and establish the AU and the Pan-African Parliament, and accelerate implementation of the Abuja Treaty establishing the AEC (African Economic Community).

**Tripoli (June 2000): Ministerial Conference on Establishment of the AU**
- Clarification of the relationship between the OAU, AU, AEC and Pan-African Parliament (PAP)
- Finalization of draft documents for the Lomé Summit

**Lomé (11 July 2000): 36th OAU Summit**
- Constitutive Act of the African Union adopted;
- CSSDCA Solemn Declaration approved.
- Second Extraordinary Summit held in Sirte in 2001: Amendments to the Constitutive Act
- Entry into force of the Constitutive Act (26 May 2001) – one month after it was ratified by the 36th Member State (Proclamation in Abuja, Nigeria)

**Lusaka (July 2001): 37th OAU Summit**
- Asked Secretariat to prepare the launch of the AU and make proposals to that end, to the Durban Summit
- Year from Lusaka to Durban Summits designated as a transition year
- NEPAD adopted

**Durban (July 2002): 38th and last OAU Summit and 1st Summit of the AU**
- OAU disbanded and AU formally established in its place
- First year was designated as interim year to allow the new Interim Commissioners to finalize proposals for the structure and financing of the new Commission and on modalities for election of new Commissioners
- Issued a NEPAD Declaration on Democratic, Political, Economic and Corporate Good Governance.

**Maputo (July 2003): 2nd AU Summit with the following major results:**
- Election of Members of the Commission for a first 4 year term of office;
- Approval of AU budget and financing proposals;
- Approval of the structure of the AU Commission and plans for launching other institutions of the Union;
- Adoption of a Declaration on integration of NEPAD into the African Union.

In establishing the African Union by virtue of the Constitutive Act of July 2000, African Heads of State and Government clearly recognized the need to discard the 1963 compromise and the various areas which radically set the African Union apart from the OAU (Insert 4). The new Commission of the African Union, in particular, benefits from clear-cut executive competence; additionally, the Continent’s political and economic integration is explicitly indicated as the ultimate objective of the Union.

The above changes are underpinned by eight (8) key ideas emanating from the Constitutive Act:

- **The first key idea** is that political integration should be the *raison-d’être* of the African Union, the objective being to achieve a United States of Africa (federation or confederation) in the long run. This key idea is fully in line with the theses advocating political integration, in the minority in 1963, of which President Nkrumah was the most ardent proponent. However, the position of the advocates of immediate establishment of a United States of Africa, without intervening stages, did not prevail, nor was the idea of achieving unity on the basis of mere cooperation. What won the day was the idea of building African Unity on the foundations of regional groupings. Herein resides the distinctive
feature of the AU in relation to the OAU. The disintegration of authoritarian regimes offered the hope that political integration would be progressively achieved between democratic States respectful of human rights and keen to forge equitable societies which would have no room for exclusion, racism and any form of discrimination, particularly discrimination against women.

- **The second key idea** is that the struggle for the Continent’s political liberation, accomplished formally and legally with the liquidation of the Apartheid regime in South Africa in 1994, should be invigorated by substantial economic development. As a matter of fact, in the context of globalization and intense regionalization both in the North (European Union, NAFTA) and in the South (MERCOSUR, ASEAN), regional integration should be placed on Africa’s priority agenda. The Abuja Treaty adopted by the OAU Summit in 1991, which made regional integration the strategic model for the transformation of African economies thus regained legitimacy, as the AU Founders passed on to the African Union the responsibility of speeding up realization of this integration.

- **The third key idea** is that the integration process should be geared to stimulating or reenergizing the role of States. This role should be re-evaluated in light of the experience of the Asian countries where it has been recognized that the State contributed significantly to the economic success achieved by the countries of the region. Moreover, the inter-African solidarity which was paramount in achieving the continent’s political liberation should be intensified more than ever before, not only in regard to countries emerging from conflicts but also those that are victims of natural disaster. To this end, the integration process should pay special attention to humanitarian action and civil protection.

**Insert 4: From OAU (Inter-governmental Cooperation Organisation) to AU (Integration Organisation)**

| From Unity..... | .... To Union
|----------------|-----------------
| Single source of authority: Assembly of Heads of State and government | Multiple sources of authority: Assembly of Heads of State and Government, the Court of Justice and Parliament
| Therefore: cooperation limited to only governments of Sovereign States | Respect for national authority + right to intervene in grave circumstances
| Primacy to respect for national sovereignty | Provision to suspend governments coming to power by unconstitutional means
| No interference in internal affairs | Provision for Peer Review Mechanism in NEPAD
| No provision for common sovereignty | Provision for public monitoring of delivery within CSSDCA framework
| Prime objective: collective struggle for liberation of African countries from colonialism & defence of national sovereignty | Prime objective: enable Africa to meet
| OAU distinct from AEC established by Abuja Treaty | 21st Century & strengthening

• **The fourth key idea** is that, though predicated on strong leadership, integration should be anchored on an enlarged, popular base, culminating in a democratic African Union since it would have been sustained by a union of the people. Thus, regional integration should take on board not only government representatives but also parliamentarians, political parties, economic operators and civil society representatives. It was with this in view that the Pan-African Parliament and ECOSOC were established. Moreover, the integration drive could be championed by groups of countries acting as the engine of integration within and among the Regional Economic Communities (RECs). In other words, it is not necessary for all countries to be ready at the same time to embark upon the integration train. Integration at variable speed should be conceivable.

• **The fifth key idea** is that the policies and strategies to be implemented would have no meaning unless they are human-centered. Humans in Africa – of whom over fifty percent are women – must, in all circumstances, be both the actors in and beneficiaries of the structural changes engendered by development; and development should enable humans to accept their identities and conditions, rather than fall victim to them. In this regard, development should focus on the rural world and the middle class. Disadvantaged people particularly the disabled should, on this score, be given particular attention and taken on board at all levels. In the same vein, Africa cannot move forward in any domain unless the situation of women is corrected, particularly situations of violence of all sorts of which they are victims. Gender should therefore be mainstreamed into all the activities and all the Organs of the Union, thereby creating an irreversible momentum of recognition and emancipation of women; more so as women are becoming increasingly involved in
economic activities both in rural and urban areas. Furthermore, respect for individual and collective rights of the human person within the context of universal values and the peculiarities of Africa’s human and people rights should be taken on board. The right to water and food forms an integral part of these values.

- **The sixth key idea** is that the African youth should, more than ever before, be mobilized around the ideals of African integration. Accounting for the largest majority of the Continent’s population and participating increasingly actively in political and democratic processes at national level, the youth could serve as a driving force both in the political advancement of the Continent and in the attainment of the objectives and goals enshrined in the Constitutive Act of the African Union. In this regard, the needs of Africa’s youth in terms of education, health and basic infrastructure will have to be met to shield them from the mistake of delving into conflicts and wars. Furthermore, the fight against child labour, child trafficking, and the use of child soldiers needs to be intensified.

- **The seventh key idea** concerns the African Diaspora. The Constitutive Act of the African Union calls for total mobilization of all segments of the African population for accomplishment of the set objectives. Undoubtedly, the Diaspora is a particularly important and vital segment in this regard. It is, in fact, in a position to mobilize, for the Continent, the requisite scientific, technological and financial resources and expertise for the successful management of the programmes of the African Union Commission. Besides, it can form an abiding bedrock of support in the partnership which Africa would like to see develop with industrialized countries and other countries of the South. On this score, the immigration issue and the question of return to, and retention of, African human resources on the Continent, will continue to claim the attention of the African Union.

- **The eighth key idea** is that integration policies and strategies need time to yield results and for their full impact to be felt; they have to be situated within specific time frames, given the fact that the apathy, rigidities and constraints to be combated cannot disappear overnight. For this reason, the policies and strategies must be inspired by a long-term vision which could serve as guide, and facilitate strategic management of development in a context characterized by numerous uncertainties.
The Vision of the African Union is that of an Africa Integrated, Prosperous and Peaceful, an Africa Driven by its own Citizens, a Dynamic Force in the Global arena

An Africa reconciled with itself and with its Diaspora; an Africa using its own resources to play the major role that it can legitimately claim in a polycentric, inter-related and more equitable world in which there will be no place for the skeletons of the economic, political and ideological hegemonies which characterized the previous Century: these are the goals which the African Union is seeking to accomplish within the space of a generation.

Specifically, the African Union has set for itself the ambition of building by the year 2030:

“A united and integrated Africa; an Africa imbued with the ideals of justice and peace; an interdependent and robust Africa determined to map for itself an ambitious strategy; an Africa underpinned by political, economic, social and cultural integration which would restore to Pan-Africanism its full meaning; an Africa able to make the best of its human and material resources, and keen to ensure the progress and prosperity of its citizens by taking advantage of the opportunities offered by a globalized world; an Africa capable of promoting its values in a world rich in its disparities.”

This ambition is reflected in the following Vision: “build an integrated Africa, a prosperous and peaceful Africa, driven by its own citizens and representing a dynamic force in the international arena”.

Owing to the complexity and multiplicity of these challenges, this Vision of a new, emergent and integrated Africa can be fully realised only at the cost of relentless struggle that has to be waged on several fronts and as a long-term endeavour. However, it behoves those who believe in this political integration Vision, anchored on a pluralistic African society model, on diversity, hard work, tolerance and solidarity,
to take all the necessary measures to create conducive conditions to crystallize the Vision.

This political integration should also be built around for integration spaces – at continental level, the African Union; at regional level, the Regional Economic Communities; at national level, the States and local communities. This presupposes the existence not only of three citizenship levels; namely: national, regional and continental; but also the evolvement of the Regional Economic Communities (RECs) – created with the prospect of widening domestic markets – towards credible regional integration communities.

On this score, acceptance by Member States of gradual transfer of sovereignty and delegation of power at regional level might lead the RECs to evolve from inter-governmental management approach to confederal and later federal management. This development will, in turn, dictate that of the African Union: that is, a move from inter-governmental management with transfer of sovereignty, followed by confederal management leading to confederation, upon the RECs attaining the federal phase.

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To Translate the Vision into Concrete Action, Seven Missions have been defined for the Commission of the African Union

**Mission 1: Building the Capacities of Integration Players**

The Commission will have to invigorate its own capacities, those of its organs (Insert 6), specialized institutions and technical offices of the African Union, those of Member States, particularly the national structures responsible for integration, and those of the RECs. As regards the RECs (Insert 5), and given their differing pace of development, the Commission should map out the ways and means to forge inter-regional cooperation, thus allowing for exchange of experience and harmonization of policies and programmes with a view to accelerating the process of integration both in each of these communities and at Continental level.

It is needful to strengthen the capacities of all the RECs within the context of a new integration logic (the RECs emerged at a time when regional integration was protectionist in nature), with operational bases at different levels. This linkage between reflection and action should be at the core of the initiatives of the African Union.
The AU specialized institutions and technical offices play a vital support role for the RECs in their efforts at harmonizing the policies and programmes of Member States. The Commission will share with them its vision and values while ensuring that their distinctive competencies are appropriately and visibly brought to bear. These specialized institutions and regional offices will equally have to be rationalized in a way to adapt them with the new missions of the Commission.

Furthermore, the Commission needs to strengthen its relations with inter-governmental and civil society organizations operating in the field of integration, many of which have considerable useful experience in this area. The capacities to be developed include not only Africa’s negotiation capacities with its external partners but also the mutual negotiation capacities of the various social groups in Africa. Building negotiation capacities is inextricably linked to the definition of an African common position on issues under negotiation; for, it is only when Africa speaks with one voice that it can command respect and attain its objectives. The success achieved in the struggle against Apartheid, thanks to the centrality accorded to it by all Member States of the OAU, and the interest generated by NEPAD are eloquent proof that Africa’s strength resides in its unity. Besides, as the issues on the international agenda which are of interest to Africa are particularly numerous and cut across several fields (Convention on the Environment, Agricultural Subsidies, Cultural Diversity, etc.) a mechanism should be found to institutionalise dialogue among the parties concerned, as against the dialogue conducted through Ad Hoc mechanisms.

In this regard, it is necessary to reaffirm the Decision of our Heads of State and Government to bestow on the Commission a leadership role on all political, economic, social and cultural issues concerning Africa as a whole. It should therefore be agreed with Member States and the development partners (bilateral, multilateral particularly the United Nations system, NGOs, other development support associations) that Ministerial and Member States’ Expert meetings should be held under the political leadership of the African Union Commission. This would help avoid duplication and overlapping, source of wastage of resources, create greater harmony in programmes and programme implementation and strengthen the capacities of the African Union.
Insert 5: List of the Regional Economic Communities (RECs), the major Intergovernmental Organisations (IGOs) and the Specialised Institutions of the African Union (list not exhaustive)

RECs:

- Arab Maghreb Union (AMU)
- Common Market for East & Southern Africa (COMESA)
- Community of Sahel-Saharan States (CEN-SAD)
- Economic Community of Central African States (ECCAS)
- Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)
- Inter-Governmental Authority for Development (IGAD)
- Southern Africa Development Community (SADC)

IGOs:

- West Africa: West African Economic and Monetary Union (UEMOA); The Gambia River Development Organisation (OMVG); the Senegal River Development Organisation (OMVS); the Inter State Committee for Combating Drought in the Sahel (CILSS); the Liptako-Gourma Authority; the Niger Basin Authority and the Mano River Union. Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d’Ivoire, Guinea Bissau, Mali, Niger, Senegal and Togo are members of both ECOWAS and UEMOA. On the other hand, Benin, Burkina Faso, The Gambia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal and Togo are also members of CEN-SAD.

- Central Africa: the Economic and Monetary Community of Central Africa (CEMAC); the Economic Community of the Great Lakes Countries (CEPGL); Lake Chad Basin Commission (LCBC); and the Kagera River Basin Organisation. Angola, Burundi, the DRC and Rwanda are members of both the ECCAS and COMESA; Burundi, DRC and Rwanda to CEPGEL; while Cameroon, Congo (Brazzaville), Gabon, Equatorial Guinea and Chad are concurrently members of ECCAS and CEMAC. As for the Central African Republic, this country belongs to both ECCAS and to CEN-SAD.

- East Africa: East African Community (EAC) and the Indian Ocean Commission (IOC). Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Uganda and The Sudan are members of IGAD and COMESA; while Djibouti, Eritrea, Somalia and The Sudan are also members of CEN-SAD.

- Southern Africa: Southern Africa Customs Union (SACU)

- North Africa: A Special Maghreb Advisory Committee was established in 1964 comprising Algeria, Libya, Morocco and Tunisia to address economic cooperation related issues. This cooperation gave birth in 1989, to the Arab Maghreb Union (AMU) with Mauritania also as member. Libya, Morocco and Tunisia are concurrently member states of AMU and CEN-SAD; while Egypt belongs to both COMESA and CEN-SAD.

AU Specialized Institutions

- African Civil Aviation Commission (AFCAC)
- African Rehabilitation Institute (ARI)
- African Telecommunications Union (ATU)
- Pan-African Institute of Education for Development (IPED)
- Pan-African Postal Union (PAPU)
- Supreme Council for Sports in Africa (SCSA)
- Union of African Railways (UAR)
Insert 6: List of Organs of the African Union according to the Constitutive Act

The Organs of the African Union are as follows:

**The Assembly of the Union**, the supreme organ of the Union, is composed of Heads of State and Government or their duly accredited representatives. This organ meets at least once in extraordinary session.

**The Executive Council**, composed of the Foreign Ministers or such other Ministers or representatives as are designated by the governments of Member States, is responsible for coordinating and taking decisions on policies in areas of common interest to Member States.

**The Permanent Representatives’ Committee**, composed of the Permanent Representatives or other Plenipotentiaries of Member States, is responsible for preparing the work of the Executive Council and acts on the latter’s instructions.

**The Pan-African Parliament**, will be unicameral with representatives from all Parliaments of the countries of Africa. It will adopt legislations by two-thirds majority of its members. It will be composed of five members per country with at least one woman. It will subsequently evolve into a parliament elected by universal suffrage.

**The African Court of Justice** will adjudicate in civil cases and be responsible for human rights protection and monitoring human rights violations. It will also constitute itself into a real criminal court in the long term.

**The Commission of the African Union** is the Secretariat of the Union. It is composed of the Chairperson, his or her Deputy and Commissioners. It represents the Union and defends its interests under the direction of the Assembly and the Executive Council. It can initiate proposals for submission to the other organs of the Union and executes decisions taken by them. It assists Member States in executing the policies and programmes of the Union, particularly the CSSDCA and NEPAD. It formulates common positions of the Union and coordinates the work of Member States during international negotiations.

**The Economic, Social and Cultural Council (ECOSOCC)** is an advisory organ composed of different social and professional groups from Member States of the Union, particularly youth and women’s associations.

**The African Court of Human and People’s Rights**, composed of 11 members elected by the Assembly of Heads of State and Government for a 6 year mandate. It has jurisdiction over all disputes and requests submitted to it in respect of interpretation and implementation of the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights.


**Specialized Technical Committees** are composed of Ministers or senior officials responsible for the sectors falling within their respective areas of competence. Seven Technical Committees, number and composition of which are not limited, are provided for in the Constitutive Act of the Union; namely:

- The Committee on Rural Economy and Agriculture;
- The Committee on Monetary and Financial Matters;
- The Committee on Trade, Customs and Immigration Matters;
- The Committee on Industry, Science and Technology, Energy, Natural Resources and the Environment;
- The Committee on Transport, Communications and Tourism;
- The Committee on Health, Labour and Social Affairs; and
- The Committee on Education, Culture and Human Resources.

**The Peace and Security Council composed of 15 Member States** is responsible for the promotion of peace, security and stability in Africa, preventive diplomacy and restoration of peace. It is also responsible for disaster management and humanitarian activities. It replaces the Central Organ of the Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution Mechanism established in 1993 by our Heads of State at the Tunis Summit.

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*This integration process has the constant support of the African Development Bank and the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa.*
Mission 2: Ensuring Overall Coherence of the programmes aimed at speeding up the integration process through actions undertaken in two directions.

- Harmonizing and Rationalizing the Regional Economic Communities (RECs) to enable them to meaningfully play their role as pillars of integration. There is a need first and foremost to ensure that the activities of inter-governmental organizations (IGOs) contribute to the consolidation of the RECs in their integration endeavours. To this end, it is noteworthy that the Continent accounts for over a hundred IGOs with cooperation rather than integration vocation (Insert 5). This proliferation of roles results in duplication, wastage, red tapism and poor performance. Clarification of these roles will go a long way in strengthening these IGOs and foster their effective interaction with the RECs. There is also the need to support the RECs during the different stages of regional integration. To facilitate the requisite coordination of initiatives with the RECs, the Commission has already decided to open a Delegation in each of the Regional Economic Communities and sign fresh Cooperation Agreement with them.

- Integrating in the AU Commission the various initiatives which had been mapped out to accelerate integration in the Continent, particularly, the NEPAD and CSSDCA. In this regard, it is most welcome that the Heads of State of the African Union decided, at the Maputo Summit in July 2003, to integrate NEPAD into the structures and processes of the Union.

Mission 3: Organize Brainstorming and Institute Strategic Watch Tower on Key Issues Affecting the Future of the Continent

It is today a crucial stake for Africa to reflect on its own future and take its destiny into its own hands. The Commission will therefore take steps to organize strategic brainstorming sessions on all the issues and challenges that need to be clearly understood by all and sundry. These include:

- the proposed Council on the Future of the Union;

- the necessary clarification of the role of the RECs in the edification of an integrated Africa and the modalities of
their interaction and collaboration with the various Organs of the African Union;

- consideration of the most appropriate strategies and modalities for ensuring predictability and proper forecasting in financing the Commission and the other Organs of the African Union;

- structuring the African Union as envisaged, with focus on the relevance of its eighteen (18) or nineteen (19) possible constituent Organs; and

- preparation of White Papers on future challenges.

Establishing a network of Experts and competencies both in Africa and in the Diaspora could, to a large extent, facilitate the conduct and management of such brainstorming. Thus, in this area of brainstorming and as a strategic watch tower, the AU could radically distinguish itself from the OAU which carried out very few pro-active brainstorming exercises since 1979, year of the Monrovia Symposium with the title: “What Kind of Africa in the Year 2000?” - whose results were for the most part, taken on board in the formulation of the Lagos Plan of Action adopted in April 1980.

**Mission 4: Assuming a Dynamic Information and Advocacy Role for Africa vis-à-vis the World**

The information and advocacy mission is vital as it would enable the African Union to take on board all stakeholders in the regional and continental development process. Additionally, if it is the aim of the African Union to ensure that Africa makes its voice heard, rediscovers itself and projects its true image – in its diversity, riches, hopes and fears, weaknesses and achievements – the Commission of the African Union must set for itself the mission of serving as the interface between Africa and the outside world.

On this score, the African Union Commission should demonstrate to international opinion that Africa is not a Continent in disintegration under the pressure of conflicts, famine and disinformation; rather that Africa is a Continent which has given and can continue to give a lot to the world in conditions of open dialogue. Proof of this resides in the vivacity of its local crafts industry (weaving, pottery and basket work), indigenous medicine and pharmacopoeia, divination and numeracy systems, botanical and zoological taxonomy, teaching methods and procedures, as well as metallurgy techniques,
all of which constitute a vast field of knowledge and expertise that
deserve to be better known and understood.

Cultural entrepreneurs, artists and sports associations should
also be enlisted in this communication drive. In fact, they possess
immense potentials for enhancing Africa’s image and for reminding
everybody that development is also a matter of culture.

The public news media and African News Agencies can play a
vanguard role in this endeavour. These agencies, be it URTNA or
PANA, need to be re-energized through diffusion of Pan-African
programmes. In this connection, we should not forget the private
press whose dynamism has been largely instrumental to the deepening
of democracy and the rule of law in many African countries.

The external offices of the Commission should similarly be at the
forefront of this struggle by seeing to it that, in their host countries, a
credible current of support is generated for the activities of the African
Union, its Commission and the various Organs. A campaign to
popularise the objectives of the Union should be undertaken. Such
initiative would be even more effective if informed by a knowledge and
understanding of the realities on ground.

The African Diaspora in Europe and America can also become a
vital player provided they are purposefully mobilised. The reasons for
such mobilisation would not be hard to find. First, there are historical
reasons: it is hardly necessary to recall in this regard that the
Founding Figures of the Pan-Africanist Movement which started early
in the 19th Century, hailed from the Diaspora (William Dubois: 1868-
1963 United States; Marcus Garvey: 1887-1947 Jamaica; Padmore:
1902-1952 Trinidad; Kwame Nkrumah: 1909-1972 Ghana). Then, we
have epistemological reasons owing in particular to the emergence of
the global as a framework for action and observation of international
relations from the sociological standpoint.

The information and advocacy mission should also have the
objective of mobilising the African public opinion and members of the
Diaspora with a view to instilling in them the idea that the African
Union is not exclusively a matter for States; that it is basically a
matter for the people; that it entails an inclusive approach which
should challenge the Malagasy agriculturist as much as the South
African economic operator, the Egyptian painter as much as the
Nigerian labour leader, leaders of civil society organizations in Congo
as much as the political players in Tanzania.
Additionally, advocacy should have as objective the fostering of cooperation between Africa and the rest of the world.

Because Africa is also partly Arab, and a majority of Arabs live in the African Continent, the Arab world needs to be given particular attention. Or, better still: Africa should, in addition to strategic partnership, build an Afro-Arab sisterhood.

The African Union should also make it top priority to strengthen economic, cultural and technological cooperation with the countries of the South. It should concurrently strive to invigorate partnership with the industrialized countries based particularly on the reciprocal gains and commitments made within the framework of NEPAD.

The Commission should, lastly, seek to consolidate its relation with the United Nations system and backstop its peace and development agenda, while ensuring that the UN does not replace the African Union in the latter’s own commitments and obligations; rather the UN should support Africa’s policies and programmes.

**Mission 5: Play a Leadership Role for Promotion of Peace, Human Security and Good Governance in the Continent**

The establishment of the African Union marks a new phase in African leaders’ efforts at promoting peace, security and stability in the Continent. In the Preamble to the Constitutive Act of the African Union, our Heads of State and Government declared themselves conscious of the fact that the scourge of conflicts in Africa constitutes a major impediment to the social economic development of the Continent and of the need to promote peace, security and stability as a prerequisite for implementation of the development and integration agenda of the Union.

It is within this framework that a mechanism was put in place in the Protocol relating to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union which provides for establishment of a Pan-African Standby Force (Insert 7) to be created on the basis of regional mechanisms.

Other provisions of the Constitutive Act also have direct linkage with Peace and Security. These include Article 4 (d) relating to establishment of a Common Defence Policy; Article 4 (h) which deals with the right of the Union to intervene in a Member State in specific grave circumstances; and Article 4 (j) on the right of Member States to
request intervention by the Union in order to restore peace and security.

Furthermore, the challenge facing Africa and the AU is to develop and promote implementation of policies that would assist in the reconstruction of state capacity in those countries where it has begun to disintegrate, or to assist in post-conflict reconstruction in those countries where the state has collapsed.

The numerous conflicts in the Continent have as a consequence the apparition of waves of refugees, returnees and displaced persons, triggered in proportion to the evolving conflicts; the systematic and ever-increasing violations of international humanitarian law as manifested by the heinous acts of violence against civilian populations. In addition, the magnitude and complexities of natural and man-made disasters have further compounded the problem of refugees and internally displaced persons in Africa. An effective control of these phenomena can be envisaged only on condition that Member States have the common and political will to address these issues, and that the necessary material and financial resources are provided in a coordinated and concerted manner. With Article 4 (h) of the Constitutive Act, a window of opportunity has been opened to the African Union for promoting the humanitarian aspects of public international law. Africa now has greater possibilities and opportunities for giving a human face to regional law relating to the rights and assistance to refugees and Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs).

Meanwhile, the African Union has prioritised the realisation of human and peoples’ social, economic, civil, cultural and political rights. This includes human and peoples’ rights to peace, security, development and the right to participate in processes affecting their life, through democratic channels and smooth elections as well as the establishment of the Pan-African Parliament, the ECOSOCC, the African Commission on Human and Peoples’ Rights, African Court of Human and Peoples’ Rights and the African Court of Justice. The African Union is committed to assist its Member States to build their capacity to realise the above rights and to fulfil their duty of effectively and timely accounting to their constituencies through the setting-up and enforcement of monitoring mechanisms and core operational values. The search for effective popular participation leads the African Union to capitalise on the promotion of adherence to principles of good governance, gender equality, the rule of law and involvement of civil society organisations.
The AU has already made a number of commitments in the area of governance. The Durban Declaration on Elections, Governance and Democracy; the NEPAD Declaration on Democracy, Political, Economic and Corporate Governance; the Convention on the Prevention and Combating of Corruption; and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights Relating to the Rights of Women are just a few of the decisions in the area of governance that have been adopted in the last two years alone. These are manifestly a demonstration of African Union’s determination to build on the legacy of the Organisation of African Unity, which adopted valuable instruments and decisions in the field of human rights, democracy and governance.

The AU also adopted two important processes that have at the core of the promotion of governance, through more efficient, more responsive and more accountable government, so as to hold African governments accountable for their actions, and for their declarations. One of these processes is the NEPAD Peer Review Process, in terms of which participating governments are measured against a set of universal principles. The other process is the CSSDCA Monitoring and Evaluation Mechanism, in which Member States’ implementation of the decisions they have voluntarily entered into is monitored. Together, these two processes mark a distinct departure from the practice of the OAU, in which Member States routinely adopted many decisions, declarations and other commitments, but their political will to implement them was never tested.

Since a decade, Africa has gone through fundamental changes. It is now widely recognised that political power should be acquired through constitutional means and democratic processes. Unconstitutional changes of government are no longer condoned nor tolerated by Africa. The 2000 Lomé Declaration and the AU Constitutive Act have unequivocally rejected and condemned any attempt to seize the power in violation of constitutions in Member States. It is imperative to uphold this effort by not only reinforcing adherence to constitutional order, but also by ensuring that the rule of law and democratic governance prevail at all times, so that principles of good governance, transparency, accountability, popular participation in the management of public affairs, are effectively promoted, to ensure that through regular and credible elections, the people of Africa choose freely its leaders without intimidation and constitutional and/or electoral manipulation by incumbent regimes.

In pursuance of these objectives, the involvement in conditions of equality, for all the citizenry will be critical and will largely deter many potential sources of conflict, when the sense of inclusiveness is ensured. In this endeavour, AU will have the advocacy role of bringing
together Member States to adopt the same democratic values and principles through formal legal instruments, such as the proposed African Charter on Elections, Democracy and Governance.

Such instruments will address, among other things, what would be the minimum standards for the conduct of elections, such as independent and impartial character of the electoral management bodies, fair representation of all segments of the society in an inclusive manner, protection of minorities, involvement of the civil society, gender equity, the role of the opposition, independence of the judiciary, freedom of the media, all attributes of a sound democracy in the context of the positive African values and traditions of tolerance and solidarity.

**Insert 7: Peace and Security Management Instrument in the Continent**

The Protocol relating to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union endows the Union with the requisite instruments, particularly institutional instruments, to take up the challenges of peace, security and stability in the Continent. The Heads of State and Government declared themselves “desirous of establishing an operational structure for the effective implementation of the Decisions taken in the areas of Conflict Prevention, Peace Making, Peace Support Operations and Intervention, as well as Peace-building and Post-conflict reconstruction”. The Protocol reaffirms the importance of developing democratic institutions and a culture of democracy as well as respect for human rights for the promotion of lasting peace and stability. Following its ratification by Member States, this Protocol entered into force in December 2003.

In addition to the Peace and Security Council, the Peace and Security Management instrument comprises:

- the Panel of the Wise;
- the Continental Early Warning System;
- the Memorandum of Understanding between the Commission and the Regional Mechanisms which should determine the modalities of interaction between the continental organisation and these regional mechanisms with respect to conflict prevention and management;
- Military Staff Committee whose role is to advise and assist the Peace and Security Council in Military and Security related matters;
- African Standby Force composed of regional contingents;
- The Peace Fund.

Additionally, the Heads of State and Government adopted a Common African Defence and Security Policy at their meeting in Sirte, Libya, in February 2004.

**Mission 6: Stimulate Economic, Social and Cultural Development in the Continent**

The ultimate objective of the political integration of the Continent is to improve the well-being of the people of Africa. To this end, the
Commission, in cooperation with the RECs, has to actively promote acceleration of economic growth in Member States of the Union and speed-up poverty reduction. Without being directly involved in action implementation, owing to the principle of complementarity, the Commission could be useful in charting a road-map and disseminating best practices in development policies. It could also help overcome obstacles to access by member countries to African and world markets and to international financing. In the social sector, a definition of Framework Programmes at continental level could also facilitate the attainment of the objectives of health coverage and upgrading the education indicators. Lastly, at the cultural level, the adoption of a continent-wide agenda will provide a spring-board for Africa’s cultural renaissance. Only this can “infrastructure” African civilisations and infuse an African content into modernity, or better still, promote a modern version of Africanness.

**Mission 7: Establish a Standing Follow-up/Evaluation Mechanism**

The Organisation of African Unity was quite generous with initiatives in the area of continental, political, economic, social and cultural development with nothing concrete to show for it on ground. The formulation of a follow-up/evaluation mechanism would be vital, as it would enable the African Union to attain its objectives, develop a culture of results and institute modern management methods.
Annex 1: African Union Member States
Annex 2: Basic data on African countries and dates of their accession to the United Nations and the OAU/AU
Annex 3: List of African countries/Territories under foreign occupation
Annex 4: List of African Union Summit observers
Annex 5: Invited Guests
Annex 6: List of major African languages per country
Annex 7: Millennium Development Goals
Annex 8: Some African and international Initiatives for economic development in Africa
Annex 9: Landmarks on the Road to Panafricanism
Annex 10: Major Decisions in the Progress of the OAU towards the African Union
Annex 11: Major Landmarks in the History of NEPAD
Annex 13: Africa’s Natural and Agricultural Resources
Annex 14: Status of African countries’ indebtedness
Annex 1: African Union Member States

Democratic Republic of Algeria
Republic of Angola
Republic of Benin
Republic of Botswana

Burkina Faso
Republic of Burundi
Republic of Cameroon
Republic of Cape Verde
Central African Republic
Republic of Chad
Islamic Federal Republic of the Comoros
Republic of the Congo
Republic of Côte d’Ivoire
Democratic Republic of Congo
Republic of Djibouti
Arab Republic of Egypt
State of Eritrea
Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
Republic of Equatorial Guinea

Gabonese Republic
Republic of The Gambia
Republic of Ghana
Republic of Guinea
Republic of Guinea Bissau
Republic of Kenya
Kingdom of Lesotho
Republic of Liberia

Great Socialist People’s Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
Republic of Madagascar
Republic of Malawi
Republic of Mali
Islamic Republic of Mauritania
Republic of Mauritius
Republic of Mozambique
Republic of Namibia
Republic of Niger
Federal Republic of Nigeria
Republic of Rwanda

Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic
Republic of Sao Tome and Principe
Republic of Senegal
Republic of Seychelles
Republic of Sierra Leone
Republic of Somalia
Republic of South Africa
Republic of Sudan
Kingdom of Swaziland
United Republic of Tanzania

Togolese Republic
Republic of Tunisia
Republic of Uganda
Republic of Zambia
Republic of Zimbabwe

(Source: Constitutive Act of the African Union)
## Annex 2: Basic Data on African Countries and Dates of Their Accession to the United Nations and the OAU/AU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Pop. (in million) 2002</th>
<th>GNP/p $ 2002</th>
<th>Area 1000 (Km²)</th>
<th>Accession to the UN</th>
<th>Accession to OAU</th>
<th>Constitutive Act of the African Union</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1,720</td>
<td>2,382</td>
<td>08.10.1962</td>
<td>1963*</td>
<td>31.05.2001</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>2,980</td>
<td>582</td>
<td>17.10.1966</td>
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<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>20.09.1960</td>
<td>29.10.1963</td>
<td>02.03.2001</td>
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<td>Burundi</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>18.09.1962</td>
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<td>01.03.2001</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>09.7.2001</td>
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<td>CAR</td>
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<td>623</td>
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<td>Chad</td>
<td>8,2</td>
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<td>1,284</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>Côte d’Ivoire</td>
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<td>322</td>
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<td>118</td>
<td>28.05.1993</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>1,104</td>
<td>13.11.1945</td>
<td>09.06.1963</td>
<td>09.03.2001</td>
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<td>Gabon</td>
<td>1,2</td>
<td>3,120</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>20.09.1960</td>
<td>06.07.1963</td>
<td>05.06.2001</td>
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<td>Ghana</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>239</td>
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<td>Guinea</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>12.12.1958</td>
<td>24.06.1963</td>
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<tr>
<td>Guinea Bissau</td>
<td>0,990</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>17.09.1974</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>470</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.10.1966</td>
<td>01.11.1972</td>
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<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>150</td>
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<td>02.11.1945</td>
<td>1963</td>
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<td>Morocco</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1,190</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>12.11.1956</td>
<td>1963*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>802</td>
<td>16.09.1975</td>
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<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>824</td>
<td>23.04.1990</td>
<td>1990*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>18.09.1962</td>
<td>05.08.1963</td>
<td>18.04.2001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sao Tome and Principe</td>
<td>0,121</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>964</td>
<td>16.09.1975</td>
<td>1975*</td>
<td>02.03.2001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic</td>
<td>266</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1984*</td>
<td>02.01.2001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Pop. (in million) 2002</td>
<td>GNP/p $ 2002</td>
<td>Area 1000 (Km²)</td>
<td>Accession to the UN</td>
<td>Accession to OAU</td>
<td>Constitutive Act of the African Union</td>
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<td>4. Sierra Leone</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>27.09.1961</td>
<td>11.09.1963</td>
<td>01.03.2001</td>
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<td>5. Somalia</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>20.09.1960</td>
<td>1963*</td>
<td>01.03.2001</td>
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<td>6. South Africa</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>2,600</td>
<td>1,221</td>
<td>07.11.1945</td>
<td>23.05.1994</td>
<td>23.04.2001</td>
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<td>8. Swaziland</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td>1,180</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24.09.1968</td>
<td>1968*</td>
<td>18.09.2001</td>
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<td>1. Tunisia</td>
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<td>2,000</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>12.11.1956</td>
<td>01.10.1963</td>
<td>21.03.2001</td>
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<td>2. Uganda</td>
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<td>250</td>
<td>753</td>
<td>25.10.1962</td>
<td>03.08.1963</td>
<td>09.04.2001</td>
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</table>

Morocco, founding member of the OAU withdrew from the organization in 1984 following the admission of the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic. It is absolutely necessary that Morocco rejoin the African Union.

* Indicative dates. Various sources: World Bank, ADB, United Nations
ANNEX 3: LIST OF AFRICAN COUNTRIES/TERRITORIES UNDER FOREIGN OCCUPATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COUNTRIES/TERRITORIES</th>
<th>OCCUPYING POWER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Chagos Islands</td>
<td>United Kingdom (Diego Garcia Military Bases)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. St. Helena Island</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The Canary Islands</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The Azores</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The Madeiras</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. La Réunion</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. La Mayotte</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Ceuta and Melilla</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Annex 4: List of African Union Summit Observers

(list not exhaustive)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Organization Name</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>African Centre for Fertilizer Development (ACFD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>African Commission on Human and People’s Rights (ACHPR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>African Development Bank (ADB)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>All Africa Conference of Churches (AACC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Arab Bank for Economic Development in Africa (BADEA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Asian-African Legal Constitutive Committee (AALCC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Association of African Universities (AAU)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>December 12th Movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>International Bank for Reconstruction &amp; Development (World Bank)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>International Commission of Jurists (ICJ)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>International Labour Organization (ILO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund (IMF)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration (IOM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>International Telecommunication Union (ITU)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO)</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>Pan-African Federation of Film Makers (PAFFM/FEPACI)</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>Pan-African Women’s Organization (PAWO)</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>Pan-African Youth Movement (PYM)</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>The League of Arab States (LAS)</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>UN Committee on the Exercise of the Inalienable Rights of the Palestinian People (UNEIRPP)</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>UN Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA)</td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Union of African Journalists (UAJ)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Union of African Parliaments (UAP)</td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat) (UNCHS)</td>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)</td>
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<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>United Nations Development Program (UNDP)</td>
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</table>
32. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
33. United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)
34. United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)
35. United Nations High Commission for Human and People’s Rights (UNHCR)
36. United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR)
37. United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO)
38. United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention (UNDCP)
39. United Nations Organization (UNO)
40. United Nations Fund for Population Activities (UNFPA)
41. United Nations Regional Centre for Peace and Disarmament in Africa (UNRCPDA)
42. Vatican, The Holy See, Secretariat of the State
43. World Food Programme (WFP)
44. World Health Organization (WHO)
45. World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)
46. World Meteorological Organization (WMO)

(Source: African Union Commission: Conference Services Directorate)
Annex 5: Invited Guests (list not exhaustive)

47. African Business Roundtable (ABR)
48. African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF)
49. African Federation of Women Entrepreneurs (AFWE)
50. African Network for the Prevention and Protection Against Child Abuse and Neglect (ANPPCAN)
51. African Regional Standard Organization (ARSO)
52. African Regional Satellite Communication (RASCOM)
53. African Strategic and Peace Research Group (AFSTRAG)
54. African Union of the Blind (AUB)
55. African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States (ACP)
56. Afro-Arab Cultural Institute
57. Arab Labour Organization (ALO)
58. Arab League Education, Culture and Scientific Organization (ALECSO)
59. Common Fund for Commodities (CFC)
60. Commonwealth Secretariat
61. Conseil de l’entente
62. Convention to Combat Desertification (CCD)
63. European Union
64. European Union Special Envoy to the Great Lakes Region
65. Femme Africa Solidarité (FAS)
66. Global Coalition for Africa (GCA)
67. HelpAge International
68. Institut Panafricain de l’Education pour le Développement (IPED) (ex BASE)
69. Institute for Security Studies (ISS)
70. International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)
71. International Confederation of Free Trade Unions – African Regional Organization (ICFTU-AFRO)
72. International Maritime Organization (IMO)
73. International Trade Center (ITC)
74. Organisation of Islamic Conference (OIC)
75. Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW)
76. Organization of African Trade Union Unity (OATUU)
77. Pan-African Writers Association (PAWA)
78. Preparatory Commission for the Comprehensive Nuclear Test-Ban Org (UNCTBTO)
79. UN Under-Secretary General and High Representative for the Least Developed Countries (UN-LDC)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Organization Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>80.</td>
<td>Union des Radiodiffusions et Télédiffusions Nationale d’Afrique (URTNA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81.</td>
<td>Union of Producers, Conveyors and Distributors of Electric Power in Africa (UPDEA)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82.</td>
<td>Universal Postal Union (UPU)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83.</td>
<td>World Trade Organization (WTO)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Annex 6: List of Major African Languages by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Languages</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>Arabic, Berber</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>Kimbundu, Umbundu, Siope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>Fon, Yoruba, Gun, Mina, BA’Atonou, Dendi, Ditammari et Yom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>Setswana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>Mossi, Dioula, Peul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>Kirundi, Swahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>Bamileke, Fang, Fang, Bassa, Fulani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Verde</td>
<td>Crioulo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>Sangho, Arabic, Hausa, Swahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>Sara, Arabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comoros, The</td>
<td>Shikomoro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congo, D. R.</td>
<td>Swahili, Lingala, Ishiluba, and Kikongo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congo, Rep. of</td>
<td>Lingala, Kikongo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Côte d’Ivoire</td>
<td>Baoule, Bete, Senoufo, Dioula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djibouti</td>
<td>Arabic, Afar, Somali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt, Arab Rep.</td>
<td>Arabic, Nubian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equatorial Guinea</td>
<td>Fang, Bubi, Creole</td>
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<tr>
<td>Eritrea</td>
<td>Afar, Bilen, Kunama, Nara, Arabic, Tobedawi, Saho, Tigre, Tigrinya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Amharic, Oromigna, Tigrigna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabon</td>
<td>Bandjabi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia, The</td>
<td>Manding, Wolof, Diola, Fulani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>Ashanti, Brong Ahafo, Twi, Fanti, Ga, Ewe, Dagbani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea</td>
<td>Malinké, Susu, Fulani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea-Bissau</td>
<td>Criolo, Fulani, Manding, Pepel, Balante</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Swahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>Sesotho; Zulu and Xhosa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>Mende</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar</td>
<td>Malagasy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>Chichewa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>Bambara, Songhai, Fulani, Arab, Senoufo, Malinke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Languages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritania</td>
<td><em>Hassania, Arabic, Wolof, Soninke, Fulani</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritius</td>
<td>Creole, Hindi, Urdu, Hakka, Bojpoori</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>Arabic, Berber</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>Changana, Ndau, Makonde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>Oshivambo, Herero, Nama, Afrikaans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>Hausa, Songhai, Arabic, Fulani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Fulani</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Kinyarwanda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic</td>
<td>Hassania, Arabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>São Tomé and Príncipe</td>
<td>Forro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>Wolof, Fulani, Serer, Diola, Manging, Sarakolé</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seychelles</td>
<td>Seselwa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>Mende, Temne, Krio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>Somali, Arabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Xhosa, Zulu, Afrikaans, Ndebele, Sesotho sa Leboa, Sesotho, Swati, Xitsonga, Setswana, Tshivenda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan, The</td>
<td>Arabic, Nubian, Dinka, Masaleet Shuluk, Nueer, Zandi, Fur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>Swazi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>Swahili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>Ewé, Mina, Kabyé, Cotocoli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Swahili, Luganda, Ateso, Luo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Bemba, Kaonda, Lozi, Lunda, Luvale, Nyanja</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Tonga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ndebele, Shona</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: [www.infoplease.com](http://www.infoplease.com) and others
### ANNEX 7: Millennium Development Goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Target</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger</strong></td>
<td>Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than US$1 a day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Achieve universal primary education</strong></td>
<td>Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Promote gender equality and empower women</strong></td>
<td>Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education no later than 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reduce child mortality</strong></td>
<td>Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Improve maternal health</strong></td>
<td>Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases</strong></td>
<td>Have halted by 2015 and begin to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have halted by 2015 and begin to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ensure environmental sustainability</strong></td>
<td>Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Develop a global partnership for development</strong></td>
<td>Have achieved, by 2020, a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, nondiscriminatory trading and financial system (includes a commitment to good governance, development, and poverty reduction—both nationally and internationally)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Address the special needs of the least developed countries (includes tariff-and quota-free access for exports enhanced program of debt relief for HIPC and cancellation of official bilateral debt, and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Address the special needs of landlocked countries and small island developing states (through the Program of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and 22nd General Assembly provisions)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable, essential drugs in developing countries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: United Nations
ANNEX 8 - SOME AFRICAN AND INTERNATIONAL INITIATIVES FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

I. AFRICAN UNION/OAU

1. African Declaration on Co-operation, Development and Economic Independence – May 1973
   The declaration is the first comprehensive document adopted by the Heads of State and Government of the OAU during the 10th anniversary session of the Assembly.


3. The Monrovia Symposium – February 1979
   The symposium analysed the situation and proposed a Programme of Action based on a new approach geared to African Unity

4. The Lagos Plan of Action – 1980
   The plan in 13 chapters provides detailed sectoral programmes in the economic, social, cultural and scientific fields

5. Final Act of Lagos – The African Economic Community


9. Declaration of the Assembly on the establishment of a Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution Mechanism, Cairo 1993. It also laid the foundation for OAU efforts at establishing a Conflict Management Mechanism.

II. UNITED NATIONS


11. World Bank Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) – 1980


13. UN New Agenda for the Development of Africa in the 1990’s (UN-NADAF) 1992


16. UN Expert Group Studies
   Under this initiative two studies were carried out:
   i. African Commodity Problems: Towards a Solution
   ii. Financing Africa’s Recovery (Report and Recommendations of the advisory group on Financial Flows for Africa)

17. The Development Decades (United Nations Transport and Communications Decade for Africa (UNTACDA) and Industrial Development Decade for Africa (IDDA))
   The UN adopted two sectoral development decade for Africa
   i. UN Transport and Communications Decade in Africa
   ii. The UN Industrial Development Decades in Africa

**UNESCO**
February 1998: Africa Audience

**IFAD**
1994 – The initiative of ‘82 Nobel Prize laureates on the Horn of Africa
1985 – First phase of the special programme for sub-Saharan African countries affected by drought and desertification

**ECA**
*AISI* (African Information Society Initiative) The African Information Society Initiative is the African mandate to use ICTs to accelerate economic and social development in Africa

**SIA** (Special initiative for Africa)

**ADF** (African Development Forum) The African Development Forum (ADF) is an initiative led by the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) to position an African-driven development agenda that reflects a consensus among major partners and that leads to specific programmes for country implementation

**ITCA** (Information Technology Centre for Africa) The Information Technology Centre for Africa (ITCA) is an information and communication technology (ICT) focused exhibition and learning center to demonstrate to African policy makers and planners the value of ICT for development

**AKNF** (Africa Knowledge Networks Forum) Africa Knowledge Networks Forum is an initiative led by the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) to facilitate knowledge-sharing and research partnerships between professional networks, and between them and key knowledge end-users, including policy-makers, trainers at institutions of higher learning, civil society organizations and the private sector.
POPIA (Population Information Africa) The Population Information Africa (POPIA) is an initiative led by the Sustainable Development Division (SDD) of the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) to establish an on-line space aimed at sharing and disseminating population and development-related information among African policy makers, planners and researchers.

- African Plan for Implementation of the Action Programme for a new international economic order
- Conference adopted by ECA Ministers, Nairobi, February 1975.

FAQ
Consultative group on international agricultural research
Aphthous fever in Maghreb countries and in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) - 1999
Promote Regional Food Security – 2002

WHO
UN special initiative on Africa, the Health Dimension, 1996
Africa 2000, to expand water supply and sanitation services in Africa,
Africa Malaria Day, 2003
Horn of Africa Initiative, 2001
Largest initiative to eradicate polio in West and Central Africa, 2000

Bretton Woods Institutions

World Bank
Global partnership for eliminating river blindness, 1974
Multi-country HIV/AIDS programme for Africa, 2000
Indigenous knowledge programme, 1998
Early childhood development in Africa, 1999
Nile Basin Initiative, 1999
Transport policy programme for Africa, 2001
Gender and law initiatives in francophone sub-Saharan Africa, 1998
Anti-corruption Initiatives in sub-saharan Africa, 1999

IMF
Structural Adjustment Facility, 1980
Enhanced structural adjustment facility (I, II), 1985
Highly Indebted Poor Countries Initiative (HIPC), 1993
Capacity building institutions, 1999

III. CONFERENCES AND SUMMITS

18. The 1990 Declaration on the Political and Socio-Economic Situation in Africa and the Fundamental Changes Taking Place in the World

19. World Conference on Education for All, Thailand, 1990
23. World Summit on Social Development, Copenhagen, 1995
27. World Conference Against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance, Durban – 2001
28. World Summit on Sustainable Development, Durban - 2002
29. International Conference on Financing for Development, Monterrey, 2002
30. Summit on Information Society (Geneva 2002) to be followed by the Tunis Summit in 2005

IV. BILATERAL INITIATIVES

31. European Union-Africa (ACP, EU-South Africa, EU-Maghreb, Africa-EU Summit)

32. The Tokyo International Conference on Africa’s Development, TICAD I (1993), TICAD II (October 1998), and TICAD III (October 2003). We should also underscore the role of the World Social Movement in diagnosing the crises in Africa, particularly the impact of globalization, the role of multilateral institutions and the ineffectiveness of the initiatives in favour of Africa, not forgetting the formulation of alternative policies.


35. Blair Commission on Africa, 2004
Annex 9: LANDMARKS ON THE ROAD OF PANAFRICANISM

1900: First Pan-African Conference (with Sylvester William) in London
1911: Universal Congress of the Races in London
1919: First Pan-African Congress (with W.E.B. Dubois) in Paris
1920: Declaration on the Rights of Black People in the World, New York (with Marcus Garvey)
1923: Third Pan-African Congress in London and Lisbon
1924: Universal League for the Defense of the Black Race in Paris (with Marc Tovolu Quénum alias Kodjo Houenou and René Maran)
1927: Fourth Pan-African Congress in New York
1930: Creation of the Negritude Movement with, among others, Léopold Sédar Senghor, Aimé Césaire, et Léon G. Damas
1935: International African Friends of Abyssinia
1941: Creation of the African Business Council in New York
1944: Pan-African Federation in London
1945: Fifth Pan-African Congress in Manchester
1946: Creation of the Rassemblement démocratique africain (RDA) in Bamako, Mali
1953: Sixth Pan-African Congress in Kumasi, Ghana
1956: First Congress of Black Writers and Artists in Paris (with Société africaine de culture – SAC – and Présence Africaine)

February 1958: Creation of the Parti du regroupement africain (PRA)
1959: Second Conference of independent African states in Monrovia, Liberia
1959: Second Congress of Black Writers and Artists in Rome
May 1959: Creation of the Ghana-Guinea Union (which became Ghana-Guinea-Mali Union in December 1960)
May 1959: Creation of the Conseil de l’Entente (Benin-Sahel Union) with Côte d’Ivoire, la Haute Volta, Dahomey and Niger.
1960: Second Conference of African Peoples in Tunis, Tunisia
1960: Third Conference of African states in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
June 1960: Creation of the Mali Federation (with Senegal and The Sudan)
December 1960: Creation of the Brazzaville Group (which became the African and Malagasy Union, which in turn became the African and Malagasy Economic Cooperation Union, which later became the African and Malagasy Common Organization - OCAM)
1961: Third Conference of African Peoples in Cairo, Egypt
1961: Formation of the “Casablanca Group” (dissolved in 1963)
1961: Formation of the “Monrovia Group” (dissolved 1963)
1965: Creation of the Gambia River Development Organization (OMVG) in Dakar, Senegal
1966: First World Festival of Negro Arts in Dakar, Senegal
1968: Creation of the Senegal River Development Organization (OMVS) originally established as “OERS” in 1968 and then transformed into the OMVS in 1972
1970: Creation of the West African Economic Community (in CEAO) in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso
October 1973: Creation of the Mano River Union in Freetown, Sierra Leone (with Sierra Leone, Liberia and Guinea)
28 May 1975: Creation of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) in Lagos, Nigeria
1976: Adoption of the Kinshasa Declaration approved by the OAU Summit in Gabon in 1977
September 1976: Creation of the Economic Community of the Great Lakes Countries (CEPGL) in Gisenyi, Rwanda
1979: Adoption of the Monrovia Strategy
1981: The Lagos Plan of Action
December 1981: Creation of the PTA which became COMESA (Common Market of East and Southern Africa) in 1994
1982: The Sene-Gambia Confederation (with The Gambia and Senegal) - dissolved in 1989
December 1982: Creation of the East African Economic Community (EAEC) in Gisenyi, Rwanda
March 1984: Attempts by Mobutu Sese Seko to create a league of Negro African states
12 February 1989: Creation of the Arab Maghreb Union (AMU) in Rabat, Morocco
June 1991: Treaty establishing the African Economic Community in Abuja, Nigeria
1992: Creation of the Southern Africa Development Coordination Conference (SADCC) in Pretoria, South Africa – transformed into the Southern African Development Community (SADC) in Windhoek, Namibia, on 17 August 1992
March 1994: Creation in N'Djamena, Chad, of the Central African Economic and Monetary Community (CEMAC)
9 September 1999: Establishment of the African Union in Sirte, Libya
Annex 10: MAJOR DECISIONS IN THE PROGRESS OF THE OAU TOWARDS THE AFRICAN UNION (AU)

17 – 21 July 1964 - Cairo
Commission of Mediation, Conciliation and Arbitration and Specialized Commissions such as the Defence Commission created in replacement of the African High Command, established.

13 – 16 September 1968 – Algiers
Recommendation on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources of the Continent, adopted

September 1969 - Addis Ababa
OAU Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa, adopted

Monrovia 1979:
Seminar on “What kind of Africa in the year 2000” – a new unity plan adopted

1980 – Lagos
Lagos Plan of Action and Final Act of Lagos adopted.

24 – 27 June 1981 – Nairobi

30 November – 1 December 1987, Addis Ababa
The Third Extraordinary Summit of the OAU devoted solely to the thorny issue of the Continent’s external debt estimated at US$ 200 billion. The meeting adopted a seven-point “Common Declaration” asking, in the main, for relaxation of the repayment conditionalities, debt rescheduling and increase in the price of raw materials.

July 1990 – Addis Ababa
- OAU Declaration on the Political and Socio-Economic Situation in Africa and the Fundamental Changes taking place in the world, adopted
- African Charter on Popular Participation, adopted


29 June – 1 July 1992– Dakar
Proposal for establishment of a Conflict Prevention Mechanism accepted in principle. Other themes addressed at the Summit included the HIV/AIDS and
the Continent’s indebtedness.

1993: Declaration on the establishment of a Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution Mechanism whose major organ is composed of the Heads of State of Members of the sitting Bureau of the Assembly, adopted.


8 – 10 June 1998: Ouagadougou
The Heads of State decide to unilaterally, but partially, lift the embargo imposed on Libya by decision of the UN Security Council.

1999:
- Grand Baie Declaration and Plan of Action, adopted in April 1999
- Algiers Decision on Unconstitutional Change of Government adopted in July 1999
- Sirte Declaration on the establishment of the African Union, adopted in September 1999.

12 – 16 July 1999: Algiers
The 35th Summit while condemning the seizure of power by force threatens coups d’état perpetrators with exclusion.

2000:
- Constitutive Act of the African Union adopted at the Lomé Summit.

9 – 11 July 2001: Lusaka
Some forty Heads of State and Government were in attendance at the 37th Summit, theoretically, the last Summit of the OAU. It was marked by the birth of the African Union, as participants endorsed the transformation of the Organization.

July 2002: Durban
Protocol relating to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council, adopted.

July 2003: Maputo
- The Commission of the Africa Union established with the election of 10 Commissioners.
- AU Convention on Prevention and Combating of Corruption
Annex 11: MAJOR LANDMARKS IN THE HISTORY OF NEPAD

I. Meetings in Africa

- merger of the MAP and the Omega Plan, and advent of the New African Initiative: Lusaka, 7 July 2001;
- the New African Initiative approved by the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the OAU: 11 July 2001;
- NEPAD Heads of State and Government Implementation Committee, established in Abuja, 23 October 2001;
- NEPAD – Civil Society Forum, Ouagadougou, 15 – 18 April 2002;
- Summit of African Heads of State and Government, in Dakar, 18 April 2002, on international private sector participation in the financing of NEPAD. This Summit was preceded by a meeting of the African private sector, 17 January 2002;

II. Meetings with Partners

- The United States President receives the Presidents of three countries he considers as real democracies: Alpha Oumar Konaré, John Kufuor and Abdoulaye Wade;
- G8 leaders receive African Heads of State for discussion on NEPAD: Prime Minister Tony Blair at Chequers, European Union President at Brussels, President Chirac; on 8 February 2002, with 12 Heads of State;
- Each G8 leader appointed a representative (an aide) to maintain permanent context with African countries (Sherpas). Meanwhile, since the 2000 G8 meeting in Gênes, rich countries’ leaders’ aides and/or representatives, have been having talks with African countries’ experts.
- G8 countries leaders toured Africa: the German Chancellor, the British Prime Minister, the Canadian Prime Minister;
- Meeting with the G8 at Kananaskis in June 2002 for final dialogue leading to a common programme;
- Meeting G8 in Evian in June 2003;
Annex 12: Status of Aids Prevalence, 2001 (percentage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Prevalence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
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<td>Angola</td>
<td>2.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>1.86</td>
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<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>21.24</td>
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<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
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<td>Cape Verde</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
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<td>Central African Republic</td>
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<td>Chad</td>
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<td>Comoros</td>
<td>...</td>
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<td>Congo, Rep. of</td>
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<td>Côte d'Ivoire</td>
<td>4.71</td>
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<tr>
<td>Djibouti</td>
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<td>Egypt, Arab Republic</td>
<td>0.01</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equatorial Guinea</td>
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<td>Eritrea</td>
<td>1.44</td>
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<td>Ethiopia</td>
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<td>Gabon</td>
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<td>Ghana</td>
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... : Not available

* based only on the data available for countries listed in this table, i.e. without Algeria, Comoros, etc

Annex 13: Africa’s Natural and Agricultural Resources

Africa produces more than 60 metal and mineral products and is a major producer of several of the world’s most important minerals and metals including gold, diamond, uranium, manganese, chromium, nickel, bauxite and cobalt. Although under-explored, Africa hosts about 30% of the planet’s mineral reserves, including 40% of gold, and 60% cobalt, making it a truly strategic producer of these metals.

Regarding oil, Africa has proven reserves of 75.4 billion barrels (7% of the world’s total) and it produces more than 8 million barrels a day of over 40 types of crude oil. Five countries dominate Africa’s upstream oil production. Together, they account for 85% of the continent’s oil production and are, in order of decreasing output, Nigeria, Libya, Algeria, Egypt and Angola. Other oil producing countries are Gabon, Congo, Cameroon, Tunisia, Equatorial Guinea, Democratic Republic of Congo, The Sudan and Côte d’Ivoire. Chad and Mauritania will join the list soon.

In terms of agricultural production, the share of Africa’s production vis-à-vis global production, is represented by the 2001-2003 estimated averages: rice – 2.6%, wheat – 3%, cotton – 7.6%, coffee – 15.7%, cocoa – 68.9%, maize – 6.8%, cassava – 54.4%, banana – 17.8%

Source: Various documents of the Commission of the African Union