Human Security in Africa

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Summary

A true understanding of the broad concept of security firmly recognizes that human security - protecting and empowering people, at the individual and community levels – is essential to national and international security. Many factors from inter-ethnic conflicts, regional instability, terrorist attacks, poverty and disease shape the meaning and content of security. Drawing especially upon the perspectives set forth by the Commission on Human Security, which completed its report in 2003, this paper explores issues and recommends actions in several key areas, with a focus on conditions and priorities in Africa.

Countries of Africa have experienced great upheavals in recent decades, including violent conflict within the borders of many of them. These situations have helped to expose weaknesses in the State-centric concept of security, to highlight the importance of the interconnections among development, security and human rights, and to underscore the need to understand and deal more fully with the variety of issues relevant to the root causes of conflict, conflict prevention and peacebuilding.

A range of subjects is important to the better understanding of human security. Included among these subjects are political and social exclusion and inclusion, involuntary and voluntary movements of people, protection and empowerment of women, recovery from conflict and the role of reconciliation, and aspects of governance and participation, food security, health security, and education, skills and values. The numerous recommendations in this paper aim to foster concrete and sustainable benefits, to encourage protection and empowerment, to advance integrated approaches, and to promote innovation and partnership.

Analytical advances possible through the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) targets and indicators, as well as the Human Development Report (UNDP), and the recently published Human Security Report (University of British Columbia), can help greatly in quantifying key variables for human security and measuring the results of actions. These deserve heightened attention, especially in relation to early warning systems, conflict prevention and post-conflict peacebuilding.

The targets of the paper and its recommendations are policymakers and practitioners in Africa and their partners in the international donor community, including those in the UN system. It is vital to mobilize these stakeholders to undertake effective efforts that make a real difference in human security.
I. INTRODUCTION

1. At the time the United Nations Charter was adopted, the idea of human security was rooted in the interaction of States. The Preamble of the Charter opens with the words “We the peoples of the United Nations, determined to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war….” The issues of peace and security, as well as economic and social progress and human rights, were -- and to a large extent still are -- seen as matters within the purview of individual States, their territories and their institutions.

2. Now though, the definition of what constitutes and what influences human security is changing. Freedom from want and freedom from fear are increasingly recognized as not only emanating from the actions of States, but of others. Additionally, States may not provide protection from want and fear, but rather the opposite. Inter-ethnic conflicts, regional instability and terrorist attacks have forcefully demonstrated that the State is not the sole actor. National borders are permeable, and national sovereignty is no longer sufficient justification to avoid international scrutiny and action.

3. The emphasis on the creation and maintenance of nation-states in Europe and North and South America in the 19th century, the tremendous inter-state conflicts of World Wars I and II in the first half of the 20th century, and, thereafter, the demise of colonial empires, the achievement of independence by many countries in Asia and Africa, and the Cold War (and its proxy wars, waged mostly in developing countries) have had great impact on how we think about and work to ensure security. However, in recent years the nature of conflicts, humanitarian emergencies, and development, and indeed the role of the UN in promoting human rights and global perspectives, are changing.

The Commission on Human Security

4. The Commission on Human Security was launched at the 2000 UN Millennium Summit with the purpose of exploring the evolving trend of analysis and making recommendations. A team of experts in the areas of humanitarian assistance and development was assembled, with support from the Government of Japan, and was led by Sadako Ogata, former head of UNHCR, and Amartya Sen, Nobel Laureate in Economics. The Commission completed its task by mid-2003, and published its report as “Human Security Now: Protecting and Empowering People.”

5. The report emphasizes that human security should be viewed as a comprehensive and complex issue requiring a holistic approach. The Commission saw that human security is a concept that combines human protection and human development and interconnects peace, security and sustainable development. Moreover, the consideration of human security should not be focused only at the macro- or state level, but also at the community and individual level. The Commission recognized that,
in particular, the situation in many African countries in recent years has highlighted the importance of dealing with human security at multiple levels.

6. The report of the Commission connects different types of freedoms – freedom from want, freedom from fear and freedom to take action on one’s own behalf. It offers two general and interlinked strategies: protection, to shield people from dangers and systematically address insecurities; and empowerment, to enable people to develop their potential and become full participants in decision-making.

7. The report of the Commission on Human Security created a new paradigm for considering a number of key concerns, including: people in violent conflict; refugees and internally-displaced people (IDPs); integrated assistance in post-conflict situations; extreme poverty and sudden economic downturns; health care; basic education and public information; and promoting and disseminating the human security concept. The present paper addresses several of these in the African context.

The UN 2005 World Summit

8. Recognizing the importance of the human security approach, the UN 2005 World Summit Outcome, states:

*We stress the right of people to live in freedom and dignity, free from poverty and despair. We recognize that all individuals, in particular the vulnerable people, are entitled to freedom from fear and freedom from want, with an equal opportunity to enjoy all their rights and fully develop their human potential. To this end, we commit ourselves to discussing and defining the notion of human security in the General Assembly.*

9. In a related action, the Security Council, meeting at the level of Heads of State and Government at the 2005 World Summit, adopted a resolution on conflict prevention, particularly in Africa. This addresses some of the core concerns of the human security concept -- that peace, security and development are mutually reinforcing, and that a broad strategy is needed to address the root causes of armed conflict and political and social crises in a comprehensive manner, including by promoting sustainable development, poverty eradication, national reconciliation, good governance, democracy, gender equality, the rule of law and respect for and protection of human rights.

10. The 2005 World Summit Outcome also put a spotlight on the Millennium Development Goals and the status of actions towards achieving them. In the context of the MDGs themselves, there is recognition that where countries are in conflict or emerging from conflict, development strategies need to be balanced with urgent

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1 General Assembly resolution 60/1, paragraph 143.
humanitarian efforts. Advancing human security requires a broader range of analysis and action than achieving the MDGs does, but the subject of human security has not yet been as fully articulated in terms of goals, targets and measurable indicators. The burgeoning body of work on the MDGs can therefore be helpful to future efforts to clarify and measure steps toward greater human security. (See Annex 1 for the table of MDGs and the related targets and indicators.)

11. Three other steps taken in 2005 contribute to a better grounding for initiatives to advance human security. The inaugural edition of a new annual publication, The Human Security Report: War and Peace in the 21st Century, aggregates and analyzes a considerable amount of data in relation to violence to individuals and communities. The 2005 edition of the widely-read UNDP Human Development Report focuses its commentary on the theme of international cooperation at a crossroads -- aid, trade and security in an unequal world. This includes a very useful chapter entitled “Violent conflict: Bringing the real threat into focus.” Finally, the latest edition of the World Bank’s World Development Report highlights the theme of equity and development, out of a concern to advance the well-being of individuals and communities. All three publications provide information to help spread more widely the understanding of issues pertaining to human security.

The Office of the Special Adviser on Africa

12. The Office of the Special Adviser on Africa (OSAA) has a broad mandate of global advocacy, and especially to highlight to the broader international community critical and emerging issues affecting Africa. The concepts developed in the report of the Commission on Human Security have particular importance here. Moreover, the Commission highlighted the situation in Africa, where human security is most fragile. The report of the Commission on Human Security provides an excellent basis for understanding, policy development and action in relation to Africa. As stated in the 2005 report of the UN Secretary-General on conflict, peace and development in Africa:

 Ensuring basic human security is critical to sustaining post-conflict peacebuilding and reconstruction in Africa. It requires that people from all cultural, religious and ethnic groups be protected and empowered. International organizations, especially those operating in the humanitarian and developmental domains, need to address the diverse threats to human security in a comprehensive and coherent manner.\(^4\)

Purposes of the present paper

13. Accordingly the purposes of the present issues paper are to build upon some of the Commission’s key concepts, analyses and recommendations, to apply these in the context of African situations, and to advocate for a people-centred approach with a

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3 University of British Columbia, 2005
focus on protection and empowerment. The target audience is policy makers and practitioners in Africa and their partners in the international donor community, including those in the UN system.

14. A strong emphasis of the present study is the preparation of conclusions and recommendations. The paper includes many specific recommendations under the eight substantive sections headings, and several broader recommendations -- on strategy and perspective – in the section on conclusions. Drawing from the categories used in the report of the Commission, the paper gives particular attention to the aims of:

- providing concrete and sustainable benefits to individuals and communities;
- encouraging empowerment measures;
- advancing integrated approaches among organizations;
- addressing interconnected issues and multi-sectoral demands;
- devising innovative approaches including partnerships;
- establishing concrete and feasible policy targets; and
- supporting a continuum of analyses, interventions and services.

II. CONFLICT IN AFRICA

15. Africa has experienced much conflict, turmoil and mayhem. During the last two decades of the 20th century, 28 sub-Saharan African countries engaged in violent conflict. In Rwanda, alone, approximately 800,000 people died as a result of genocide in 1994; and an estimated 4.7 million died during the last decade of the 20th century in the war in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Millions of non-combatants – women, children, the elderly, the disabled, and the poor – died due to other African conflicts, either directly or as a result of hunger, injuries and disease.

16. Most of the world’s armed conflicts now take place in sub-Saharan Africa. At the turn of the 21st century more people were being killed in wars in this region than in the rest of the world combined. Most of the 24 major armed conflicts recorded worldwide in 2001 were on the African continent, with 11 of those conflicts lasting eight years or more. Armed conflict naturally has a strong negative correlation to human development; most of the countries with the lowest human development rankings in 2005 were either in the throes of conflict or had just emerged from it. Even where conflicts have ended, the deprivations that war engenders, such as hunger and malnutrition, unsafe water, lack of basic medical care, inadequate clothing and housing, continue to have a devastating impact.

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6 University of British Columbia 2005, Overview, p. 4.
7 CHS, p. 21.
8 UNDP, 2005.
A. Confronting Political Exclusion and Promoting Political Inclusion

…the outright exclusion and discriminatory practices against people and communities—often on racial, religious, gender or political grounds—makes citizenship ineffective. Without it, people cannot attain human security.9

17. Several factors account for conflict in Africa: remote sources, immediate causes, and factors that exacerbate conflict. The remote sources include the colonial heritage of authoritarian governance and artificial boundaries; conditions of widespread extreme poverty, and scarcity of basic necessities of life. Immediate causes include competition for land, oil or other natural resources; support for internal conflicts by outside actors, government policy and resource misallocations. Factors that exacerbate conflict can include arms imports, pressures of refugees or internally displaced persons and food insecurity. Conflict diamonds have posed a thorny problem, with the smuggled diamonds producing huge revenues to support violent conflict.

18. Many of these factors have important linkages to political, economic and social inclusion or exclusion. Political inclusion results from power-sharing and from individuals and communities being able to elect their own representatives. However, participating in elections is by no means the sole element for consideration.

19. Given the relative power of majority and minority segments of the population and the historical legacies, for example in Burundi and Rwanda, majority votes do not guarantee stability or security. Efforts to ensure political inclusion therefore need to include instituting electoral and proportional representation systems best suited for the specific dynamics. Majority rule versus the opposition model of democracy, for example, may be a much less useful focus than seeking to ensure fundamental democratic ideals like free and fair elections, respect for human rights and the separation of legislative, judiciary and executive powers. Democracy needs to be tailored to the needs of individual African states to overcome political power struggles, build peace and increase human security. In its summary of the 2002 Human Development Report, UNDP notes “The democracy a nation chooses to develop depends on its history and circumstances” and it continues, “Democracy that empowers people must be built – it cannot be imported.” Development of democratic institutions must also take into account the historic long-term cultural exclusion of women.

B. Confronting Social Exclusion and Promoting Integration

In conflict situations, a rights-based approach, like a human security approach, reorients humanitarian strategies towards enhancing people’s capabilities, choices and security. It stresses the right to life, health, food, shelter and education.10

20. Political inclusion is important in resolving violent conflict in the short run; social inclusion is more important in preventing conflicts, building peace and achieving

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9 CHS, p. 133.
10 CHS, p. 27.
human security in the long term. Anti-poverty strategies become critically important here. While poverty itself may not directly cause conflict, comparative poverty and deprivation does – civil wars are violent eruptions of tensions resulting from persistent inequities in accessing socio-economic gain. The latest World Bank *World Development Report* focuses upon equity as “equality of opportunities among people”, and concludes that to be successful, equity must be a central component of every poverty reduction strategy.

21. The underlying cause of violent intra-state conflict, as seen in Sudan, Liberia, Burundi or Rwanda for example, cannot be blamed only on political exclusion but also deep-seated social exclusion, relative deprivation and its attendant communal disintegration. In these countries, civil strife erupted because controlling political power meant deliberately excluding the “other” from socio-economic opportunity.

22. Though competition for land and resources are major causes of violent conflict in Africa, the underlying cause of instability is the lack of an agreed framework that ensures the equitable distribution of such resources. Instability in Zimbabwe over land, and communal upheavals in Nigeria’s oil rich delta regions over oil revenues and environmental degradation underscore this fact.

23. Social exclusion occurs in two ways: (a) individual and group-based exclusion, (b) rights-based exclusion. Excluded individuals or groups suffer poverty beyond lack of income and material possessions; they are disaffiliated. Rights-based exclusion manifests itself through institutions, formal and informal rules, regulations and procedures that overtly or covertly exclude some from accessing goods, services, activities and resources available to others.

24. Social exclusion and violent conflict are closely interrelated. On the one hand, loss of social ties aggravates poverty, disintegrates communities and leads to armed conflict when the excluded seeks inclusion and the “favoured” seeks to entrench privilege. On the other hand, the State may further prohibit the excluded from enjoying fundamental human rights, and actively participate in violating their rights. In addition, loss of social ties seriously compromises psychological security – it leads to violent tendencies and conflict when it engenders despair.

25. Safeguarding human rights confronts social exclusion and widens individual and community choices. This results in integration, inclusion, and development as individuals and communities become capable of maximum functioning to produce goods and services and to use them.

26. Interaction between human rights, development and human security is summed up in US President Franklin Roosevelt’s catch phrases of “freedom from fear” and “freedom from want” that led to the founding of the UN, and more recently in Secretary-General Kofi Annan’s expression, “We will not enjoy development without
security, we will not enjoy security without development, and we will not enjoy either without respect for human rights”.  

27. There is need for normative frameworks to address inequities and to seek to eliminate institutions, rules, and regulations that constrain access to goods, employment and services. At the same time, there is also need to enlarge people’s opportunities and to create an enabling environment to maximize the use of capabilities. Not to do so may serve the short-term interests of powerful groups, but, as the World Bank reports, “inequitable institutions impose economic costs,” to the disadvantage of the larger community – it kills creativity and investment when institutions restrict choices.  

28. Human security embodies the idea that institutions, rules, regulations and procedures exist to serve individuals and communities and not otherwise. The same would be true for production of goods and services – all other reasons are secondary and futile if the first principle is ignored.  

29. Recommendations:  

• Explore a more inclusive means of electing the President or Prime Minister, and local systems of representation that are broader than the simple majority rule which so easily leads to a winner-take-all mentality and political exclusion.  
• Adopt policies that promote integration and social cohesion. Guarantee equitable access to socio-economic institutions and economic gain by all persons and groups of persons. Quota systems and affirmative actions should be adopted in the post-conflict stage.  
• Establish a framework to ensure equitable participation in all social institutions.  
• Adopt strategies that facilitate equitable distribution of land and the revenue from other natural resources.  
• Protect and promote human rights as a way of dealing with individual and group-based disaffection and rupture from the state.  

III. PEOPLE ON THE MOVE  

*The importance of migration for protecting human security should be recognized, in particular for people fleeing serious human rights violations, persecution and violent conflict. Also, migration should be seen as a process that empowers people and creates new opportunities for people and states alike. At the same time, the migration of people between countries cannot be seen in isolation from the displacement of people within countries.*  

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12 World Bank 2005c.  
13 CHS, p. 47.
A. Forced Movement

30. Africa has a history of forced movements of populations. Algeria’s war of independence in the 1950s sparked a major exodus of refugees as people fled to Tunisia and Morocco. Wars of independence in southern Africa produced significant flows of refugees in the 1960s, as did civil strife in Rwanda and Burundi. The first United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) office in sub-Saharan Africa opened in Burundi in 1962 because of conflict in Rwanda.\(^\text{14}\)

31. In recent years, violence has led to huge problems of refugees and internally displaced persons in many countries. Other factors that account for forcible displacement include human rights abuses, discrimination and expulsion. According to UNHCR, there were nearly 4.9 million refugees and persons of concern to the organization in Africa as of January 2005, an increase of about 600,000 since the previous year.\(^\text{15}\) The latest numbers include some 662,300 internally displaced persons in Sudan, 498,600 in Liberia, and 38,000 in Côte d’Ivoire.\(^\text{16}\)

32. Refugees and internally displaced persons face many problems during flight and at their destinations. They often become targets of attacks, have minimal access to water, food and fuel, live in poor health and suffer from serious diseases such as cholera, dysentery, tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS. Starvation is a real possibility during times of violent conflict. Women, children and the elderly are at greatest risk. Women and girls daily risk rape and kidnapping. Others may suffer violence and death while going about their daily chores. Children are kept out of school by fearful parents.

33. Urgent movements of large groups of people compromise security and stability in countries and whole regions. Moreover, refugees and internally displaced persons may be targeted to weaken the opponent; they may also be recruited to strengthen armed resistance. For example, Ethiopian refugees were trained and armed to fight Somali civilians when Somaliland slipped into anarchy and violence.\(^\text{17}\) Due to cross-border raids, the problem of refugees and internally displaced persons is a major cause of instability in the Great Lakes Region. Cross-border attacks have also occurred in Guinea, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Côte d’Ivoire, Uganda and Tanzania in recent years.

34. The safety and welfare of refugees and internally displaced persons is compromised in many ways. Diseases can spread quickly owing to unsanitary conditions and limited access to health services. In order to make a living, people may engage in very hazardous activities. The decision chain of local and international officials dealing with their welfare may be long and cumbersome. People are often not included in making decisions that affect their lives. NGOs may also be sidelined and their capacity to engage in humanitarian work may be low.

\(^{14}\) UNHCR 1999, p.16.  
\(^{15}\) UNHCR 2005.  
\(^{16}\) UNHCR 2005.  
\(^{17}\) UNHCR 1999, p.9.
B. Economic movement

35. Other than conflict, the main factor causing the movement of people in Africa is economic – people move to improve themselves and better their families. Colonial relations and cultural and linguistic links largely determine such migration patterns.\textsuperscript{18} The desire to escape poverty is a major cause of movement. However evidence suggests that poverty reduction also leads to increased migration because people become capable of accessing money and information networks, which are elements that facilitate easy movement.\textsuperscript{19}

36. Movement on the continent can be attributed to demand factors as well as supply factors. The more industrialized economies in Europe, the USA and elsewhere have a great demand, especially for skilled workers. Many developed countries have since the 1980s sought to restrict the migration of unskilled labour from developing countries; however, movement of skilled labour has been encouraged. As a result of these push-and-pull factors, some 15 percent of college-educated Ghanaians have migrated to the United States.\textsuperscript{20} In Europe, temporary worker programmes were introduced in the mid-1990s to attract skilled labour from developing countries.

37. But the integration of immigrant communities, including actual employment and social services, is complicated. The ability of migrants to access services has been restricted where decision makers translate public intolerance into limiting what will be made available. Immigrants considered to have entered the country illegally face a more precarious situation – they may be completely cut off – safety nets may not be provided to ensure even their basic welfare. The term “social exclusion” entered development parlance in 1974 when groups of people were branded “social problems” in France,\textsuperscript{21} without access to social welfare of any kind. As an extreme example, frustrations by immigrant groups led to widespread unrest in France in late 2005.

38. Nevertheless, such migration of Africans to European or other industrialized countries has also had a positive benefit, as African migrants return to their home countries with new education, new skills, and new ideas.

C. Remittances

\textsuperscript{18} UN/OCHA.
\textsuperscript{19} CHS, p. 44.
\textsuperscript{20} CHS, p. 44.
\textsuperscript{21} Gore and Figueiredo 1996, p. 9.
Remittances shed a new light on the ongoing debate on the brain drain of skilled workers from developing countries. The focus could be on benefiting from the "brain gain" rather than on ways to stop the "brain drain."  

39. Remittances by migrants are also relevant to a broad interpretation of human security. They constitute a major means of international funding that is undertaken at the level of individuals for purposes of household consumption and development. Remittances stabilize irregular incomes, and build human and social capital. According to the World Bank, remittance flows to developing countries far outpace the combination of official development assistance and foreign direct investment. Africa received 15 percent, or US $80 billion dollars, of all remittances sent to poor countries in 2002. Relying only on official data, remittances represented 1.3 percent of Gross Domestic Product in sub-Saharan Africa and 2.2 percent for North Africa in 2002. Nigeria is a key recipient, with 30 to 60 percent of all remittances to sub-Saharan Africa. Remittances are estimated at $1 billion dollars annually, second only to Nigeria’s oil revenues. Egypt and Morocco top the list of receiving countries in North Africa. Other key countries include Lesotho, Sudan, Senegal, Mauritius, Côte d’Ivoire and Mozambique. Worker remittances to Africa originate mainly from the following countries: the United States, Saudi Arabia, Britain, Germany, Belgium, Switzerland and France.

40. The World Bank’s 2006 Global Economic Prospects report indicates that world remittances, which totalled US$232 billion in 2005, of which US$ 167 billion went to developing countries, do reduce poverty. Remittances boost disposable income, have multiplier effects, make education more affordable and increase developing countries’ access to bond markets. In addition, private transfers are large and stable sources of foreign exchange for poor countries and are more likely than other capital flows to reach poor households. Transferring money to the continent is not devoid of problems, however. The UN General Assembly considered at its 60th Session the subject of migrant remittances as a major vehicle for financial transfers at the individual level, and encouraged steps to facilitate and reduce the cost of transfer of these. Given that the World Bank claims the economic impact of remittances could be greater than gains from trade liberalisation and official aid, facilitation and reducing the cost of transmitting remittances definitely merits attention so as to increase the benefit of these in African countries.

41. Remittances are not well documented and their potential as a debt-free funding source is not fully tapped. African countries have weak or no financial arrangements to absorb money transfers through the formal financial sector, encouraging the use of

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22 CHS, p. 51.
26 UN/OCHA.
27 UN General Assembly draft resolution A/C.2/60/L.15/Rev.1.
informal means for such transfers. Nigeria has made modest advances in this area – United Bank for Africa has bought a MoneyGram franchise with the aim of penetrating the thriving money transfer business. Few African countries have eased foreign exchange transactions. Unlike Brazil and India, African countries offer few inducements to migrants to invest in their countries of origin.

42. Recommendations:

Refugees and internally displaced persons:

- In refugee camps, provide adequate military and police protection, fencing, and other physical means of security.
- Strengthen the protection of women and girls in particular, including security measures and counselling to prevent rape and domestic violence.
- Hire women as medical and security personnel and ensure that women refugees participate fully in decision-making.
- Explore ways to allow refugees and internally displaced persons to mingle with local populations, while retaining organized support. Similarly, explore voluntary adoptions and placements with local populations.
- Regarding decision-making processes, include refugees and internally displaced persons in these, as well as NGOs and other community-based organizations.
- Encourage media coverage of conditions in refugee and IDP areas.
- Ensure regular supplies of necessities – food, water, fuel and electricity to camps and their environs. Provide adequate lighting in camps and surrounding areas to discourage criminal activity. Build sanitation facilities, collect garbage regularly and develop ways to improve overall sanitation in and around camps.
- Regarding basic health services, place special focus on prevention of communicable diseases including HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria, cholera and dysentery.
- Promote income-generating activities; help with seeds and tools, access to micro-credit and other support.

Economic migrants:

- Adopt national policies to maintain linkages with nationals abroad, e.g., the right to vote in national elections, retain citizenship rights and maintain property in countries of origin.
- Accord emigrants citizenship rights and increase their access to institutions that help ease re-integration to their home country.
- Work to develop positive public perceptions of immigrants in the countries where they reside.

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28 UN/OCHA.
29 UN/OCHA.
• Provide inducements to expatriates to invest in countries of origin. Encourage financial institutions and systems to help absorb remittances from abroad, for consumption, savings and investment.

Remittances
• Improve ways to collect data on remittances; recognize the magnitude and characteristics of these money transfers to receiving countries.
• Pursue financial innovation to foster the productive use of remittances through micro-credit schemes, interest-bearing accounts and other financial instruments that will benefit recipients and their communities.
• Encourage the conclusion of agreements between financial institutions in source and recipient countries, so as to encourage greater capability of developing country financial institutions.

IV. WOMEN – PROTECTION AND EMPOWERMENT

The big challenge, then, is to translate normative developments into concrete policies and actions at the state, regional and international levels. For example, the mandate of peacekeeping operations should include specific references for combating the trafficking of women and girls, and for policing communities. Women should have bigger roles in peace negotiations and settlements.”

43. Armed conflict and its impact on women is a subject of great importance, especially in Africa. It deserves special attention, which has been late in coming. It is estimated that women and children comprise some 80 percent of refugees worldwide, and suffer and die in great numbers as a direct or indirect result of conflicts. Sexual exploitation and humiliation are rife. The widespread use of rape as a policy tool, in relation to the 1994 genocide in Rwanda and elsewhere, has in fact led internationally to a legal re-conceptualization of sexual violence. Systematic rape, as a means to terrorize and destroy an opposing population, has come to be recognized as a form of genocide. The ad hoc tribunals for Rwanda and for the former Yugoslavia have broken new ground in this regard. To a fair extent this recognition reflects a growing mobilization and influence of NGOs articulating the importance of the rights of women, and the greater presence of women advocates, prosecutors, and judges.

44. In Africa women suffer particularly as their economic and social status is often highly dependent on the husband, and in many African countries women’s property rights and inheritance rights are limited. As mothers, wives and care-givers they face heart-wrenching situations with the disappearance of loved ones, and the attempt to hold families together despite all. Day-to-day responsibilities become hazardous where goods and services are scarce and populations are vulnerable. For example, large

31 UN Beijing Declaration and Plan of Action 1996, pp. 82-85.
32 Pilch 2002.
numbers of Somali refugee women in Northern Kenya in 1993 suffered rape, and were
knifed, robbed or shot dead when they left the camp vicinity to fetch firewood. The
Women Victims of Violence Programme was created to respond to this. Tabulations
revealed 192 incidents of rape within a six-month period -- a rape a day. As a step to
counteract this, an international donation was made for the purchase and free
distribution of firewood – this cut the rape rate to single digit figures monthly.\textsuperscript{33}

45. Yet it is important to look beyond victimization, for women also take up many
extra household and economic responsibilities during such times. Some actually
become combatants, with a desperate sense of kill-or-be-killed.\textsuperscript{34} Moreover, women
often actively engage in conflict resolution. It is important to recognize fully the value
of such participation, especially in the negotiation and implementation of peace
agreements. Women’s involvement in seeking to resolve conflicts, and to re-establish
coeexistence if not community, is well-known in certain circles. Notable efforts have
been documented in relation to the Democratic Republic of Congo, Sierra Leone and
Rwanda. For example, in the “Imagine Coexistence” project in Rwanda, funded through
the UN Trust Fund for Human Security, the role of women in bringing communities
together was especially noted. It was reported that women tended to be more outspoken
than men and to challenge official policies that diminished the human security of the
family and community.\textsuperscript{35}

46. Increasingly, the situation of women is receiving attention and support from the
international community. A landmark in this regard was UN Security Council resolution
1325 (2000) “Women, peace and security.” This provided high-level recognition of the
impact of armed conflict on women and girls, called for effective institutional
arrangements to guarantee their protection, and urged the adoption of a gender
perspective in peace agreements and related actions. The Council requested the
Secretary-General to undertake, submit and disseminate widely a study on the impact of
armed conflict on women and girls, the role of women in peacebuilding and the gender
dimensions of peace processes and conflict resolution. The report, which was submitted
to the Council in October 2002, provided a comprehensive review and
recommendations on impacts, the international legal framework, peace processes, UN
peace-keeping operations, humanitarian operations, reconstruction and rehabilitation,
and disarmament, demobilization and reintegration\textsuperscript{36} The resolution is now celebrated
annually, along with a review of implementation of the report’s recommendations, so as
to benchmark progress and to create increased leverage for this important aspect of
greater human security.

47. In remarks on her experience in South Africa as the Special Representative of
the Secretary-General working with the peace process there, Angela E.V. King, former
UN Assistant Secretary-General and Special Adviser on Gender Issues and

\textsuperscript{33} UNHCR 1999, p.23.
\textsuperscript{34} ILO 2005.
\textsuperscript{35} CHS, p. 67.
\textsuperscript{36} UN/OSAGI/DESA 2003.
Advancement of Women, affirmed that women made a number of positive contributions because they displayed certain valuable characteristics. “They:

- Were committed to peace and wanted practical solutions, not power or turf;
- Were less hierarchical and did not stand on ceremony or walk out of meetings as frequently as men;
- Listened more, were more patient and formed alliances with other women across party lines, e.g., the Women’s Coalition of 1992 led to the Women’s Bill of Rights;
- Were better communicators and conveyed the benefits of peace to their families more convincingly than their men-folk;
- Were just as brave as men and just as willing to take risks;
- Were frequently better at negotiating with entrenched groups such as tribal chiefs or Afrikaans police; and
- Were more prone to reconciliation and forgiveness.”

48. The major, well-recognized efforts at conflict resolution and post-conflict peacebuilding have hitherto largely been in the hands of men, but women’s initiatives deserve much more support and visibility. For men to take the positions of prominence while women are marginalized is short-sighted. It is essential to involve women in all levels of decision-making processes in order to ensure meaningful and sustainable impact.

49. Gender discrimination exists in law, customary practices and prevailing attitudes. The traditionally small number of women in government and public life contributes to this. In the peace negotiations that began in Burundi in 1998 after three decades of violence, women were initially barred from the process. After a campaign that included strong outside support to convince politicians that gender must be taken into account, the 19 political parties agreed to include women in the negotiations of 2000, and recommendations from the women were included in the final report. Ultimately the Arusha Agreement allocated 30 percent of cabinet posts to women, and by 2002 there were four women ministers in the transitional government. Again, in Rwanda, as of March 2004 women comprised almost 49 percent of parliament, the highest proportion anywhere in the world. This reflected the significant role of women at all levels during ten years of post-genocide transition. Likewise the African Union has taken a positive step to encourage increased representation for women – the Union has committed itself to a policy of 50 percent representation by women, at all levels.

50. Within the United Nations peacekeeping operations, gender is receiving increased attention. Since eight of the current 16 UN peacekeeping operations are in

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37 King 2005.
38 Dress 2005, pp. 91-92.
African countries, this has both policy and practical significance for human security.\footnote{The eight missions are in Burundi, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia/Eritrea, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Sudan, and Western Sahara.} In July 2004 the Department of Peacekeeping Operations issued a “gender resource package” with guidelines on how to identify and integrate, or mainstream, gender issues into all aspects of the work, for use by all personnel.\footnote{UN/DPKO 2004.} Gender offices are located in the larger missions, and gender focal points in the smaller ones. Also steps are being taken to help detect instances of human trafficking, assist in designing relevant legislation and national plans of action, to prevent peacekeepers from being a source of demand that traffickers may target, and to implement a policy of zero tolerance of sexual exploitation or abuse by peacekeeping personnel.\footnote{UN/DPKO 2005. See also UN Security Council Presidential Statement 2005/21.}

51. Among other main priorities related to women and human security, health is an area of special concern. (See chapter VIII for further coverage on health.) Owing to biological features, reproductive roles and cultural norms, women’s health suffers disproportionately during times of conflict. Morbidity and mortality rise sharply. Pregnant women are at risk of miscarriage and murder. Girls and women may be forced into situations of sexual exploitation, which have a strong potential for serious health consequences. Within families, domestic violence also increases, with misery and tensions high. In addition women may suffer discrimination or exclusion from necessities, such as access to food.

52. Similarly, education for females is a fundamental building block for human security and advancement at individual, community and national levels. (See Chapter IX for further coverage on education and related matters.) The adult literacy rate in Africa stood at 70 percent for males and 54 percent for females in 2004.\footnote{UNESCO 2005.} The returns on investment are not necessarily easily measured in short-term economic gains, especially where prevailing cultural norms impede women’s employment outside traditional agriculture or other informal sectors. However the long-term economic, social and environmental gains are clear. The problem therefore relates to ability and motivation to provide girls and women full access to education and in all fields of learning.

53. Greater protection and empowerment of women produces numerous verifiable benefits and multiplier effects. These include reduced maternal, infant and child mortality, improved reproductive health, increased literacy—especially for girls but also for boys, reduced environmental degradation and increased food supply. Women tend to make different policy choices and decisions about allocations of public resources than do men. Involvement of women in public affairs directs public policy toward important community and family-oriented issues that may otherwise be neglected. Without their direct involvement, the point of view of half of the population is seriously under-

\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{41} The eight missions are in Burundi, Côte d’Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia/Eritrea, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Sudan, and Western Sahara.} 
\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{42} UN/DPKO 2004.} 
\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{43} UN/DPKO 2005. See also UN Security Council Presidential Statement 2005/21.} 
\footnotesize{\textsuperscript{44} UNESCO 2005.}
represented. Efforts in microfinance, which typically involve women, have brought about strong savings that benefit the individual, family and community at large. Degraded environments directly affect women’s lives and their abilities to provide for their families. On the other hand, reduction of time required to fetch water or firewood, for example, directly augments women’s ability to engage in more productive activities. Empowerment of girls and women through education enables them to understand and use their intellects to improve their lives and those of other family members, and to benefit the larger community. As UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan has written, “If we want to save Africa from two catastrophes [famine and AIDS], we would do well to focus on saving Africa’s women.”

54. In short, it is very much in the interest of African countries to focus on improving the situation of women as a strategy for development and human security. Protection and empowerment of women and girls is an area where the quantitative work done so far in relation to the MDGs (see the Annex) can be very helpful to future analysis and comprehension in the field of human security. Millennium goals 2, 3 and 5, which aim to achieve universal primary education, promote gender equality and empower women, and improve maternal health, are explicit on this, and many of the indicators for measuring success in relation to other goals are appropriately disaggregated by sex.

55. Recommendations:

- Involve women in the decision-making process at all levels of conflict resolution, including at the level of constitutional drafting, at the executive, legislative and judiciary levels of government. Reserve quotas for women at all levels of government to ensure this.
- Eliminate all forms of discrimination against women by adopting legislation and establishing administrative procedures to widen women’s access to social and economic institutions.
- Increase girls’ and women’s access to education at all levels, including through quotas, and encourage science and technical education.
- Deliberately increase the number of women health care providers, especially the number of women physicians, including through reserving quotas for women in health training institutions.
- Integrate lessons about respect for women and combating gender-based discrimination and violence in the school curricula.
- Discourage violence as a means of settling family conflicts and create family conflict resolution programmes for men.
- Protect women and girls from sexual offences through punishment of perpetrators and education programs for men and boys.
- Make available trauma counselling and put into place programs that help the community accept children born as a result of rape.

\[^{45}\) Annan 2002.\]
V. RECOVERING FROM VIOLENT CONFLICT

Cease-fire agreements and peace settlements mark the end of violent conflict, but they do not ensure peace and human security.\textsuperscript{46}

Each post-conflict recovery requires an integrated human security framework, developed in full partnership with the national and local authorities...The framework should incorporate the human security issues and needs identified under each of five clusters...ensuring public safety; meeting immediate humanitarian needs; launching rehabilitation and reconstruction; emphasizing reconciliation and coexistence; and promoting governance and empowerment.\textsuperscript{47}

56. The effects of violent conflict are death, debilitation, destruction and ruin. Institutions, norms and traditions are smashed. Communities, families and individual survivors are forever changed. It is tremendously costly in many ways, and reconstruction is even more costly. Oddly, such upheaval also provides opportunities for new beginnings.

57. Peace agreements are fragile. It is important to prevent disintegration. To build peace in the long run, it is necessary to encompass and interlink emergency assistance, revitalization, reconstruction, and growth. One must go beyond the conceptual duality of humanitarian assistance and development, or the idea of a simple continuum from one stage to another.

A. Ensuring public safety

58. Reduction of danger and fear is absolutely essential. A safe environment is necessary to achieve this. Because weapons possession is widespread during violent conflict, a prime concern is disarmament and demobilization of combatants, leading toward reintegration of factions and populations.

59. Various measures to restrict supply of and demand for weapons are needed, including voluntary surrender, effective seizure and destruction of weapons. In African situations the vast majority of weapons are categorized as small arms and light weapons. Even farm implements have a horrific history, and broad swaths of territory bristle with landmines. Direct steps through programmes for disarmament and demobilization are necessary, but broader solutions to the problem require policies and actions that go beyond these to a range of confidence-building measures which strengthen protection and empowerment through transparency, development, human rights, judicial systems and police work.

60. Disarmament, demobilization and reintegration of ex-combatants from the various factions are neither simple nor quick, nor are the healing processes within the

\textsuperscript{46} CHS, p. 57.
\textsuperscript{47} CHS, p. 61.
populations affected. These are issues of key importance to stability and security, requiring immediate as well as long-term attention.

61. Child soldiers -- boys and girls kidnapped, conscripted or recruited into service -- are a frequent feature of African conflicts. Various factions have obtained the services of children, as fighters, guards, helpers and sex slaves. Child soldiers must also be disarmed, demobilized and reintegrated into the community like other ex-combatants, with the additional aims of reuniting them with families and creating options for lives apart from warfare.

62. As disarmament and efforts toward reintegration proceed, violence and crime continue as serious problems, undermining peacebuilding efforts because of mutual fear and distrust and perpetuation of insecurity.\textsuperscript{48} For example, street children, besides being an indicator of poverty and desperation, are a source of criminal activities. Strong emphasis on building police capacities is needed to ensure the safety of individuals and communities.

63. Beyond the input of training and equipment, several features of what can be called the enabling environment are very important. Among these are needs for adequate remuneration, motivation and management for the police, to ensure that they function as a positive and efficient force. Equally important is a valid punishment regime and measures to deter corruption by police as well as by those accused. Police-community relations require attention to ensure maximum communal safety. Curfews may be needed until situations stabilize. Teams may be needed to identify and later remove landmines from infested areas. Today 21 African countries are affected by landmines and unexploded ordnance.\textsuperscript{49}

B. Launching rehabilitation and reconstruction

There is growing realization that launching rehabilitation and reconstruction as soon as possible, even when conflict is still ongoing, can be a major incentive for peace. Relief and development activities should work in parallel, with relief gradually phasing out. This calls for much quicker mobilization of reconstruction and development resources and implementation of activities than under the long time frames now required.\textsuperscript{50}

64. Rehabilitation and reconstruction of infrastructure is urgently needed after violent conflict. In recent decades the growth of urban populations has been tremendous in African countries. Water supply, power supply, transport systems, offices and houses are quickly made inoperable or destroyed, but are slow and costly to rebuild. Water supply is necessary to productive activity and life itself. Lack of power and lighting

\textsuperscript{48} Lund, Rubin and Hara, 1998.
\textsuperscript{49} Landmines 2005.
\textsuperscript{50} CHS, p. 64.
The relationship between justice and peace is thorny and complex. But more “justice” does not necessarily lead to “peace.”...Between vengeance and forgiveness lie a broad range of options for coming to terms with the past and building trust.\(^{52}\)

“Each situation is unique however and each society has different ways of achieving justice and reconciling differences.”\(^{53}\)

“From a human security perspective, a community-centred approach, involving as many people as possible, is essential to complement the institution-driven justice and reconciliation processes.”\(^{54}\)

“Through the gradual recognition of increasing economic opportunity and human security, members of different groups can again come to accept one another as participants in society and as interdependent actors. They can begin to imagine themselves living together in peace.”\(^{55}\)

One modality of helping attain human security in post-conflict situations is establishment of entities variously known as truth commissions or commissions of
inquiry. They seek to overcome a history of crimes against humanity, including murder, extermination and enslavement, as well as rape, maiming, terror, destruction of homes, crops, farmlands and property, so that perpetrators and victims can try to bury their hatreds along with their dead, and look to the future. They have had varying degrees of success, depending on circumstances of the conflict, institutional capabilities, and the difficulties of balancing the desires for vengeance and forgiveness, the need to remember and the need to forget.

Commissions of inquiry


Truth Commissions may or may not supplant a rigorous criminal proceeding of “war criminals” through the International Criminal Court or another site of justice. They are not an African creation, but the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) is notable for having added the concept of Reconciliation, and it has received world-wide attention. The TRC provided for abusers to acknowledge or confess the crimes committed, and in return receive amnesty rather than punishment. One objective was to restore relationships between victims and offenders, at the individual and community levels.

68. Speaking of some of its central concepts, Archbishop Desmond Tutu, Chairman of the South African TRC, has said,

Forgiveness is taking seriously the awfulness of what has happened when you are treated unfairly. It is opening the door for the other person to have a chance to begin again. Without forgiveness, resentment builds in us, a resentment which turns into hostility and anger. Hatred eats away at our well-being. In Africa, we have a word, *Ubuntu*, which is difficult to render in Western languages. It speaks about the essence of being human: that my humanity is caught up in your humanity because we say a person is a person through other persons. In our African understanding, we set great store by communal peace and harmony. Anything that subverts this harmony is injurious, not just to the community, but to all of us, and therefore forgiveness is an absolute necessity for continued human existence.

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57 Wikipedia.org - Ubuntu  
58 Tutu 1999.
69. Several other initiatives emerged from the South Africa TRC. One is the extensive role of women in the process. Two-fifths of the Commissioners were women, and women witnesses presented nearly three-fifths of the over 21,000 testimonies received. Three-quarters of the regional managers of the TRC were women. The women’s points of view that emerged in testimonies dealt not only with crimes against their own persons, but the effect on their lives and those of their families because of crimes committed against their husbands, brothers and sons.\(^{59}\) Forgiveness was not easy, but came in part from recognition by the victims of the humanity of the perpetrators and recognition by the perpetrators of the humanity of the victims.

70. Truth commissions can establish the scope, nature and causes of human rights violations and abuses; provide an historical record; identify victims of violations and abuses of human rights; analyze needs of victims or groups of victims; recommend legal, political and other remedies and reforms needed to achieve the work of the commission; suggest measures to prevent and avoid future repetition of violations and abuses; promote healing and reconciliation; and set up reparations and rehabilitations.\(^{60}\) A Commission requires rigorous data collection and may require forensic investigation.

71. Critics of truth commissions cite the slowness of progress, and whether truth and justice can be equated. The International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda and the Special Court for Sierra Leone have been beset by problems of costly and lengthy processes. Decisions as to whether to hold all or most proceedings in a country or outside it also influence the outcomes. In the country often the institutions are weak; out of the country, personal participation by large numbers of citizens is impossible.

72. Many variants of courts and commissions to deal with the aftermath of war have been tried in Africa, including truth and reconciliation commissions, UN tribunals, ‘hybrid’ criminal courts, domestic trials, and also, in Chad, an attempt to implement universal jurisdiction which allows for any country to prosecute war criminals.\(^{61}\) In the case of Rwanda, the Gacaca jurisdictions were formed, based upon a traditional system of participatory justice and conflict resolution in which the whole of society took part.\(^{62}\) Fashioned from a situation where they were based on mutual respect and social cohesion, today they operate in a divided and non-cohesive environment. The risks are that people may not speak the truth and that perpetrators in the community may put pressure on witnesses, so as to forestall punitive justice. Moreover there is fear that “justice” may not truly provide an adequate sense of compensation for the survivors.\(^{63}\)

73. A truth commission can have a direct relation to improving human security however, not just through increased understanding between perpetrator and victim, or healing in the community. It can provide very practical benchmarks and measures for

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\(^{60}\) Ghana Truth Commission.
\(^{61}\) Cruvelleri 2004.
\(^{62}\) Rutayisire 2004, p. 4.
\(^{63}\) Rutayisire 2004, p. 5.
preventing further conflict. This is particularly beneficial if coupled with measures for economic improvement in the community and country, as widespread unemployment or underemployment negatively influence stability.

74. Recommendations

- Mobilize resources needed to implement disarmament programmes.
- Reduce military spending and adopt effective measures to reduce civilian access to weapons.
- Reintegrate former combatants, including through enlisting them in the regular army or police or through efforts to provide them with technical skills leading to civilian employment.
- Protect and promote human rights. Provide training in pacific settlement of disputes.
- Strengthen police capacities through increased recruitment, training, equipment, and transportation. Strengthen judicial capacities to complement police efforts.
- Develop programmes to improve police-community relations.
- Create truth and reconciliation commissions, and establish formal tribunals to provide transitional justice.
- Strengthen or revive traditional justice systems.

VI. GOVERNANCE AND PARTICIPATION

Governance issues are closely linked to the empowerment of people and communities. Without effective governance, people are not empowered. And unless people and communities are empowered to let their voices be heard or to participate in decision-making, governance is not feasible.\(^{64}\)

75. Governance is very important to human security. Central to the whole examination of the concept of human security is the need to refocus attention down from the level of the state to that of communities and individuals; nevertheless, national and local governance is a key issue, for good and for ill. The present paper touches upon just a few aspects of this -- constitutional reform, elections and other aspects of popular participation in development, and public administration. In addition, the media, with its capacity of advocacy and its ability to frame political issues, is appropriately seen as part of governance.

76. The first subject, the national Constitution, is the role of the state at its most formal level. It is also the foundation for the protection and empowerment of people. The national constitution usually needs reform or re-writing after violent conflict, in order to provide general legal backing for new policies, rules and regulations. It is

\(^{64}\) CHS p. 68.
essential to ensure and enshrine principles that will overcome hostilities and lead to greater security for all. This process is often fraught with difficult negotiations.

77. Enforcing the new provisions is another major problem, in the face of weaknesses in the judiciary and institutional structures, and the continuing need to secure willing adherence from all sides. Ultimately the impetus for success in constitutional reform comes from people’s understanding that the alternatives are either worse or impossible. This burden was very much on the minds of the negotiators of the South African constitution. Because of the difficulties, such negotiations are often supported by outside actors – a well-respected African Head of State, a sub-regional grouping, one or more major foreign powers or representatives of the United Nations.

78. An important aspect of the constitution is protection and promotion of human rights. This helps ensure safety, liberty, and prevention of conflict. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights and related international conventions are essential models and a source of inspiration. Some African governments have taken important strides to deal with the safeguarding of human rights. Burundi has created a ministry for human rights; other countries have established national commissions or other structures. The effectiveness of these depends on the strength of institutional capacities and the vigour of leadership in ensuring constant attention to the protection of the vulnerable, the poor and the powerless.

79. The second subject, popular participation, is the very essence of democracy. Participation from all quarters consolidates group values, reduces tensions and builds peace. It allows communities to express concerns and provides opportunities for officials to explain policies and build support. The holding of elections at national and local levels is a very important element, and they must be generally recognized as free and fair. These are extremely difficult criteria to meet shortly after a violent conflict, but the election of officials whose legitimacy is popularly recognized is essential for an environment of stability, peacebuilding and development. Although there is a danger that contenders will seek to obtain in negotiations and elections more than they could on the ground, the results in Sierra Leone ultimately showed the power of citizens to overcome their fears and their oppressors. Also, the recent free and fair election of Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf as President of Liberia creates the opportunity for that country to embark on the recovery path.

80. Popular participation must go beyond elections, however. Political inclusion also means ensuring that communities have a role in overseeing elected and appointed officials, and that they can exercise influence to ensure efficiency, equity, transparency and accountability in the conduct of government business. Both majority and minority rights and responsibilities must be respected. These are core elements to achieving individual- and community-level human security through governance. There is often a “tug of war” between official institutions and long-standing ethnic, linguistic or religious affiliations.
81. Popular participation also means that non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and other community-based elements of civil society need to be able to express themselves and contribute to decision-making. Such participation has been making itself increasingly felt in Africa, despite the oftentimes limited capabilities and financial resources of these organizations. NGOs can be whistle-blowers and sources of ideas. They can also be not very representative of popular views. In some countries, NGOs are major peacebuilding actors and policy opinion-leaders. These may be indigenous organizations or extensions of international ones. The "Directory of African Civil Society Organisations in the Field of Conflict Prevention and Peacebuilding," lists some 600 such NGOs.65

82. Specifically on the role of civil society in the prevention of armed conflict in Africa, the United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa (OSAA) published in 2004 an assessment with numerous recommendations for strengthening action at all levels.66 On a broader scale, OSAA publishes a compendium of African NGOs. The third (2004) edition of this includes nearly 3,800 entries. The Directory is part of the United Nation’s ongoing efforts to improve collaboration and facilitate information exchange among civil society organizations (CSOs), as well as with other development partners. The Directory informs and promotes a vibrant civil society in Africa, through which listed groups may learn from each other’s successes, strengthen their own local institutions, and network effectively for sustainable development.67

83. The third subject, public administration, is a major issue for governance and human security on the continent. As noted in a recent examination on conflict prevention and peacebuilding, especially in the context of the United Nations, “…the relationship between failed and de-legitimized governance and the emergence of conflict is now well recognized.”68 Civil service difficulties relate to performance, service delivery, waste, corruption, and lack of communal oversight. Moreover, where the public sector is unable to provide effective regulation, standard-setting and institutional support, the private sector cannot maximize its potential either. Weak and incompetent public administration drains away much-needed finances and gives rise to tensions and instability. In particular, corruption negates fair competition, erodes the values of competence and merit.

84. Regarding budgeting, a human security approach emphasizes that resource allocations should be a consultative process, not only at the ministerial or legislative level, but also at the communal level. Moreover, different regions and communities need to share equitably in the distribution of resources. This helps ensure better protection and empowerment of all segments of the population, not just those already well-represented. Adequate attention must also be given to the difficult choices required in balancing short-term needs and long-term priorities. The African experience with the structural adjustment programmes of the 1980s and 1990s is instructive. Budgetary

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65 ACCORD 2005.
66 UN/OSAA 2004a.
67 UN/OSAA 2004 b.
68 Dress 2005, p.34.
allocations to the education and health sectors in particular suffered from imposition of these programmes, which urged “belt-tightening” so as to emerge from economic crisis. Relevant indicators for education and health thereupon took a strongly negative turn.

85. Control of military and police forces is an immediate and continuing problem for public administration, because of the risks of impunity, instability and insurrection. Effective oversight is needed to ensure respect for authority and discipline, and to prevent these personnel from violating the rights of those they are expected to protect. The share of the budget allocated to military expenses must be kept under control, in recognition of the many factors required for human security and the necessity to budget and administer them all accordingly.

86. Finally, the media has an important role in spreading information, shaping issues and advocating actions. It can uphold accountability, serve as a watchdog of the democratic process, and be a proponent of human rights. Radio broadcasts have the capacity to reach and inform masses of people in both rural and urban areas, and print and television also have a strong influence. The 2001 election results in Ghana, for example, owed a good portion of their transparency and legitimacy to the large number of private radio stations that reported election results. This lent credence to official numbers and made it difficult to rig the elections.\(^\text{69}\)

87. Like all national development actors, the media may work for or against human security. The media played a significant role in fanning the flames of conflict in Rwanda and Burundi, as journalists and politicians propagated messages of hate and fear to influence public sentiment. On the other hand, broadcasts can seek to reduce propensities to violence by focusing on themes of peace, reconciliation and democratization. An example is the Talking Drum Studio in Sierra Leone, which produces popular radio broadcasts aimed at a range of audiences including children, refugees, displaced persons and ex-combatants, together with the general public.\(^\text{70}\)

88. Recommendations:

**Constitution and public sector reform**

- Reform the constitution with the view to eliminating all forms of discrimination.
- Reform the civil service – elements that may be earmarked for reform include a gradual reduction in size, adequate remuneration, and regular performance assessment.

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\(^{69}\) UNDP 2002.

\(^{70}\) Dress 2005, p. 102.
• Explore the possibility of outsourcing needs assessment functions, auditing and procurement services in the civil service to the private sector. Guarantee services by creating a timetable for service delivery after service request.
• Create an ombudsman for redress of grievances.

Civil society and popular participation
• Create governance forums to facilitate dialogue between officials and communities.
• Consult civil society organizations and the larger community during the decision-making and budgeting processes.
• Widen access to information by developing procedural, normative and legal frameworks that permit individuals and groups to access public information – public and privileged information must be clearly defined.
• Establish a media board to deal with questions of journalist ethics and discipline.

Transparency and accountability
• Create a civilian commission to deal with corruption – such a body may comprise clergy, women’s associations, professional societies, academics and students. It may be given powers to recommend the guilty to the judiciary for punishment.
• Create a whistle blower system, and establish a national corruption hotline or other mechanism.

Human rights
• Create an independent national commission to complement civil society efforts at protecting human rights.
• Integrate human rights protection in development programmes. Pay particular attention to the protection of the rights of women, children, the disabled, refugees, the displaced and the poor.
• Reduce military spending and examine the prospect of creating a civilian body to provide police oversight. Identify police personnel with visible nametags.

VII. FOOD SECURITY

The question in addressing issues of food insecurity and its results is not only how to maintain an adequate national supply of food but also how to place an existing adequate supply of food at the disposal of those who need it most.  

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89. Food security is essential for survival. It is a fundamental human rights issue and a fundamental health concern. The prime cause of death worldwide is not disease but hunger. Hunger kills more than AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria combined. Africa bears the brunt of this – one out of three people suffer hunger and malnutrition in Africa compared to one out of eight worldwide. Some 204 million people suffer from malnutrition on the continent, and current food shortages affect 35 million people in 24 sub-Saharan African countries.

90. A combination of natural conditions, natural disasters and man-made, complex emergencies are the main causes of food insufficiency. Conflict has a serious debilitating effect. In Central Africa, for example, between 1995 and 2005 the percentage of malnourished people rose from 53 percent to 70 percent. Hunger may also be used as a weapon against both armed combatants and civilians. High death tolls in Sudan, Somalia, northern Uganda, and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) are partly the result of malnutrition. Nearly 11 million people presently need emergency food assistance in Eritrea, Ethiopia and Somalia.

91. Short-term solutions need to focus on securing food supply routes so as to allow humanitarian aid to reach needy populations. In addition, arrangements that permit supplies to reach both government and rebel groups can be a factor in improving food security; these may avoid informal taxation and raids, and forestall further displacement. Thus humanitarian food assistance can also serve as a conflict resolution mechanism.

92. Food insufficiency, malnutrition and death from hunger do not occur only in conflict-ridden countries. Drought is a major problem, and always a threat in the Sahel. Besides conflict, drought was the key cause of famine in the Horn of Africa in the 1970s, 1980s and 1990s.

93. Food assistance is a necessary component of food security in the short run. According to recent WFP reports, 12 million people in southern Africa – Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe, need urgent food assistance. The G8 debt reduction and cancellation initiative holds some promise of helping improve food availability. However, it must be noted that total volumes of food aid to Africa have significantly declined.

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72 Morris 2005b.
73 Morris 2005a, p.21.
74 UN/DESA 2005.
75 Flores.
76 Morris 2005b.
77 UN/DESA 2005.
78 UN/DESA 2005.
79 UN/DESA 2005.
80 Morris 2005b.
94. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) publication in 1993, “What does AIDS have to with Agriculture?” overturned a misunderstood relationship.\(^{81}\) The impact of the disease on decreased food production, malnutrition and overall development is much more fully appreciated today. For example, food insecurity in southern Africa is attributed to HIV/AIDS as much as any other factor. Close to eight million African farmers have lost their lives to HIV/AIDS. This is a far higher number than the total of active farmers in North America and Europe combined.\(^{82}\)

95. Food security, especially long-term food security, requires addressing many factors, including issues of land ownership and tenancy, water rights, availability of finance and credit, fertilizers, transportation, electricity and other improvements. Food security also requires attention to problems of environmental degradation, insects and infestations, and mismanagement.

96. Africa is currently experiencing high rates of deforestation and consequent loss of bio-diversity, in the search for short-term economic gains. Clearing of natural habitats for agricultural and urban expansion and excessive commercial logging degrade the environment and lead to insecurity. Not only does this affect immediate access to food, especially by the poor, but it also results in longer-term loss of capacity to produce. Varieties of plants that might ward off plant diseases, and natural materials from which medicines could be derived, are lost. For example, Madagascar has lost about 50 percent of its forest in the forty years between 1960 and 2000. It is considered a “megadiversity” country and a hotspot for environmental protection.\(^{83}\)

97. Because most African farmers hold land in small parcels, economies of large-scale production cannot be achieved. Also, farmers may over-cultivate the land and use harmful techniques. The majority of farmers have little or no education -- formal or informal. According to official labour force statistics, 42 per cent of the economically active population involved in agriculture in Africa is female. This is considered a serious undercount, as women are often considered as “housewives” rather than as “farmers” in data-gathering. Experience varies from country to country, but throughout the region it is estimated that women are responsible for 70 to 80 percent of household food production.\(^{84}\)

98. Much needs to be done, and some African countries have taken important steps to reverse food insecurity. Kenya, for example, has doubled the agricultural budget. Also, in the Maputo Declaration, African states committed themselves to increase budget allocations to agriculture by 10 percent.\(^{85}\)

\(^{81}\) Guerny and Hsu 2004, p. 8.
\(^{82}\) Morris 2005b.
\(^{83}\) World Bank 2005b.
\(^{84}\) Brown et al. 1995.
\(^{85}\) UN/DESA 2005.
On the other hand, food subsidies by industrialized countries also have an impact on food insecurity in Africa. The average US farmer receives $16,000 in subsidies yearly. The European Union (EU) spends 40 percent of its budget on agricultural subsidies. These subsidies on food and other agricultural produce distort the world markets in favour of their products. African producers are seldom able to compete, as their produce becomes more expensive. Eventually, African farmers are put out of work, perpetuating the cycle of food insecurity and poverty. A statement by Lyle Vanclief, Canadian Minister of Agriculture, summarizes the problem:

“Consider a farmer in Ghana who used to able to make a living growing rice. Several years ago, Ghana was able to feed its people and export their surplus. Now, it imports rice. From where? Developed countries. Why? Because it’s cheaper. Even if it costs the rice producer in the developed world much more to produce the rice, he doesn’t have to make a profit from his crop. The government pays him to grow it, so he can sell it more cheaply to Ghana than the farmer in Ghana can. And that farmer in Ghana? He can’t feed his family anymore.”

The attention given to quantitative work on MDGs in the area of hunger can be helpful to future analyses on human security in Africa. Millennium goal 1 focuses on reducing by half the proportions of people suffering extreme poverty and hunger. The relevant indicators on hunger are prevalence of underweight children and minimum levels of dietary energy consumption.

Recommendations:

Food production and consumption
- Include farmers, and especially women farmers, in the decision-making process when developing agricultural policies.
- Invest in low-cost irrigation projects to guarantee constant water supply to farmlands.
- Adopt legislation to guarantee land tenure.
- Integrate HIV/AIDS awareness and prevention into policies with agricultural impact.
- Encourage education, distribution and use of labour-saving technologies, to reduce the impact of HIV/AIDS on food production.
- Establish community kitchens to feed vulnerable populations including the disabled, street children and the elderly.

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86 Wikipedia.org – Agricultural policy.
88 Wikipedia.org – Agricultural policy.
Education

- Hire women as extension agents, to reach the preponderance of women who are responsible for household food production.
- Create agricultural technology transfer centres in farming communities, and motivate farmers to learn new food production techniques – link farmer education to incentives like easy access to credit, and high yielding seeds.
- Use such centres to train farmers in basic food storage techniques.
- Encourage those with formal agricultural training to engage in direct food production through easy access to land, credit, and equipment.
- Encourage research into local food staples – develop a system to finance food research and share new findings.
- Promote education in the need for biodiversity, and programs to support sustainable development in richly biodiverse regions.

VIII. HEALTH SECURITY

Good health is both essential and instrumental to achieving human security. It is essential because the very heart of security is protecting human lives. Health security is at the vital core of human security.89

Health and security have long been distinct fields, to the detriment of both. Health has been seen as a “medical problem”, and security, as a matter of military defense.90

102. Good health is both an end in itself and a means to an end – it is an important indicator of development and a necessary predictor of growth. In a sense, it is the embodiment of the whole development undertaking. Good health is not only the absence of disease but it is a positive state of physical, mental and social well-being. Consequently, good health is directly related to human dignity, the ability to exercise choice and lose fear of the future. Poor people are particularly vulnerable to malnutrition, poor reproductive health, immune deficiency and communicable disease. On the other hand, ill health is a sure route to poverty. Families may lose their homes and lifetime savings because of ill health.

103. Although health has generally improved in Africa in the past several decades, poor health remains a major challenge on the continent. Nearly half of all children who die before their fifth birthday worldwide come from sub-Saharan Africa, and pneumonia, diarrhoea, malaria, measles and AIDS account for the deaths of half of them.91 For African children under five, the negative health impacts that arise from diarrhoeal disease linked to inadequate water, sanitation and hygiene are up to 240 times higher than for children in high-income nations.

89 CHS, p. 96.
90 CHS, p. 109.
91 UN 2005, p. 19.
104. In 2000, the countries with the highest maternal mortality ratios (maternal deaths per 100,000 live births) were all in Africa. The top twelve, with rates of 1,300 or more, were, in rank order, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Burundi, Ethiopia, Somalia, Chad, the Sudan, Côte d'Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Burkina Faso, Angola and Kenya. In all, 21 countries in sub-Saharan Africa had rates of 1,000 or more. By contrast, the maternal mortality ratio in industrialized countries was 12 per 100,000 live births.  

105. Several features hinder health security in Africa. In addition to poverty, the root causes include poor levels of nutrition, unavailable or unsafe water, low levels of education, poor housing and violent conflict. In the burgeoning urban areas, limited sanitation, lack of drainage systems, and uncollected garbage are major detriments to public health.

106. Shortage of health personnel and training, and poor distribution of well-trained health care providers throughout the region are also important. The migration of tens of thousands of doctors, nurses and other health care workers to developed countries costs African countries their investments, while it simultaneously deprives people of needed trained staff. Such health care professionals migrate because of inadequate remuneration at home and greater opportunity elsewhere.

107. The majority of people in African countries have little or no access to health insurance, which leaves them very exposed to risk. Moreover, decent medical care is unavailable to most people. The impact of structural adjustment programs of the 1980s and 1990s dealt a severe blow to health care systems. Current steps toward international forgiveness of national debts, and the emphasis on achieving Millennium Development Goals, are steps in a positive direction.

108. Among the causes of health insecurity in Africa, the HIV/AIDS pandemic merits special attention. Sub-Saharan Africa has just over 10 percent of the world’s population, but is home to more than 60 percent of all people living with HIV – some 25.4 million. It is not the principal cause of death overall in most countries, but has taken a significant toll on the economically active population. Among young people aged 15-24 years, an estimated 6.9 percent of women and 2.2 percent of men were living with HIV at the end of 2004. Among pregnant women visiting urban clinics in southern Africa the rates are much higher. The ripple effects of the disease are as disturbing as its death toll. Educational attainment suffers when children lose their teachers to HIV/AIDS. Children drop out of school to assume household responsibilities and care for ailing parents, and because educational costs become unaffordable. If former school girls enter the sex trade to survive, this reinforces the cycle of HIV/AIDS prevalence.

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93 UNAIDS.
94 UN 2005, p. 11.
109. HIV/AIDS reduces the number and capabilities of farm workers. Countries most affected risk losing up to 26 percent of agricultural labour in the next 20 years.\textsuperscript{95} HIV/AIDS-affected families may be forced to sell family possessions, livestock and land to care for infected members. Food availability and nutritional quality show marked decline.\textsuperscript{96}

110. Attention to malaria and TB have been eclipsed by the HIV/AIDS pandemic, but they actually account for larger numbers of deaths in Africa. Also, co-infections of tuberculosis and HIV/AIDS severely impact both the individual and the health care system. In 2001, nearly 70 percent of all tuberculosis patients on the continent were also infected with HIV.\textsuperscript{97} With regard to malaria, it is estimated that this affects 300-500 million people each year; 85 percent of the resulting deaths occur in sub-Saharan Africa.\textsuperscript{98} The impact of malaria on economic growth in sub-Saharan Africa is alarming – it reduces economic development by 1.3 percent each year,\textsuperscript{99} with economic losses estimated at 12 billion dollars.\textsuperscript{100}

The attention given to quantitative work on MDGs in the area of health can be helpful to future analyses on human security in Africa. Millennium goals 4, 5 and 6 focus on reducing child mortality, improving maternal health, and combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases. Several indicators are being tracked for each, both nationally and internationally.

111. Recommendations:

- Give high priority to the establishment and maintenance of community health training centres, and the training of mid-level health care providers.
- Develop policies to modernize health care delivery.
- Give special attention to women’s health, especially reproductive health.
- Improve collaboration between HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria programmes. Integrate HIV, malaria and tuberculosis prevention education into the school curricula.
- In order to retain doctors and nurses, develop strategies to better remunerate and reward health care workers. Create insurance systems to help pay for health care for poor and vulnerable populations.
- Emphasize improvements in water, sanitation and hygiene appropriate to urban and rural areas

\textbf{IX. EDUCATION, SKILLS AND VALUES}

\textsuperscript{95} du Guerny and Hsu 2004, p.9.
\textsuperscript{96} du Guerny and Hsu 2004, p. 9.
\textsuperscript{97} Anderson and Maher 2001.
\textsuperscript{98} USAID 2005.
\textsuperscript{100} USAID 2005.
What are the main leverage points for investments in education to further human security? Supporting basic education, eliminating gender disparity and achieving universal primary education are fundamental. This reach... can be considerably extended if students, once in school, are empowered to promote their own security and taught to appreciate and value human diversity.¹⁰¹

112. As is covered more fully in Chapter 7 of the report of the Commission on Human Security, education is the process of enlarging peoples’ choices to live longer and healthier lives, to have access to knowledge, to have access to income and assets and enjoy a decent standard of living. Basic literacy and numeracy can make a significant difference, as they provide a certain amount of independence from the readings and calculations of others. Education enables people to make informed decisions. Education builds and strengthens democracy – it arouses interest and increases participation through better understanding of issues. Also, people are better able to articulate and protect their rights when they are educated, and knowledge builds confidence to affirm one’s rights. Education enlightens individuals and communities so they can aim to achieve goals, and seek changes when necessary.

113. Education makes it easier to change and adapt to change. It is basic to the entire development process, as its benefits are felt in all sectors. For example, education has been shown to be a key medium for prevention of the spread of HIV/AIDS.¹⁰² Its effect on maternal and child health is particularly rewarding – education is correlated with improved reproductive health, reduced infant mortality and improved child nutrition. Education of mothers has the added benefit of increasing the probability of literacy for their daughters. Education increases creativity, and makes it easier for job-seekers to find gainful employment. Education can be useful in resolving conflicts and building peace. It encourages debate and dissent, and may discourage the resort to violence. However, intolerance and prejudice can also be learned and perpetuated.

114. Literacy rates have generally improved in Africa in recent decades, but they are still not good. In 1990, adult literacy stood at 60 percent for males and 40 percent for females. By 2004 the figures were 70 percent for males and 54 percent for females.¹⁰³ Several factors account for the relatively low educational attainment in Africa.

115. Education has not been given the priority it deserves to produce the expected impact. Education is under-funded – educational infrastructure, equipment and books, not to mention computers, are either limited in supply or simply unavailable. Rural electrification is limited and electrical power is costly throughout the region. Low enrolment and high drop-out rates are serious problems in many localities. Students drop out because of inability to pay school fees, and other mechanisms to fund education are very limited. Gender inequality and cultural practices also cause low

¹⁰¹ CHS, p. 116.
¹⁰² UN 2005, p. 11.
¹⁰³ UNESCO 2005.
educational progress. Girls are less likely to be sent to school than boys, and girls often drop out as they reach puberty. Another obstacle to progress is the lack of transportation – walking long distances to school severely limits hours and energy for educational advancement. Malnutrition is a major constraint. According to the World Food Programme (WFP), feeding programmes can double school attendance in a year and increases academic performance by 40 percent.\footnote{104}

116. Although teachers are central to the educational system, their numbers cannot meet the ever-increasing student population, a situation worsened by the fact that most children live in rural areas where school facilities are limited or non-existent. Sub-Saharan Africa will need an estimated additional four million teachers within ten years if the target of achieving universal primary education by 2015 is to be met.\footnote{105} As noted by the World Bank, distance education provides a means to offer high-quality, cost-effective educational materials by calling upon experts to produce courseware centrally for wide distribution.\footnote{106}

117. Political support is one of the key elements for encouraging high educational attainment, but the political climate in Africa has often stalled educational progress. Interference, instability and conflict have led to reduced hours, strikes and school and university closures, with serious results. Another problem, particularly at the higher levels of education, is the shortage of technical training and the greater relative emphasis on the arts rather than the sciences, despite the nature of demands in the marketplace.

118. As noted above, in the sections on women, food and health the quantitative work on the MDGs can also be helpful also in future analyses on education and human security in Africa. One millennium goal, number 2, specifically addresses the achievement of universal primary education, but many of the targets and indicators either measure or depend upon educational features. For example indicator 17, proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel, is basically a supply indicator.

119. The subject of education in relation to human security is complex. Issues include access, attendance, teaching, and educational content. Education has direct and indirect benefits, but it is also true that young minds can be taught to hate. The report of the Commission on Human Security cuts through the complexity to identify and emphasize four broad priorities for action: (a) Promoting a global commitment to basic education; (b) Protecting students’ human security at and through school; (c) Equipping people for action and democratic engagement; and (d) Teaching mutual respect.\footnote{107}

120. Recommendations:

\footnote{104 CHS, p. 119.}
\footnote{105 Matsura 2005.}
\footnote{106 Kinyanjui 2005.}
\footnote{107 CHS, p. 116.}
**Funding**
- Strengthen community input to schools, especially at the primary level.
- Ensure equitable distribution of financial resources for education, by region, rural/urban, ethnicity, gender, and educational level.
- Develop distance education materials that can be widely used, especially at higher education levels.

**Teachers**
- Find ways to increase teacher remuneration, incentives and teacher esteem.
- Adopt teacher certification strategies and in-service training to stimulate and reward good performance.
- Adopt strategies to increase private investment in schools in both lower and higher education.

**Special concerns**
- Establish school feeding programs, including those supported by WFP.
- Encourage school access to computers and related information technology. Explore all possibilities to achieve this, including the new, inexpensive hand-cranked computers and solar-powered computers.
- Adopt policies for consultation with NGOs and the larger community on educational policies and school management.
- Introduce conflict resolution into the curricula, starting from primary schools. Emphasize respect for women and girls.
- Promote integration among groups and provinces, including through boarding schools (as has been done in Ghana).
- Use the media and the school curricula to overcome cultural practices that hinder the education of girls.

**X. CONCLUSIONS**

121. Many subjects and recommendations are needed in order to be successful in the endeavour to come to grips with the meaning of human security in Africa. The subjects range from conflict itself to political and social exclusion, involuntary and voluntary movement of people, protection and empowerment of women, recovery and the role of reconciliation, governance and participation, food security, health security, and education, skills and values. The recommendations are myriad, and often-times seem to be no more than good commonsense. All these points have a common reference however – the need to focus on protection and empowerment, at the individual and community levels. What advances any of these, can be argued to advance human security. What ignores or counteracts these, can be argued to diminish human security. Thus for example a fish-farming project, supported by FAO and listed under the efforts funded by the United Nations Trust Fund for Human Security, can be seen as extremely relevant. It aims to improve nutrition at local levels, with community participation in
ensuring a fast-growing supply of protein, in an area that has suffered the devastations of conflict – southern Sudan.

122. Concepts that are at the heart of current UN reform debate, “in larger freedom,” “the responsibility to protect,” “freedom from want” and “freedom from fear” are expressions of the concept of human security.

123. A valuable contribution to understanding in this area is the inaugural edition of the Human Security Report, prepared at the University of British Columbia (Canada), and including armed conflict data provided by Uppsala University (Sweden). As Archbishop Desmond Tutu affirms, in the Foreword to that report, “Human security privileges people over states, reconciliation over revenge, diplomacy over deterrence, and multilateral engagement over coercive unilateralism.”\(^\text{108}\) But in addition to these words of principle, it is possible to declare, as do the report’s authors, that a new approach to the concept of security is needed. A key argument given in the report is that the analytic frameworks that have traditionally explained wars between states are largely irrelevant to violent conflicts within states, and such conflicts now make up more than 95 percent of armed conflicts.\(^\text{109}\)

124. Moreover, a growing consensus is emerging which recognizes and urges that in all cases security encompasses a broad range of elements. These may include military measures and traditional diplomacy, but also conflict prevention and peacebuilding, and addressing the economic, social, political and institutional root causes of conflict, which ultimately reside in security at the level of communities and individuals. This is actually not a new idea, although perhaps dormant for a time. As noted at the outset of the report of the Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Threats, Challenges and Change, the preoccupation of the UN’s founders was with State security, but they also understood well, long before the idea of human security gained currency, the indivisibility of security, economic development and human freedom.\(^\text{110}\)

125. At the commemoration of the 10\(^{th}\) anniversary of the signing of the General Peace Agreement for Mozambique, held at the UN Economic and Social Council in October 2002, the Minister for Foreign Affairs and Cooperation of the Republic of Mozambique delineated a catalogue of the achievements and lessons to be drawn from the experience of his country. These comprised actions at the higher political level and the grassroots level to create and strengthen dialogue and consultations; to show patience, perseverance and tolerance; to be willing to compromise; to rehabilitate former rebels; to collect and dispose of weapons; to reconstruct and rebuild infrastructure. Although Mozambique still remains an impoverished country, he declared that Mozambique’s citizens have shown they can live together, in a true spirit

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\(^{108}\) University of British Columbia, Foreword, p. iii.

\(^{109}\) University of British Columbia, p. viii.

\(^{110}\) UN 2004.
of reconciliation and harmony, in a thriving democracy, and with positive socioeconomic growth and development.\textsuperscript{111}

126. The inaugural edition of the UNDP Human Development Report in 1994 set out a framework for security beyond narrowly defined military concerns. The report argued that human security has two aspects: safety from chronic threats, like hunger, disease and repression, and protection from sudden disruptions in the patterns of daily life. It emphasized that violent conflict undermines human security in both dimensions. The succeeding annual editions of this report have sought to address and quantify human development in broader terms than previously. The 2005 edition of the report covers a number of points and offers key proposals to deal more effectively with prevention of armed conflict and the chief needs in peacebuilding.

127. The Millennium Development Goals targets and indicators have focused attention on certain crucial variables and the Human Security Report now focuses specifically on better quantification of human security in relation to war and peace. Further work is needed, in many more aspects than were able to be covered here, and further quantification is needed, so as to target better the actions appropriate to maximize results. These are all steps in the attempt to help policymakers to understand and grapple with key policy issues and choices. The present paper, which is based on the perspectives given in the report of the Commission on Human Security, aims to contribute to that enterprise, especially as concerns Africa.

ANNEX  Millennium Development Goals, Targets and Indicators

(Source: United Nations Statistics Division, \url{http://millenniumindicators.un.org/unsd/mi/mi_goals.asp})

A framework of 8 goals, 18 targets and 48 indicators to measure progress towards the Millennium Development Goals was adopted by a consensus of experts from the United Nations Secretariat and IMF, OECD and the World Bank. Road. Each indicator below is linked to millennium data series as well as to background series related to the target in question. For a description of the monitoring process, see \textit{About the Millennium Development Goals}.

\textsuperscript{111} Simao 2002.
**Goal 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger**

Target 1. Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day.
Indicators
1. Proportion of population below $1 (1993 PPP) per day (World Bank)
2. Poverty gap ratio [incidence x depth of poverty] (World Bank)
3. Share of poorest quintile in national consumption (World Bank)

Target 2. Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger
Indicators
4. Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age (UNICEF-WHO)
5. Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption (FAO)

**Goal 2. Achieve universal primary education**

Target 3. Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling
Indicators
6. Net enrolment ratio in primary education (UNESCO)
7. Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5 (UNESCO)
8. Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds (UNESCO)

**Goal 3. Promote gender equality and empower women**

Target 4. Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015
Indicators
9. Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education (UNESCO)
10. Ratio of literate women to men, 15-24 years old (UNESCO)
11. Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (ILO)
12. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament (IPU)

**Goal 4. Reduce child mortality**

Target 5. Reduce by two thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate
Indicators
13. Under-five mortality rate (UNICEF-WHO)
15. Proportion of 1 year-old children immunized against measles (UNICEF-WHO)

**Goal 5. Improve maternal health**

Target 6. Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio
Indicators
17. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel (UNICEF-WHO)

**Goal 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases**

Target 7. Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS
Indicators
18. HIV prevalence among pregnant women aged 15-24 years (UNAIDS-WHO-UNICEF)
19. **Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate (UN Population Division)**

19a. **Condom use at last high-risk sex (UNICEF-WHO)**

19b. **Percentage of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS (UNICEF-WHO)**

19c. **Contraceptive prevalence rate (UN Population Division)**

20. **Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10-14 years (UNICEF-UNAIDS-WHO)**

Target 8. Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases

**Indicators**

21. **Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria (WHO)**

22. **Proportion of population in malaria-risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures (UNICEF-WHO)**

23. **Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis (WHO)**

24. **Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under DOTS (internationally recommended TB control strategy) (WHO)**

**Goal 7. Ensure environmental sustainability**

Target 9. Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources

**Indicators**

25. **Proportion of land area covered by forest (FAO)**

26. **Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area (UNEP-WCMC)**

27. **Energy use (kg oil equivalent) per $1,000 GDP (PPP) (IEA, World Bank)**

28. **Carbon dioxide emissions per capita (UNFCCC, UNSD) and consumption of ozone-depleting CFCs (ODP tons) (UNEP-Ozone Secretariat)**

29. **Proportion of population using solid fuels (WHO)**

Target 10. Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation

**Indicators**

30. **Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural (UNICEF-WHO)**

31. **Proportion of population with access to improved sanitation, urban and rural (UNICEF-WHO)**

Target 11. By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers

**Indicators**

32. **Proportion of households with access to secure tenure (UN-HABITAT)**

**Goal 8. Develop a global partnership for development**

Indicators for targets 12-15 are given below in a combined list.

Targets 12. Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system. Includes a commitment to good governance, development and poverty reduction - both nationally and internationally

Target 13. Address the special needs of the least developed countries. Includes: tariff and quota-free access for least developed countries’ exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for heavily indebted poor countries (HIPC) and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction

Target 14. Address the special needs of landlocked developing countries and Small Island developing States (through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the twenty-second special session of the General Assembly)
Target 15. Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term. Some of the indicators listed below are monitored separately for the least developed countries (LDCs), Africa, landlocked developing countries (LLDCs) and small island developing States (SIDS).

Indicators

Official development assistance (ODA)

33. Net ODA, total and to LDCs, as percentage of OECD/Development Assistance Committee (DAC) donors’ gross national income (GNI) (OECD)
34. Proportion of total bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation) (OECD)
35. Proportion of bilateral ODA of OECD/DAC donors that is untied (OECD)
36. ODA received in landlocked developing countries as a proportion of their GNIs (OECD)
37. ODA received in small island developing States as proportion of their GNIs (OECD)

Market access

38. Proportion of total developed country imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and from LDCs, admitted free of duty (UNCTAD, WTO, WB)
39. Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries (UNCTAD, WTO, WB)
40. Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as percentage of their GDP (OECD)

Debt sustainability

41. Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity (OECD, WTO)
42. Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative) (IMF/WB)
43. Debt relief committed under HIPC initiative (IMF-World Bank)
44. Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services (IMF-World Bank)

Target 16. In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth.

Indicators

45. Unemployment rate of young people aged 15-24 years, each sex and total (ILO)

Target 17. In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries.

Indicators

46. Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis (WHO)

Target 18. In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications

Indicators

47. Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population (ITU)
48. Personal computers in use per 100 population and Internet users per 100 population (ITU)

Footnotes:

\[a\] For monitoring country poverty trends, indicators based on national poverty lines should be used, where available.
\[b\] An alternative indicator under development is “primary completion rate”.
\[c\] Among contraceptive methods, only condoms are effective in preventing HIV transmission. Since the condom use rate is only measured amongst women in union, it is supplemented by an indicator on condom use in high-risk situations (indicator 19a) and an indicator on HIV/AIDS knowledge (indicator 19b). Indicator 19c (contraceptive prevalence rate) is also useful in tracking progress in other health, gender and poverty goals.
\[d\] This indicator is defined as the percentage of population aged 15-24 who correctly identify the two major ways of preventing the sexual transmission of HIV (using condoms and limiting sex to one faithful, uninfected partner), who reject the two most common local misconceptions about HIV transmission, and who know that a healthy-looking person can transmit HIV. However, since there are currently not a sufficient number of surveys to be able to calculate the indicator as defined above, UNICEF, in collaboration with UNAIDS and WHO, produced two proxy indicators that represent two components of the actual indicator. They are the following: (a) percentage of women and men 15-24 who know that a person can protect herself from HIV infection by “consistent use of condom”; (b) percentage of women and men 15-24 who know a healthy-looking person can transmit HIV.
Prevention to be measured by the percentage of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bednets; treatment to be measured by percentage of children under 5 who are appropriately treated.

An improved measure of the target for future years is under development by the International Labour Organization (ILO).

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