Southern Regional Model United Nations, Atlanta 2012
From Crisis to Opportunity: Chartering a Path Forward for Global Self-Sustainability
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Email: eca_atlanta@srmun.org

Greetings Delegates -

Welcome to the Southern Regional Model United Nations Conference (SRMUN) XXIII and the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA). We are excited to welcome you to the committee and conference this year. I will be your Director for this challenging, exciting, and rewarding committee. This is in my fourth year participating with the conference and second year on staff. In the past I have served as the Chair for the SRMUN General Assembly Plenary committee, an Assistant Director for one year, and this is my first year as Director. I am a graduate of Kennesaw State University with a Master of Business Administration in Management and Marketing. Serving, as my Assistant Director for this committee is Ms. Victoria Jowers. Victoria graduated from Mississippi State University with Bachelors in Political Science and is starting her first year in Law school at Louisiana State University this fall. Last year, Victoria was elected to be the Chair of the SRMUN General Assembly Plenary committee.

The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) of the United Nations (UN) established the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) in 1958 as one of the UN's five regional commissions. ECA's mandate is to promote the economic and social development of its member States, foster intra-regional integration, and promote international cooperation for Africa's development. Keeping in mind the mandate of ECA and the conference theme, we have chosen the following topics to discuss at this year's conference:

I. Examining the Role of State Governments in Encouraging and Managing Economic Development;
II. Addressing the Exploitation and Mismanagement of Natural Resources at State and Regional Levels; and
III. Accelerating Progress towards Meeting MDG #1: The Eradication of Extreme Poverty.

This background guide will serve as a strong foundation for your research, yet it should not be utilized as a complete means for these selected topics. A strong preparation is given to each topic to ensure that the delegates have a resource to guide them in their initial research. It is also expected that delegates do go beyond the guide when researching the topics in preparation for their position paper and to ensure that you are prepared for discussion at the conference in November.

Each delegation is required to submit a position paper for consideration. It should be no longer than two pages in length (single spaced) and demonstrate your country's position, policies and recommendations on each of the three topics. For more information regarding the position papers please visit the SRMUN website at http://www.srmun.org. **Position papers MUST be submitted by October 26, 2012 at 11:59pm EST via the on-line submission system at http://www.srmun.org.**

Victoria and I send you the best regards as you prepare for the 2012 SRMUN Conference.

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History of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa

The history of the United Nations (UN) Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) can be traced back to shortly after the UN Charter went into effect in 1945. Member States held a desire to develop regional commissions to promote greater economic coordination throughout the international community. Following this goal, the Economic Commission for Europe, the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, and the Economic Commission for Latin America were established under the auspices of the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) between 1947 and 1948. However, ECOSOC was slow in establishing a regional commission for Africa, as there were only four independent African states upon the founding of the UN in 1945.[1] A large portion of the African continent remained under the influences of colonial rule at this time, but the spread of Pan-African ideology throughout the continent lead to the establishment of six additional independent African states over the following thirteen years.[2] The establishment of a regional commission for Africa was brought up in the ECOSOC 1950, 1951, and 1956, although the colonial perspectives of many UN Member States hindered the efforts of the Pan-African movement for the creation of an integrated regional body. It wasn't until the 12th session of the General Assembly (GA) in November 1957 that the General Assembly passed Resolution 1155(XII), recommending the establishment of the Economic Commission for Africa to ECOSOC.[3] Following this recommendation, ECOSOC passed Resolution 671A (XXV) in April 1958, establishing the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa whose function would be to promote the economic and social development of its Member States.[4] The ECA is headquartered in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, where the 1st session was held from 29 December 1958 to 6 January 1959.[5]

The ECA's initial meetings "were dominated by political battles against colonialism, racism, and apartheid and preoccupied with the development problems of collective self-reliance, endogenous development, and regional economic integration."[6] The concept of regional economic integration quickly became one of the driving purposes of the ECA's research and policy-making efforts; so important was this concept that during the ECA's inaugural meeting, the second Secretary General of the United Nations, Dag Hammarskjold, insisted "that economic integration be one of the major objectives of the commission."[7] During the 1960s, the ECA also began addressing gender needs in relation to the development process, directing research and enhancing dialogue on the topic. It was during this transformational time that the ECA also began expanding its institutional structure to facilitate the needs of Member States in implementing its economic and social policies. The statute for the African Institute for Economic Development and Planning (IDEP) was established by ECA Resolution 93 (VI) in February 1964 in order to address Africa's "urgent need to build-up domestic human capital as a necessity for sustaining independence and promoting socio-economic development."[8] A year after IDEP was established, the African Development Bank (ADB) was founded to assist the continent's development.[9]

By 1983, the ECA had developed approximately 40 distinct institutions, "covering finance and banking services, industrial development, social and economic development planning and management, trade and transport, and five sub-regional planning and operational centers."[10] These institutions worked to enhance regional economic integration efforts as enshrined within the Lagos Plan of Action for the Economic Development of Africa 1980-2000. The Lagos Plan of Action, forged during a meeting of the Ministers in 1980, outlined the ECA's long-term approach towards economic integration, emphasizing the importance of intra- and inter-sectoral planning at regional

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[1] Adebayo Adedeji. "The ECA: Forging a Future for Africa." *Unity and Diversity in Development Ideas.* Ed. Yves Berthelot. Bloomington: Indiana University Press. 2004, pp. 233-306

[2] "Towards a United Africa." Economic Commission for Africa. http://www.uneca.org/adfiii/riefforts/hist.htm

[3] 1115/XII. *Proposed Economic Commission for Africa.* United Nations General Assembly. November 26, 1957. http://www.undemocracy.com/A-RES-1155(XII)/page_1

[4] 671A/XXV. *Establishment of an Economic Commission for Africa*. Economic and Social Council. April 29, 1958. http://www.uneca.org/publications/ESPD/old/Resolutions_ECOSOC_1958.htm

[5] Ibid.

[6] Adebayo Adedeji. "The ECA: Forging a Future for Africa." *Unity and Diversity in Development Ideas.* Ed. Yves Berthelot. Bloomington: Indiana University Press. 2004, pp. 233-306

[7] Ibid.

[8] "About IDEP." African Institute for Economic Development and Planning. http://www.unidep.org/about_idep1.htm

[9] "History-African Development Bank." African Development Bank. 2012. http://www.afdb.org/en/about-us/history/

[10] Richard Jolly. *The Economic Commission for Africa: Fighting to be Heard.* United Nations Intellectual History Project. 2009. http://www.unhistory.org/briefing/21ECA.pdf

and sub-regional levels.[11] Under the central themes of establishing African self-reliance and self-sustainment, the Lagos Plan expressed the desire for the establishment of an African Common Market.[12] The authors of the Lagos Plan envisioned that the creation of a common market would culminate in the establishment of an African Economic Community.[13] However, the ECA's Plan of Action was derailed by the implementation of an export-driven growth pattern developed by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund.[14]

It would take another decade from the creation of the Lagos Plan of Action before the ECA was able to realize the economic integration-related goals enshrined within the plan. In June 1991, the Abuja Treaty was adopted and ratified by Member States, establishing the long-desired African Economic Community (AEC).[15] Following this achievement, the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa was established in November 1993, replacing the Preferential Trade Area that had been in place since 1981; however, a single common market uniting the entire continent has yet to be established.[16] The ECA was also focused on developing mechanisms for dialogue and consultation on development during this time. Throughout the 1990s, the African Development Forum, the "Big Table" of Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development-African countries, and the forum on post-conflict reconstruction and development were all established by the ECA.[17]

The present-day work program adopted by the ECA has two central foci: "*Promoting Regional Integration in support of the African Union vision and priorities*" and "*Meeting Africa's special needs and emerging global challenges.*"[18] Under these two pillars are a number of essential thematic areas for ECA policy; these include:

- Regional Integration, Trade and Infrastructure;
- Meeting the MDGs with a special emphasis on Poverty Reduction and Growth, Sustainable Development and Gender;
- Promoting Good Governance and Popular Participation;
- Science and Technology for Development;
- Statistics and Statistical Development.[19]

The ECA is also responsible for the annual publication of the Economic Report on Africa, which analyzes the performance and sustainability of African economies as the ECA's extensive program is implemented.[20] The Report works to analyze the strengths and weakness of the ECA's program, as well as identifying economic trends that affect Member States.[21] To further facilitate its program, ECA maintains cooperative working relationships with the AEC and the Organization for African Unity's successor, the African Union.[22]

From its inception, membership within the ECA has constantly been evolving as additional African states gained independence and established themselves at both the regional and international level. By the end of the 1960s, 32 African states achieved independence, augmenting ECA's membership beyond the initial ten Member States.[23] The present composition of the ECA was culminated in 1994 with the readmission of South Africa, the 53rd Member State of the Commission.[24]

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[11] Ibid.
[12] Ibid.
[13] Ibid.
[14] Ibid.
[15] "Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community. " Organization for African Unity. June 3, 1991. http://www.africa-union.org/root/au/Documents/Treaties/Text/AEC_Treaty_1991.pdf
[16] "Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa." AcTRAV Turin Labour Education Program. http://www.actrav.itcilo.org/actrav-english/telearn/global/ilo/blokit/comesa.htm
[17] Ibid.
[18] "Overview of the ECA." Economic Commission for Africa. 2000. http://www.uneca.org/login/index.htm
[19] Ibid.
[20] Ibid.
[21] Ibid.
[22] Ibid.
[23] Adebayo Adedeji. "The ECA: Forging a Future for Africa." *Unity and Diversity in Development Ideas.* Ed. Yves Berthelot. Bloomington: Indiana University Press. 2004, pp. 233-306
[24] Ibid.

The current members of the Economic Commission for Africa include:

ALGERIA, ANGOLA, BENIN, BOTSWANA, BURKINA FASO, BURUNDI, CAMEROON, CAPE VERDE, CHAD, COMOROS, REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO, DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO, COTE D'IVOIRE, DJIBOUTI, EGYPT, ERITREA, ETHIOPIA, GABON, GAMBIA, GHANA, GUINEA, GUINEA-BISSAU, EQUATORIAL GUINEA, KENYA, LESOTHO, LIBERIA, LIBYA, MADAGASCAR, MALAWI, MALI, MAURITANIA, MAURITIUS, MOROCCO, MOZAMBIQUE, NAMIBIA, NIGER, NIGERIA, CENTRAL AFRICAN REPUBLIC, RWANDA, SAO TOME AND PRINCIPE, SENEGAL, SEYCHELLES, SIERRA LEONE, SOMALIA, SOUTH AFRICA, SUDAN, SWAZILAND, TANZANIA, TUNISIA, TOGO, UGANDA, ZAMBIA, ZIMBABWE.

I. Examining the Role of State Governments in Encouraging and Managing Economic Development

"We now have a situation in which the same sources that depicted Africa as a hopeless case tem years ago are now acknowledging that it can be next global growth place."
-United Nations Under Secretary General,
Abdoulie Janneh[25]

Introduction

At the beginning of the 21st century the task of re-examining the role of the state in economic development is becoming increasingly important for African policymakers because most Member States have undergone some form of either externally imposed or self- imposed structural adjustment.[26] The Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) have had various outcomes in the different countries, yet none have succeeded in alleviating poverty and stimulating sustained development.[27] However, SAPs have discouraged the state from playing a developmental role, because of a "misconception that government should not have any role in the economy other than the regulation of economic activities and the enforcement of law and order."[28] In light of the widespread poverty; high levels of unemployment; and income inequality in most African countries in general, and in Southern Africa in particular, it is clear that the state must have a substantial role in economic development.[29]

In the 1960s most of the newly independent African states, diverse as they are, adopted a planning approach to effect deep-seated changes in their economies and societies.[30] This was not surprising given the major theoretical and policy propositions of the pioneers of developmental economics.[31] Developmental economics formulated grand and visionary models of development strategy that aimed at effecting structural transformation with the central role of planning and programming development assigned to the government.[32] These models would help avoid failure and allow appropriate allocation of government resources. Furthermore, the economics also provided rationale for government to correct market failure.[33] Additionally, to avoid market failures the role of the government was justified in the belief that the supply of entrepreneurs was limited in these Member States and that major structural changes, rather than marginal adjustments, were needed to effect development.[34] Thus, the "government of a developmental state was to promote capital accumulation, utilize reserves of surplus labor, undertake policies of

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[25] Busayo Sotunde. "10 quotes on Africa as the year comes to a close." CP-Africa. http://www.cp-africa.com/2011/12/31/10-quotes-on-africa-as-the-year-comes-to-an-end/
[26] Punndy Pillay. "The Role of State in Economic Development in South Africa." March 2002. http://library.fes.de/pdf-files/iez/global/02055.pdf
[27] Ibid.
[28] Ibid.
[29] Ibid.
[30] "Development planning in Africa: Key Issues, Challenges, and Prospect." United Nations Economic and Social Council Economic Commission for Africa. March 24-27, 2011. http://www.uneca.org/cfm/2011/documents/English/DevelopmentPlanning-inAfricaKeyIssuesChallengesandProspects.pdf
[31] Ibid.
[32] Ibid.
[33] Ibid.
[34] Ibid.

deliberate industrialization, relax the foreign exchange constraint through import substitution, and coordinate the allocation of resources through programming and planning"[35]

During the 1990s there was a widespread expectation in both industrialized and developing Member States that the adoption of laissez- faire capitalism, characterized by the liberalization of economic activity together with the globalization of production systems and of finance, would stimulate economic growth; reduce poverty; and promote diminishing income disparities within and between Member States within the global economy.[36] For many developing Member States in sub-Saharan Africa and elsewhere, the prospect that the removal of legal and political obstacles to trade and capital movements would lead to accelerated growth and income convergence.[37] Therefore, during the early 1990s and since then, there has been an accelerating process of economic liberalization in many developing Member States.[38] However, overall progress in increasing real incomes, reducing poverty and income inequality, and moving towards various international targets for human and social development has been disappointingly slow outside of a few structural adjustment cases.[39]

It was evident that, during much of the 1990s, governments in the southern African region adopted a minimalist role for the state in an environment increasingly dominated by the post-cold-war market-economics triumphalism.[40] A dominant theme during this period had been the misplaced notion that an efficient economy requires a minimalist state.[41] The policies have undoubtedly had an impact on the human development indicators because such economic policies resulted in huge costs particularly with respect to the provision of economic and social infrastructure, the provision of social services and the availability of employment.[42] However, the debate is not about a 'free market' economy or a 'state-controlled' economy but rather about how the state might play a more constructive role in market economies.[43]

Background

In the period from 1960s to 1980s, several intergovernmental economic cooperation organizations were established to promote technical and economic cooperation. These regional agreements in Africa generally sought to:

(a) expand the growth of intraregional trade by removing tariffs and tariffs barriers;
(b) strengthen regional development, through the promotion of economic sectors, regional infrastructures and the establishment of large scale manufacturing projects;
(c) remove barriers to the free movement of production factors; and
(d) promote monetary cooperation.[44]

During this period, many African Member States implemented highly interventionist and protectionist trade regimes, motivated by several concerns, among which were fiscal concern and the protection of domestic industry, in the context of import-substitution industrialization strategy.[45] The Lagos Plan of Action (LPA), adopted in April 1980 in response to the deteriorating economic situation in Africa, proposed a strategy for shifting Africa to a sustainable development path which calls for an inversion of the experience since the 1960s.[46] The LPA encourages the pursuit of three goals: (a) high and sustained economic growth; (b) transformation of the economic and social structures;

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[35] The pioneers of development economics of the 1940s and 1950s, and their followers up to the early 1970s are dubbed by Meier (2001) the first generation of development economists in contrast to a second generation that emerged in the 1970's.
[36] Pundy Pillay. " The Role of State in Economic Development in South Africa." March 2002. http://www.sarpn.org/RegionalPovertyPapers/may2002/pillay/may_02.pdf
[37] Ibid.
[38] Ibid.
[39] Ibid.
[40] Ibid.
[41] Ibid.
[42] Ibid.
[43] Ibid.
[44] "Economic Development in Africa: Strengthening Regional Integration for Africa's development." United Nations Conference on Trade and Development. 2009. http://unctad.org/en/Docs/aldcafrica2009_en.pdf
[45] Ibid.
[46] Ibid.

and (c) maintenance of a sustainable resource base.[47]

Heavy focus on regional and sub-regional integration has allowed the African continent as a whole to be more coherent and develop strong economic regional and sub-regional entities. Collectively, African Member States have embarked on an inward-looking regional strategy, which implies an inward-oriented import-substitution industrialization strategy based on protected regional markets.[48] Throughout the mid-1980s, African Member States at the individual country level started rationalizing and liberalizing their trade regime in the framework of the structural adjustment programmes of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, the outward-oriented focus of which implied the closer integration of Africa into the world economy.[49] During this period, the attention of African policymakers shifted from regional integration to the implementation of structural adjustment and economic liberalization programs.[50] Thus, this period stalled the effective working of many regional groupings in Africa. However, African Member States continued to consider the regional approach as the best tool for their development. On June 3, 1991 in Abuja, Nigeria, the treaty of African Economic Community (AEC) was drafted. With the intention of further progressing regional integration, the treaty calls for the establishment of the AEC by 2027. The AEC calls for a common currency, full mobility of the factors of production, and free movement of goods and services among African States.[51] The year 2001 saw an acceleration of policy discussions on regional integration with the establishment of the African Union (AU) and the launch of the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD).[52] NEPAD focuses on the provision of essential regional public goods (such as transport, energy, water, information and communication technology, disease eradication, environmental preservation and provision of regional research capacity), as well as the promotion of intra-African trade and investments.[53] The focus is on rationalizing the institutional framework for economic integration, by identifying common projects compatible with integrated country and regional development programmes, and on the harmonization of economic and investment policies and practices.[54]

Globalization and liberalization have integrated markets to a different place. The movement of such practices has made production of goods easier which has had a profound economic, political and social implication on the African continent and its citizens.[55] Recognizing the challenges of globalization, African leaders have consistently expressed their desire to deepen regional integration, including the creation of a common market for goods, services, capital/labor, and the harmonization of rules.[56]

Current Status

The World Bank, International Monetary Fund and Africa Development Bank estimate that Africa's economy will grow at the rate of between 5.5 and 6 percent in 2012, outpacing projected anemic growth rates in Europe and North America.[57] Africa's middle class now accounts for 34% of the continent's population, the highest recorded rate in the last 50 years. Despite the projected positive growth, Africa will continue to face significant development challenges in 2012.[58] The Economic Commission for Africa, in a paper published with the African Union Commission, has reported that Africa appears to have weathered the recent global economic crisis and sustained and strengthened its economic recovery in 2010 by achieving an average GDP growth rate of 4.7%, which compared to a 2.3% increase in 2009.[59] For the continent as a whole, real GDP per capita increased by 2.4% in 2010; while the ECA noted the general uptick in economic activity in 2010, notice should be taken of variations in the rate of

[47] Ibid.
[48] Ibid.
[49] "Economic Development in Africa: Fostering Economic Development in New Global Environment." United Nations Industrial Development Organization. 2011. http://unctad.org/en/docs/aldcafrica2011_en.pdf
[50] Ibid.
[51] Ibid.
[52] Ibid.
[53] Ibid.
[54] Ibid.
[55] Ibid.
[56] Ibid.
[57] Chinua Akukwe. "Development Challeges for African in 2012." 2012. http://worldpress.org/Africa/3865.cfm
[58] Ibid
[59] Alan S. Gutterman. "Current Economic and Social Development Situation in Africa." http://alangutterman.typepad.com/files/mdc---economic-social-development-situation-in-africa.pdf

recovery across countries and sub-regions, a subject covered in more detail below.[60] For example, as has been the case for the last decade, oil-exporting countries experienced stronger growth than oil-importing countries (5.4% to 3.9%); however, the ECA pointed out that one significant development was the apparent growth of the non-oil sector in the oil-exporting countries, presumably an attempt by those countries to diversify their economies.[61] The ECA suggested that if this trend were to continue, and those countries were indeed able to achieve success in their non-oil and non-mineral sectors, Africa might be able to realize its potential for becoming the fastest-growing continent in the world from 2050 to the end of the current century.[62] For the near-term, expectations are that African growth will have continue in 2011 at an average rate of around 5%.[63]

The ECA highlighted several positive factors that have provided the foundation for the economic recovery in Africa, including "the rebound of export demand and commodity prices; increased inflows of foreign direct investment especially in extractive industries and aid; return of tourism; investment in infrastructure associated with countercyclical policies adopted by many African Member States; increased activities in the service sector, particularly in telecommunications; higher consumer demand; and good harvests in some countries."[64] As noted above, progress varied across sub-regions and countries throughout Africa, confirming that it is impossible and unwise to generalize when discussing economic conditions and performance in Africa given that different factors are in play based on local conditions.[65] The ECA reported that the best performing regions in 2010 were East Africa (6.8%) and West Africa (6%), followed by the main oil-producer North Africa (4.7%), Central Africa (4.3%) and Southern Africa (3.3%).[66]

Inflation rates generally declined in Africa during 2010, dropping from 8.3% in 2009 to 7.2% in 2010.[67] The ECA noted that this trend, which was expected to continue in 2011, could be attributed to increased supply of agricultural products in some countries, aided by good climatic conditions that contributed to large harvests, increased food supply and a corresponding decline in consumer prices in many countries; the strength and stability of some currencies; excess capacities; and competitive pressures across the continent.[68] The drop in inflation allowed most African countries to adopt monetary policies that were accommodative or neutral.[69] Increases in budget deficits were observed due to implementation of expansionary fiscal policies to support recovery efforts and this eventually led some countries to tighten their fiscal policies and consolidate their budgets.[70] There was a moderate widening of current account deficits across Africa in 2010 due to a variety of factors including robust import growth fuelled by large amounts of public investment, rising private demand and increasing food and energy prices.[71]
Furthermore, established under the provisions of Articles 5 and 22 of the African Union's Constitutive Act, The Economic, Social, and Cultural Council of the African Union (ECOSOCC) is the vehicle for building a strong partnership between governments and all segments of African civil society.[72] The Statute of ECOSOCC, adopted by the Heads of State and Government at the Third Ordinary Session of the Assembly in July 2004 defines it as an advisory organ of the African Union composed of different social and professional groups of the Member States of the African Union.[73] The assembly charged the council to:

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[60] Ibid.
[61] Ibid.
[62] Ibid.
[63] Ibid.
[64] Lolette Kritzinger-van Niekerk and Emmanuel Pinto Moreira. "Regional Integration in South Africa." December 2002. http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2005/07/26/000160016_20050726093334/Rendered/PDF/331070PAPER0AFR0Regional1Integration.pdf
[65] Ibid.
[66] Ibid.
[67] Alan S. Gutterman. "Current Economic and Social Development Situation in Africa." http://alangutterman.typepad.com/files/mdc---economic-social-development-situation-in-africa.pdf
[68] Ibid.
[69] Ibid.
[70] Ibid.
[71] Ibid.
[72] Assembly/AU/Dec.48(III). *Decision on the Economic, Social and Cultural Council (ECOSOCC).*" African Union. July 6-8, 2004. http://www.africa-union.org/ecosoc/STATUTES-En.pdf
[73] Ibid.

- Promote dialogue between all segments of African people on issues concerning the Continent and its future;
- Forge strong partnerships between governments and all segments of civil society, in particular, women, the youth, children the diaspora, organized labor, the private sector, and professional groups;
- Promote the participation of African Civil Society in the implementation of the policies and programmes of the Union;
- Support policies and programmes that promote peace, security and stability and foster Continental development and integration;
- Promote and defend a culture of good governance, democratic principles and institutions, popular participation, human rights and social justice;
- Promote, advocate and defend gender equality; and
- Promote and strengthen the institutional, human and operational capacities of the African civil society.[74]

Case Study South Africa

As the economic powerhouse of the African continent, South Africa is leading the continent in industrial output and mineral production as well as generating a large proportion of Africa's electricity.[75] The country has abundant natural resources, well-developed financial, legal, communications, energy and transport sectors, a stock exchange ranked among the top 20 in the world, and a modern infrastructure supporting efficient distribution of goods throughout the southern African region.[76] Legislation governing commerce, labor and maritime issues is particularly well developed, and laws on competition policy, copyright, patents, trademarks and disputes conform to international norms and conventions.[77] The country's financial systems are sophisticated and robust. The banking regulations rank with the best in the world, and the sector has long been rated among the top 10 globally.[78] Not only is South Africa itself an important emerging economy, it is also the gateway to other African markets. The country plays a significant role in supplying energy, relief aid, transport, communications and investment on the continent.[79] Its well-developed road and rail links provide the platform and infrastructure for ground transportation deep into Africa.[80]

Until the global economic crisis hit South Africa in late 2008, economic growth had been steady and unprecedented. According to Statistics South Africa, GDP rose by 2.7% in 2001, 3.7% in 2002, 3.1% in 2003, 4.9% in 2004, 5% in 2005, 5.4% in 2006, 5.1% in 2007 and 3.1% in 2008.[81] From the first quarter of 1993 to the second quarter of 2008, the country enjoyed an unprecedented 62 quarters of uninterrupted economic growth. But as the crisis made itself felt, GDP contracted in the third and fourth quarters of 2008, officially plunging the economy into recession.[82] This contraction continued into the first and second quarters of 2009, with GDP growth at -6.4% and -3% respectively.[83]

South Africa's economy has been completely overhauled since the advent of democracy in the country in 1994. Bold macroeconomic reforms have boosted competitiveness with the effects of growing the economy, creating jobs and opening South Africa up to world markets. Over the years these policies have built up a rock-solid macroeconomic structure. Taxes have been cut, tariffs dropped, the fiscal deficit reined in, inflation curbed, and exchange controls relaxed. The basic economic macro-economic policy of the South African government is known as the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) plan.[84] The basic social development policy, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), addresses needs such as housing, land, health, education, and

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[74] Ibid.
[75] "South Africa: Economy Overview." South Africa.info. http://www.southafrica.info/business/economy/econoverview.htm
[76] Ibid.
[77] Ibid.
[78] Ibid.
[79] Ibid.
[80] Ibid.
[81] Stan Du Plessis and Ben Smit. "Economic Growth in South Africa Since 1994." 2006. http://www.ber.ac.za/downloads/2006/working_papers/WP-01-2006.pdf
[82] Business Leadership South Africa. "Business and Economic Policy: South Africa and Three Other African Cases." http://www.businessleadership.org.za/gup/filez/Occassional_Papers_Business_and_Economic_Policy_March_2002.pdf
[83] Ibid.
[84] Peet Strydom. "South African Policy." December 12, 2000. https://www.fnb.co.za/economics/econhtml/profpeetstrydom/SouthAfricanEconomicPolicy.htm

services.[85] GEAR is a macroeconomic strategy adopted by the Department of Finance in June 1996 as a five-year plan aimed at strengthening economic development, broadening employment, and redistributing income and socioeconomic opportunities in favor of the poor.[86] GEAR remains government policy; the key goals of the policy as originally outlined were economic growth of 6% in the year 2000; inflation less than 10%; employment growth above the increase in economically active population; deficit on the current account; and the balance of payments between 2 and 3 percent; a ratio of gross domestic savings to GDP of 21.5 percent in the year 2000; improvement in income distribution; relaxation of exchange controls; and reduction of the budget deficit to below 4 percent of GDP.[87]

Economic growth and prudent fiscal management have seen South Africa's budget deficit (the difference between the government's total expenditure and its total receipts, excluding borrowing) drop dramatically, from 5.1% of GDP in 1993/94 to 0.5% in 2005/06 - the second-lowest fiscal deficit in the country's history after the 0.1% reached during the gold boom in 1980.[88] In 2006/07, the country posted its first ever budget surplus, of 0.3%.[89] Consumer inflation came in at under 5% from 2004 through 2006 before global prices pushed it up to 6.5% in 2007.[90] In 1994 it stood at 9.8%.[91] Despite lower taxes across the board, the upbeat economy, improved tax compliance, and a steadily improving tax and customs administration have seen government revenue surging, hitting R475.8-billion in 2006/07 – over three times the figure for 1996/97.[92]

Case Study Kenya

Kenya is gradually recovering from the impact of multiple domestic and external shocks which affected economic performance and dampened gains from strong economic growth and recovery.[93] The World Bank projects a higher growth rate of 5.0% in 2012, up from 4.3% in 2011.[94] Successfully navigating the challenges of elections under a new constitution and external economic shocks have helped Kenya to reduce distortions in macroeconomic activity.[95] Kenya maintains a market-based economy, with a few "state-owned infrastructure enterprises, and maintains a liberalized external trade system."[96] Kenya boasts the largest, most diversified economy in the East African region, and it's location as a transport hub amplifies its importance for much of the continent.[97] But decades of inequitable and often corrupt governance have dampened economic progress and exacerbated ethnic divisions.[98] Apart from the political elite and a small middle class, most citizens remain subsistence farmers.[99] Kenya's economy relies heavily on agriculture and tourism, which in turn is dependent on natural resources.[100] Agriculture programs target small horticulture, grain, and dairy farmers, helping them increase productivity, get credit, farm sustainably, and sell their produce.[101]

In the early part of the 21st century, Kenya's economy was growing, similar to other Member States within the African Union. In 2008 and 2009 growth slumped, first because of widespread tribal violence following a disputed presidential election, and then as the global financial crisis took its toll.[102] A new constitution shored up what had been a fragile political system, and output growth picked up to 5.6% in 2010, faster than the region's average.

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85 Ibid.
86 Ibid.
87 Ibid.
88 "South Africa: Economy Overview." South Africa.info. http://www.southafrica.info/business/economy/econoverview.htm
89 Ibid.
90 Ibid.
91 Ibid.
92 Ibid.
56 "Kenya Overview." The World Bank. http://www.worldbank.org/en/country/kenya/overview
57 Ibid.
93 Ibid.
94 Ibid.
95 Ibid.
96 "Background note: Kenya." United States Department of State. http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2962.htm
97 "USAID Africa: Kenya." US Aid. http://transition.usaid.gov/locations/sub-saharan_africa/countries/kenya/
98 Ibid.
99 Ibid.
100 Ibid.
101 Ibid.
102 "Revving up the peace." The Economist. http://www.economist.com/node/18713556

Forecasts for 2011 expect growth of around 5%.[103] Unlike many of Africa's fast-growing economies, Kenya does not have a rich bounty of minerals or oil to export.[104] So far, the growth gains have come from macroeconomic stability and deregulation. Unfortunately, Kenya's macro policies have started to look unstable; inflation has accelerated while the budget deficit is running above 6% of GDP.[105] The recent retreat in commodity prices will help, but it has been suggested that Kenya's top short-term priority should focus on balancing its public finances.[106] To accelerate growth sustainably, Kenya should acquire higher investment rates and faster improvements in productivity.[107] Furthermore, adopting the East Asian model of export-led manufacturing could prove to be beneficial and help bring some stability to the economy.[108] Kenya has an excellent geographic location, with a quick sea route to Europe as well as reasonable proximity to India and other fast-growing Asian markets so they could easily expand into those markets for advancement.

"Vision 2030", the government's strategic development plan, envisions the country becoming a manufacturing hub.[109] Due to the preferential trade agreement with America, textile exports have soared.[110] The trouble is that infrastructure, especially at the port in Mombasa, is still chaotic.[111] A more promising short-term route is regional trade integration. Kenya is the biggest economy in the East African Community (EAC), which also includes Burundi, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda.[112] With a market of 130m people and a combined GDP of more than $70 billion, the EAC is no minnow.[113] Since 2010 all trade between its members has been tariff-free. The acceptance of the Vision 2030 plan will make labor mobility a fact in the last quarter of 2012. Some 45% of Kenya's trade is already with other African countries, a share that is growing fast.[114] From cement makers to vegetable-oil manufacturers, Kenya's big industrial firms are expanding across the region.[115] Even so, infrastructure and red tape are a curse: it takes 24 working days to get a container from Mombasa to Kigali in Rwanda.[116]

Conclusion

With the individualist mentality of progression, the continent faces tremendous challenges, and in the long run hinders its ability to grow for short-term outcomes. Since the early 1980's development has primarily changed the condition and atmosphere of Member States in the African Union. The involvement of state and different government sectors vastly contribute to the growth of a nation and its economy, which many Member States have yet to realize. The current economic downturn has many developing countries searching for viable solution to improve their economy and also better social environment for their people. Africa as a whole needs to focus on regional integration, expanding its imports and exports into new markets. With many Member States geographically positioned, they can tap into Asian and European markets. If Member States are able to resolve internal differences, trade issues and truly integrate their economies, the economic down turn can be reversible. A successful integration strategy can be beneficial for individual member states, and also for the African Union as a whole; with such strategy they will be able to establish themselves in the global market.

Based on the case studies discussed within this guide, the impact one nation has on another in the African Union can be a relief for Member States within ECA. Many Member States are already willing and trading with one another, rather than relying on Western influenced companies for assistance. Kenya has been struggling to recover from the global economic downturn for nearly five years and struggling with political unrest as well. Regardless, it has maintained strong regional ties trading nearly 45% of its goods with other African Member States. South Africa has been able to manage a constant decline in their deficit year after year. As a developing nation within the African

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[103] Ibid.
[104] Ibid.
[105] Ibid.
[106] Ibid.
[107] Ibid.
[108] Ibid.
[109] Ibid.
[110] "East African Community." http://www.eac.int/index.php
[111] Ibid.
[112] Ibid.
[113] "Revving up the peace." The Economist. http://www.economist.com/node/18713556
[114] Ibid.
[115] Ibid.
[116] Ibid.

Union, they have been pioneers creating various economic development plans such as the GEAR plan aforementioned. The macroeconomic approach in the plan helps maintain the low deficit and allows for a constant growth. Member States must realize, that a nation should evaluate its economic development polices on both micro and macro levels rather than focusing on just one. The micro level allows for a short-term fix, yet many markets co-dependently rely on each other so Member States must have a dual approach.

Committee Directives

Member States should examine their respective history and identify innovative measures that have been successful for economic growth. Furthermore, delegates should examine the successes and failures of current programs, and develop them into a more globalized perspective that will facilitate economic development. They should also analyze their current economic development plan and examine the operation of their respective government. Delegates must compare and contrast current methods of economic development within their government and region. Consideration should be given to what an economic development plan would do to increase the GDP per capita for its respective state. They should also understand their country's positions in the ECA and consider if regional integration will assist Member States in economic stability. Furthermore, how would Member States be able to main stream and integrate macroeconomic and sectoral policies in national development strategies to achieve faster growth and sustainable development? Also, Member States must enhance their capacity to analyze, formulate, and implement appropriate policies and strategies to address the challenges of globalization. Lastly, delegates should compare the GEAR plan to the Lagos Plan of Action and see if it can be adopted for their respective state or even if it could be part of a continental plan.

II: Addressing the Exploitation and Mismanagement of Natural Resources at State and Regional Levels

"No one should be dying or suffering because of natural resources that already exists in one part of the world has not reached other parts."
Geoff Parcell[117]

Introduction

Some of the most powerful factors in triggering, sustaining or intensifying violent conflict worldwide are natural resources-based.[118] The massive exploitation of non-renewable natural resources (oil, gas, minerals, timber, and other) and increasing scarcity of basic resources (such as water and land) heightened by pollution and degradation, rapid population growth, and climate change fuel conflicts around the world.[119] The management of non-renewable natural resources is a challenging issue in many different Member States. Since 1990, at least eighteen violent conflicts have been linked or fuelled by the exploitation of natural resources and non-renewable natural resources such as, gold, diamonds, minerals and oil.[120] In fact, non-renewable natural resources become a source of violence when their control, exploitation, trade, taxation, or protection contributes to, or benefits from, armed conflicts.[121] Mining activities should offer many potential benefits in terms of employment, infrastructure investment, social service delivery, and overall development.[122] However, in Member States characterized by a high dependence on natural resources, the insufficient levels of democratic and participatory decision-making processes, and the lack of transparent information and responsible behavior by both government as well as private extractive companies, pave the way to corruption, mismanagement of natural resources, unequal distribution of wealth, social tensions and conflict, a phenomenon often referred to as the "paradox of plenty".[123]

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117 Floris van der Pol and Suzanne Nederlof. "Natural Resource Management in West Africa: Towards a knowledge management strategy." November 2010. http://www.kit.nl/net/KIT_Publicaties_output/ShowFile2.aspx?e=1697
118 "Land, Natural Resources and Peacebuilding." United Nations Staff System College. http://www.unssc.org/home/category/themes/peace-and-security/land-natural-resources-and-conflict-prevention
119 Ibid.
120 Ibid.
121 Ibid.
122 Ibid.
123 Ibid.

The processes of natural resource management are quickly being transformed throughout the world. In Africa, advances in science and technology, shifting consumption patterns, continuing population growth, trade globalization, frictions in subsidy regimes, and the impacts of local and global environmental change are leading to new and serious risks to sustainable management of water systems, land, forests, rangelands, and other natural resources.[124] The complex and dynamic context of natural resource use in Eastern, Central, and Southern Africa, necessitates integrated and community based approaches, which must be part of the training of future researchers, policy makers, and natural resource scientists.[125] Recently, environmental and natural resource problems have increasingly come to the fore globally. Understanding the science behind sustainable natural resource management and developing prudent policies for such management are vital for development in Member States that are largely natural-resource based.[126] Whether in discerning development options for national and regional level targets, the list of natural resource management issues has expanded beyond traditional concerns of biophysical processes in air, land, and water to new frontiers of integrated natural resource management and mainstreaming of global climate change.[127] Today's concerns have begun to clash with the traditional extraction- oriented management regimes; hence, the need for highly skilled professionals that facilitate use of our natural resources and environment in more innovative ways.[128]

The paradigm of resource management that guided our approach to these matters throughout the twentieth century is clearly unsuitable for addressing environmental problems that have become global in nature.[129] Consequently, the treatment of natural resource issues from a cross-disciplinary and comparative perspective is integral to finding acceptable solutions for the fundamental and often contentious environmental and natural resource management problems that bedevil Africa's development.[130] Many African countries rely solely on their natural resources to stimulate their economy and their livelihood. The majority of the region's population live in the rural areas and are among the most vulnerable and insecure in terms of poverty, health, food security, economic losses, and conflicts resulting from competitive access to natural resources, among other factors.

Background

The United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa (OSAA) convened an Expert Group Meeting on *"Natural Resources and Conflict in Africa: Transforming a Peace Liability into a Peace Asset"* in Cairo, Egypt from 17 to 19 June 2006, in cooperation with the Government of Egypt, to address the key issue of improving governance of natural resource management in post-conflict countries in Africa.[131] The meeting received financial support from the government of Sweden and from the United Nations Development Programme. At the conference approximately 30 high-profiled diplomats, NGO's, and members of the United Nations were present. They deliberated on how wealth generated from abundant natural resources could be better managed to promote durable peace and sustainable development rather than to fuel conflict in post- conflict areas in Africa.[132]

Natural resources have been shown to play a key role in the conflicts that have plagued a number of African Member States over the last decade; both motivating and fuelling armed conflicts. In the United Nations Secretary General's seminal report to the General Assembly and the Security Council in 1998 on the causes of conflict and the promotion of durable peace and sustainable development in Africa, among the key economic factors identified as fuelling conflict was the illegal exploitation of natural resources.[133] In 2005, the Secretary General's progress report

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[124] Isaac Bekalo, Washington O. Ochola, and Pascal C. Sanginga. "Managing Natural Resources for Development in Africa: A Resource Book." 2010. http://idl-bnc.idrc.ca/dspace/bitstream/10625/45873/2/132361.pdf
[125] Ibid.
[126] Ibid.
[127] Ibid.
[128] Ibid.
[129] Ibid.
[130] Ibid.
[131] "Natural Resources and Conflict in Africa: Transforming a Peace Liability into a Peace Asset." Office of the Special Adviser on Africa. June 2006. http://www.un.org/africa/osaa/reports/Natural%20Resources%20and%20Conflict%20in%20Africa_%20Cairo%20Conference%20ReportwAnnexes%20Nov%2017.pdf
[132] Ibid.
[133] "Implementation of the recommendations contained in the report of the Secretary-General on the causes of conflict and promotion of durable peace and sustainable development in Africa." United Nations General Assembly.

to the 60th session of the General Assembly on the "Implementation of the recommendations contained in the report of the Secretary General on the causes of conflict and promotion of durable peace and sustainable development in Africa", the Secretary-General reiterated that illegal exploitation of natural resources in conflict-prone and conflict-ridden countries continued to be one of the contributory causes of conflict.[134] The report also cited the examples of Angola, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Sierra Leone and Liberia, where natural resources had provided major funding for the perpetuation of wars.[135]

In 2005, Security Council adopted resolution S/RES/1635 which recognized the link between the illegal exploitation of natural resources, the illicit trade in such resources and the proliferation and trafficking of arms as one of the factors fuelling and exacerbating conflicts in the Great Lakes Region of Africa, and in particular in the Democratic Republic of the Congo.[136] Additionally in 2006, Security Council adopted S/RES/1653 to address the conflicts in the Great Lakes region.[137] The resolution specifically urged governments in the region to enhance their cooperation to promote lawful and transparent exploitation of natural resources among themselves and in the region, and invited the international community including the United Nations system to support and complement the peace building and development initiatives required to sustain peace, security and stability in the countries of the region.[138] The resolution reaffirms the international community's support for peaceful management of natural resources and sustainable development.

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) is a program of the African Union (AU) adopted in Lusaka, Zambia in 2001. NEPAD is a radically new intervention, spearheaded by African leaders to pursue new priorities and approaches to the political and socio-economic transformation of Africa.[139] NEPAD's objective is to enhance Africa's growth, development, peace, security, good governance and participation in the global economy. The implementation of NEPAD's program activities is supported by the United Nations Office of the Special Adviser on Africa, which is mandated to act as the focal point for NEPAD within the UN system at headquarters.[140]

NEPAD is a merger of two plans for the economic regeneration of Africa: the Millennium Partnership for the African Recovery Programme (MAP), led by Former President Thabo Mbeki of South Africa in conjunction with Former President Olusegun Obasanjo of Nigeria and President Abdelaziz Bouteflika of Algeria.[141] The OMEGA Plan for Africa was developed by President Abdoulaye Wade of Senegal and at a summit in Sirte, Libya, March 2001; the Organization of African Unity (OAU) agreed that the MAP and OMEGA Plans should be merged.[142] The Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) developed a "Compact for Africa's Recovery" based on both these plans and on resolutions on Africa adopted by the United Nations Millennium Summit in September 2000, and submitted a merged document to the Conference of African Ministers of Finance and Ministers of Development and Planning in Algiers, May 2001.[143] NEPAD's four primary objectives are to:

- Eradicate poverty,
- Promote sustainable growth and development,
- Integrate Africa in the world economy, and
- Accelerate the empowerment of women.[144]

In July 2002, the Durban AU summit supplemented NEPAD with a Declaration on Democracy, Political, Economic

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August 2005. http://www.un.org/africa/osaa/reports/2005%20Causes%20of%20Conflict%20report.pdf

134 Ibid.
135 Ibid.
136 Ibid.
137 S/RES/1653. United Nations Security Council. January 27, 2006. http://unic.or.jp/security_co/pdf/res1653(2005).pdf

138 Ibid.
139 "New Partnership for Africa's Development." NEPAD. http://www.nepad.org/
140 Ibid.
141 "Support to the domestication of NEPAD/APRM in Kenya." United Nations Development Programme in Kenya. http://www.ke.undp.org/index.php/projects/support-to-the-domestication-of-nepadaprm-in-kenya
142 Ibid.
143 Ibid.
144 Ibid.

and Corporate Governance. According to the Declaration, Member States participating in NEPAD believe in just, honest, transparent, accountable, and participatory government and probity in public life.[145] Accordingly, they undertake to work with renewed determination to enforce, among other things, the rule of law; the equality of all citizens before the law; individual and collective freedoms; and the right to participate in free, credible and democratic political processes.[146] They also adhere to the separation of powers, including protection for the independence of the judiciary and the effectiveness of parliaments.[147] Ever since it was set up there has been some tension over the place of NEPAD within the AU programs, given its origins outside the framework of the AU, and the continuing dominant role of South Africa symbolized by the location of the secretariat in South Africa.[148]

Successive AU summits and meetings of the Heads of State and Government Implementation Committee (HSGIC) have proposed the greater integration of NEPAD into the AU's structures and processes. In March 2007 there was a 'brainstorming session' on NEPAD held in Algeria at which the future of NEPAD and its relationship with the AU was discussed by an ad hoc committee of heads of state. The committee again recommended the fuller integration of NEPAD with the AU.[149] In April 2008, a review summit of five heads of state Presidents Mbeki of South Africa, Wade of Senegal, Bouteflika of Algeria, Mubarak of Egypt and Yar'Adua of Nigeria met in Senegal with a mandate to consider the progress in implementing NEPAD and report to the next AU summit to be held in Egypt in July 2008.[150] The HSGIC to which the NEPAD secretariat reports comprises three states from each region of the African Union, with former President Obasanjo (Nigeria) as elected chair, and Presidents Bouteflika (Algeria) and Wade (Senegal) as deputy chairmen.[151] The HSGIC meets several times a year and reports to the AU Assembly of Heads of State and Government. The HSGIC consist of 20 AU Member States, to oversee projects and program development.

Current Status

Over recent years, evidence of the ruinous effects of the illegal exploitation of raw materials on peace and security in many Member States, particularly those with weak governance systems, has been on the rise.[152] In the maelstrom of conflicts in Angola, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), the Central African Republic, Liberia, and Côte d'Ivoire, warlords and leaders of militias and rebel movements prospered from the pillaging of their nation's natural wealth as much as financiers of crime rackets, dishonest civil servants, corrupt politicians, or national and international corporations.[153] Recent investigations have revealed once again how criminal behavior is still pervasive in the natural resource business and how it affects each consumer around the world in unexpected ways.[154] For at least four years it has been known that thousands of artisan diggers are exploiting cassiterite deposits (a tin oxide) around Walikale, in Eastern DRC.[155]

Natural resources have the potential to bring wealth and stability to resource-rich developing Member States. The oil, gas and mining sectors represent one of the biggest sources of revenue in Africa. Africa's natural resources were worth $333 billion in exports in 2010.[156] Too often corruption and mismanagement of natural resources leads to poverty and conflict.[157] Improving natural resource governance, in particular by improving financial transparency in the extractive industries, is a crucial first step to ensuring citizens can hold their governments accountable for the oil and mineral wealth that belongs to their country, and to allowing citizens and governments to assess if they are

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[145] Ibid.
[146] Ibid.
[147] Ibid.
[148] Ibid.
[149] "Conclusions and Recommendations of the NEPAD Heads of State and Government Implementation Committee (HSGIC) Meeting and Brainstorming on NEPAD, Algiers, Algeria." NEPAD Secretariat. 21 March 2007.
[150] Bathandwa Mbola. "NEPAD summit to discuss global challenges facing Africa." BuaNews . 15 April 2008
[151] Ibid.
[152] "Illicit Exploitation of Natural Resources." Freedom from Fear. July 2012. http://www.freedomfromfearmagazine.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=89:illicit-exploitation-of-natural-resources&catid=37:issue-1&Itemid=159
[153] Ibid.
[154] Ibid.
[155] Ibid.
[156] "Natural Resource Governance." The One Campaign. http://one.org/c/us/policybrief/4308/
[157] Ibid.

receiving a fair deal for their resources.[158] One-third of the world's poorest people live in resource-rich Member States.[159] In Africa, revenue flows are likely to increase as resource extraction increases. Combined with high commodity prices, revenues from natural resources will continue to dwarf other financial flows, and could and should play a key role in driving progress on poverty reduction and economic growth.[160]

Natural resources generate what economist's term 'rents' – meaning profits that are much higher than the minimum level needed to keep the activity going, and the trouble from natural resources stems from these rents.[161] There are six routes by which natural resource rents increase the risk of violent conflict; four relate to political economy and two are straight economics.[162] Politics comes to be about the contest for control of these revenues, this produces a politic of corruption aided and abetted by foreign corporate behavior and sometimes directly a politic of violence.[163] The stakes are highest in low-income Member States because the control of the state implies massive revenues relative to other income-earning opportunities.[164] Further, this politic of rent seeking diverts the public arena from its normal function of achieving the collective action that is necessary to supply public goods and the social and economic infrastructure that all societies need.[165] The society thus loses out twice over: in the struggle for resource rents other resources are dissipated, and the supply of public goods declines.[166] Nigeria provides a striking example of such a politic built around the contest for oil rents.[167]

The second route by which natural resource rents increase the risk of war is through the detachment of government. Because resource-rich governments do not rely on other tax revenues, they become detached from their electorates. In most societies, because the electorate have to pay high taxes, they scrutinize the government to see how it uses their money. This was indeed how democracy developed in the West. Large natural resource rents not only make civil war more likely, they make it more likely that a civil war will be secessionist. Another route by which natural resources increase the risk of civil war is that they provide an obvious source of finance for rebel groups. Even if the rebellion is not motivated by these rents, it is greatly facilitated by them: from the proceeds leaders can purchase arms and pay recruits. Warfare is a costly business. Whereas thirty years ago rebel groups largely had to depend upon friendly foreign governments for finance and armaments, now rebellion has been privatized, and markets in natural resources and armaments have developed to the extent that rebel groups can be self-sufficient. Rebel groups gain access to natural resource rents in several ways. One is to run protection rackets against the companies or people who are the exporters. Another is directly to operate extractive businesses. Yet another is to sell concessions to mineral rights in anticipation of subsequent control of the territory. The prolonged viability of UNITA in Angola and the RUF in Sierra Leone; the violent gangs of the Nigerian Delta; and the successful rebellions of Laurent Kabila in Zaire and of Denis Sassou-Nguesso in Congo Brazaville, were all assisted by one or the other of these methods of natural resource financing.

Through these six routes, natural resources have largely been detrimental to the people of Africa. But there is no reason to think that such an outcome is inevitable. Revenues from natural resources represent an enormous opportunity for low-income African economies. This is especially true for landlocked countries with hostile climatic conditions, such as Chad, where natural resources probably offer the only option for significant poverty reduction. This is the dilemma: resource rents have the potential for good as well as for bad. The strategy of saying 'just leave the resources in the ground' sacrifices the potential for good as the price of avoiding the bad. Historically, such a strategy would usually have been an improvement on what actually happened. But, as well as being a counsel of despair, it is unrealistic. As a result of the geo-politics of oil, there is a rush of new discoveries in small, poor African countries such as Equatorial Guinea, Mauritania, Sao Tome and Principe, and Gambia. These resources are not going to be left in the ground. The challenge for both Africa and the international community is to change the political and economic governance of such resources so that the future is not a repetition of the past.

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158 Ibid.
159 Ibid.
160 Ibid.
161 Paul Collier. "Natural Resources and Conflict in Africa." The Beacon. November 2009. http://the-beacon.info/countries/africa/natural-resources-and-conflict-in-africa/
162 Ibid.
163 Ibid.
164 Ibid.
165 Ibid.
166 Ibid.
167 Ibid.

In recent years the Central African nations have come to recognize the need to fill this information gap and are making efforts to correct these problems. The government of the DRC has already adopted a Ministerial Decree that requires its supervisory agency Centre d'Evaluation, d'Expertise et Certification (CEEC) to extend a certification system for origin, ownership and quality over a broad range of minerals and stones.[168] By taking the lead, the DRC is following the will of the leaders of all Central African States who have declared the fight against illegal exploitation of natural resources to be a top priority.[169] These leaders have, as part of their International Conference of the Great Lakes Region, agreed to form a committee to explore the practical implementation of a certification system for all their natural resources.[170] In theory, this African initiative has already received important political support from the leading developed Member States. As part of the follow-up of the G-8 summit in Russia in 2006, the concept of certifying the platinum metals group was endorsed.[171] At the subsequent G-8 meeting in Germany in 2007, certification was endorsed as a suitable instrument in appropriate cases for, among other interests, resolutely counter-illegal resource extraction.[172] The G-8 members have also agreed to support a pilot study, in co-operation with the World Bank and its initiatives, concerning the feasibility of a certification system designed for selected raw materials.[173]

Case Study: Democratic Republic of the Congo

The Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) has a long history of instability and underdevelopment that began under brutal Belgian colonial rule.[174] In 1960 the Congo gained its independence and Patrice Lumumba became the country's first democratically elected president.[175] The peace and hope envisaged was brief as the new democratic leader was assassinated in 1961. Mobutu SeseSeko seized power through a military coup and promptly began to exploit the rich resources of the Congo for the enrichment of his own ethnic kin.[176] Historically, resources in the DRC have either been the reason for conflict, or the means to maintain it, and yet they have been largely neglected in peace agreements and post-conflict reconstruction.[177]

The economy of the DRC is characterized by a reliance on raw materials with very little diversification of goods produced and exported.[178] The DRC's main exports are cobalt, copper, crude oil, and diamonds, and the domestic GDP is derived largely from agriculture, forestry, and mining.[179] These problems are certainly compounded by a lack of organization, infrastructure, and management.[180] Economic growth in the DRC in 2011 reached 6.5%, a slight drop from the 2010 figure of 7.2%, as a result of global inflationary trends and caution on the part of businesses during a period of elections.[181] The growth of the economy, dependent on agriculture, the extractive industries, trade, and construction and public works, may slow further in 2012 to 5.1% because of persisting political uncertainties.[182] Inflation was brought down from 23.5% in 2010 to 14.8% in 2011.[183] The US dollar (USD) was worth 919.4 Congolese francs (CDF) at the end of 2011 compared with CDF 915.1 at the end of 2010, a

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168 "Illicit Exploitation of Natural Resources." Freedom from Fear. July 2012. http://www.freedomfromfearmagazine.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=89:illicit-exploitation-of-natural-resources&catid=37:issue-1&Itemid=159

169 Ibid.

170 Ibid.

171 Ibid.

172 Ibid.

173 Ibid.

174 Emmaneul Nibishaka. "Natural Resources and Conflict in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC): The Failure of Post-Conflict Reconstruction Strategies." Rosa Luxemburg Stiftung. March 2011. http://www.rosalux.co.za/wp-content/files_mf/drc3_2011ip.pdf

175 Ibid.

176 Ibid.

177 Ibid.

178 "African Economic Outlook: Democratic Republic of the Congo." African Economic Outlook.org. http://www.africaneconomicoutlook.org/en/countries/central-africa/congo-democratic-republic/

179 Ibid.

180 Ibid.

181 Ibid.

182 Ibid.

183 Ibid.

depreciation of only 0.5%.[184] Nevertheless the public finances registered a deficit of 6.3% of GDP at the end of 2011 as a consequence of poor revenue mobilization and overspending due to, among other factors, the financing of the elections.[185] With the projected slowdown in growth and the fragile political context the budget deficit should amount to 7.8% of GDP in 2012, which should entail changes in inflation (15.1%) and the exchange rate (USD 1= CDF 942.5).[186]

Copious mineral deposits have yielded massive resource rents, which have proved irresistible to the political elite who have spent the best part of the funds on retaining political control and maintaining a fairly ineffective national army.[187] The centralization of resource rent has meant that social development has been sidelined.[188] Compared to elite and military funding, the social sector received next to nothing, which has resulted in poor human and physical capital unable to support a 21st century developing economy.[189] The combination of insecurity, poverty and a lack of alternatives provide the youth with little alternative but to join rebel groups.[190] The structural failure of peace agreements and regional post-conflict reconstruction frameworks to recognize the impact of uncontrolled resources continues to hamper the peace process in the region.[191]

The DRC has endured a long history of violence and misery. The conflict and individuals may have changed over time, but the situation in the DRC requires serious and prompt attention. There have been several attempts at peace brokering in the DRC, all of which have been relatively unsuccessful. The Pretoria Agreement, signed on 17 December 2002, was intended to facilitate the transition of the militaristic country into a democracy and end the conflict.[192] Eight years after the signing of the Pretoria Agreement the conflict and general instability in the DRC continues.[193] Conflict in the DRC is highly complex involving a myriad of actors and issues and, as such, any potential resolution will have to be a holistic one wherein all the relevant aspects of the conflict are considered.[194] Following a peace agreement, such as the 2002 Pretoria Agreement, a post-conflict reconstruction strategy should essentially be followed to avoid a relapse into conflict.[195]

Case Study: Cote D'Ivoire

Cote d'Ivoire was once the economic powerhouse of West Africa; a stable and affluent country which had managed to avoid the descent into civil war that had plagued so many of its neighbors.[196] In the 1970s and 1980s, it was known as the African miracle, but in September 2002, an army mutiny escalated into a full-scale rebellion, resulting in the country being split into a rebel-held north and a government-held south.[197]

Cote D'Ivoire, unlike its neighbors did not allocate its natural resource wealth equally, as most of the economic wealth and employment opportunities generated by the export of 26% of the world's cocoa was concentrated in the south.[198] Northern Ivorians, who share close cultural ties with bordering countries such as Mali and Burkina Faso, were often discriminated against by the Christian controlled government in the south, and benefited very little from natural resource revenues.[199] Despite the country's developed infrastructure and longstanding history of peace, the

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184 Ibid.
185 Ibid.
186 Ibid.
187 Ibid.
188 Ibid.
189 Ibid.
190 Ibid.
191 Ibid.
192 SC/7479. United Nations Security Council. August 2002. http://www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2002/sc7479.doc
193 Emmaneul Nibishaka. "Natural Resources and Conflict in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC): The Failure of Post-Conflict Reconstruction Strategies." March 2011. http://www.rosalux.co.za/wp-content/files_mf/drc3_2011ip.pdf
194 Ibid.
195 Ibid.
196 "Conflict Diamonds in Cote d'Ivoire." Global Witness. http://www.globalwitness.org/campaigns/conflict/conflict-diamonds/cote-divoire
197 Ibid.
198 Jim Lehrer. "Analyzing the Natural Resource Curse." http://www.pbs.org/newshour/extra/teachers/lessonplans/world/conflict_diamonds_natural_resource_curse.pdf
199 Ibid.

combined factors of economic disparity, ethnicity, and religion all contributed to escalating tensions in the region.[200] In December 1999, Cote D'Ivoire experienced its first ever military coup, and erupted in civil war in September 2002.[201]

Tens, possibly hundreds, of millions of dollars in diamonds have, in recent years, been smuggled out of Cote D'Ivoire.[202] Cote d'Ivoire is only a minor diamond producer in Africa, compared to Botswana or the Democratic Republic of the Congo that produce millions of carats (Cts) worth of diamonds.[203] Before the conflict, the average production was around 300,000 Cts and annual export revenues were worth about US $28.5 million.[204] The first discoveries of diamonds in Cote d'Ivoire date back to 1927 and 1947 and were made in the regions of Séguéla and Tortiya in the north of the country.[205] Today, diamond mines are still situated in the region of Diarabana‑Bobi and Tortiya.[206] Approximately 20,000 artisanal miners work in the mines and modest industrial mining activities took place from the 1940s to the 1970s, and started again with the decline of the prices of agricultural products in the early 1990s.[207] The failed coup of September 2002 by the *Forces Nouvelles* (FN) led to the division of the country into the rebel-held north and a government-controlled south, separated by a neutral *zone de confiance* that was controlled by the French force *Licorne*.[208] Hence, the diamond deposits of the northern and central region fell into the hands of the rebels.[209] As a consequence, the government of Côte d'Ivoire, by Ministerial Decree of 19 November 2002, suspended all exploration and sales of diamonds.[210]

In December 2005, the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) issued Resolution 1643, which stated, "that all States shall take the necessary measures to prevent the import of all rough diamonds from Cote d'Ivoire into their territory.[211] The UNSC Resolution S/RES/1842 renewed the diamond embargo in October 2008, which is valid until 31 October 2009.[212] Cote d'Ivoire is the only country currently under embargo by the UN for the export of conflict diamonds.[213] The rationale behind the diamond embargo was to cut the financial means of the FN and to prevent an escalation of the conflict as the UNSC, in the same resolution, recognized the linkage between the illegal exploitation of natural resources such as diamonds, illicit trade in such resources, and the proliferation and trafficking of arms as one of the sources of fueling and exacerbating conflicts in West Africa.[214]

Despite several peace talks, Cote D'Ivoire is still plagued by violence and conflict between the Muslim rebels in the north and the Christian government in the south.[215] Unequal distribution of natural resource wealth has now turned into natural resource exploitation.[216] Both sides are currently exploiting natural resources to fund sustained military campaigns.[217] Government troops have taken control of cocoa producing regions, while rebel forces in the north smuggle diamonds to buy small arms, food, and medical supplies.[218] Despite a United Nations arms embargo prohibiting the sale of guns to Cote D'Ivoire, and despite the ban on the importation of rough diamonds from the country, loopholes in the system have allowed significant amounts of guns to enter the country, and millions of

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200 Ibid.
201 Ibid.
202 Lena Guesnet, Marie Muller, and Jolien Schure. "Natural Resources in Cote d'Ivoire: Fostering Crisis or Peace." Bonn International Center for Conversion. http://www.bicc.de/uploads/tx_bicctools/brief40.pdf
203 Ibid.
204 Ibid.
205 Ibid.
206 Ibid.
207 Ibid.
208 Ibid.
209 Ibid.
210 Ibid.
211 S/RES/1643. United Nations Security Council. December 15, 2005. http://www.unic.or.jp/security_co/pdf/res1643%282005%29.pdf
212 S/RES/1842. United Nations Security Council. October 29, 2008. http://daccess-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N08/575/01/PDF/N0857501.pdf?OpenElement
213 Lena Guesnet, Marie Muller, and Jolien Schure. "Natural Resources in Cote d'Ivoire: Fostering Crisis or Peace." Bonn International Center for Conversion. http://www.bicc.de/uploads/tx_bicctools/brief40.pdf
214 Ibid.
215 Ibid.
216 Ibid.
217 Ibid.
218 Ibid.

dollars in diamonds to be smuggled out.[219] As the conflict has escalated, so have human rights abuses. For example, both sides are said to be actively recruiting child soldiers to supplement dwindling military forces. Since the beginning of the civil war, poverty has escalated, access to safe drinking water has decreased, and government services such as education and healthcare have all but disappeared.[220]

Conclusion

Natural resources are supposed to generate wealth and peace. Furthermore, Member States rely on natural resources for economic development and global economic presence. The continent of Africa is one of the richest continents, with its various goods and minerals. The goods alone should allow for sustainable economic development, peace, and stability; instead many Member States are engaged in combat with rebel groups, face civil wars, and suffer political corruption. Proper management of natural resources requires political stability as well as political solutions on both international and regional levels. The issue of management of natural resources should be addressed across the continent and not just conflict stricken areas. As mentioned before, in 2010, oil, gas and mining sectors represent one of the biggest sources of revenue in Africa.

Too often, mismanagement of resources has also led to poverty, child labor, and high death tolls in Africa. Statics show that Member States with rich resources have higher rate of poverty when it should seem to be the other way around. For example, DRC is one of the richest nations in its region, but due to political unrest and the ongoing civil war, the country has struggled to further development and attain a global presence. The international community has responded to the crisis in the DRC through the adoption of the Pretoria Agreement, signed on 17 December 2002. Yet, due to the on-going political power struggle, peace-brokering efforts have not been successful. Another example to consider is the on-going flow of conflict diamonds from Cote d'Ivoire. In 2005 SC resolution 1643, called for Member States to be cautious, and take necessary measures to prevent the importation and sale of conflict diamonds within their territories. Furthermore, the embargo was renewed again in October 2008 with SC resolution 1842, and Cote d'Ivoire remains as the only Member State to be under a UN embargo for blood diamonds. Once political stability is restored in both the DRC and Cote d'Ivoire, both Member States should have adequate natural resources and minerals to maintain a strong global presence.

Committee Directives

Member States must draw from their respective country's experience in managing natural resources. They must identify best practices that can be implemented across the African Union. Delegates must also design a post-2015 framework that will enable African countries to achieve sustained economic growth. Member States must examine the Pretoria Agreement, and identify areas of improvements. Furthermore, delegates must also examine current and past UNSC resolutions and see what improvements can be made by the ECA. Member States must also identify ways to ensure proper management of natural resources and also methods in which nations can show transparency. Delegates should consider if international corporations should be allowed to manage the natural resources of their country, bearing in mind that they may be influenced by western powers. Lastly, Member States need to create methods in which conflict may be resolved when dealing with natural resources and minerals.

[219] Ibid.
[220] Ibid.

III. Accelerating Progress towards Meeting MDG #1: The Eradication of Extreme Poverty

"Let us work in partnerships between rich and poor to improve the opportunities of all human being to build better lives."
Kofi Annan, 7th UN Secretary General

Introduction

With the passing of the Millennium Declaration on 18 September 2000, the United Nations (UN) sent a clear message to the international community of its central focus for the ensuing fifteen years. Chief among the eight goals enshrined within the Declaration was the UN's commitment to "making the right to development a reality to everyone and to freeing the entire human race from want."[221] Central to this goal is the UN's desire "to create an environment – at the national and global levels alike – which is conducive to development and to the elimination of poverty."[222] This ideology has been the driving force behind Millennium Development Goal (MDG) #1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger. Within the confines of this goal, the UN has established three interrelated target indicators to be reached by 2015: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than $1 a day, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, and halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger.[223] These lofty goals have set the objectives for which all developmental policies and aid aimed at impoverished Member States are to be focused.

The Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), as the leading economic organization for the continent, has based its developmental policy over the past twelve years towards attaining the targets set by MDG #1 in hopes of eradicating the extreme levels of poverty, unemployment, and starvation that have continuously afflicted the African continent. The ECA's efforts to attain this goal, however, have been riddled with inconsistencies and halting progress. For example, gross domestic product (GDP) growth rates between 2004 and 2008, especially in Africa's Least Developed Countries (LDCs), have largely exceeded the 7 per cent threshold that the ECA identified as necessary to reduce poverty levels on the continent; however, the ECA has acknowledged that there has not been a commensurate reduction in poverty levels in its Member States consistent with this sustained level of economic growth.[224] Furthermore, the global financial crisis that began in late 2007 has reversed some of the progress made throughout Africa in regards to MDG #1. During this period of time, in which the financial crisis crippled the global economy, the number of Africans living under the poverty line increased slightly, while employment levels throughout the continent were only marginally reduced.[225] Obviously these results run counter to the ECA's desire to successfully meet MDG #1 by the 2015 deadline.

Above all else, the global financial crisis has demonstrated that implementing developmental policies that merely improve surface-level economic indicators, such as poverty and employment rates, belies the problem at hand. As it pertains to ECA Member States, the most important lesson that can be drawn from this crisis is how easy it is to unravel the progress made towards attaining MDG #1. It has become clear to the ECA that the true path to eradicating poverty in Africa begins by addressing the foundational problems at the root of the poverty question on the continent. As such, the focus of this topic extends far beyond meeting MDG #1 by 2015, and the successful attainment of this goal only represents a small step towards eradicating poverty in Africa. In order to truly accelerate progress towards meeting MDG #1 the scope of policies enacted must provide ECA Member States with long-lasting and self-sustaining institutions and protocols to ensure not only that continental poverty rates are reduced, but also that poverty in Africa becomes a vestige of the past. The focus must shift towards developing Member States' economic and governmental institutions. This will lead to Member State's increased ability to develop sound macroeconomic policies, promote investments that foster long run, sustainable economic growth, and

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221 A/Res/55/2. " *United Nations Millennium Declaration.* United Nations General Assembly. http://www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.htm
222 Ibid.
223 "Goal 1: eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger" United Nations. http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/poverty.shtml
224 "Africa Regional Preparatory Meeting on the Review of the Implementation of the Brussels Programme of Action." United Nations Economic Commission for Africa. http://www.unohrlls.org/en/orphan/741/
225 *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2011.* The United Nations. New York: United Nations. 2011. . http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/11_MDG%20Report_EN.pdf

to augment national capacity for utilizing natural resources. Additionally, as Africa progresses toward meeting MDG #1 targets, the continent must do so within the framework of post-conflict resolution. Addressing these issues within the ECA, as well as developing a better understanding of how developmental organizations and outside development assistance can be utilized to accelerate progress towards MDG #1, represents an opportunity to resolve Africa's long-standing poverty epidemic well beyond the initial scope of the Millennium Development Goals. By examining the foundation that underlies poverty in Africa and implementing solutions within this context, ECA Member States will have the ability to move beyond the poverty question and focus efforts on developing balanced, sustainable economic growth.

MDG Report 2011and Report Addendum: Goal 1

While the economic crisis of 2008-2009 has caused definite setbacks, overall extreme poverty around the world is on the decline. The report states that by 2015, it is expected that global poverty will fall to 15 percent, noticeably below the 23 percent target reduction. However, this number is bolstered mainly by rapid growth in Eastern Asia, more specifically, China and India. While the global trend suggests that the target number will be met, Sub-Saharan Africa still, as of 2005, has 51 percent of their population living on less than US$ 1.25 per day.[226] While the global economy seems to be recovering, the labor market still struggles, as unemployment remains elevated and employment-opportunity generation is slowly rising. In fact, between 2000 and 2010, the proportion of employment to population in Sub-Saharan Africa only rose 1 percent, from 63 to 64 percent.[227] Of those with employment, those whose work is classified as "vulnerable" remained incredibly high, at 76 percent, according to the 2011 report. Vulnerable employment, or employment characterized by low wages, informal arrangements, and no benefits, has actually risen in Sub-Saharan Africa since 2005, pointing to the instability of these economies. While North Africa's vulnerable employment numbers are lower, they have remained stagnant from 1999 through 2009, at 33 percent, with the employment to population ratio only rising three percent, from 43 to 46 percent during the period between 2000 and 2010.[227]

Sub-Saharan Africa stands to not meet the hunger reduction targets as well due to increased food prices, and the world percentage of those suffering from hunger has remained fixed at 16 percent, despite decreases in poverty.[228] Disturbingly, Africa remains the area of the world most devastated by undernourishment. All States in this region, excluding South Africa and Gabon, have reported data that shows at least a 15 percent undernourishment rate, with eight states on the continent reporting undernourishment rates of 35 percent or higher in 2005-2007.[229]

These statistics make it clear that while the world may be reducing poverty enough to meet at least the monetary target, this type of progress does not translate into success in all regions. The majority of the continent is not on track to meet the targets, and the United Nations acknowledges this. The global food and energy crisis, coupled with the continuing problem of refugees and IDPs has made achieving these goals particularly difficult for the continent.

Brussels Programme of Action for Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010

The Brussels Programme of Action for Least Developed Countries for the decade 2001-2010 (BPA) provides a framework for least developed Member States to work with their developed partners to promote sustainable economic growth and development to work towards the target of halving the number of people living in extreme poverty by the year 2015.[230] The Programme lists 30 International Development goals, including those listed in the Millennium Declaration. The other goals of the BPA are more specific to least developed Member States, and focus on the structural issues limiting sustainable development in these States, such as reducing supply side constraints,

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[226] "Target: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than $1 a day." *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2011*. The United Nations. http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/11_MDG%20Report_EN.pdf

[227] "Target:Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people." *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2011*. http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/11_MDG%20Report_EN.pdf

[228] "Introduction: Goal 1." *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2011.* http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/11_MDG%20Report_EN.pdf

[229] "Proportion of undernourished population, 2005-2007 (Percentage*). " The Millenium Development Goals Report 2011*. http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/11_MDG%20Report_EN.pdf

[230] "Brussels Plan of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010" United Nations Economic Commission for Africa. http://www.uneca.org/cfm/26/Programme_of_action_for_ldcs.htm

increasing the share of the world market held by LDCs, and protecting the environment.[231] The first objective of the BPA is MGD #1.[232] According to the BPA, there are eight cross-cutting issues that must be addressed in order to achieve MGD #1 and the other development goals-- poverty eradication, gender equality, employment, governance at national and international levels, capacity-building, sustainable development, special problems of landlocked and small island LDCs, and challenges faced by LDCs affected by conflict.[233] These goals also include indicators that can be used to measure progress towards their achievement.[234] MGD #1, target #1 is listed specifically as Goal #3 of the BPA.[234] The indicators used to measure progress toward MGD #1 target #1 are the proportion of the population below 1 USD a day, the poverty gap ratio, and the share of poorest quintile in national consumption.[235]

The BPA is of particular importance because it goes beyond setting target levels and focuses on helping LDCs achieve long term, sustainable growth. It places a heavy emphasis on being result-oriented, using a three track plan that measures follow-up, implementation, monitoring, and review at the national, regional, and global levels based on the indicators attributed to each goal in order to measure progress.[236] Each level is charged with different specific responsibilities to ensure proper implementation of the BPA. At the national level, LDCs must work with their developmental partners to promote the implementation of the Plan of Action by translating them into specific measures within the state's national development framework and poverty reduction strategy.[237] At the regional level, states are instructed to focus on cooperation between LDCs and other countries at the regional and sub-regional levels.[238] At the global level, follow up is primarily concerned with assessing the economic performance of LDCs, monitoring the implementation of commitments made by LDCs and their development partners, and reviewing the functionality of existing implementation and follow up mechanisms at the national and regional levels, while also monitoring policy developments at the global level that have implications for LDCs.[239] While the indicators set out in the BPA are the primary mechanisms of follow-up used in this three track plan, they are also intended to contribute to the collective follow up of the recommendations and commitments of global summits and major conferences, as well as The Millennium Declaration and other major agreements.[240]

Aica Regional Preparatory Meeting on the Review of the Implementation of the Brussels Programme of Action

As the Brussels Programme of Action for Least Developed Countries was closing, ECA Member States held a preparatory meeting to assess the results of the Programme. The purpose of the Meeting was to review the implementation of the Plan of Action by assessing existing mechanisms for follow up, monitoring, and review and proposing measures to advance LDC development at the national, regional, and international levels. The meeting primarily noted that while economic growth on the African continent has somewhat improved over the last decade, with growth averaging over five percent, this improved performance has not translated into successful poverty reduction.[241] The Meeting notes that much of the growth in African LDCs is driven by capital-intensive extractive

[231] "I. Objectives." Brussels Plan of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. http://www.un-documents.net/ac191-11.htm

[232] "I. Objectives, Clause 7." Brussels Plan of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. http://www.un-documents.net/ac191-11.htm

[233] "I. Objectives, Clause 8." Brussels Plan of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. http://www.un-documents.net/ac191-11.htm

[234] "Goals and Indicators." Programme of Action for Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. http://www.un.org/special-rep/ohrlls/ldc/Goals%20and%20indicators-LDCs.pdf

[235] "Goal 3. Make substantial progress toward halving the proportion of people living in extreme poverty by 2015 (MDG 1, T-1)." Programme of Action for Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. http://www.un.org/special-rep/ohrlls/ldc/Goals%20and%20indicators-LDCs.pdf

[236] "III. Arrangements for Implimentation, Follow-Up, and Review." Brussels Plan of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. http://www.un-documents.net/ac191-11.htm

[237] "A. Main orientations for implementation and follow up. 92. a." Brussels Plan of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. http://www.un-documents.net/ac191-11.htm

[238] "A. Main orientations for implementation and follow up. 92. b." Brussels Plan of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. http://www.un-documents.net/ac191-11.htm

[239] "A. Main orientations for implementation and follow up. 92. c." Brussels Plan of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. http://www.un-documents.net/ac191-11.htm

[240] A. Main orientations for implementation and follow up. 95." Brussels Plan of Action for the Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2001-2010. http://www.un-documents.net/ac191-11.htm

[241] "Africa Regional Preparatory Meeting on the Review of the Implementation of the Brussels Programme of Action." Economic Commission for Africa.

sectors, which have a very limited impact on employment-opportunity creation, particularly long-term employment opportunities.[241]

While African LDCs have benefited greatly from preferential trading schemes such as the Anything but Arms Act, the African Growth Opportunity Act, and preferential access to markets from states like India, China, and Brazil, they only make up 1.08 percent of world exports.[241] Contributing factors to this disparity include restrictive rules of origin, non-tariff barriers, and technical barriers.[242] The meeting called for LDCs to have more access to the World Trade Organization without the imposition of political conditions, such as being forced to open their markets to imported products.[242] This would allow the LDCs to grow at a comfortable rate, without opening the LDC's economies up to the potential risks of the open market.[242]

Another key issue to overcoming the poverty question noted by the Meeting is the unique challenges faced by post-conflict States in implementing the Brussels Plan of Action. It is made clear that the institutional and human capacities for building a lasting peace are an essential component to answering the poverty question on the continent. These capacities include reconstruction, reconciliation, rehabilitation, and development.[243] Infrastructure projects and continued cooperation will be essential to the creation of sustainable development in these post-conflict states.

Perhaps most importantly, this preparatory meeting draws attention to the issue of food security, or rather the lack thereof, throughout Africa.[244] The global financial crisis and the adverse effects of climate change have devastated African agriculture, but that is far from the only issue limiting the development of a self-sustaining food supply. The agriculture sector of the continent's collective economy is under capitalized with nearly non-existent irrigation technology, making the food supply incredibly vulnerable to the problems of climate change.[245] The accelerated population growth also further stresses existing means of food production. Economic diversification must be encouraged in order to reduce poverty in Africa in a meaningful way, as well as to protect the continent from economic shocks in other regions of the world that may result in rising food prices. This Meeting is primarily significant because it addressed how the BPA can be applied specifically to Member States on the African continent. Development must be addressed within the framework of regional applicability. For Africa, that means addressing issues, such as post-conflict resolution and the refugee crisis, which might not be of specific concern to LDCs in other regions.

The Fourth United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries was the final conference held on the progress and results of the BPA for LDCs. The goals and the results of the programme were discussed on a broader basis, although the conference also addressed region-specific results and issues. Of particular importance was the private sector track, a milestone for the United Nations in which, for the first time, the private sector was fully integrated into the programme of a major United Nations Conference.[246] This provided an opportunity to identify specific proposals to help least developed countries with regard to private sector growth and development. It consisted of three parts: the High-level Meeting on Investment and Partnerships, the Global Business Partnership Forum, a multi-stakeholder platform for dialogue among business, investors, Government officials and other stakeholders; and the Trade Fair, which showcased commercial opportunities in the LDCs.[247] The particular

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http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/ldc/shared/ARR%20Final%20document.pdf

[242] "Section 20, African Regional Preparatory Meeting on the Review of the Implementation of the Brussels Programme of Action." Economic Commission for Africa. http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/ldc/shared/ARR%20Final%20document.pdf

[243] "Section 13, African Regional Preparatory Meeting on the Review of the Implementation of the Brussels Programme of Action." Economic Commission for Africa. http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/ldc/shared/ARR%20Final%20document.pdf

[244] "Section 17, African Regional Preparatory Meeting on the Review of the Implementation of the Brussels Programme of Action." Economic Commission for Africa. http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/ldc/shared/ARR%20Final%20document.pdf

[245] "Section 18, African Regional Preparatory Meeting on the Review of the Implementation of the Brussels Programme of Action." Economic Commission for Africa. http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/ldc/shared/ARR%20Final%20document.pdf

[246] "A. Prepatory process. 4." Outcome of the Fourth United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries. http://www.un.org/wcm/ webdav/site/ldc/shared/A_66_134.pdf

[247]"Outcome of the Fourth United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries." United Nations General Assembly. http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/ldc/shared/A_66_134.pdf

emphasis placed on private sector diversification and development shows just how important this particular issue is moving forward in answering Africa's poverty question.

The Conference adopted the Programme of Action for Least Developed Countries for the Decade 2011-2020, or the Istanbul Plan of Action.[248] The Istanbul Plan of Action (IPA) focuses on improving the productive capacity of LDCs in order to overcome the structural problems associated with these areas and achieve internationally-set development goals, with a particular emphasis placed on MDG #1.[249] Specifically, the IPA aims to enable half of the least developed countries to meet the criteria for graduation, which is necessary to achieving the goal of sustained, inclusive economic growth of at least seven percent annually.[249] This objective is closely tied to the IPA's focus on reducing the economic vulnerability of LDCs and addressing new challenges to development, such as food interdependence and climate change.[250] All of these objectives are part of the holistic approach to development made clear throughout the plan.

The first priority of the IPA is to improve the productive capacity of LDCs. Many of these States are still dependent on the export of unprocessed commodities, made clear in Africa by the amount of investment in extraction-based operations. This export-based economic structure leaves LDCs vulnerable to price fluctuations.[251] Implementation of the Programme will be essential in the next decade to improving employment on the continent.

Actions Taken by the United Nations and the Economic Commission for Africa

The Millennium Declaration begins by stating that the United Nations as an organization and its Charter are necessary components to the foundation of a peaceful and more just world.[252] It goes on to state that we, meaning Member States, Heads of State and Government, and citizens of the world, have a responsibility to each other, particularly to the vulnerable and to the children, to uphold the principles of human dignity, equality, and equity. With these principles in mind, the essential values of freedom, equality, solidarity, tolerance, respect for nature, and shared responsibility were established, and specific objectives were put into place to make them a reality. Section III of these objectives addresses Development and Poverty Eradication. In this section, the UN resolves to "spare no effort to free our fellow men, women and children from the abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty, to which more than a billion of them are currently subjected."[253] In the years since this document has been in existence, much progress has been made toward achieving this goal, but setbacks, such as the global financial crisis of 2008, have often plagued efforts. It is important to look beyond these events, to the program itself, in order to establish what progress has been made, and what problems there are within the framework of the goals themselves as they have been interpreted thus far. In this way, the Economic Commission for Africa may move forward in the most effective way possible.

Five years after the Millennium Development Goals were adopted; both progress and problems had already been identified. In the Report of the Secretary General on the UN World Summit 2005(A/59/2005), Secretary General Kofi Annan addressed the opportunity presented to the world in 2005 as well as the challenges faced. In Section II, he notes that the 25-year period leading up to 2005 saw the most dramatic reduction in extreme poverty the world has ever experienced.[254] However, he goes on to say that much of this development reflects progress on the Asian subcontinent, specifically in China and India. Already in 2005, the imbalance of progress in regions around the world toward achieving MDG #1 was becoming clear. In the same section, the Secretary General noted that while

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248 "II. Main Features of the Istanbul Plan of Action 13." Outcome of the Fourth United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries. http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/ldc/shared/A_66_134.pdf

249 "A. Objectives, Goals, and Principles 15." Outcome of the Fourth United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries. http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/ldc/shared/A_66_134.pdf

250 "A. Objectives, Goals, and Principles 16." Outcome of the Fourth United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries. http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/ldc/shared/A_66_134.pdf

251 "20. Production Capacity." Outcome of the Fourth United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries. http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/ldc/shared/A_66_134.pdf

252 "55/2. United Nations Millennium Declaration." The United Nations. http://www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.htm

253 "III. Development and poverty eradication." United Nations Millennium Declaration. http://www.un.org/millennium/declaration/ares552e.htm

254 "II. Freedom from want." Report from the Secretary General on the UN World Summit 2005. http://daccess-dds-ny.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N05/270/78/PDF/N0527078.pdf?OpenElement

development is lifting the burden of extreme poverty off of many in some regions, dozens of countries had become poorer in the 5 years since the passage of the Millennium Declaration.

The 2005 UN World Summit Outcome both reaffirms the UN's commitment to its responsibility of achieving the Millennium Development Goals and acknowledges that the primary responsibility of development lies with Member States themselves. In Section 22, the body resolves to adopt by 2006 comprehensive national strategies for development and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.[255] This suggests the regional disparity in progress toward poverty eradication was already becoming evident. The importance of the private sector in achieving long term economic growth and development is also addressed.[256] This sector is of particular importance to the African continent, as private sector diversification would greatly increase employment opportunities that for the moment seem to remain limited to extraction based operations. As such, the committee also resolves to protect the natural resource base in support of development.[257]

Millennium Development Goals in Africa

In 2009, the Economic Commission for Africa published a report on the progress that has been made towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals. In reference to MDG #1, the report states that while progress has been made in countries like Ghana, the economic crisis of 2008 has been a major setback in achieving MDG #1 by the target time.[258] The progress of the target to halve the proportion of people who live on less than $1USD per day by 2015 is difficult to measure due to the fact that household surveys are difficult to come by in the most impoverished regions of Africa, as they are either rural and hard to reach, or in an area that is currently experiencing a high level of violence.[259] Even though there has been positive economic growth in most countries, with some like Equatorial Guinea making great strides due to the development of their oil industry, economic growth has not necessarily translated into poverty reduction. Progress towards full employment has also been slow, as some Member States have had negative growth due to a lack of stability or internal conflict.[260] While labor productivity growth was positive across all regions throughout 2006, it was not strong enough to achieve full employment, and the growth of labor is still highly vulnerable to outside forces as well as the cyclical nature of the economy. The target of reducing the proportion of people who suffer from hunger by 2015, like the other targets, was making excellent progress until early 2008 when food prices began to spike.[261]

Conclusion

Although Africa's prospects of attaining the targets enshrined within MDG #1 are bleak, the goal of eradicating extreme poverty from the continent extends far beyond 2015. While the world at large is progressing greatly toward the reduction of those living on less than $1 USD a day, the unique challenges faced by post-conflict states will require more time to overcome. The rebuilding of infrastructure and of social capital is necessary in order to speed development in these states. There has been much progress toward infrastructure development. Private sector diversification, particularly in industries outside of extraction, will be important as Member States seek to become less vulnerable to market variance in commodity prices. Diversification will also provide improved employment prospects, both in the number and types of jobs available, specifically increasing the number of stable jobs and reducing the number of people depending on vulnerable employment. Environmental concerns will only play a greater role in food stability, and therefore agricultural economics, as time goes on. Many African states are among

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[255] "Section 22. (a)." 2005 UN World Summit Outcome. http://data.unaids.org/topics/universalaccess/worldsummitoutcome_resolution_24oct2005_en.pdf

[256] "Section 22. (e)." 2005 UN World Summit Outcome. http://data.unaids.org/topics/universalaccess/worldsummitoutcome_resolution_24oct2005_en.pdf

[257] "Section 22. (g)." 2005 UN World Summit Outcome. http://data.unaids.org/topics/universalaccess/worldsummitoutcome_resolution_24oct2005_en.pdf

[258] Section 1. "Assessing Progress in Africa toward the Millennium Development Goals." http://www.uneca.org/eca_programmes/acgd/publications/mdgr2009.pdf

[259] "Target 1A – Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than USD 1 a day." Assessing Progress in Africa toward the Millennium Development Goals. http://www.uneca.org/eca_programmes/acgd/publications/mdgr2009.pdf

[260] "Target 1B – Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people." Economic Commission for Africa. http://www.uneca.org/eca_programmes/acgd/publications/mdgr2009.pdf

[261] "Target 1C – Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger." Economic Commission for Africa. http://www.uneca.org/eca_programmes/acgd/publications/mdgr2009.pdf

those most vulnerable to the effects of climate change, and therefore at risk of declining agricultural production. Agriculture provides many of the export products African states depend on for trade income. This demonstrates just how important it is that private sector diversification takes place. A dependence on raw commodities exports leaves many Member States vulnerable to a volatile world market. However, diversification is not enough. Member States must take care to diversify into industries that create employment, rather than just increase national wealth, in order to reduce the burden of extreme poverty.

Continued focus on achieving better rule of law is always necessary in any area working toward further development. Strengthening rule of law on the continent will require increased regional cooperation and international cooperation. Despite the challenges, development is happening, and more is possible. The development of intra-regional infrastructure may help attract more private industry to the continent by providing the means by which to conduct commerce, while also providing locally controlled and held employment opportunities. The employment created may increase opportunities for formal working arrangements with consistent pay and benefits. Increased educational opportunities for women are providing a more educated and larger labor pool, which in the future may be used to attract industries that create stronger economies. The ECA and its Member States have achieved much success, and while 2015 may not come with all targets met, the poverty question in Africa still must be answered.

Committee Directive

In this committee when discussing this topic, delegates should discuss the specific progress their Member State has made towards attaining MDG#1 specifically referencing any measures they have enacted to accelerate progress towards MDG#1 targets. Delegates should also discuss the primary sources of economic growth and take into account the proportion of investment that comes from foreign sources in their State and the amount of external aid received on an annual basis. Member States should be knowledgeable of their state's role in regional integration efforts through the ECA, and incorporate these efforts into the discussion. Furthermore, they should discuss how their state could enhance national security measures as a means of promoting long term economic growth. With these objectives in mind, delegates should be able to use this topic to take a multilateral approach towards answering the poverty question in Africa.

Technical Appendix Guides (TAG)

I. Examining the Role of State Governments in Encouraging and Managing Economic Development

Ronoi, J. "The Impact of the Structural Adjustment Programmes on Kenyan Society."
http://archive.lib.msu.edu/DMC/African%20Journals/pdfs/social%20development/vol17no1/jsda017001007.pdf.
This article speaks to the effects of structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) on Kenyan society. A program initiated by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund in the early 1988 to assist Kenya. Recently, in 1991 the SAP has been at the forefront in developing the Kenyan people.

UN Economic Commision for Africa. "Lagos Plan of Action for the Economic Development of Africa."
http://www.uneca.org/itca/ariportal/docs/lagos_plan.PDF.
This article speaks to the development of the Lagos Plan of Action and takes the reader through the different stages of the plan. It also allow the reader to examine the different sectors of a given economy in Africa, from agriculture to energy development.

United Nations Conference On Trade and Development. (2010). "South-South Cooperation: Africa and the New Forms of Development Partnership."
http://unctad.org/en/docs/pogdsafricad2.en.pdf.
This paper speaks to the ability of African Member States to increase a global economic presence. Furthermore, it defines the South–South cooperation and how it can help the economic development in Africa.

The Economist. 03 Dec. (2011). "The Sun Shines Bright."
http://www.economist.com/node/21541008.
This article informs the reader of the average growth within the continent of Africa. It also highlights the growth of various Member States and identities how that growth has come to become such a constant. Lastly, it breaks down the two year moving average of the African Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

Zuma, J. (2009). "The New Growth Path: The Framework."
http://www.info.gov.za/view/DownloadFileAction?id=135748.
This article comes from the speech of President Jacob Zuma of South Africa. In a speech given by him in 2009, he lays out the framework for his nation to continue to grow and become a global economic powerhouse.

"Kenya's Vision 2030: An Audit From An Income And Gender Inequalities Perspective."
Society for International Development.
http://www.sidint.net/docs/Kenya%20Vision%202030%20Complete.pdf.
The Visions 2030 lays out Kenya's attempt to address the income disparities and gender inequalities. It also discuses how the plan could address development challenges. Lastly, the audit focuses on what plagues Kenya and how they can be addressed.

Leke, A., et al. "What's Driving Africa's Growth." *The McKinsey Quarterly.* June 2010.
http://www.mckinseyquarterly.com/Whats_driving_Africas_growth_2601.
This article discusses the economic growth in Africa more in specific the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). It also measures the analytical contribution from the various sectors of the African economy. Lastly, the article covers the long-term potential for Africa and it's economy.

"Investment in Infrastructure Crucial to Africa's Economic Growth." *VOA*. N.p., 1 Mar. 2011. Web. 29 July 2012.
http://www.voanews.com/content/investment-in-infrastructure-crucial-to-africas-economic-growth030211-117248018/157566.html.
This article speaks to the correlation of infrastructure growth and stability to economic development. The writer believes that Member State could be more sustainable with developed infrastructure. Lastly, the article also discusses the foreign investors in Africa and also China's role in Africa's economy.

II. Addressing the Exploitation and Mismanagement of Natural Resources at State and Regional Levels

Roe, D., et al. (2009). "Community Management of Natural Resources in Africa: Impacts, Experiences and Future Directions."
http://pubs.iied.org/pdfs/17503IIED.pdf.
Across many African nations, natural resources remain the means of survival for their people. This article discusses the methods of Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM). CBNRM models allow local accountability for the management of natural resources. CBNRM also allows the local groups to make the decision in regards to the management of natural resources.

Maphosa, S. (2012). "Natural Resources and Conflict: Unlocking the Economic Dimension of Peace-building in Africa." *Policy Brief.*
http://www.ai.org.za/wp-content/uploads/downloads/2012/04/No.-74.-Natural-Resources-and-Conflict.-Unlocking-the-economic-dimention-of-peace-building-in-Africa.pdf
This article speaks to the ongoing conflict over natural resources across Africa. Mismanagement of natural resources has a wide effect on economy, politics, and also social behavior. Natural resources have played a significant role in many conflicts across the continent. Where natural resources have been the main driver of social violence, they need to be treated as crucial dimensions of conflict prevention that could unlock the economic potential of building peace in fragile societies.

Bannon, I., & Colier, P. (2003). "Natural Resources and Violent Conflict: Options and Actions."
The World Bank.
http://www-wds.worldbank.org/servlet/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2004/05/24/000012009_20040524154222/Rendered/PDF/282450Natural0resources0violent0conflict.pdf.

This article speaks the correlation of natural resources, conflict, and also poor governance. The article states that conflict is inevitable for developing Member States when poor governance and political corruption plagues the nation. Furthermore, when conflict does break out, it usually means over a decade of progression is swiped out.

De Luca, G., et al. (2012). "Mineral Resources and Conflicts in DRC: A Case of Ecological Fallacy." https://editorialexpress.com/cgi-bin/conference/download.cgi?db_name=CSAE2012&paper_id=609
This paper speaks to the civil war in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and how management of natural resources fuels the war. It also highlights the history of the DRC and how the nation has evolved over the years. Furthermore, the paper also explores the various theoretical factors contributing to the ongoing conflict in the DRC.

Burnley, C. (2011). "Natural Resources Conflict in the Democratic Republic of the Congo: A Question of Governance?" *Sustainable Development Law & Policy*.
http://digitalcommons.wcl.american.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1492&context=sdlp&sei-redir=1&referer=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.google.com%2Furl%3Fsa%3Dt%26rct%3Dj%26q%3Dnatural%2520resources%2520and%2520conflict%2520in%2520drc%26source%3Dweb%26cd%3D10%26ved%3D0CGIQFjAJ%26url%3Dhttp%253A%252F%252Fdigitalcommons.wcl.american.edu%252Fcgi%252Fviewcontent.cgi%253Farticle%253D1492%2526context%253Dsdlp%26ei%3DBJEVUPa_CYfVrQfbsYHYCg%26usg%3DAFQjCNF1J6U0_RUe7wpIsWJjkK9KbdQB5g#search=%22natural%20resources%20conflict%20drc%22.
This article speaks to the conflict Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and the struggle for proper governance of natural resources. The article covers the past and present conflict in the DRC, how to broker post-conflict peace, and the challenges the government faces years to come in managing its natural resources. .

Kirwin, M. (2006). "The Security Dilemma and Conflict in Cote D'Ivoire."
Nordic Journal of African Studies. http://www.njas.helsinki.fi/pdf-files/vol15num1/kirwin.pdf.
The paper will provide both a historical examination of the roots of the conflict and an overview of all the actors that are involved in the conflict. The paper also discusses the study it conducted in analyzing the conflict in Cote d'Ivoire through the theoretical framework of the security dilemma.

Dawn.com. (2010). "Blood Diamond Fears in Ivory Coast Political Duel."
http://dawn.com/2010/12/28/blood-diamond-fears-in-ivory-coast-political-duel/.
This article speaks to the ongoing blood diamonds conflict in Cote d'Ivoire. The article also suggests that blood diamonds fueled the 2010 presidential duel. Lastly, the article discusses the Kimberley Process and how it has been monitoring the blood diamonds of Cote d'Ivoire.

Menke, B. (2009). "The Role of "Livelihood" Natural Resources in Conflict and Post-Conflict Peacebuilding."
http://dukespace.lib.duke.edu/dspace/bitstream/handle/10161/1041/Menke,%20Brianna%20MP.pdf?sequence=1.
This article speaks to the 2002 civil war in Cote d'Ivoire. Furthermore, it compares other Member States who are also faced with conflict due to their respective natural resources management. Lastly, it examines the different resources that plaques the nations.

The New Partnership for Africa's Development. (2005). "NEPAD Progress Report."
http://www.africapartnershipforum.org/dataoecd/62/10/38984644.pdf.
This article speaks to the progress of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD). It also evaluates the key areas of the plan, which were outlined by the secretariat and what work still needs to be done in order to ensure the success of the NEPAD.

III. Accelerating Progress towards Meeting MDG #1: The Eradication of Extreme Poverty

Bah, A. (2012). "Sierra Leone: Tackling youth unemployment."
http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/povertyreduction/successstories/Tackling-youth-unemployment/
This article speaks to the challenges of reducing vulnerable employment and unemployment among youth on the African continent. It also outlines how the United Nations Development Programme is helping youth in post-conflict states develop marketable skills and find employment as a means of reducing internal violence.

United Nations Development Programme. (2012). “Nepal: Boosting entrepreneurship among poor rural women.” http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/povertyreduction/successstories/nepal--boosting-entrepreneurship-among-poor-rural-women-/
This article speaks to the benefits of educating women in rural areas in order to allow them to establish their own small businesses. This article illustrates what the United Nations Development Programme is doing to educate women, and the importance of these skills programs in giving rural women more secure financial futures.

Economic Commission for Africa. (2012). “Training on knowledge portals to advance women’s rights and social development.”
http://new.uneca.org/ArticleDetail/tabid/3018/ArticleId/1651/Training-on-knowledge-portals-to-advance-womens-rights-and-social-development.aspx
This article outlines two workshops on three knowledge portals, the E-network for National Gender Machineries, the African Women’s Rights Observatory (AWRO) and the newly established Human and Social Development Knowledge Platform. It explains the importance of these knowledge portals in bridging the gender gap in poverty.
Economic Commission for Africa. (2011). African Youth Report. http://new.uneca.org/ayr/ayr_2011.aspx
This report speaks to the state of youth education and employment in Africa. It outlines the Economic Commission for Africa’s strategies for strengthening youth education in order to benefit from globalization and linking education to employment in Africa.
Economic Commission for Africa. (2012). African Governance Report. http://new.uneca.org/agr/agr2.aspx
Rule of law is an important aspect of reducing poverty on the African continent. This report outlines the state of governance on the continent, and the progress that has been made towards more institutional capacity for rule of law. The report also outlines areas that need improvement in order for African states to establish more effective rule of law.

United Nations Development Programme. (2012). “FYR Macedonia: employment programme boosts entrepreneurs.”
http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/povertyreduction/successstories/fyr-macedonia--employment-programme-boosts-entrepreneurs/
This article speaks to the importance of self-employment education programs in reducing overall unemployment. It outlines how the United Nations Development Programme supports state efforts to educate their populations in order to increase the number of entrepreneurs. This type of programme may be important in the future to answering the poverty question in Africa.

Economic Commission for Africa. (2012). “Experts Group meeting on Capacity development on Land Policy in Africa.”
http://new.uneca.org/ArticleDetail/tabid/3018/ArticleId/1359/Experts-Group-meeting-on-Capacity-development-on-Land-Policy-in-Africa.aspx
This article speaks to the importance of food security on the African continent. Food security will become increasingly important as Africa continues to attempt to reduce extreme poverty.

United Nations Economic and Social Council. (2009). “Implementation of the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme.”
http://new.uneca.org/Portals/3/documents/csd6/ReportImplementationCAADP-English.pdf
This report outlines the Economic and Social Council’s framework for reducing poverty and nutritional security through agricultural growth on the continent. Reducing African dependence on food imports will continue to be a major factor in reducing poverty long term.

United Nations Development Programme. (2012). “Cote d’Ivoire: Improving water access in former conflict areas.” http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/ourwork/povertyreduction/successstories/cote-d_ivoire--improving-water-access-in-former-conflict-areas/
Post-conflict development is an important aspect of answering the poverty question in Africa. This article speaks to the difficulty of providing access to water in post-conflict areas, as well as the importance of providing this access in answering the poverty question in Africa.