

AFRICAN DIPLOMACY: THE STRATEGY AND SEARCH FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

Anene, Chidi Pensive Ph.D

*Department of History & International Studies
Imo State University, Owerri*

&

Iyala, Theodore Obinna Ph.D

*Department of History & International Studies
Imo State University, Owerri, P.M.B 2000
iyalatheodore@yahoo.com; +2348037977157*

Abstract

The desire to maintain peace and security that guarantee free flow of trade, productivity and people, as well as coexistence, is the key bedrock of African diplomacy. African diplomacy predates recorded history. Nevertheless, as the framework upon which peaceful inter-communal/tribal and inter-governmental relationships rest, its relevance to the socio-economic development of Africa cannot be ignored. Although challenged by geographical location, leadership instability, war and conflicts and differences in socio-political cum cultural ideologies, African leaders have made stringent efforts in terms of making prompt innovations towards enhanced inter-governmental relations; yet, not much have been achieved, as the continent is still bedeviled by myriads of new global challenges. Therefore, as the contemporary international system becomes more interconnected, there is the urgent need for for a collective and shared responsibility amongst Africans and their leaders, in order to champion and chart a more practical and new means of coexistence in this era of globalization. This paper seeks a review of its foreign policy and a closer integration.

Keywords: Conflict, crisis, diplomacy, integration, insecurity

Introduction

As Western culture and civilization is gradually infiltrating into Africa through the intensification of globalization and its sequels, the endless desire and search by African leaders and Africans to checkmate its negative impacts, in order to maintain peace and stability cannot be overemphasized. Since independence in Africa, the continent has been sporadically engulfed with flashes of crises and conflicts here and there sprawling in various dimensions from one country to the other, inflicting huge costs, and in dire need of urgent diplomatic solutions to the lingering crises continentally. Although diplomacy is as old as humanity, and as people relate or interact with one another, country to country through dialogue, negotiations, compromises and treaties were applicable, via international cooperation's, solutions to the crisis situations are amicably resolved. To this end, therefore, in situating the way forward, Chan (2017) asserts that much of this has to concern peacekeeping and its allied diplomacy. He further enthused that since 1960, there have been eighteen (18) full-fledged civil wars and eleven (11) what have been called genocides. In the decade of the 1980s, there were over 3 million fatalities of such violence. At the beginning of the 1990s, 43% of the world's refugee population were within Africa and the racist apartheid regime in South Africa.

African leaders since independence have made frantic efforts at fighting these challenges and being able to expose the iniquities of colonialism, racial discrimination and apartheid on the global stage; hence, they rallied global support in the United Nations, the Commonwealth and the Non-Aligned Movement in order to defeat the scourge of colonial domination, racism and oppression. Again, it is worth mentioning here that despite Africa's initiatives, countries were not generally supportive, except those from other parts of the world, such as Asia and the Middle East, that shared the same history of oppression, colonialism and racism. The capitulation of the apartheid regime in South Africa in 1994 and the birth of a non-racist and

democratic administration with Nelson Mandela as President was in every respect the climax of Africa's success in the struggle for liberation and a defining moment in its involvement in global affairs (Uhomoibhi, 2014).

Conceptual Definition of Terms

The definition of the following terms will be apt here for a proper understanding and appreciation of this work, in order to clarify the salient issues bordering on the imperatives of African diplomatic initiatives towards the economic development of the continent.

Integration

In the words of Adebayo Adedeji (1977), after independence, the neo-colonial development strategy adopted by the majority of the African states has not only re-enforced dependencies of their economics in virtually all areas, it has continued to sap the remaining confidence. Thus, the self-confidence regenerated by political independence in the 1960s has been neutralized or diffused by increasing dependent economic relations, which have made Africa an economic under-dog and instilled the belief even in many highly placed Africans that the continent cannot succeed on its own. However, in spite of the Eurocentric perspectives about Africa, recent global trends have called for the motivation of Africans, especially the Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) towards regional integration. For Lyakurwa (1996), most integrations (in Africa) were instituted as a result of disillusionment with international political and economic systems that were viewed as unfavourable to developing countries like Africa.

To this wise, therefore, Africa's desire for regional integration became as a result of the strong and deep-rooted integration in Europe which has over the years attracted global attention. The challenges beset the implementation of integration are enormous and which border to some extent on the reason this work is explored, in order to help reshape African integration initiatives through a vibrant and robust diplomacy for the development of Africa. Unfortunately, in the words of

Aryeetey and Oduro (1996), regional integration arrangements in Africa have generally been perceived as a vehicle for overcoming the constraints of small economic sizes of nations. Their sizes are seen to have hampered their ability to industrialize efficiently, particularly within the context of import-substitution, an approach that many African countries adopted soon after independence in the 1960s. Regional integration was conceived as a means to facilitate the structural transformation of African economies.

However, Lyakurwa (1996) has argued that regional integration in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and Africa at large is not a recent phenomenon. According to him, at least two unions, the Southern African Customs (SACU) and the East African Community (EAC), have existed since 1910 and 1919 respectively. The majority of regional integration in Africa was instituted in the 1970s. The Organization of African Unity (OAU), now African Union (AU), is an encapsulation of the visions of African leaders towards the decolonization of the continent from the Western economic and political hegemony, in order to ensure a peaceful, strong, united and prosperous Africa, to erase crisis and ignorance, in such a way that Africa will be effectively integrated into the global economic and political systems as an equal and respected partner (Agubuzu, 2002).

The importance of regional or a continental integration in Africa cannot be overemphasized, although it has not achieved much in spite of its appeal (Foroutan, 1993; Lyakurwa, 1995) because of the undeniable fact that integration as a policy was formed without proper considerations of the incentives to be given to the different partners (Fine and Yeo, 1994), or it has been pursued for the very wrong reasons in Africa (Gunning, 1995), or because of reasons associated with the absence of peace and security (Adetula, 2014).

Another main criticism of integration in Africa under the OAU was that it was made the exclusive rights of African leaders and the governments whose practice of unquestioning solidarity and non-interference with national sovereignty was not conducive to the

attainment of the aim of African economic integration. The policy was not people-driven and the need for political survival became a major challenge to its success. In fact, African leaders were, regrettably, more self-centered and politically concerned than in ensuring the strengthening of regional cooperation and integration within Africa for sustainable development. Unfortunately, sustainable development is often a co-traveler with “globalization”, a concept that views the whole world as “a global village” and which seeks to break hitherto incompatible frontiers between nations of the world in favour of mutuality and complementarity for the sake of humanity. Africa, the once touted “cradle of civilization”, and indeed, the fore-runner of science and technology has not fared well in all of this, as she lags behind in almost all indices of human development, which measure the socio-economic advancements and well-being of nations (Obennd).

The continual rise in crisis in Africa has drained the resources of each state and inconsequential attention has been paid to the boiling economic issues because Africa's political leaders are yet to understand the root causes of the problems in Africa. According to Leonard and Straus (2003) and Ake (1987), " we are not going to understand the current crisis in Africa much less contain it: as long as we continue to think of it as an economic crisis. What is before us now is primarily a political crisis. Its economic consequences are serious as we know only too well, but they are nonetheless incidental. Not only as the crisis essentially political in character, it is also political in its origin". Since independence, political instability, mismanagement, policy inconsistency, internecine wars, poor leadership, corruption and ethnicity as well as nepotism and others have become the bane of Africa's march to economic development fuelled by the unbridled global trend (Onuoha, 1999).

Globalization

Globalization is indeed a reality. It is a concept which represents the apparent and current picture of our complex world that is becoming a

global village. Globalization is a continuous process and not a destination and so much needs to be done to achieve a globalized world. The concept “globalization” has many faces and impacts on unprepared economies of developing nations like Africa. It has many interpretations. In other words, the term “globalization” has remained controversial and trite amongst development scholars. Globalization as a widespread concept is with a considerable degree of ambiguity. This ambiguity does not mean that it remains unclear or ill-defined. Globalization has been viewed from different perspectives and dimensions, particularly in relation to different interests, subject areas and scope. Hence, it has been difficult adopting a standard definition for the term (Adesoji, 2006 and Akindele et, al, 2002).

Globalization is a powerful real aspect of the new world system, and it represents one of the most influential forces in determining the future course of the planet. It has manifold dimensions: economic, political, security, environmental, health, social, cultural, and others. Globalization has had significant impacts on all economies of the world, with manifold effects. It affects their production of goods and services. It also affects the employment of labour and other inputs into the production process. In addition, it affects investment, both in physical capital and in human capital. It affects technology and results in the diffusion of technology from initiating nations to other nations. It also has major effects on efficiency, productivity and competitiveness, according to Majekodunmi and Adejuuwon (cited by Intriligator, 2003:1; 7).

The term “globalization”, according to International Monetary Fund (IMF) (cited by Anyanwu, 2000), is the growing economic interdependence of countries world-wide through the increasing volume and variety of cross-border transactions in goods and services and of international capital flows, and also through the more rapid and widespread diffusion of technology. The essence of the globalization process is to make the whole world a global community. It is a place where countries, companies and people are coming closer together as communication gets better, finance moves faster and the cultural

assumptions of democracy and free markets spreads. For Oyejide (1998), globalization refers to the increased integration, cross countries of markets for goods, services and capital. It implies, in turn, accelerated expansion of economic activities globally and sharp increases in the movement of tangible and intangible goods across national and regional boundaries. In other words, globalization as a concept preaches about the erosion and eruption of any form of nationalistic trade barriers, openness to trade, finance and investment from one country to the other.

From the foregoing, globalization is the acceleration and intensification of interaction and integration among the people, companies, and governments of different nations. This process has effects on human well-being (including health and personal safety), on the environment, on culture (including ideas, religion, and political systems), and on economic development and prosperity of societies. Globalization has been described as another phase of imperialism. It has significantly reduced the barriers to interstate relations among nations. The core of globalization lies in freeing a country's economic frontiers to allow unrestricted international trade in goods and services, entry and exit of foreign capital and technology and giving the foreign investors a treatment similar to that given to domestic investors (Narula, 2003).

How has Africa fared with globalization? What should be done by Africans? In the words of Chulu (2017), Africa is endowed with natural resources not equal to the developed world but remains underdeveloped. A continent rich in natural resources, one of the key important determinants of development but is widely recognized as one of poorest regions of the world. Even though Africa is wealthy in natural resources, this condition has not necessarily contributed to the well-being of its people. Corroborating the above view, Momah (1994) asserts that:

Sub-Saharan Africa (Africa), has always been at the sad end of epoch making events and the blessing of others have often turned out to be her woes....The discovery of diamond and gold in South Africa rather than garner blessings for Africans, led to the obnoxious apartheid policy, the discovery of the 'black gold' (petroleum) instead of being a means to Africans economic emancipation has chained her to economic slavery epitomized by the prevailing debt burden.

The impact of globalization on Africa is overarching; however, according to Samuriwo (2000), 'Africans view globalization with distrust and serious doubt', against the backdrop of past experience. He argued further that African pursuit of globalization further leads to the marginalization of Africa and her economies based on the unequal development status between the West (Europe) and Africa, as seen in the following areas: in trade, where 82 percent of world export markets of goods and services go to the richest countries, while just 20 percent of it goes to the poor countries; In technology, where about 93.3 percent of shares of internet users go to the richest countries, while only 0.2 percent go the poorest countries; In investment, where about 68 percent shares in Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) go to the West, whereas 1 percent goes to the poor countries. The same imbalance is seen in the other sectors such as communication, entertainment industry and information technology which comes with cultural imperialism. And more so, Africa and her economy have been reduced to spectators and victims.

Africa was(is) deliberately exploited and underdeveloped by European colonial regimes and a combination of power politics and economic exploitation of Africa by Europeans led to the poor state of African political and economic development, evident in the late 20th century (Rodney 1972;Thirwall, 1994). Regrettably, the OAU (1987) Heads of States assert that:

Africa is the most impoverished continent in the world, with twenty-seven out of the world's thirty-seven least developed countries, and a constantly declining per capita income. At a time when Africa is involved in the implementation of Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (APPER) and the United Nations Programme of Action for Economic Recovery and Development (UNPAAERD), we are still in no position to mobilize adequate resources to honour our obligations.

In this wise, therefore, Annan advises that, if globalization is to succeed, it must succeed for the poor and the rich alike. It must deliver rights no less than riches. It must provide social justice and equity no less than economic prosperity and enhanced communication. On this note, according to Anyanwu (2000) and the World Bank report (1997), the idea of globalization rests on the need for connectivity, inter-dependence and interaction on a global level. African leaders, since independence, have initiated many reforms and policy frameworks geared towards revamping, restructuring and re-invigorating the African ailing economy. From Omega plan, Africa's Priority Programme for Economic Recovery (APPER) to NEPAD, Africa has remained at the back seat of development. NEPAD, being the most recent, constitutes a compact between African leaders and their peoples. African leaders have taken a solemn pledge to eradicate poverty in their countries and put them on a path of sustainable growth and development. The programme is anchored on the determination of Africans to extricate themselves and the continent from the malaise of underdevelopment and exclusion in a globalizing world (Atta-Mills, 2002:11).

However, despite the reforms implemented in Africa to attract development, Aja-Kpuru-Aja (2001) agrees that Africa is still backward, but he reveals the truth about globalization and Africa by stating that, the growth of globalization in Africa has not had an equal effect everywhere. It is not expected to have "even" impacts on

countries, regions, economic groupings and corporate enterprises on the world economic systems. Gain or loss is just a function of what roles and strategies every actor has for the single global market, Nigeria inclusive. Development should be understood to be much more than simply economic growth, because it is far beyond the objective of increased average national income (Meier, 1984 and Rodney, 1972).

Globalization comes with new changes as well as challenges that are unprecedented and new. Therefore, in view of these realities, according to Adedeji (1993), there is now almost a unanimous agreement that the African economy is not improving in any fundamental sense. Unfortunately, African states are not developing the necessary capacities to participate in and exploit the new opening in the capitalist-driven global order (Ihonvbere, 2004). This has prompted Candesus (1995) to opine that:

Indeed, especially in the case of Africa, let us be clear that the task now before us is to ensure that these countries gain more and more from opportunities afforded by the closer integration into the world economy that such a globalised world can offer them. If they fail to take advantage of these opportunities, the risk of their marginalization will only be increased.

The above position clearly reflects the paradoxical location and the role of Africa in the emerging global division of labour and power. The end of the Cold War and the increasing integration of the global economy with the triumph of the market and the demise of communism have posed several challenges and opportunities for the African continent. On the other hand, there are opportunities for Africa to fully integrate into the emerging global capitalist order to exploit the developments in science and technology, the new information revolution and the expansion of the global market (Ihonvbere, 2004).

Insecurity

The security challenge in Africa has assumed a frightening dimension that requires a multi-stakeholder approach, in checkmating the menace that threatens Africa's development and sovereignty. Omede (2012) sees security as a dynamic condition which involves the relative ability of a state to counter threats to its core values and interests. McGrew (1988) holds that the security of a nation hangs on two important pillars which are (1) the maintenance and protection of the socio-economic order in the face of internal and external threat and (2) the promotion of a preferred international order, which minimizes the threat to core values and interests, as well as to the domestic order.

The importance of security in Africa cannot be overemphasized. Security is sine qua non to economic development which guarantees the well-being of Africans (UNDP, 1993; Collier, 2006 and Beland, 2005). However, in the words of Nwolise (2006), security is an all-encompassing condition which suggests that a territory must be secured by a network of armed forces; that the sovereignty of the state must be guaranteed by a democratic and patriotic government, which in turn must be protected by the military, police and the people themselves; that the people must not only be secured from external attacks but also from devastating consequences of internal upheavals, such as unemployment, hunger, starvation, diseases, ignorance, homelessness, environmental degradation and pollution cum socio-economic injustices. Sadly, for the past fifty decades, Africa has been engulfed by the menace of insecurity. Nigeria, in particular, since the assumption of President Muhammed Buhari, has not known peace; from the Boko Haram terrorizing the North East, to the Niger Delta Avengers in the South-South oil rich region, to the separatist movements and agitations from the IPOB in the South East and Oduduwa Nation in the South West region of Nigeria. The damage caused by insecurity to Africa's economy is humongous.

African Context

The globalization of insecurity is being heightened because of the eruption and corrosion of states boundaries that has speeded up the undue and unfortunate infiltration of foreign values and cultures that are anachronistic, alien and averse to the internal dynamics of African polity and aspiration as a sovereign and independent continent. According to the Oxfam Briefing Paper (2007), Africa suffers enormously from conflict and armed violence. As well as the human tragedy, armed conflict costs Africa around \$18 billion per year, seriously derailing development. This global threat has brought misgivings, mistrust and adulteration of Africa's cultural values systems, heritage and identity. To Adetula (2014), many African countries are either embroiled in conflict or have just emerged from it. There is scarcely any part of Africa without its share of major conflict, either ongoing or recently resolved. It is possible to identify conflicts of secession, of ethnic sub-nationalism, self-determination, military intervention, and over citizenship and land ownership. Again, Adetula (2014) opines that African conflicts and the resultant security challenges continue to be of utmost concern to the international community. The complexity of these inter-related processes cannot be easily denied.

It is now apparent that the creation of a global system, village or market brought a divided world. Globalization, instead uplifting the lives of Africans, further subjected Africa and Africans to unacceptable level of underdevelopment. Globalization is for the prepared economies and Africa was not readily prepared to face the new global economic challenge. Sadly, in most African states today, about thirty-eight per cent of the world's armed conflicts are being fought in Africa (UNDP, 2005), and in 2006, almost half of all high-intensity conflicts were in Africa (HIIK, 2006). There are still conflicts where the human toll is enormous and currently with little hope for swift settlement (like Darfur, Somalia), as well as a considerable number of protracted and lingering conflicts (like in Algeria, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)), and the tendency for conflicts to become regionalized (in Nigeria-the Oduduwa, Boko

Haram, IPOB and the Niger Delta agitators) or internationalized, involving other countries (for example, the conflict in Darfur has drawn in neighboring Chad and the Central African Republic) (according to Oxfam, 2007).

Furthermore, according to the latest terrorism Index, which is produced annually by analysts, VeriskMaplecroft, seven of the ten (10) highest risk countries are on the African continent. Amid the terrible human suffering and loss, the research provides useful information on the scale and direction of the attacks carried out. Five countries received the lowest possible score of 0.00 out of 10.00 in the index: Burkina Faso, Mali and Somalia in Africa, alongside Afghanistan and Syria. The rest of the top ten comprises, in descending order: Cameroon, Mozambique, Niger, DR Congo and Iraq. Nigeria is ranked in the 11th position. In addition to the seven African states ranked in the top 10, the research found that another nine witnessed “significant increases in the frequency and severity of attacks”. Over the course of 2020, four of the five countries to experience the biggest falls in their index rating were in Africa. Burundi saw the greatest deterioration, falling 37 places to become the 27th-riskiest nation worldwide. Côte d’Ivoire and Tanzania experienced similarly dramatic declines, falling to 30th and 32nd positions respectively (Ford, 2021).

Achumba, Ighomereho and Akpor-Oboro (2013) argue that the proximate factors that have contributed to the state of insecurity in Africa are porous borders, rural-urban drift, social irresponsibility of companies resulting in negative externalities which provoke social unrest within their host communities, unemployment and poverty, terrorism, among others, which globalization preaches. The value of the Human Development Index (HDI) drops, pushing the average conflict country from medium to low development (UNDP, 2006), and according to the World Economic Outlook (2007), GDP per capita is reduced by \$1120 (63 percent). Costs are not borne equally

across the population, and inequalities often rise, as many conflicts are fought along regional, social, religious or ethnic lines (Oxfam, 2007). The damage is horrific and inestimable and, therefore, it is in this wise that Mimiko (2010), in trying to buttress on the extent of the damage, insists that in Africa,

the social fabric was (has being) completely devastated and a new culture of violence (is being) was implanted. Traditional African systems of conflict resolution were destroyed and, in their places, nothing was given. The democratic process, rudimentary though it was, but with great potential as accompanies every human institution, was brutally uprooted and replaced by the authoritarianism of colonialism. A new crop of elites was created, nurtured, and weaned on the altar of violence and colonialism armed with the structures of the modern state to continue to carry out the art and act of subjugation of the mass of the people in the service of colonialism.

Colonialism, as an extension of globalization, summarily had over the years ensured and enshrined disunity, instead of uniting Africans and their leaders (Awake, 2002), because Africans were not aware, well-positioned and prepared for the new global challenges, importantly in the areas of solving transnational challenges, such as; global terrorism, fight against the transnational drug problem, the fight to reduce HIV and AIDS, and insecurity, none of which can be resolved singly (Bhandari, 2018). However, Portugal (2008), in corroborating the above views, states that no one country can overcome all the complex and interrelated challenges on its own. International cooperation and institutions are needed to help find internal or global solutions to interrelated global problems. Is Africa to be blamed? Who should be blamed? According to Rodney (1972), 'certainly the fault is not in Africans who have been adjudged and described as industrious people, whose effort, sweat, material resources and blood built the factories, cities, plantations, and large markets. But it lies in the African history, a history unique and peculiar for its unprecedented brutality and human exploitation which has bequeathed Africa and Africans with a

legacy of brutal history and continuously widening gap between the North and the South', due to foreign affiliations, trade treaties and other engagement with some international cooperations and their stringent conditionality (Onuoha,1999).

Unfortunately, the contact initiated cultural, language, currency and ideological differences that fuel crisis in Africa (Omifade et.al., 2013). As a result of these conflicts, post-colonial Africa is now under the hegemonic vestiges of the Western neo-colonial imperialist. The West further actualized this through the intensification of the information technology, trade liberalization and inflows of foreign aids to Africa which almost come with very excruciating stringent economic measures difficult to meet (Onuoha, 1999).

Therefore, African conflicts and the resultant security challenges continue to be of utmost concern to the international community. The complexity of these inter-related processes cannot be easily denied. It is interesting that scholars of African conflicts, particularly in the post-Cold War period, are moving away from the previous state-centric perspective. Also, the perspective that African conflicts are often related to the crisis of the African state is fast gaining prominence (Ohlson, 2012). To this end, therefore, the situation in Africa now is deplorable and unacceptable because development cannot thrive under a state of insecurity in any nation (Collier, 2007 and Omifade, et.la 2013). Onyegbula (2000) holds that the diminishing standard of living and the deteriorating social infrastructure, like roads, refineries, hospitals and the educational system have all contributed to a nation (continent) of desperate people.

In this wise, Mupedziswa (1992) agrees that Africa is and was faced with a severe economic decline as a result of the balance of trade deficits, and a hostile international economic environment. In fact, some African countries have, in the last decade or so, resorted to a number of economic recovery measures, including structural

adjustment programmes, but with mixed fortunes. However, at the launching of the Organization of African Unity (OAU) in the early 1960s, Africa pledged to become self-reliant. Unfortunately, the economic programmes initiated did not quite achieve the set targets. Consequently, other strategies had to be introduced later. One of these strategies came in the form of the Lagos Plan of Action which was launched in April, 1980 (Mupedziswa, 1992 and Bujra, 2002). Awojobi (2014) wonders why Africa is blessed with abundant natural resources; yet, the continent remains the poorest and most underdeveloped among the continents of the world; “African states ought to have changed for the better after many years of political independence.” For example, Nigeria has been facing development crisis for more than half a century (Omotoye, n.d). The recent security challenge in Nigeria is unbecoming of a country, and one that threatens the very survival of the giant of Africa.

Nigeria's history is filled with a series of highly corrupt public officials who have used their political connections to exploit the country's resources. If the generated revenue from crude oil and taxes is effectively used and channeled to the right place, Nigeria would not have any issues of sporadic power supply, bad infrastructural facilities, poor medical services, high level of insecurity, high rate of poverty, low level of job opportunities and the high rate of school dropouts, leading many people into illegal business (Awojobi, 2014 and Agbibo, 2010). The resurgence of militancy in the oil-rich Niger Delta region, especially the destructive activities of the Niger Delta Avengers, undoubtedly had inflicted untold levels of destruction on key oil sites and put a serious dent on production (Oluniyi, 2017). The influx of wealth also contributed to rampant corruption, making Nigeria one of the most corrupt governments in the world. The country's oil sector is regarded as one of the least transparent globally. In a 2010 survey of 44 National and International Energy Companies by the Revenue Watch Institution (RNI), the NNPC brought up the rear (Katsouris and Sayne, 2013 and Agbibo, 2010).

However, the recent transformation of the OAU to the more inward-looking African Union in 2000, in Sirte, was to help African states control the impact of globalization on Africa; or put clearly, the AU is Africa's response to the increasing intensification of globalization in Africa, with major changes in its Articles that empower AU to intervene in member country's affairs to prevent escalation of crisis. Succinctly put in the words of (Lehmann, 2008 and Bujra, 2002), the AU brought about some important political innovations, such as in the African Peer Review Mechanism, a mutually agreed instrument voluntarily acceded to by currently 29 AU member states, the Economic, Social and Cultural Council (ECOSOCC) through which civil society can at least interact with the organs of the AU, and a more plausible move from non-interference to non-indifference, as evidenced by the exclusion of military regimes from Cote d'Ivoire, Comoros and Guinea Bissau from African summits. With this transformation, Awojobi (2014) claims that the post-colonial era ushered in a period where African countries could now realign themselves in global politics. Basically, the re-emergence of African states from their colonial masters steered in a period where they would introduce their own economic growth and developmental models, moving forward.

The AU has adopted and instituted many reforms and institutions through an internal framework indigenous to them, in order to engage the global community diplomatically to control the global challenge and to create an enabling environment for African development introspectively through international cooperation with the rest of the world. Africa's diplomatic launch into the global space has attracted much concern from its foreign partners that currently, Africa is now seen as the economic destination of the world (Devemont, 2018).

Unfortunately, previous African programmes for economic development, such as the LPA, NAI, MAP, Omega Plan and the new NEPAD, have no framework and indicators relating peace and security to development goals in Africa (Adetula, 2014). However, in

spite of the transformations and innovations in the AU and others geared towards re-engineering the scope of African foreign policy objectives to effectively respond to global pressure, the level of the socio-political cum economic instability in Africa is still embarrassing and at an alarming rate (Bujra, 2002 and Liadi, 2004). Truly, AU's formation was to bring Africa closer through economic integration for the development of the African continent. Regrettably, since its inception as an Africa's economic policy, political unity and economic integration in Africa is yet to be achieved (Foruntan, 1993; Gunning, 1995 and Meier, 1984).

In fact, many of Africa's foreign counterparts want to harness the region's political sway at the UN and secure their support in international rows. It is difficult to advance a UN Security Council (UNSC) resolution without the support of Africa's three non-permanent members (Lehmann, 2008). Hence, opening the diplomatic space entails loosening the impediments to their political participation (Kapur, 2003). For example, the Sub-Saharan Africa's foreign counterparts are forging closer partnerships with the region because they see new openings for trade and investment, as well as growing threats from terrorism, criminality, epidemics and irregular migration. Just like China, these countries believe that Africa is increasingly important to a wide range of economic, security and political goals (Devermont, 2018).

African Development Challenge

The following constitute the major challenges to Africa's economic emancipation and development: corruption, foreign aid, debt, policy inconsistency, financial mismanagement, poor leadership, nepotism, ethnicity, external influences as well as lack of good governance and others (Onuoha, 1999; Adedeji, 1987; OAU, 1987; Awojobi, 2014). These factors are the major constraints to Africa's development and as such all hands must be on deck to fight these monsters for Africa to move forward. These are the root causes of insecurity in Africa (Omifade, et al, 2013). Africa's democratic institutions must be

strengthened with strong institutions backed by enabling laws vital to the achievement of a sustainable development.

This is to ensure that Africa's economy is robust, efficient, goal-oriented, and the way for Africa to break off from the vestiges of colonialism and neo-colonialism and to have a more unified voice in global politics, especially in internal economic cooperation. The lack of a unified voice has been the cause of Africa's economic woes and political quagmire, since its emergence in the United Nations Organization (UNO), in spite of the presence of the AU (Bujra, 2002). Generally speaking, the issues of insecurity and corruption should, as a matter of urgency, be dealt with. Corruption in Africa has gone viral and endemic. It is a monster and cankerworm that have eaten deep into the fabrics of Africa's system. Greed is the root cause of insecurity and underdevelopment in Africa. Indeed, Africa cannot have a strong and united voice or foreign policy under the state of insecurity (Agbibo, 2010 and Lehmann, 2008). For instance, Agbibo (2010) notes that between 1960 and 1999, Nigerian officials had stolen more than \$440 billion. That is six times the Marshall Plan, the sum total needed to rebuild devastated Europe in the aftermath of the Second World War. The African Union has reported that corruption drains the African region of some \$140 billion a year, which is about 25% of the continent's official GDP (Ribadu, 2006). As national resources are stolen, whatever confidence that is left in the idea of just leadership ebbs away.

As a result of this, over the last two to three decades, many studies have been undertaken pertaining to corruption, both from an Afrocentric and Eurocentric perspective. African leaders, because of their unfortunate inkling to corruption, are not respected or taken seriously globally; since they lack trust, it is difficult for the West to have a strong relationship with them.

Conclusion

Insecurity of lives and properties are major threats to development in Africa. The conscious need for ideological re-orientation in Africa is overarching and a necessity. The NEPAD initiative provides a veritable diplomatic framework for African renaissance, provided African leaders are committed to the development of Africa. It encapsulates and encompasses the African burden and the way out through integration, trade treaties and international alliances under the United Nations Organization. African leaders must create strong institutions to fight corruption and bad governance. This is sine qua non to development in Africa. It will not be out of place to state that the ideological differences that engulfed Africa after independence are still rearing their ugly heads. Africa today is divided along cultural, ethnic and ideological blocs, thereby making all efforts at uniting Africa through AU and the Peer Review Mechanism difficult and inchoate. The desire to build infrastructure for speedy transformational development cannot be achieved and sustained because these differences and rise in political and economic instability/crisis that have grossly impeded Africa's internal dynamics, democracy and development. The African diplomatic space needs to be opened to be overarching. The need for Africa to restructure and re-engineer its foreign policy posture cannot be overemphasized but is overarching.

References

- Achumba, I. C., Ighomereho, O. S. & Akpor-Robaro, M. O. M. (2013). "Security challenges in Nigeria and the implications for business activities and sustainable development." *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development*, 4(2).
- Adedeji, A.(1977). Africa for Africans and their historic challenge, In, C.N. Durugo, The place of Africa in a globalizing World: The challenges and prospects. BA. Project. IMSU, Owerri Imo State, Nigeria.
- Adedeji, A.(1988). *African development: Adebayo Adedeji Alternative Strategies*. Ibadan: Spectrum Books.
- Adetula, V.O. (2014). African conflicts, development and regional organizations in the post-cold war international system. The annual Claude Ake Memorial Lecture Uppsala, Sweden.
- Agbiboa, E.D.(2010). The corruption-underdevelopment nexus in Africa" Which way Nigeria? *The Journal of Social, Political and Economic Studies*.
- Agubizu, L.O.C.(2002). From the OAU to the AU: The challenge of the African Unity and development in the 21th century, a Public Lecture Delivered at the Institute of International Affairs (NIIA) Lagos.
- Aja-Kpuru-Aja(2001). *Selected themes in international economic relations: Globalization and regionalization*. Enugu: Avana.
- Akindele, S. T. et al (2002). "Globalisation, its implications and consequences for Africa". In. http://globalization.icaap.org/content/v2.1/01_akindele_etal.html.
- Anyanwu, O. (2000). *Issues in African diplomacy*. Owerri. Tonyben.
- Aryeetey, E. & Oduro, A.D. (1996). Regional integration efforts in Africa: An overview, In, J.J. Teunissen(eds) Regionalism and the global economy: The case of Africa. FONDAD, The Hague.
- Awojobi,O.(2014).Corruption and underdevelopment in Africa: A discourse approach, <https://www.reaserchgate.net>

- Bhandari M.P. (2018). The role of international organization in Addressing the Climatic Change Issues and Creation of Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change(IPCC), *DV Agr Environ Sci.(2018): 1(1): 19-34.DOI:1030881/aaeoa00005.*
- Bujra,A.(2002). Africa: From the OAU to the African Union, a paper delivered at the African Centre for Research and Training in Social Development, Tripoli, Libya.
- Candesus, M (1995). "Closer Integration in Global Economy vital for Africa", In A, Majekodunmi and K.D.Adejunwo, Globalization and African political economy: The Nigerian experience. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2 (8).
- Chan, S.(2017). African diplomacy and the development of self-awareness
- Chulu,J.(2017). A historical reality of underdevelopment in Africa. A working paper,1
- Claude Ake (1987). How politics underdeveloped Africa. A paper presented at the International conference in Africa. Abuja. Nigeria.
- Devermont, J.(2017). The world is coming to Sub-Saharan Africa. Where is the United States? CSIS Briefs.
- Fine, J and S. Yeo(1994). Regional integration in Sub-Saharan Africa: Dead end or Fresh start, In, J.J.Teunissen(eds) Regionalism and the global economy: The case of Africa. FONDAD, The Hague.
- Ford, N.(2021). Africa now eye of global terrorism storm.
- Foruntan, F.(1993). "Regional Integration in Sub-Saharan Africa. Past experience and future prospects", In, J.de Melo and A. Panagariya(eds)New dimension in regional integration ,In, W.M .Lyakurwa Trade and investment integration in Sub-Saharan Africa, In , J.J.Teunissen(eds) Regionalism and the global economy: The case of Africa. FONDAD, The Hague.
- Gunning, J.(1995). Regional integration and strategies for trade policy in Sub-Saharan Africa, In J.J. Teunissen(eds) Regionalism and the global economy: The case of Africa. FONDAD, The Hague.

- IIK(2006). 'Conflict Barometer 2008. Heidelberg Institute for International Conflict Research at the department of political Science, University of Heidelberg.
- Ihonvbere, J.O (2004). "Nigeria in the New World Order: Implications and options for the 21st Century". In Bello-Imam, I.B and Obadan, M.I (eds). Democratic Governance and Development Management in Nigeria's Fourth Republic: 1999-2003, In, A, Majekodunmi and K.D.Adejunwo, Globalization and African political economy: The Nigerian experience. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2 (8).
- Intriligator, M.D (2003). "Globalization of the World Economy: Potential Benefits and Costs and A Net Assessment", In A, Majekodunmi and K.D.Adejunwo, Globalization and African political economy: The Nigerian experience. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2(8).
- Lehmann, V.(2008). The relationship between Africa and the UN: From disenchantment to a more effective cooperation. Conference report, Tarrytown, NY.
- Lehmann, V.(2008). The relationship between Africa and the UN: From disenchantment to a more effective cooperation. Conference report, Tarrytown, NY.
- Leonard, K.D. and Straus, S. (2003). Africa's stalled development: International causes and cure. Lynne Rienner.
- Liadi, O.F.(2014). Externalization of development policy and underdevelopment of Africa: A critique of the New Partnership for Africa's development (NEPAD) Ideology. *Fountain Journal of Management and Social Science* 3(1).
- Lyakurwa, W.M.(1995). Regional integration and trade liberalization in Sub-Saharan Africa: The case of SADC, In, J.J. Teunissen(eds) Regionalism and the global economy: The case of Africa. FONDAD, The Hague.

- Lyakurwa, W.M. (1996). Trade and investment integration in Sub-Saharan Africa, In, J.J. Teunissen (eds) *Regionalism and the global economy: The case of Africa*. FONDAD, The Hague.
- Meier, G.M. (1984). Leading issues in economic development, In, JChulu, *A historical reality of underdevelopment in Africa*. A working paper, 1
- Momah, S. (1994). *Global disorder and the new World order*. Ibadan: Vista.
- Mupedziswa, R. (1992). Africa at the cross roads: Major challenges for social work education and practice towards the year 2000. *Journal of Social development in Africa*, 7(2).
- Narula, S. (2003). "Globalization: India's Experience for the African Continent", In A. Majekodunmi and K.D. Adejunwo, *Globalization and African political economy: The Nigerian experience*. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 2(8).
- Nwolise, O. B. C. (2006). "National Security and Sustainable Democracy" Ojo, E. O. (ed.) *Challenges of Sustainable Democracy in Nigeria*. Nigeria: Ibadan: John Archer Publishers.
- OAU (1987). African common position on Africa's external debt crisis.
- Oben, B. (nd). *The African mind and globalization: Rethinking the causes of Africa's underdevelopment*. Unical. Nigeria.
- Ohlson, T. (2012). *From intra-state war to durable peace: Conflict and its resolution in Africa after the Cold War*. Dordrecht: Republic of Letters Publishing.
- Oluniyi, A.E. (2017). Nigeria's oil and gas production and Niger Delta militant: The need of oil resources to stop oil reliance for sustainable development. *Global Journal of Human Social Science: F Political Science*, 17(5).
- Omede, A. J. (2011). "Nigeria: Analyzing the Security Challenges of the Goodluck Jonathan Administration." *Canadian Social Science*, Vol. 7, No. 5, 2011, pp. 90-102.
- Omifade, C; Urim, Imhono, D and Urim, U.M. (2013). Addressing the security challenges in Nigeria: The imperatives of moral

values and virtue ethics. *Global Journal and human Social Science Political Science*, 13(2).

Omifade, C; Urim, Imhonopt, D and Urim, U.M.(2013). Addressing the security challenges in Nigeria: The imperatives of moral values and virtue ethics. *Global Journal and human Social Science Political Science*, 13(2).

Onyegbula, S. (2000). Democracy in Nigeria: A critical overview of the journey so far. *CDD News Quarterly Journal of the Center for Democracy and Development* 1 (2).

Oyeide, A.(1998). Cooperation South.

Rodney. (1972). How Europe Underdeveloped Africa. London: Bogle-L' Overtures Publications.

Thirlwall, A.P. (1994).Growth & Development: With special reference to developing economies, In, J.Chulu, A historical reality of underdevelopment in Africa. A working paper,1

Uhomoibhi, I.M.(2014). Africa in global affaires: Impacts, challenges and prospects, Accessed on 20 June, 2021 <https://www.Africapolicyreview.com/Africa-in-global-affaires-impacts-challenges-and-prospects>.

UNDP(2005).Human Development Report.