OSSREA BULLETIN

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ORGANISATION FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH IN EASTERN AND SOUTHERN AFRICA

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Message from the Executive Secretary

All roads will be leading to Cape Town, South Africa on the occasion of the OSSREA's Ninth Congress to be held from 17-19 December 2007. The topic for this congress is: **Africa** in the 21st Century: Setting of New Agendas.

The conference is organized around the following themes:

- *Peace, Security and Post Conflict Reconstruction in Africa;*
- *Reforming Africa's Institution of Governance; Education, Training, Human Resources Development and Health Sector Reform;*
- *Competitiveness and Diversifying Africa's Production and Exports;*
- *Aid Dependence and Strengthening Partnerships;*
- *Information Communication Technology;*
- *HIV and AIDS, Gender and Development;*
- *South-South Cooperation; and*
- *Population Growth and Rapid Urbanization.*

As has become the OSSREA practice, the conference will create a platform through which various issues pertinent to the development of Africa will be probed. Participants representing various countries and institutions are taking part in the conference.

Since our last congress OSSREA has continued to support many scholars and researchers through its grant awards, research and training activities. Our chapters have now come of age and in line with our new thrust on publications of the outputs of the funded national workshops, several chapters have now produced commendable manuscripts. All in all, the organization's publications profile has been enhanced and some new books and manuscripts will be launched at the Congress.

At the administrative level, OSSREA has now developed and adopted financial and human resources manuals that have helped to streamline office efficiency. The organization also has a new agreement with the host country that accords it privileges and immunities similar to other organizations operating in Ethiopia. These are major milestones in the development and history of OSSREA which must be celebrated by all friends of OSSREA.

Our new training programme under the Gender Training Institute (GTI) has taken off and is now in its third year. We also had an opportunity to sign a new agreement with one of our donors that accorded us the opportunity to run a continental **Research Proposal Development training workshop**, in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia from 24-28 September 2007. Further details are provided below.

Under its project on Poverty Reduction Strategies in Sub-Saharan Africa designed to analyse the on-going poverty reduction strategy processes and provide guidance to policy makers and advocacy groups in selected countries, OSSREA organised an international conference on **Assessment of Poverty Reduction Strategies in Sub-Saharan Africa: The Cases of Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Uganda, and Zambia.** The

Conference, held from 28 February to 1st March, 2006 at the Grand Regency Hotel, Nairobi, Kenya was well covered in the local press.

The Conference was officially opened by Hon. David Ekwee Ethuro, MP and Assistant Minister, Ministry of Planning and National Development on behalf of Hon. Henry Obwocha, Minister of Planning and National Development, Republic of Kenya. Hon. Monique Nsanzabaganwa, Minister of State for Economic Planning, Republic of Rwanda also made opening remarks at the Conference.

More than 60 delegates attended the Conference from various countries of the region. The participants included, government officials, representatives of international and multilateral organisations, donors, parliamentarians, ambassadors, senior representatives of various universities, scholars, researchers and journalists. Eighteen researchers, three from each case study country, presented their respective papers at the Conference.

In a bid to further extend OSSREA's outreach to policy makers and regional institutions, OSSREA has collaborated with major regional and sub-regional organizations in a number of areas. In this regard, OSSREA and the African Union (AU) co-hosted a Consultative Meeting with Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) on the AU's Decision and Policy on Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development (PCRD) on 12-13 March 2007 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The meeting discussed the role of civil society organisations in the operationalisation of the AU's Banjul Decision adopting the African Union's PCRD policy. Participants included members of various departments within the AU Commission and civil society organisations from different parts of the continent. OSSREA and the AU also co-organized a follow-up conference and workshop entitled*: "***African Union/OSSREA Consultative Workshop on** Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development" which was held **at the COMESA Conference Centre** in Lusaka, Zambia from 17-19 July 2007. The conference was officially opened by the former President of Zambia, H.E. Dr. Kenneth Kaunda. Over 100 participants took part in the conference and included policy-makers, development practitioners and researchers representing the United Nations, African governments, regional economic communities and many civil society organizations concerned with post-conflict matters.

A training workshop entitled: **Research Capacity Building Training Workshop in Developing Peace Research Skills in Africa**, was held from 23-27 April in Addis Ababa. It was a collaborative venture with the United Nations University for Peace, UPEACE-Africa Programme. This joint venture underlined the contribution of OSSREA towards building research excellence in Africa and supporting the activities of the UN in research capacity-building generally, and in conflict and peace studies specifically.

The co-organizing partner, UPEACE, is based in Cost Rica, while its Africa Programme is located in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Yet another major achievement in the area of social science capacity building was the **Research Proposal Development Training Workshop** which was organized in collaboration with the West Africa Rural Foundation (WARF) and sponsored by the International Development Research Center (IDRC), Climate Change Adaptation in Africa Programme (CCAA). The workshop, which was held from 24-28 October, 2007 at the Ghion Hotel, Addis Ababa achieved several objectives, the main one being to help participants prepare bet-

ter written, coherent and methodologically sound research proposals that would satisfy the requirements of funding organizations. It was attended by participants drawn from 20 African countries. Of these participants, about 22 of them came from English speaking countries, while the remaining 18 participants were from the Francophone countries of the Western and Northern African sub-regions.

All these developments would have not have been possible without the support of our donors, OSSREA's fraternity, and our multiple stake-holders. Their support is cherished and we hope they will continue to support OSSREA's initiatives in the future.

Finally, OSSREA warmly welcomes all participants to its ninth congress and wishes you all a very nice stay in Cape Town.

Alfred G. Nhema

OSSREA's 9th Congress

THEME: AFRICA IN THE 21ST CENTURY: SETTING OF NEW AGENDAS

*T*he Organization for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA) will hold its 9th Congress in December 2007. The Congress will consist of three major activities: the scientific conference, the special panel and the OSSREA business meeting. The theme for OSSREA's 9th Congress is *Africa in the 21st Century: Setting of New Agendas.* This theme has been selected to be the focus of the Congress so as to enable African scholars, researchers and policymakers to explore the various approaches and methodologies to deal with the development challenges facing the African continent today. The scholarly debates on this theme will contribute towards highlighting the strategic directions that can help Africa to claim the 21st century as an African century for the continent's development and renaissance.

The prime objective of the scientific conference is to enhance the free exchange of views and ideas among African scholars, researchers, development partners, development practitioners and policymakers interacting in an open and collaborative setting. The aim of this meeting is to build adequate consensus regarding the major development challenges facing Africa in the 21st century in order to thereby set the key research agendas and strategic options that might best respond to the needs of both policymakers and the academic community to render the African renaissance more feasible.

In addition to the conference, there will be panel discussions intended to address the viability, merits, prospects and major challenges of the aspiration for establishing the United States of Africa. In this connection, five or six leading African scholars and pan-Africanists will be invited to present comprehensive papers pertinent to this theme and highlight the challenges and prospects for this crucial phase of the integration process.

Sub-themes of the Conference

The general conference theme, Africa in the 21st Century: Setting of New Agendas, has been subdivided into nine (9) sub-themes as follows:

- Improving Peace, Security and Post Conflict Reconstruction in Africa
- Reforming Africa's Institution of Governance (Good governance, institutional reform and democratization processes)
- Investing in Africa's People (Education, Training, Human Resources Development and Health Sector Reform)
- Increasing Competitiveness and Diversifying Africa's Production and Export (export diversification, attracting FDI, agriculture sector reform, ensuring food security, agricultural marketing, irrigation, rural electrification and infrastructure development, research in new biotechnologies etc.)
- Reducing Aid Dependence and Strengthening Partnerships (development assistance and debt reduction, Poverty Reduction Strategies and NEPAD)
- Investing in Information Communication Technology and Other Basic Infrastructure
- HIV and AIDS, Gender and Development
- South-South Cooperation: Opportunities, Challenges and Prospects
- Population Growth and Rapid Urbanization: The Social, Economic and Infrastructural Implications

The Stakeholders Workshop on Implementation of the African Union's Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development (PCRD) Policy

INTRODUCTION

The African Union Commission through the Conflict Management Division hosted a Stakeholders' Workshop on "Implementation of the AU's Post-Conflict Reconstruction and Development (PCRD) Policy on 17-19 July 2007 in Lusaka, Zambia. The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) and the Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA) supported the organisation of the workshop, which brought together more than 112 participants, drawn from the AU Commission and AU organs, African civil society organisations (CSOs), research institutions, representatives of AU Member States, the United Nations, the private sector and development partners.

The purpose of the workshop was to consult with critical stakeholders on the implementation of the AU PCRD policy and decision. The objectives were to: develop a programme for streamlining the contributions of actors involved in implementation of PCRD at continental, regional and national levels; develop a framework and mechanisms for co-operation and coordination; identify and prioritise core issues and areas of focus on which joint actions could be planned and implemented; and establish a follow-up mechanism to monitor implementation of workshop results.

In addition to providing a forum to explain the continental strategy for PCRD, the workshop also addressed the following critical issues:

a. The various challenges faced by countries emerging from conflict;

b. The role and mandate, of CSOs in reconstruction efforts on the continent thus far, as well as obstacles to CSO participation, at all levels of engagement;

c. The question of coordination and coherence among CSOs and other stakeholders;

d. The lessons learned, successes and best practices drawn from experiences at national, regional and continental levels;

e. Capacity building and retention for CSOs and other stakeholders; and

f. Mobilisation of resources for PCRD.

The opening session was addressed by Zambia's Special Representative to the Great Lakes Region, Ambassador Dr. Siteke Mwale; the Acting Secretary-General of COMESA, Mr. Sindiso Ngwenya; Zambian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Hon. Mundia Sikatana; and the first President of the Republic of Zambia, Dr. Kenneth David Kaunda. The opening remarks and keynote address provided a context for the meeting and set the tone for the workshop, by focusing on the linkages between peace, development and regional integration.

SUMMARY OF PROCEEDINGS

The workshop was organised around the following themes: The African Renaissance and PCRD Challenges and Prospects; Africa's Post-Conflict Reconstruction Strategies and Challenges; Applying the PCRD Policy in Post-Conflict Reconstruction Activities; Civil Society Organisations — Lessons from Practice; and Challenges of Implementation. Each theme involved a panel of presenters followed by plenary discussions.

Over the course of the three-day workshop, presentations and discussions emphasised the relevance of the underlying principles of the AU policy, which should inform all PCRD activities on the continent. These

are:

    a.   African leadership;

    b.   National and local ownership;

    c.   Inclusiveness, equity and non-discrimination;

    d.   Cooperation and coherence; and

    e.   Capacity building for sustainability.

SECOND AU CONSULTATIVE WORKSHOP
ON POST - CONFLICT RECONSTRUCTION DEVELOPMENT
POLICY
17 - 19TH JULY, 2007, LUSAKA, ZAMBIA.

The complete workshop report and proceedings will soon be published by OSSREA. Additional information on the Lusaka workshop and PCRD is available online at:

<http://www.africa-union.org/root/au/ Conferences/2007/july/PCRD/pcrd1.htm>.

OSSREA-IDRC and WARF Research Capacity Building Training Workshop

*T*he Organization for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA) and the West Africa Rural Foundation (WARF) jointly held a research capacity training workshop on 'Research Proposal Development' from 24-28 October 2007 at the Ghion Hotel, Addis Ababa. OSSREA was the lead institution in undertaking this project, while the West Africa Rural Foundation (WARF), which is based in Dakar, Senegal, was the collaborating organization in training the Francophone participants that took part in this capacity building training workshop. The training was sponsored by the International Development Research Centre, Climate Change Adaptation Africa Programme.

The general objective of this workshop is to train participants so that they would be able to develop fundable research proposals. Hence, this training workshop was aimed at providing a clear road map that researchers would follow in the process of writing a research proposal. The specific objectives of this training programme were /inter alia/:

- Helping participants produce better written, coherent and methodologically sound research proposals that would satisfy funding requirements and necessary criteria for full project implementation;

- Making participants aware of what funding organizations, screeners and programme officers look for in a research proposal, as well as how to make research proposals more appealing to a cross-disciplinary funding committees; and

- Enabling participants understand good and poor examples of research proposal writing.

Altogether, around 40 participants drawn from 20

African countries of which about 18 were from French speaking African countries took part in the workshop . The training workshop was officially opened by H.E Aberra Dheresa, State Minister, Minister of Agriculture and Rural Development. Dr Meshesha Shewarega, Senior Programme Officer (Research), OSSREA, who is the coordinator of the project and Dr Anthony O Nyong, Senior Programme Specialist, IDRC, Climate Change Adaptation in Africa (CCAA) made the welcoming remarks, while Dr Abebe Yeshanew of the National Meteorological Agency of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia gave a keynote speech on the efforts being unfolding in Ethiopia to deal with the effects of climate change and variability. As part of the experience sharing endeavours, the participants visited the environmental rehabilitation project sites operated by the Addis Ababa City Government Environment Protection Authority, the National Meteorological Agency's different departments and the Awash Melkasa Agricultural Research Centre. In a unique innovation, the programme participants all signed a 'learning contract' with OSSREA and WARF, where they have committed themselves to train their colleagues working in their respective institutions and to collaborate with OSSREA and WARF in monitoring and evaluating the effectiveness of the training and assess the preliminary indications of the programme.

Participants of Research Capacity Building Training

GRANT AWARDS

The Young Scholars Research Grant Programme

*U*nder this programme there are two research grant competitions: the Social Science Research Grant Competition and the Gender Issues Research Grant Competition. The following activities have been carried out in the respective competitions.

a) Publicity

In 2007, announcements for the Twenty-first Social Science and the Nineteenth Gender Issues Research Grant Award Competitions were made through brochures, posters, the OSSREA Bulletin and website to eligible individuals in Eastern and Southern Africa countries. OSSREA's Liaison Officers, and Executive Committee members were also instrumental in ensuring wider publicity for these competitions, and a total of 88 applications were received.

b) General Profile of Applicants

The competitions for the Twenty-first Social Science and the Nineteenth Gender Issues Research Grant Award Competitions were announced in February 2007 and the deadline for submitting proposals was 30th April 2007. Consequently, a total of 55 and 33 applications in the respective competitions were received.

The distribution of applicants for the 21st round competition in Social Science in countries across the region was as follows: Ethiopia (20), Kenya (5), Malawi (2), S. Africa (1), Sudan (2), Tanzania (5), Uganda (6), Zambia (1) and Zimbabwe (13). A detailed profile of the applicants is presented below.

Profile of Applicants for the Twenty-first Social Science Research Grant Competition

No		Gender				Education				Age				
		Male	Female	N/S	Total	BA/ BSc.	MA/ MPh	PhD	Total	<29	30-34	35-39	> 39	Total
1.	Ethiopia	17	3	-	20	-	19	1	20	8	6	3	3	20
2.	Kenya	5	-	-	5	-	5	-	5	1	2	2	-	5
3.	Malawi	2	-	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	-	2
4.	South Africa	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	1
5.	Sudan	2	-	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	-	2	-	2
6.	Tanzania	2	3	-	5	-	5	-	5	-	4	-	1	5
7.	Uganda	1	4	1	6	1	5	-	6	1	3	1	1	6
8.	Zambia	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	1
9.	Zimbabwe	10	3	-	13	-	13	-	13	4	6	3	-	13
	TOTAL	**40**	**14**	**1**	**55**	**1**	**53**	**1**	**55**	**14**	**24**	**11**	**6**	**55**

For the 19th Gender Issues Research Grant Competition a total of thirty-three applications were received, and the distribution was as follows: Ethiopia (15), Kenya (5), Tanzania (2), Uganda (5), and Zimbabwe (6). Below is a detailed profile of the applicants.

Profile of Applicants for the Nineteenth Gender Issues Research Grant Competition

No.	Nationality	Gender			Education				Age					
		Male	Female	Total	BA/ BSc.	MA/ MPh	PhD	Total	<29	30-34	35-39	> 39	N/S	Total
1.	Ethiopia	8	7	15	3	12	-	15	4	3	6	1	1	15
2.	Kenya	3	2	5	-	5	-	5	-	-	3	2	-	5
3.	Tanzania	1	1	2	-	2	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	2
4.	Uganda	-	5	5	3	2	-	5	3	-	-	2	-	5
5.	Zimbabwe	-	6	6	3	3	-	6	1	1	2	-	2	6
	TOTAL	**12**	**21**	**33**	**9**	**24**	**-**	**33**	**10**	**4**	**11**	**5**	**3**	**33**

N/S= Not Stated

C) Selection of Winners

In accordance with the schedule drawn by the Secretariat, the jury members for both grant competitions will meet on 5th November 2007 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia to screen the best research proposals.

Social Science and Gender Issues Research Grant Winners' Workshop

The workshop for the Eighteenth Social Science and Sixteenth Gender Issues Research Grant Competitions winners will be held in December 2007.

Senior Scholars, Sabbatical Research and Post-Doctoral Fellowship Grant Programmes

A total of 19 applications for the 2007 Senior Scholars Research Grant Programme, 36 applications for Post Doctoral Fellowship Grant, and 9 applications for the Sabbatical Research grant were received. All the applications have been sent to jury for screening. To finalise the selection of winners, jury member will meet on 5 November 2007 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The winners of the grant will attend the winners' workshop in December 2007.

Training Programmes

OSSREA's 2007 Social Science Research Methodology Training

*T*he 2007 OSSREA's Research Methodology Training Workshop took place from 8th – 19th October 2007 at Ethiopia Hotel in Addis Ababa. The workshop was officially opened by the OSSREA Executive Secretary, Dr. Alfred G. Nhema, on Monday, 8th October 2007.

In his keynote address, the Executive Secretary highlighted that the training on social science research methodologies was initiated to upgrade the research skills of young researchers. Based on feedback from the consecutive evaluations of proposals submitted to the Young Scholars Research Grant Competitions, OSSREA identified the timely need for upgrading the research methodologies skills of young scholars so as to build the teaching and research capacity of institutions in Eastern and Southern African countries.

The OSSREA Research Methodologies Training Institute has been organising annual training programmes on social science research methodologies since October 2000. To date, 312 young scholars, including the 2007 group of trainees, have attended the training.

A total of 25 successful applicants selected out of 145 applications from 14 OSSREA member countries took part in the intensive two-week training programme.

Participants of the Research Methodology Training

Training on Gender Mainstreaming

*T*he announcement for the 2007 training on gender mainstreaming has been prepared and dispatched. The announcement was also posted on OSSREA's website and news bulletin. The deadline for application was 31 August 2007. A total of 43 applications were received and the selecting committee has chosen 15 successful applicants to attend the training which is going to be held from 3-7 December 2007.

OSSREA Staff Complete Their Studies

*T*wo members of OSSREA staff have completed their studies and been awarded diplomas. The first to complete her studies was Ms. Selamawit Getachew. She graduated from the department of Socials Work, Addis Ababa university, on 1st September 2007. She got her Master's Degree in Social Works. Ms. Selamawit serves as Senior Secretary.

The second one to complete his studies was Mr. Enemanachew Yimamu, who graduated with distinction from the faculty of law, Addis Ababa University on 17th October 2007. He got his LLB degree in law after studying for nine years in the evening classes of the University. Mr. Enemanachew serves as Senior Programme Officer.

OSSREA congratulates them both upon the successful completion of their studies and wishes them a productive career.

FEATURE ARTICLES

Capacity Development Dimensions of Civil Service Reforms in Sub-Saharan Africa: Preliminary Reflections

Njunga-Michael Mulikita*

1. Background

Following the widespread disenchantment in the late 1990s with the Washington Consensus which advocated rolling back the frontiers of state intervention in socio-economic development and a more prominent role for the private sector in service provision, there is now a paradigm shift in favour of the Capable State in Africa. For a Capable State to emerge, it must be supported by a results-oriented civil service which can secure credibility and legitimacy among Africa's citizens. This article argues that whist Civil Service Reforms (CSRs) aim at enhancing the capacity of the civil service to provide public services to citizens, certain aspects of CSRs can in fact undermine the very capacities the Civil Service requires to enhance State delivery capability

Practically all but a few countries in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) have over the last decade and a half carried out far-reaching Civil Service Reforms (CSRs) in the context of wider economic reform programmes. The essential motivation for conceiving and implementing CSRs in SSA has been to improve inadequate implementation capacity of African Civil Services in translating government policies into visible and measurable impacts in human terms.

Implementation capacity largely depends on the quality of civil service management and institutions. The World Bank's criteria within its "Country Policy and Institutional Assessment" (CPIA) are: rule-based governance; quality of budgetary and financial management; efficiency of revenue mobilization; efficiency of public expenditures; and transparency, accountability and corruption. Others are: merit recruitment and promotion; professionalism in human resources management and development; and quality of service delivery[1].

The progressive erosion of the implementation capacities of the civil service in many African countries, *inter alia*, undermined the credibility and legitimacy of many governments on the continent and triggered waves of multiparty elections all over the continent in the early 1990s. These elections removed from power leaders and governments who, in several cases, had led their countries since the attainment of independence in the 1960s. In other tragic instances, the erosion of governmental credibility and legitimacy precipitated full-blown civil conflicts that severely devastated the already fragile human and institutional capacities.

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1. Ladipo Adamolekun, A framework for understanding governance reforms and economic Performance. Paper presented to the Third Annual Forum on Modernization of Public Service and Governance, CAFRAD, Tangiers, Morocco, 2007.

As the first decade of the 21st century draws to a close, the record of CSRs in terms of improved delivery of public services to the continent's diverse populations remains at best mixed. At worst, CSRs do not appear to have significantly enhanced the capacities of the civil service to satisfactorily deliver the necessary services- water and sanitation, roads, hospitals, clinics, schools, etc. - to the majority of Africa's inhabitants.[2] The failure of the Civil Service to satisfactorily deliver essential services to the general population not only erodes public trust in the civil service and civil servants but more seriously undermines the legitimacy of the state. Why has the range of well meant capacity enhancement elements embedded in CSRs not resulted in a more responsive and efficient Civil Service in Africa? This is the central question which this short think piece addresses.

2. Capacity Development: An Overview

Capacity is the ability of individuals, institutions and societies to perform functions, solve problems and set and achieve objectives in a sustainable manner. Capacity development (CD) is therefore the process through which abilities to do so are obtained, strengthened, adapted and maintained over time.[3] In the context of this understanding, institutional and administrative capacity can be defined as the set of attributes related to both structural/systemic attributes and human capital/resources that collectively define the organization's ability to perform its mandated

functions. Within the Civil Service, typical aspects of capacity are the quality of civil servants, organizational characteristics, the diffusion of ICTs among government ministries and departments, intergovernmental relations, and the type of interaction between the civil service and its social, economic and political environment.[4]

Capacity development is characterized by three main activities as shown in Box 1:

> **Box 1: Capacity Development[5]**
> - Skill upgrading, both general and job specific
> - Procedural improvements and innovations
> - Organizational strengthening

- *Skill upgrading* in the context of CSR includes equipping civil servants with general education, on-the-job training, and professional deepening in cross cutting skills such as accounting, policy analysis and information technology;

- *Procedural improvement* dimension refers to functional changes or system reforms, such as introduction of new budgeting or replacement of controls over state enterprises by hiving them from the mainstream civil service so that they become self-governing entities. Examples

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2. See CAFRAD, Report of the Third Annual Forum on Modernization of Public Service and Governance, Tangiers, Morocco, 2007, p. 9

3. Oliver S. Saasa, 'Enhancing Institutional and Human Capacity for Improved Public Sector Performance', Technical Paper, 7th Africa Governance Forum (AGFVII): Theme; Building the Capable State, New York, UNDP/RBA, 2007.

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4. Ibid.

5. Source: Mamadou Dia. 1996. Africa's management in the 1990s and beyond: Reconciling indigenous and transplanted institutions. World Bank, p.26.

that come to mind here are the practice of appointing permanent secretaries and other senior civil service Managers on fixed-term, performance-based contracts as opposed to permanent and pensionable terms or 'hiving off' of tax revenue collection functions from the mainstream civil service into quasi autonomous national revenue authorities or agencies.[6]

- *Organizational strengthening* covers what other experts define as institutional development; reinforcing the capacity of a government ministry or department to use available monetary and physical resources and staff more effectively. Under organizational strengthening, new vehicles, and information and communication technologies (ICTs), new office facilities, etc. may be acquired.

3. Capacity Development Interventions in the Context of CSRs: An Assessment

In general terms, CSRs are generally aimed at restructuring the civil service so that it displays the elements shown in Box 2:

Box 2: Model Civil Service [7]

- Merit-based and politically neutral
- Well structured, right sized and well-paid
- Accountable, professional and generally free of corruption
- Relatively autonomous, responsive and representative
- Well-trained, performance-oriented and relatively open

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6. Ibid.

7. Source: UNDP/MDGD, Civil Service Reform Paper; unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/UN/ UNPAN001183.pdf

A. *Constitutional Governance and Constitutionalism: Essential Political Framework for Sustainable Capacity Development*

A political context of democratic constitutional governance offers the most enabling environment for capacity development aimed at empowering the Civil Service to be the lead 'driver' of social and economic development in Africa (see Box 3) In this context, consensus-driven democratic constitutional order to which both the governors and the governed are loyal, enhances state legitimacy that is necessary for implementation of reforms. This point is very important for the simple reason that when there are serious electoral or constitutional disagreements in African countries, a debilitating conflict is the result all too often. Conflicts normally result in the wanton destruction of both human and institutional capacity to the detriment of national development. Valuable human capacity is either lost through senseless killings of professional technocrats or flight to developed countries in Europe or North America which, paradoxically, absorb the very same African capacities which the civil service in Africa desperately requires.

B. *Renewal of Human Resource Capacity in the Context of CSR*

The upgrading and renewal of human resources in order to develop a well-trained human resources corps of civil servants focused on attaining results as opposed to rule compliance is a major aim of CSR. Capacity development interventions for personnel in ministries and government departments concerned with economic policy management have focused on equipping personnel with much-valued skills in economic analysis and accounting, auditing etc. However, for such capacity enhancement to result in enhanced performance on the part of civil servants, there is the pressing need to motivate capacitated civil servants with better pay and working conditions. This point was made very clear at the Pan African Conference of Auditors- General held under CAFRAD's

auspices in April, 2007 when Auditors-General from both English and French speaking countries emphasized that human resource capacity development interventions aimed at strengthening audit operations would come to naught as trained audit staff 'migrate' to 'greener pastures' in the private sector in response to poor civil service compensation.[8] Rather than 'capacity development', we see 'capacity haemorrhage'.

Box 3: Constitutional Governance - for What?

From the human development perspective, constitutional governance is democratic governance. Democratic governance means that:

- People's human rights and fundamental freedoms are respected, allowing them to live in dignity;

- People have a say in decisions that affect their lives;

- People can hold decision-makers accountable;

- Inclusive and fair rules, institutions and practices govern social interactions;

- Women are equal partners with men in private and public spheres of life and decision-making;

- People are free from discrimination based on race, ethnicity, class, gender or any other attribute;

- The needs of future generations are reflected in current policies;

- Economic and social policies are responsive to peoples' needs and aspirations; and

- Economic and social policies aim at eradicating poverty and expanding the choices that all people have in their lives.

(Source: Adapted from *Adamolekun (2007), op.cit p.3*)

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8. CAFRAD. 2007. Report of the Pan-African Conference of Auditors-General. Tangiers, Morocco, 16-18 April, p.17.

C. Capacity Development for Organisational Strengthening

Evidence shows that when certain components of the civil service benefit from capacity enhancement support in the form of physical utilities, such as ITC equipment, vehicles, refurbished facilities, etc, whilst others do not, a multi-speed capacity development process which disrupts the cohesion and orderly management of the civil service is the net effect. In the ultimate analysis, civil service mangers may become obsessed with securing donor capacity enhancement support at the expense of fulfilling the overall strategic vision enunciated by CSR.

D. Need to Guard Against 'Capacity Development Orphans' in CSR

Whilst some departments and ministries, such as Office of the Secretary to the Cabinet, ministries of finance, treasury, Auditor-General, etc. may become 'enclaves of capacity excellence' enjoying excessive development capacity support, other ministries such as the passport office, Department of Immigration or the Ministry of Home Affairs, sub-national governments/provincial and local governments and the like may feel 'orphaned' without a 'rich' donor godfather to provide capacity development support. Resentment on the part of managers and civil servants in the 'orphaned' ministries and departments may lead these entities to sabotage CSR by refusal to provide vital statistical information to Cabinet Office, Ministry of Public Service or other appropriate offices in government tasked with coordinating implementation of CSR.

E. Effect of Preoccupation with Downsizing the Civil Service

Civil Service reforms implemented throughout Africa in the 1980s and 1990s did not lead to more capable and efficient public administrations because they were largely preoccupied with reducing the size of the public sector and thereby cutting the burden of personnel emoluments in the context of economic

stabilization programmes. In the context of downsizing the Civil Service, voluntary separation packages were implemented without adequately factoring capacity issues in the equation. Professional and technical personnel, such as auditors, accountants, agricultural extension experts and engineers, sensing that their skills could be absorbed by better-paying opportunities in the private sector, took 'early retirement' packages leaving the Civil service bereft of their highly-valued skills. Thus, whilst civil service bureaucracies became leaner and arguably more affordable for the Public Treasury, the civil service suffered 'capacity haemorrhage'.

F. Technical Assistance (TA) - Reinforcing Civil Service Capacity Deficits in Africa

External capacity development support to CSR has often come in through technical assistance (TA), which encompasses a range of activities that are designed to develop human resources through improvement in the level of skills, knowledge, technical know-how and productive aptitudes of the population in a developing country for the purpose of improving development outcomes. This form of assistance includes the provision of policy advice, the implementation of projects, and the building of the recipient's institutional and human resource capacities through training or on-the-job counterpart skills transfer.

While many governments in Africa recognise the many positive contributions that cooperating partners have made through TA, the lack of overall, consistent and coherent strategy in this area has inadvertently frustrated a number of capacity building efforts. In many cases, assistance to a country has included, and sometimes specifically tied to, foreign consultants/experts who are meant to transfer technical skills and knowledge through the supported projects. Quite often, however, permanent skills transfer does not happen due to a variety of factors that include the following:

- TA is often supply-driven, or imposed as a price for financial assistance rather than a response to local demands;

- Projects are over-designed, revealing, quite often, limited appreciation of the virtues of ensuring local input and adaptation; and

- The usually uncoordinated and sometimes duplicative flow of bilateral and multilateral sources of technical assistance has created monumental coordination problems among cooperating partners themselves and for the recipient country.

Moreover, TA does not come cheap, as UNDP revealed as far back as 1994 in its Report:

In practice, the record of technical assistance has often been unsatisfactory... Perhaps the most disturbing is that after 40 years, 90 percent of the $12 billion a year in technical assistance is still spent on foreign expertise - despite the fact that national experts are now available in many fields. Often, poorly planned and monitored technical co-operation programs rarely have clear criteria for assessing the existing technical capacity of recipient countries or for measuring and monitoring additional capacity building. Nor do they seem able to forecast how each country is expected to graduate from the need for technical assistance.[9]

Saasa (2007) warns that, 'very little has changed since then'. TA still continues to be tied to external assistance and, globally, there seems to be little effort to untie TA from external support 'packages'.[10]

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9. UNDP. 1994. Human development report 1994, Oxford University Press, New York, p.76.

10. Saasa, Op.cit.

Concluding Remarks

In the light of the discussion in this paper, the following are recommended as the most pressing institutional and human resource capacity enhancement aspects that should receive priority in implementation of CSRs:

- *The Political Context for Sustainable Capacity Development*

    Democratic constitutional order offers the most enabling environment for the realization of CSRs aimed at promoting social and economic development in Africa. In this context, consensus driven democratic constitutional order to which both the governors and the governed are loyal, enhances state legitimacy that is necessary for implementation of civil service reforms.

- *Civil Service Reform must come from within*

    Many African countries depend on external agencies for support in reforming the civil service. The change process must be locally owned, must be participative, and, above all, must be driven by the needs of the public.

- *Leadership and Commitment*

    Strong leadership and commitment to achieve reform is essential if change is to be sustained. This does not equate with centrally imposed solutions as leadership has to be provided in a sensitive way so that civil servants who might otherwise resist are themselves turned into engines for change.

- *Focus, Implementation, and Feedback*

    There must be a vision embedded in civil service reform of the society that people want to live in and of the civil service that is needed to achieve such a society. Fundamental questions about the role of the state need to be addressed to achieve this vision, following discussion with all political parties and representatives from the private sector, trade unions, NGOs and other community organisations.

- *Developing a Result- and Client-Oriented Culture*

    The civil service is still largely dominated by an administrative culture in which the centre lays down the rules and delegates very little authority to the periphery. Performance is assessed in this culture in relation to conformity rather than the successful accomplishment of tasks. Civil service culture needs to be changed into a purpose-led managerial culture where the achievement of results becomes the dominant ethic.

- *The Use of African Capacity*

    Institutional capacity strengthening effort has often relied heavily on inputs from consultants and resource persons from outside the African region. On the continent, however, there are a growing number of experts sensitive to local conditions and equally capable in the technical aspects of CSRs. The skills of African professionals must be used maximally.

- *Information Technology*

    The process of capacity enhancement depends on the availability of timely and accurate information. Thus, investment in information technology is essential. This is investment not just in hardware and software but also in the people who will manage and use the computer systems.

- *Creation of an Enabling Environment*

    As governments adopt a different role in relation to the direct provision of services and production of goods through divestment and privatisation programmes, they also need to examine their role in relation to private sector activity. Governments increasingly need to become facilitators of national dialogue and creators of a suitable environment for private sector activity and local and foreign investment.

- *Macroeconomic Stability*

    Sound macroeconomic policies, including a transparent and enabling domestic business environment and

an efficient financial sector based on the rule of law, are fundamental. This requires effective macroeconomic management capacity, including legislative and regulatory abilities and debt management skills in the civil service.[11]

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11. Saasa, Op.cit.

Economic Partnership Agreements in Southern Africa: SADC's Death Knell?

George C. Lwanda*

Introduction

The Abuja Treaty establishing the African Economic Community (AEC) charts the continent's path towards total continental integration. According to the treaty, the total integration of the continent will evolve through six distinct stages in a 34 year life span. It also specifically lays out the objectives of each stage and how long each stage will take.

To facilitate and ensure efficiency in the process of the evolution of the AEC, the African Union (AU) in April 2006 passed a resolution on the rationalisation and harmonisation of regional economic communities (RECs). This was later followed up in July of the same year by a decision to suspend the recognition of RECs. Eight RECs were consequently identified as the building blocks to the AEC. These are: the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), the Common Market for East and Southern Africa (COMESA), ECCAS, the Southern African Development Community (SADC), IGAD, AMU, CENSAD and the East African Community (EAC).

This article argues that the spirit and intent of the AEC as regards identifying SADC as one of the AEC's building block stands threatened by the current Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA) and negotiations. It contends is that in Southern Africa,

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SADC, as a regional integration institution has been undermined and disintegrated by the ongoing EPA negotiations. The short paper concludes, with reason, that SADC will in the medium to long term be 'swallowed by an expanded SACU region - hence making Southern African Customs Union (SACU) a *de facto* AEC building block.

Regional Integration in Southern Africa

Jakobeit, Hartzenberg and Charalambides (2005) contend that the Eastern and Southern African region is characterized by an overlap of membership among Regional Economic Communities (RECs) "to an extent unparalleled anywhere else in the world". In this region, four major RECs co-exist amidst an interesting and complex web of programme duplication and similarities in objectives. These RECs are the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), the East African Community (EAC) and the Southern African Customs Union (SACU). The Similarity in their regional integration objectives is illustrated in Table 1 below. The nobility of these objectives not withstanding, the mediocrity of the current situation must be seen in the context of overlapping membership.

	Free Trade Area	Customs Union	Common Market	Economic Union
SADC	by 2008	by 2010	by 2015	by 2016
SACU	1910	1910	Exists partially	Not elaborated
COMESA	2001	2001	Not elaborated	Not elaborated
EAC	2004	2005	Not elaborated	Not elaborated

Source: *Adopted from Gibb, R. 2006.*

Within Southern Africa, three RECs co-exist, namely SADC, SACU and COMESA. With the exception of Mozambique, all countries in the region are members of at least two RECs. UNECA (2006) identified COMESA and SADC as the two main RECs with considerable overlaps and duplicated goals. This has resulted in problems in the regional integration project. UNECA (2006) highlights that multiple memberships of RECs has been further complicated by the fact that some states which are members of both SADC and COMESA are also part of the COMESA FTA which is certainly different to the foreseen SADC FTA. However, this paper only takes a look at SADC and SACU to illustrate its contention that the ongoing EPA negotiations have served to strengthen COMESA whilst SADC has been split into two configurations. The reasoning is hence that COMESA, or at least the ESA configuration will remain a building block of the AEC whilst SADC will only be swallowed up by an expanded SACU region.

SADC and SACU

Unlike the SADC region, still struggling to establish a Free Trade Area, SACU is far ahead. As already stated, it is Africa's only functional Customs Union. Makochekanwa (2006) who closely examines the two blocs' respective trade objectives (Table 2) notes that the objectives of both blocs "converge in some areas, and also diverge in other areas"[1]. In the Table, he compares the two blocs' objectives by pairing them "to see whether there is convergence or divergence" (Ibid) and observes that objectives one to three exhibit relative convergence. Clearly both regions intend to promote free movement of goods within their region, increase investment and diversify and industrialize their economic regions.

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1. Makochekanwa A. 2006. SACU (Run-away) Trade Agenda: Challenges and Threats to the SADC Regional Integration Project. Research Report prepared for Trades and Development Centre Trust (TRADES CENTRE). Harare. Zimbabwe.

He however goes on to note that the two regions' objectives begin to differ when one looks at their respective objectives under 4. Though at first, one may consider the two objectives to be the same, a critical look reveals the fact that they are different. As he notes, on one hand, SADC is aiming for complimentarity between national and regional strategies and programmes which suggests that member states are free to make their own national policies. On the other hand, SACU explicitly obliges member states to take steps towards common policies and strategies. This, he notes, argues, can explain SACU's label as a successful customs union. The absence of obligation on the part of SADC member states to harmonise policies and strategies, he concludes, has meant that, "even without other external obstacles, the integration programme effort maybe partly diluted" (Ibid).

Concluding Remarks

Both SACU and SADC seem to exhibit somewhat similar objectives, with SACU's goals being more narrowed down and more tangible as opposed to SADC's broader integration agenda. SADC's ambitious regional integration plan includes establishing a Free Trade Area by 2008, a Customs Union by 2010, a common market by 2015 and Economic Union by 2016. Although a number of authoritative voices have expressed the unlikely possibility of this being attained, the current plan remains as it was.

SACU's plan beyond the current customs union remains unclear hence probably lending credence to the assertion amongst certain quarters of the abandonment of the SACU project in favour of the SADC agenda once a SADC customs union has been achieved. This is further supported by the fact that

Table 1. SADC and SACU Trade Objectives

Objective (Randomly numbered)	SADC Trade Protocol Objectives	SACU Objectives	Convergence /divergence of Objectives
1	To further liberalize intra-regional trade in goods and services on the basis of fair, mutually equitable and beneficial trade arrangements…	To facilitate the cross-border movement of goods between the territories of the member states	Convergence
2	To contribute towards the improvement of the climate for domestic, cross-border and foreign investment.	To substantially increase investment opportunities in the common customs area.	Convergence
3	To enhance the economic diversification and industrialization of the Region	To enhance economic development, diversification, industrialization and competitiveness of member states	Convergence
4	Achieve complimentarity between national and regional strategies and programmes	To facilitate the development of common policies and strategies	Divergence
5	To establish a Free Trade Area in the SADC Region	To promote the integration of Member States into the global economy through enhanced trade and investment	Divergence

Source: Adapted from Makochekanwa (2006).

SACU has not been identified by the AU as an African Economic Community (AEC) building block, theoretically crippling any ambitions of consolidation or expanding its customs union agenda in the region.

However this paper is of the opinion that SACU will inevitably end up as one of the building block REC of the AEC as opposed to SADC. The conviction is based on the postulation that current EPA negotiations and the existence of the SA-EU TDCA have served to undermine SADC as a regional integration institution.

Sandrey and Fundira (2007) note that the current EPA negotiations have left Southern Africa at a crossroads with two major outcomes possible: The first is the consolidation within SACU behind the SA-EU TDCA, and the second, though different, still involves SACU at the core.

Draper, *et al*. (2007) are cautiously resolute and contend that "Given SACU's impressive record of longevity, its relative importance to all member states, the fact that it already represents an effectively functioning regional trading arrangement, and that it includes South Africa (a point also looked at below), the region's economic powerhouse, it is probable that if a 'variable geometry' regional framework does emerge in Southern Africa, SACU will be at its core"

As such it can be argued that SADC has been greatly compromised by the EPA negotiations which have seen it disintegrating into two blocs; one negotiating under the ESA configuration with only the SACU four BLNS countries, South Africa, Mozambique, Angola and Tanzania remaining as part of the SADC configuration.

Interesting to note is the fact that the resultant composition of the SADC configuration has left the SACU member states plus Mozambique, Angola and Tanzania. With opinion almost converging on the contention that Tanzania concentrates its efforts on the East Africa Community, it is most likely that the resultant SADC configuration is going to comprise of SACU + Mozambique. With Mozambique already reportedly willing to join SACU, the SADC configuration might indeed just end up being a SACU configuration.

This view is supported by a number of other studies that have analysed and attempted to forecast the possible path that regional integration will take in Southern Africa in the wake of EPAs. Importantly, it must be noted that these analyses are basically speculative in nature and do not profess total accuracy.

With specific reference to the forecasted regional integration paths and options open to the region within the context of EPAs, a number of major analyses (including those listed under the Bibliography were consulted in this study.

Regrettably, none of these studies has been analysed at length in this study mainly for the preserve of brevity. With respect to these studies, however, it is interesting to note the fact that all of them predict, implicitly or otherwise, that EPAs will result in the re-enforcement of the integration of SACU economies- underscoring the naivety of assuming that SACU has no active role in the regional integration process.

Additionally and with regards to SADC the studies differ but essentially emphasise the inherent blurry and "either or" nature of attempting to predict SADC's future. For example Stevens and Kenan (2005) contend that whilst stress on regionalism due to EPAs negotiations cuts across all ACP regions, they exhibit a "special form" for SADC. This they attribute to "the pre-existence of the TDCA and of SACU". This certainly suggests some relative weakness of SADC to SACU as regards driving regional integration.

Tekere (2005) is more emphatic and downplays SADC's ability to drive the regional trade integration agenda, "Trade integration is more advanced in

SACU and COMESA", he comments, and concludes by stating that "the achievement of a SADC CU in 2010 as planned in the RISDP is not realistic and a non starter in the medium term".

There, hence, is no doubt that current analysis, at least the sources consulted in this study, underscores the necessity of SACU in the regional trade integration process. Additionally, SADC is seen, as far as trade is concerned, to be clearly behind SACU. This analogy is further reinforced by the fact that the SADC configuration of the EPA negotiations stands realistically threatened of being gobbled up into the SA-EU TDCA.

In this regard this study proposes that the future will lead to the gradual expansion of SACU with the eventual merging of SADC and SACU. Given that SACU is already a functioning CU, it would only be prudent to build up on SACU than to try and build an entirely new CU of which SACU states will be expected to be members of.

Hence the argument of whether the EC-SA TDCA will be retrofitted to take into account the BLNS countries or an alternative arrangement shall be reached is neither here nor there. Rather, it remains inevitable that SACU will be at the core of any EPA agreement with the region.

However, it is imperative to point out that the comparative strengths of SADC should not and can not be overlooked. Entrenched in solidarity and political unity dating back to the anti-apartheid years, SADC remains very relevant in the region.

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The Role of Higher Education in Regional Integration - The Case of East Africa

Richard Wambua*

Introduction

Economic integration is seen as a pathway to development and poverty reduction among the people in the East African region and elsewhere in the world. The process of integration poses major challenges, and higher education, in particular the university education system, has a crucial role to play in finding answers to some of these problems. This paper looks at initiatives that have been put in place to address this matter and offers suggestions for ways in which African universities can help foster deeper and more meaningful regional integration.

The East African Community

The East African Community is a regional bloc comprised of five states, namely, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Rwanda, and Burundi. The community has for a long time been associated with membership of the first mentioned three states. Rwanda and Burundi signed the treaty of accession to the Community in the mid 2007 (EAC 2007a). The East African Community has a combined population of 115 million people, comparable with that of Nigeria, Africa's most populous country. Additionally, East Africa's countries have a combined Gross National Income (GNI) of USD 42 billion. This may not be a very large figure as it compares with that of small emer-

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gent central European countries like Slovakia (World Bank 2007). The main reason for the setting up of the community was to raise global visibility so as to attract investment and help reduce poverty, which is rampant in the region. To this end, the member states have realized real progress in cooperation in areas like trade and investment, environmental and natural resource management, judicial, and security affairs (EAC 2007a).

While achievements in the above-mentioned areas are laudable, a need has been felt for greater cooperation through the formation of the East African Federation. This would be an arrangement that will provide for monetary and political union of the five states, planned to be fully implemented in 2015 when the president of the Federation would be installed. Thus a special committee was set up by the Summit of the Heads of State, which is the highest decision making organ of the Community, to look into ways of fast-tracking the implementation of this Federation (EAC 2007b).

Even before independence, the drive towards an East African state was strong. Regional cooperation commenced in 1926 when Governors of the three East African colonies of Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika introduced a coordination of their government departments especially in areas where common services were to be provided to the people in this region. (Southall 1974). This cooperation went a notch higher with the formation of the East African High Commission in 1948. At this time, East Africa had a common currency, a customs union as well as common service organizations particularly in transport, professional and academic areas. While independence in the three countries did not usher in the Federation, a treaty signed in 1967 brought about the East African Community. The realities of the socio-political climate in the world, as well as irreconcilable personal differences between rulers in the three

states led to the folding up of the Community in 1977.

After years of stagnation, the new world order that emerged in the late eighties and early nineties that advocated free market economies in a global village, brought about the revival of the East African dream of unity. Cooperation in the three states culminated in the signing of the current East African Community Treaty in 1999 (EAC 2007a).

To date, no major progress has been achieved in the dreams of one East African state, Tanzania, mainly because Tanzanians have voted against such an arrangement. Tanzania has enjoyed peace since independence, and as such there is a misguided feeling that the opening up of borders for free movements of goods and persons would lead to land-related conflicts. Such conflicts have brought about turmoil in the other member states of the community (Zakaria 2007). This feeling is indicative of the fact that a lot more needs to be done to realize such a noble vision. Strategies to promote integration in the East African region will not get far without input from the education sector.

Higher Education and Regional Integration

In view of the prevailing diversity of languages, cultures, religions and ideologies in East Africa, education can be the uniting factor in this region (Republic of Kenya 1999). A unique East African Higher Education System can produce a culturally, professionally and economically distinct East African citizen.

Prior to the collapse of the first Community, there were manifestations of cooperation among the East Africans in the education sector. An important instance was the cooperation in the setting up of the University of East Africa (UEA). This enabled the newly independent countries to pool together learning and teaching resources in world-class professional courses such as medicine, engineering and education (Ogot 2003).

The cream of secondary school leavers in this region passed through this university, and upon graduation, many went on to become leaders in their different fields of specialization. However, pressures of nationalism led to the splitting of the UEA in 1970, where in its constituent colleges went on to set up their own charters.

East African Collaboration in University Education

Currently, the East African concern is held by some private universities, such as, The University of Eastern Africa at Baraton and the Catholic University of Eastern Africa. Private universities in East Africa have a regional appeal, as opposed to public universities (Maritim 2007). A case in point is the Kampala International University which admits over 2,000 Kenyans annually to the extent that it has been baptized the 'Kenya International University' (Mutai 2007).

There are areas of academic cooperation among some universities in East Africa. Recently, the Open University of Tanzania (OUT), a success story of open and distance learning set up a partnership with Egerton University of Kenya (Egerton University 2007). Universities in Kenya appear to be weak in distance education, and this collaboration in the area has provided a window of opportunity for Kenyans in need of further studies to benefit from an established university providing such programmes within the region. The issue of collaboration between universities can be followed up further by the Inter University Council for East Africa (IUCEA).

The IUCEA was set up in 1999 to facilitate contact between universities in East Africa and to help maintain high and comparable standards among these universities (Chacha 2006). To date, this Council has very successfully coordinated joint scholarship schemes aided by donors like the Ford Foundation, organized intercollegiate games and chaired confer-

ences in common areas of concern, such as information and communication technology (ICT) integration in university teaching. It is yet to scale up its activities to the heights enjoyed by its predecessor, the Inter University Committee for East Africa, which was also a department of the collapsed Community Secretariat. This committee coordinated research and dissemination conferences in a wide range of disciplines, including medicine and engineering. (IUCEA 1973; EAMRC 1975). Regional and international experts participated in these activities that were intended to have a lasting impact on development of this region.

For universities to enroll their students from a regional pool there is need for common standards at the secondary school level. The need to coordinate East Africa's Ordinary Level examinations, which were previously administered by the Cambridge Syndicate of London, led to the setting up of the East African Examination Council in 1967. (EAEC 1969). This council, which had its headquarters in Kampala, Uganda, went on to develop a syllabus as well as its own examination in 1974. There were problems on agreeing on a common secondary syllabus in the regions, especially considering that Tanzania had mandated the use of Kiswahili as the language of instruction at the primary level of education. These problems led, first to the early withdrawal of Tanzania, then the collapse of the EAEC at about the same time as the breakdown of the Community in 1977 (Republic of Kenya 1976). With the revival of the community, there is need to bring up the important aspects of joint curricula and examinations in East African high schools to foster a sense of unity in the region. While the high school system in the region is expected to play a role in the transformation process, universities need also to develop a regional vision so as to be effective in this regard. Such a vision which is espoused by the Aga Khan university, is discussed briefly.

The East African Concern, the Case of the Aga Khan University

With the guiding philosophy of empowering the developing world through quality education, the Aga Khan University (AKU) has established a number of institutions in this region.

The Aga Khan Institute for Educational Development, Eastern Africa (AKU-IED,EA) is charged with the responsibility of contributing to the betterment of educational quality in East Africa through teaching, research, and policy analysis. (AKU 2005). Since starting operations in 2006, it has offered professional enrichment courses, mostly in educational leadership, for practicing teachers in the region (AKU 2007). The Institute seeks to achieve a high-level of impact multiplication, where its graduates become change agents upon returning to their workplaces.

The lack of infrastructure to support this vision has been a major challenge. To this end, His Highness the Aga Khan, who is also Chancellor of the Aga Khan University, provided USD 450 million over 15-year period for the construction of the regional university in Arusha (Staff 2007). The city of Arusha is the headquarters of the East African Community, which implies that the university is expected to play a visible role in capacity development to enable transformation of this region. Through such initiatives, it is hoped to achieve integration in a deeper and more meaningful sense in East Africa.

Conclusion

Regional integration at present is an essential component for economic and social development in this region in which the higher education system should play a more prominent role, and a number of steps need to be taken in that direction. There are pre-1977 structures that supported regional educational activities that should be revived and strengthened. These include devising common high school curricula and

examination, introducing regional admission policy in the public universities, and embarking on joint research, professional and scholarship programmes. Institutions of higher education should also develop an East African vision in their approach, rather than being confined to serving narrow nationalistic interests. Despite the provision of a fees schedules for East African citizens especially with respect to self-sponsored programmes, public universities in the region do not have significant regional representation in their enrollment. This, obviously, is an area for further research, reflection and action.

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Achieving a United States of Africa: Practical Vision or Utopian Ideal?

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Introduction

The end of the Cold War ushered in an era of antici-
pation and hope in Africa, a continent that still suf-
fers the adverse effects of slavery, colonialism, neo-
colonialism and cold war politics. The making of the
African Union (AU) was a corollary of the necessity
to redefine Africa in the framework of a global envi-
ronment that is principally directed towards achieve-
ment of security not only of member states and the
continent at large but also of individual citizens. It
was also an upshot of the need to determine African
economic independence, which was envisaged as part
of the last struggle against imperialism. In June 2007
African leaders met in Accra, Ghana, with a view to
establishing a union government that would bring
Africa together, at the end of which was observed
some back-pedalling on the issue. This article is an
expose of the multifarious challenges that have to
larger extent crippled the reality of united African. It
seeks to examine the causes of insecurity that seem to

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have emerged from a multiplicity of factors that cut
across all spheres of human interaction. In essence
the paper deals with the following questions: who
conducts global policy and who owns global strategic
resources? What is the place of Africa in the interna-
tional system at most for it to determine the course of
its development on its own terms?

The origins of the concept of establishing an African
government that has proved to be illusory thus far
can be traced far back to Kwame Nkrumah. The
'African failure' should not to be treated as if its
roots lay no more than a few years in the past rather
than spending decades or centuries. The history of
Africa presents images founded on slavery, colonial-
ism, and racism. A survey of Africa reveals that the
end of colonialism and its systems of oppression like
apartheid did not end problems bedevilling African
societies currently. Leadership failure, one-party
states or personal rule, coups and counter coups, re-
current drought, rampant corruption; and mismanage-
ment, ill-conceived or poorly-applied policies, skills
shortages, political risks, stringent regulations and
bureaucratic obstacles are some of the momentous
problems faced by the emerging states. Accordingly
the paper examines how these problems have hin-
dered the creation of a union government in the form
of the United States of Africa, and reflects on pros-
pects of realising this dream.

The Emergence of the Concept of United States of Africa

The concept of unity of Africa is rooted in the devel-
opment of pan Africanism and was well articulated
and chronicled by Kwame Nkrumah[1]. In the begin-
ning,

> Africans in the Diaspora led by the Trinidadian,
> Henry Sylvester Williams, played the leading
> role in promoting Pan Africanism. It was not un-
> til 1945 that Africans on the continent became
> leaders of the movement through the anti-

colonial struggle. This culminated in the 1945 Manchester conference, which affirmed the right to all colonial peoples to control their destiny and demand decolonisation. Between 1945 and 1960, territorial nationalism and pan Africanism were perceived by many in Africa as inextricably linked together. When Kwame Nkrumah stated that independence of Ghana was meaningless until it was linked with total liberation of Africa he was expressing the hope of many nationalist leaders who almost instinctively formed the pan Africanist movement. As African colonies became independent sovereign states in the early 1960s, strategies for continued unity were explored and debated by nationalist statesman[2].

Africa's founding fathers, beginning with Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana, were confronted with surmounting problems of taking Africa into the course of development against the backdrop of colonisation. Attempts at unifying Africa begun as early as in 1958 "when Ghana and the Republic of Guinea united to form a nucleus for the Union of African States"[3]. Efforts were undertaken to add on members in 1959, 1960 and 1961[4].

The initiative was mooted with the emergence of a rift between the Monrovia group (advocating for the gradual approach) and the Casablanca group (advocating for total integration) with formulation of a central government, and a decision was reached in favour of the former who were the majority. Hence, the establishment of a much more weaker institution, the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) which had to drive Africa throughout the years of decolonisation, the Cold War, to the end of the 20th century in 2000. The OAU was transformed into the African Union to deal with new challenges. The idea of creating the United States of Africa has been lingering in the minds of many, hence the need to meet and forge Union Government.

Assessing the Ideal of United States of Africa?

An attempt to establish a United States of Africa was envisaged at Accra Summit in Ghana June 2007. However, quick review of this vision exposes that it was totally against the very fundamental objectives and principles of the African Union (AU), which came into being recently in 2001. The objectives [of newly formed AU] are (a) to achieve greater unity and solidarity between African Countries and the peoples of Africa, (b) to defend the sovereignty, territorial integrity and independence of member states, and the principles (c) sovereign equality and interdependence among member states of the Union, and (d) respect of borders existing on achievement of independence.

Such recognition makes efforts for realising Union Government meaningless. The objectives of the African Union are themselves founded on the need of its initiators to maintain even stronger control of their own territories. A closer look at these objectives illustrates that they stand in contrast with the very principles of Nkrumah of a united Africa. They are engrained in the colonial legacy of divide and rule manifested in the division of African nationalities through physical boundaries and partitioning of African territories. It is difficult to comprehend how the objectives of the African union, especially the objectives under (b), (c) and (d) can be harmonised with the imperative for a union government.

Another reason cited has been lack of a common heritage in terms of religion, race, culture or language, but as Nkrumah argued, "all this is inevitable, due to our historical background. Yet in spite of this I am convinced that the forces making for unity far outweigh those that divide us".[5] This optimism seems rather weakened because of religious, cultural as well as language differences which create barriers to effective communication and comprehension of issues for prioritisation in enhancing not only economic and political development but also socio-cultural devel-

opment which are the basic ingredients for overall development. These shape our perception of who the enemy is and prepares productive opinion for concerted efforts to wrestle the enemy and fashion those familiar perceptions of the union government.

Differing levels of economic development within African countries have proved to be one obstacle to the aspirations for a United States of Africa. On one hand the Arab north, in particular Morocco, with its growing economies has been more than willing to identify itself with the European Union. The Libyan leader on the other hand has been pushing for the Union government thus inviting suspicion not only from his Arab counterparts but also from many in the rest of Africa. This perplexity has not been healthy for prospects of a United States of Africa. There has also been escalating levels of poverty, hunger, unmitigated human suffering and insecurity in Sub Saharan Africa. A hotchpotch of stagnant or sluggish economies, in most countries in the sub-region has by and larger thrown a spanner in the project for a United States of Africa.

Raging conflicts in the Horn of Africa and parts of Central Africa leaves one to wondering whether the concept of a United States of Africa is simply utopian or that these indeed are normal challenges that can actually be overcome. What appears emerging for Africa is that each country seems to be judging for itself, which view is more progressive and realistic without much external pressure and the job remains insurmountable. From the United States of America a lesson has to be learnt that it was civil war that finally brought all the states together.

There is the view that Africa's economy has the potential to grow because it has lots of resources at its disposal- both actual and potential. However, one sad reality emerges when the questions 'who controls global resources?' and 'who conducts global trade?' are asked. The place for Africa, in this regard thus remains far way behind and an attempt to control its

resources will be met by great resistance. In fact neo-colonial forces are far much more ahead, not only in Africa but also globally. On the African continent the exploitation of its resources have always been for the benefit of foreign companies since the early days of the colonial era, in postcolonial states in the forms of neo-colonialism and presently globalisation has tended to perpetuate the inequalities. The question remains: can African states together, united, fight the hidden agents of colonisation? If yes, by what means? In essence, "colonialism did not only exist in the past, it exists today. They want to dominate us. We waged liberation wars and they were forced to recognise us as independent states. And we must not fall into the trap".[6]

Nkrumah had tried to answer these questions back in 1963, but it appears that the practicability of his suggestions is far divorced from the realities on the ground today. Firstly, it has not been possible to have an overall economic planning on continental basis. Economic policies have been more influenced by an assortment of ideologies, and they do not originate in Africa or from sovereign African states, but from the outside world and beyond the control of African governments, from international financial institutions, developed countries, the G8 and World Trade Organisation. Various states and institutions that suffer from financial constraints have been manipulated or dictated. As Ghanaian journalist Baffour Ankomah puts it, "the idea of always looking to foreign partners to bail out an organisation supposed to fight for African independence is one of the contradictions that will stay with the African Union for a long time".[7]

Secondly, "establishment of a unified military and defence strategy" is one of the daunting tasks to be set in motion. The major impediment to this strategy can best be explained as lack of resources. First, most African countries, and the continent as a whole, lack the resources to embark on such a grand programme.

Considering that the countries are grappling with issues of poverty eradication, it would be very difficulty to imagine how such a project can be started let alone fulfilled. Second, generally African countries lack technological resources needed to fulfil the ambitious programme of forming a cohesive military and defence strategy. Furthermore, to large extent, the military hardware, technology, and information strategies are owned by and controlled by the North. In view of this, such a strategy would only be playing into the hands of big financial institutions and thus allowing the risk being controlled by the imperialist North.

A much more serous and multifarious problem will be devising a constitution to govern the African continent. Given the miscellany of values and problems in the continent, a catholic constitution would not only be "an old man's dream", but also a task that is easier said than done. The European Union, for instance, depicts though seemingly united people are seen to participate only in aspects that would give them advantages rather than losses. Many African countries have not been able to come up with democratic constitutions for their own countries and constitutionalism has been rare in most African states. In view of this reality, therefore, it would be expecting too much to think that the same leadership can be committed to a democratic constitution to administer Africa.

An attempt to model a United States of Africa along the lines of the United States of America would be rather erroneous from the points of view of history, culture and race. Firstly, the nature of the American states has predisposed them towards unity rather than division. Secondly, the economy thereof, while diversified, provided more advantages for unity than is the case with the African economies. Going the forceful way like the USSR will not lead anywhere as evidenced by its disintegration.

There is, instead, need to examine what keeps Africa divided, noting that the reasons underlying this division are composite. To start with, the West's relationship with Africa has to a larger extent been that of a horse and its rider. There has been a tendency by the West to treat their former African colonies as appendages of their own states, which has led to the asphyxiation of self-determination and independence of individual countries. In the end the decisions and policies that are made by African states are expected to be fully in tandem with the interests of the West.

Additionally the Africans themselves have been trapped far too long in identity politics, which has further divided them. Whether externally induced or self inflicted, such politics are detrimental to the achievement of a United States of Africa. Examples of African states or leaders who spoil and mobilise for conflicts by waving ethnic, racial and class trump cards against fellow countries or oppositions within same countries are numerous. What is even worse, there has, to a greater extent, been little or no consensus on the resolution of major issues affecting the continent.

Africa, in terms of division, of labour remains at the lower strata as compared with the rest of the world, in which Africans are merely producers and exporters of raw materials. Whether extraction of these raw materials is in the hands of the Africans or African governments is also a question to ponder; but what is clear is that western interlopers have been the major beneficiaries. According to Professor Dani Nabudere "the African peoples can be said to be the authors of African independence for this was struggled by them, yet African nationalist ideology and the African post colonial nation states were creations of the European global imperialist project".[8] the bottom line is that an African leader of Africa today is a breed of general masses whose grievances were combined by the "new African political elite which had emerged within the cultural, social and economic frame work of the colonial political economy",[9] they grew with

the colonial system of education or having been educated and trained in the west where, "the objective of access to education…was to enable the African individual to move to the level of 'modern industrial high culture' from the old 'low culture' of the village".[10]

It remains that, "all the evidence, both past and present, surely points in the other direction, that the design is to maintain the historical relations of industrialised countries and Africa being the supplier of primary products".[11] In today's world it is no longer Europe alone, as the spectrum of exploiter has enlarged and includes now USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Japan and even the newly emerging power houses of the East. This is done within the armpits of the western's much cherished globalisation. According to Dani Nabudere, "economic globalisation that is currently being pressed into countries under the guise of adjustment and stabilization programmes has been part and parcel of a western cultural project whose roots are to be found in the attempt to universalize the Christian religion against Islam, African religion and Asian belief systems".[12]

With the coming of independence, neo-colonialism took the centre stage, which Lenin described as "a form of financial and diplomatic dependence accompanied by political independence".[13] A good example were the French colonies which, at independence, remained "supplier of cheap raw materials and tropical food stuffs while continuing to serve as closed markets for French products"[14] Where neo-colonialism remained a fantasy, control of the territory has continued especially in settler colonies where settlers/colonialists had built economies for their benefit. This was done by sending the majority to the doldrums and perils of poverty. Those who challenged these supremacist ideologies courageously were dealt with vengeance through coups, counter coups and assassinations. At most, favour went to the moderates who as Nkrumah put it, "were

willing to leave the main areas of sovereignty to the colonial power in return for a promise of economic aid".[15] It is not surprising "that many of the leaders of the new African states find themselves in a perplexing position; there is no doubt that they are strongly dependent on the foreign contributions simply to maintain the machinery of government".[16]

Internationally, the consequences of global inequalities, proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and emergence of new interventionist policy doctrines have negatively affected the African continent. Current global trends in development reveal that insecurity concerns are prevalent in Africa more than in any other continent. Yash Tandon espoused of "another war…an invisible war that Africa is facing which relates to re-colonisation of African states through control of economies by the West".[17] This dangerous war is being waged against the people and their economies by the forces of globalisation. Strategic and economic interests of global superpowers speak highly of particularly the role of United States of America in contemporary political global discourse.[18] External manipulation and interference is at a highest level. Changing global regimes as characterised by era of slave trade, imperialism, world wars, decolonisation, bipolarity, and global interdependence have never presented Africa with any benefits but rather enabled the creation and reinforcement of institutions for the continued exploitation of the continent and its people.

Finally, the question is often raised: What is Africa? In a narrow sense - Africa can be defined by referring to territorial and geographical marks demarcating the land, include the island and water mass, and the people that live and survive on it. The Pan-Africanist perspective, is that the term includes the physical land, water mass, and all the people, whether they are blacks, whites, Arabs or of any other heritage. Thus, defining Africa in terms of black identity presents a misnomer and a political error that may generate con-

flicts. Africa is simply the continent as represented by today's map-makers- that essential triangle, bounded on its northern flat by the Mediterranean and the Red Seas, and on its two other sides by the Atlantic and Indian Oceans, together with its outlying islands and home to those who reside on it as well as those who make up the Diaspora.

4. Prospects for Union

The means for achieving a United States of Africa come with costs, and for that reason it calls for fortitude by those who have been entrusted with the power and authority to make policy. In this article we give some pragmatic alternatives for a way forward in the realisation of a United States of Africa.

To start with, there is an imperative for withdrawing from institutions which do not serve a purpose for a United Africa. Such formations as the Commonwealth, Francophone, Anglophone or Lusoophone Africa, etc. have worked to create a core-periphery relationship between Africa and the West and have only served to split African opinion on fundamental issues for her development. African states and peoples are henceforth called upon to advance gradually on the basis of honest solidarity and not unequal partnerships.

Secondly, the African Union and regional groups/organisations should at most provide the first platform in the movement towards a United States of Africa, which requires time to be consolidated, or the idea to be meaningfully supported by African leaders and peoples. As outlined in the Constitutional Act's objective (b) there is need to coordinate the promotion and defence of African common positions on issues of interest to the continent and its peoples - since such commonality of values and interest among leaders and African peoples will remain to be basic, and they need to "coordinate and harmonise policies between the existing and future regional economic policies''. As such, the regional economic communi-

ties can become the building blocs for the full integration of the whole continent in future. As yet, the process of forming the Union government has been top-down and not iterative. The proposals have not been debated at regional level, essential build consensus for a bigger and united Africa. The regional leaders should be mandated by their own people to work for the establishment of a united Africa.

Thirdly, the role of the African Union should not be limited to advocating human rights, rule of law and democracy within Africa alone, but ensure that its voice must be echoed globally, heard in multilateral institutions, and it should be seen to be fighting to transform theory into practice. The African Union should not simply copy pre-existing institutions but must begin to question some of the wrong images portrayed about Africa. It should advocate and ensure that calls for human rights, democracy, and rule of law are grounded in the fundamentals of fairness and justice. It is from that stand point that African interest should be drawn and the way for a union government be paved.

Similarly, self-interest of leaders has to be replaced by interests of the public and particularly of all Africans. According to Nyerere, most leaders, because the need to retain control over their territorial states, have not been willing to sacrifice their authority for the emergence of a United States of Africa. It is henceforth imperative on the African leadership to leave behind unconstructive egoism and embrace true statesman's flexibility and wisdom for the dawning of an era of true African unity.

Alongside with this, civil society must rise to defend African values rather than leaving the task to the government. Genuine development partners should be found so that Africa can move away from dependency, a relationship in which the proverbial piper always calls the tune. Lessons ought to be learnt that Pan Africanism was and has to be rooted in civil society and popular movement, and that "any strategy

for Africa's renewal needs to be grounded not in the elites but in ordinary citizens, based on basic human needs".[19]

Finally, dictatorial rule in Africa must come to an end. There is need for African states to align themselves with the global values of freedom, democracy, accountability, transparency and good governance. This provides the ground for fruitful discussion and consensus on building the grand project of a union government of Africa. Basically, African states should provide a good example of a world fit for all humanity, and efforts should be made to eradicate petty conflicts or use them positively for Africa's development.

5. Concluding Remarks

In the final analysis, it can be said that the problems for establishing United States of Africa cannot be viewed in isolation. Clearly, a myriad of challenges threaten to stall efforts for a Union Government for Africa. Such challenges, if not comprehensibly tackled, predict that any efforts for a United States of Africa will remain rhetoric and idealistic. It is, hence, our view that a union government in Africa is only achievable provided that the African Union and other regional groupings should set the tone and provide the building blocks through ensuring that an environment conducive to such an arrangement prevails within states and that leaders are mandated by masses at home to implement relevant policies. As such, while there are internal as well as external factors contributing to the looming failure, Africans alone retain the sanction and willpower and carry the burden to realise a Union Government for Africa.

End Notes

1. The concept was well articulated and chronicled by Kwame Nkrumah. 1993. *Africa must unite*. London, Panaf Books. pp.132-140.

2. The road to an African Union. www.finalcall.com

3. Kwame Nkrumah. 1963. *Africa must unite*. London, Panaf Books. p.141.

4. For more details consult *Africa must unite*. London, Panaf Books. pp.141-149.

5. Nkrumah, Op cit, p.132.

6. *New African*. March 2007, p.13.

7. Baffour Ankomah. 2007. From non interference to non indifference. *New African*, March 2007, p.13.

8. Dani Nabudere. 2000. *The African renaissance in the age of globalisation: New perspectives on African Unity and integration*. Paper prepared for the Sapes Annual Colloquium, Harare, p.11.

9. Ibid.

10. Ibid. p. 12.

11. Nkrumah. 1963. *Africa must unite*, p.160.

12. Dani Nabudere. 2000. *The African renaissance in the age of globalisation: New perspectives on African Unity and integration*. Paper prepared for the Sapes Annual Colloquium, Harare, p.4.

13. Lenin. *Imperialism, the highest stage of capitalism. In Nkrumah*. 1963. p.174.

14. Nkrumah, Op cit., p175.

15. Nkrumah, Op cit., p.180.

16. Nkrumah, Op cit., p184.

17. Yash Tandon. 1999. Globalisation and the Great Lakes regional crisi*s*. in Ibbo Mandaza (ed.) *Reflections on the crisis in the Democratic Republic of Congo*. Harare: Sapes Books, p. 9.

18. Ibbo Mandaza and Arne Todtensen. 1994. Southern Africa in search of common future: From conference to a community, SADC, Gaborone, 1994, p. 89.

19. Ian Taylor. 2003. The African Union: The challenge. *OSSREA Newsletter*, Vol XXI, No. 2, p.19.

LANDFILL SITE SELECTION IN GWERU: A GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SYSTEMS APPROACH

S. Jerie*

INTRODUCTION

The City of Gweru is currently battling to produce a sustainable solid waste management system. The current waste disposal options in Gweru are bedeviled by a number of environmental problems. Many groups, which include environmentalists, planners, consultants, Non- Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and other academics, have shown interest in the search for optimal waste disposal sites for the city. This paper attempts to illustrate how Geographical Information Systems (GIS) could be used by the Gweru City Council as a tool in identifying a suitable location for a landfill in the City. The framework used for the approach is the COLT methodology (Conceptual, Operational and Lastly Technical) level of analysis.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Gweru is Zimbabwe's third largest city and is located 275km south-east of Harare, the capital city, and 164 km northeast of Bulawayo, the second largest city (Fig.1). Just like any other city in Zimbabwe, it is experiencing a rapid growth of population which is not being matched by expansion of infrastructure and services, hence creating major waste management problems for the council. The land available for waste disposal has been shrinking rapidly in the City in the past decade (Eriksson and Nilsson 2000; Tevera 1991, 1993). In Gweru, one landfill is located near the high density suburb of Ascot, about 6km to the north-west of the city, and another one 2km north-west of the city centre, near the light industrial area and within reasonable distance of the generators. Of late there has been growing opposition from the residents of the city due to negative externalities emanating from the dump and these include offensive odours, dusts, rodents and flies. These environmental impacts are well documented in the literature (Bhatia 2003; EPA 2004; Practical Action 2006, Estes and Star 1990; Furedy 1989; Miller 1993; UNEP 1999; Tevera 1991; Tevera 1993; Eriksson and Nilsson 2000).

Each resident of Gweru generates 0.43 kg of waste per capita per day (Jerie 2001), a figure quite comparable to that of other cities such as Harare (0.53kg/capita/day) and Kano (0.4 kg/capita/day) (Cointreau 1982; Tevera 1991). Disposal of the generated waste has to be environmentally sound so as to counter opposition from the public, since up to 90% of all domestic waste in the world ends up in landfills (Gourlay 1992). Landfills form a vital final repository of any well designed municipal solid waste management system after all other options have been considered (Gourlay 1992; Department of Water Affairs and Forestry 1998; Johannessen 1999; Lunkapis 2002; MILGRUD 1995; Lane and Mac Donald 1993; UNEP 1999).

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Fig.1 The Location of Gweru in Zimbabwe
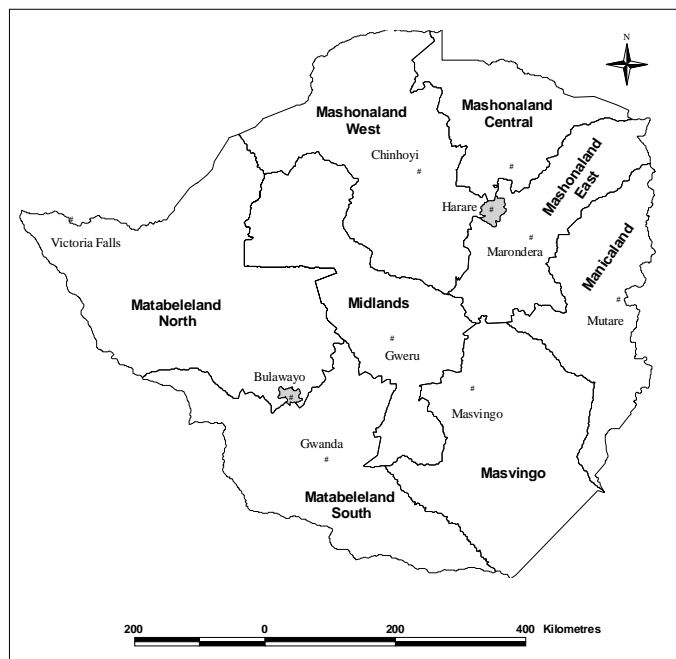
Specific Considerations

Capacity - Due to continued dwindling of open spaces as well as suburbanisation and industrialization, the dump size should be large enough to accommodate waste for a lengthy period. The waste disposal site should have an area of at least one hectare.

Soil – To prevent the seepage of leachate, and hence the probable contamination of groundwater, the site should be constructed on a thick layer of soil that is impermeable. A thick layer of clay-rich soils would be an ideal choice as clay is impermeable and easily compactable as well.

Topography – In order to prevent or minimize the rate of erosion, the site should be located on a relatively flat or gently sloping terrain. Ideally the terrain should be less than 20 degrees in slope. Such a terrain ensures that the site is easily accessible and

wastewater and leachate will not flow into surface water systems during the rainy season.

Geomorphology – The waste disposal site should not be built on areas characterised by active or dormant landslides. If a landslide occurs, the inevitable movement of a large body of waste may be detrimental to the environment or human life. It may also result in the contamination of soil, underground and surface water systems.

Hydrology (Drainage) – In order to remove the risk of any contamination to surface water systems, the site should be constructed at a sufficiently safe distance from a river, at least one kilometer.

Land use – The disposal site should be constructed only in areas that are of low economic and ecological value. The site should be situated in an area that ensures minimal disruptions to plant and animal life, ideally on bare/open grassland or shrubs.

Location – In order to minimize transportation costs, the waste disposal site needs to be easily accessible and located not too far from the central business district, residential and industrial areas, particularly from where most of the waste is generated, typically within 15 km from the city centre. Due to the attendant problems such as litter, flies, rodents, odours and air pollution from accidental fires, the site should also be constructed away from any built up areas or areas earmarked for expansion or construction of new sites. A distance of about one kilometer would be reasonable.

Proximity to Road network – Waste collection and disposal involves heavy trucks which can literally degrade laterite roads and cause the compaction of soil, thus the waste disposal site should be constructed not too far off a tarred road, typically within 500 metres.

OPERATIONAL PARAMETERS

Data

The following thematic maps are required in choosing the dumpsite:

i)   A slide map – this is a landslide map classified into three classes, namely stable landslides, dormant landslides and active landslides;

ii) A land use map – a digitized map showing the land uses in Gweru;

iii) A geology/soil series – a map showing the types and thickness of soils in Gweru;

iv) A slope map – a slope map of Gweru derived from a Digital Elevation Model;

v)   A Citydist map – a map showing the weighted distance from the city centre;

vi) A road-net map – a map showing the road network within the city and its environs; and

vii) A drainage map – showing the river network within the city and its environs.

THE IMPLEMENTATION OF GIS: THE TECHNICALITIES

The technical aspect is undertaken in a GIS such as a digital GIS which is used in suitability selection and analysis. GIS is a computer-based information system that enables capturing, modeling, manipulation, retrieval, analysis and representation of geographically referenced data (Burrough 1986; Lunkapis 2002; Mather 1994).

GIS offers a number of advantages over the analogue input. It is fast, efficient and accurate and can also search the whole land surface and explore for suitable sites. The GIS is also suitable for a mixture of physical, socio- economic and policy data. The eventual siting decision is considerably more justifiable than of the more ad hoc methods. Moreover, the GIS method applies an objective zone exclusion process based on a set of provided screening criteria and can also perform "what if-" analyses.

In the raster-based GIS, such as Integrated Land and Water Information Systems (ILWIS), each cell is assigned an output value of either 1 (suitable) or 0 (unsuitable) for all maps with a value domain. The computer sequence is as follows:

- Slide- From the slide map showing landslide areas, a new map, Suitslid consisting only of areas characterised by the class "stable" is created, i.e.:

Suitslid = iff (slide = stable, slide, "?")

The area shown by this map is the one considered in selecting a site

- Valuable land use – From the land use map, the area characterised by bare/ grassland and /or shrub is selected and the selected area is considered, i.e.:

Suit use = iff ((land use = bare/grassland) or (land use = shrubs), land use, "?")

- Distance from built-up area – From the land use map, a weighted distance map, Distbui, showing the distance from a built-up area is created. From this Distbuil map, all areas that are situated more than 1km further from a built-up area are selected to form the map Suitbuil for consideration i.e.: **Suitbuil = iff (Distbuil >1000m,1,0)**

- Distance from the city centre – From the weighted distance map, Citydist, showing the distance from the city centre, areas that are within 15km of the city centre are selected to form the suitable distance map, Suitdis, i.e.:

Suitdis = iff (Citydist < 15000m,1,0)

- Distance from road network – From the Road net map showing the city's road network, a weighted distance map, Roaddis, showing distance from the centre of each road is created i.e.: **Suitrod = iff (Roaddis < 500m, 1,0)**

These are then the suitable areas for the location

1) Geology/ Soil Series – From the soil series map all areas that have clay soils are selected i.e.: **Suit soil = iff (Soil series = clay, soil series, "?"**

2) Slope – All areas whose terrain is less than 20^0 are selected, i.e.: **Suitslop = iff (slope < 20^0,1,0)**

3) Drainage – From the drainage map, a weighted map, Draindis, showing the distance of all rivers is created, and from this Draindis map all areas that are further than 1km from the river banks are selected, i.e.: **Suitdrain = iff (draindis>1000m, 1,0)**

All the above eight thematic layers are then combined to give areas meeting all the stated criteria. These then represent the possible areas for the location of the dumpsite, that is:

Suit sites = Suitslid AND Suit use AND Suitbuil AND Suitdis AND Suitdis AND Suitrod AND Suit soil AND Suitslop AND Suitdrain

More than one suitable dumpsite may be located and a reclassification technique is employed to select the most suitable sites (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Steps in Landfill Site Selection
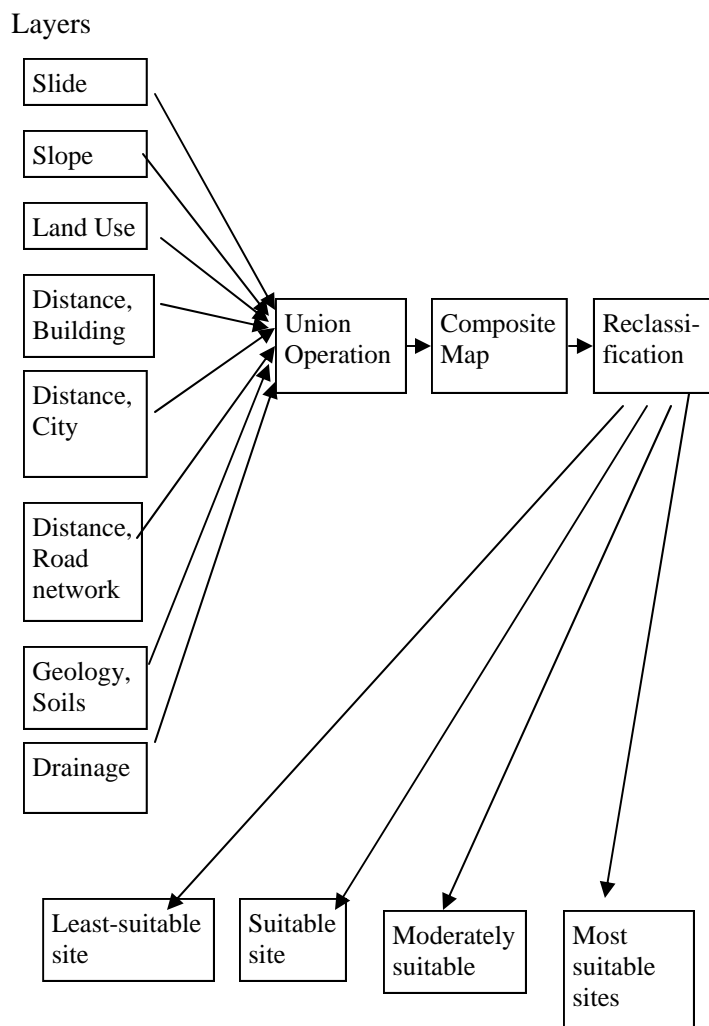
The suitable sites would be weighted as follows:

Slide	Weight	Suitability
Active	100	Least suitable
Dormant	200	Moderate
Stable	400	Most suitable
Landuse	**Weight**	**Suitability**
Bare/ Grassland/ shrub	400	Suitable
Built-up	100	Least suitable
Agricultural	100	Least suitable
Soil type	**Weight**	**Suitability**
Sand	100	Least suitable
Sandy- loam	100	Least suitable
Loam	300	Suitable
Clayey	400	Most suitable
Slope Inclination	**Weight**	**Suitability**
$<20^0$	400	Most suitable
$21-25^0$	300	Suitable
$26-30^0$	200	Unsuitable
$31-35^0$	200	Unsuitable
36^0+	100	Least suitable
Distance from City Centre	**Weight**	**Suitability**
<15km	400	Most suitable
$15-18$km	300	Suitable
$19-22$km	200	Unsuitable
$23-26$km	200	Unsuitable
$27-30$km	100	Least suitable

Distance from tarred road (Road network)

Distance	Weight	Suitability
<500m	400	Most suitable
$501-600$m	300	Suitable
$601-700$m	300	Suitable
$701-800$m	200	Unsuitable
801m +	100	Unsuitable

Distance from built up area

Distance	Weight	Suitability
>1km	400	Most suitable
$901-1000$m	300	Suitable
$801-900$m	200	Unsuitable
$701-800$m	200	Unsuitable

Drainage (Distance from a river)

>1km	400	Most suitable
$951-1000$m	300	Suitable
$901-950$m	100	Unsuitable
$850-900$m	100	Unsuitable

The output results from the above analysis are therefore maps showing least suitable sites, most suitable sites, moderately suitable sites and the most suitable sites.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Post Independence Land Reform in Zimbabwe: Controversies and Impact on the Economy, Edited by Medicine Masiiwa. Harare: Friedrich Stiftung, 2004. ISBN: 0-7974-2786-4

Reviewed by Constantine Munhande*

Although the book is a pioneering work in the field of land conflicts, it nevertheless represents a break from previous approaches. Instead of focusing only on one aspect of land reform, it covers several issues on land redistribution in Zimbabwe covering the period from 1980 to the 2000 Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP).

The book begins with an introduction that locates the origins of land reform in Zimbabwe. Rural poverty and environmental degradation, which came about as a result of the skewed nature of land ownership in favour of the minority white settlers, is rightly highlighted as the major reason for land reform.

Chapter One analyses the successes and failures of the first two phases of land reform in Zimbabwe. The authors, Medicine Masiiwa and Lovemore Chipungu, bemoan the effects of unplanned resettlement, programmes, particularly the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP). The section highlights the multifaceted objectives of the first phase of resettlement such as the provision of infrastructure and other economic services destroyed by the war of liberation. The authors argue that this phase was largely a failure due to the "willing buyer willing seller" clause enshrined in the Lancaster House constitution, cor-

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ruption and class interests which saw the bulk of the acquired farms going to party stalwarts and chiefs in government. The dynamics in policy approach are well documented and explained. The failure of the second phase of resettlement, epitomized by the reluctance of donors to fund the programme in the September 1998 Donors' Conference and the rejection of the constitutional Referendum in February 2000 are persuasively advanced.

In Chapter Two, Nelson Marongwe evaluates the socio-economic impact of FTLRP, and argues that the impact of the programme was largely negative, as all the eleven sectors of the economy that were assessed indicated a negative growth. The author posits that the major reason for this decline was the level of violence that accompanied the programme, which bred an environment of uncertainty on the farms, and which, in turn forced many white farmers to reduce production. On the other hand, the incoming new settlers possessed limited resources, experience and technical support to make any impact as to ameliorate the situation.

The third chapter explores one of the long-neglected sectors of the society in the labour history of the country, the farm workers. Godfrey Magaramombe, [the author of this chapter], acknowledges the resettlement programme as a key instrument for addressing rural poverty but criticises it for neglecting the farm worker community (p. 53). According to his argument, this stemmed mainly from the fact that government accused the farm workers for having voted for the " NO" vote in the 2000 constitutional referendum which it argued would have empowered it to take land without compensation. Although quite informative on how and why the farm workers were excluded from the resettlement programme, the author does not indicate completely how the farm worker community responded to this exclusion. They are just presented as hapless victims yet they responded in one way or the other. For instance, they

ganged up with their white employers to resist eviction.

In Chapter Four, Maxwell Mudhara analyses the impact of the FTLRP on large scale commercial (LSC) agriculture production. The author succeeds in his doing by comparing production levels in the LSC sector with that before and after the FTLRP. Prior to the programme, the LSC sector played a pivotal role in the economy, contributing 20% of the GDP. The sector was also responsible for the production of the bulk of the country's cash crops. However, after the inception of the programme production plummeted in the sector. A plethora of reasons have been advanced for this decline. Among these are: the fact that the new farmers who took over were largely inexperienced as the majority of them were never into farming, lack of machinery and equipment, disruption of irrigation facilities, and lack of finance. A way forward to revive the productivity of the agricultural sector is also proposed. Critical areas of concern noted in the chapter include sorting out the issue of land tenure so that the new farmers will have legal title to their land, which they can use to acquire credit, and the need to equip the new farmers with knowledge and technical know-how. Irrigation, machinery and equipment, as well as agricultural inputs, including finance, are also identified as other critical areas. The author wraps up the chapter by arguing that it was critical for the government to consider how the new farmers were going to cope in the context of their limited resources before embarking on the programme.

In Chapter Five Takawira Mubvami assesses the impact of the FTLRP on the biophysical environment. The chapter opens with a synopsis of the impact of the programme on land cover (vegetation), soils and water. It is argued that the programme had debilitating effects on water and wildlife resources. The programme caused the encroachment of agricultural activities onto wetlands in areas such as the Midlands and Manicaland provinces, resulting in the drying up of most of these wetlands. The author rightly observes a general decline in wildlife on resettled farms. Most animal species have been poached while most of the wildlife conservancy virtually disappeared by the end of 2002. To address these environmental challenges, the author pushes for the creation of a strong deterrent regime guaranteed by the effective enforcement of laws, also backed up by an effective monitoring scheme. The author concludes this chapter by once again lamenting lack of security of tenure as a major deterrent to any meaningful and sustainable conservation by individual farmers, thus recommending security so that farmers can pay attention to issues of environmental management.

Chapter Six, "Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP): Precursor to the FTLRP", explores the impact of ESAP on the small-scale farmers and the rural population at large. The small-scale farmers emerged in the immediate post-independence period as an attempt by government to decongest the communal areas. According to the author, Godfrey Kanyenze, some gains were recorded in this programme, which were heavily supported by government in terms of inputs, finance marketing and extension services. Kanyenze argues that with the adoption of ESAP, these gains were undone, throwing into poverty not only the small-scale farmers, but also the general population at large. Lines of credit to the sector, provision of extension as well as other services and the removal of subsidies greatly disadvantaged the small-scale farmers. The author concludes the chapter by rightly observing that the poverty, which came to characterize these farmers as well as the population as a result of ESAP, partly accounts for the radical redistribution of land under the FTLFP in the year 2000.

In Chapter Seven; "Law, Politics and the Land Reform process in Zimbabwe", Lovemore Madhuku explores one of the most critical areas in Zimbabwe's

land issue: the role of law in politics. The land issue is regarded as a matter of high politics and Madhuku poses a critical question: Does law follow politics, or is it the reverse? (p.124). Dating from right back to 1890 when the country was colonized up to the FTLRP era, the author argues that in all cases - colonial and post colonial - law played second fiddle to politics. As an instance he shows that during the colonial period laws that were passed to dispossess Africans of their land were unfair and unjust but prevailed because those who controlled the levers of political power desired so. In the immediate post-independence period (1980-1990) the British government, that authored the Lancaster House Constitution which governed the issue of land redistribution, was politically sympathetic to their kith and kin, hence the limited scope in the constitution to repossess land.

As the author maintains, after the expiry of the Lancaster House constitution restriction in1990, the government of Zimbabwe also used the law in exactly the same way as the colonial government to advance its political agenda, which was made clear especially in the period after 2000. In the context of violent and illegal seizures of white -owned land by land- hungry Zimbabweans, the law also played second fiddle to politics. In addition to refusing to act against the "invaders", the government went further to promulgate a number of laws, seen as greatly unfair and unjust by the white farmers and others, to enable the repossession of land from the former white colonial masters.

Abby Mgugu and Rindai Chimonyo's "Land Reform and Gender in Zimbabwe" in Chapter Eight underscores the need to mainstream gender in the land reform process. The authors criticise the lack of government sensitivity to the need to allocate land to women as individuals. They argue that right from the pre-colonial, to post colonial periods, women have been marginalized in terms of access to and in ownership of land in Zimbabwe. The authors are also critical of the policy framework governing women's land rights. They argue that the various policy frameworks on the land reform fall short of mainstreaming gender. For instance, they indicate, there is a glaring absence of the mention and use of terms like 'equity' and 'justice' as instruments that would be used to bring about social justice between men and women (p153). In order to achieve gender equity in land redistribution, the authors propose that there be both policy and legal reforms. They also recommend the amendment of various sections of the constitution that deal with land reform so that they explicitly state the need to consider women in the whole land reform process.

Chapter Nine deals with the HIV and AIDS situation, and assesses the mitigating programmes on Zimbabwean farms in the context of the FTLRP. The author, Philemon Kwaramba, makes a poignant observation that health and agriculture have traditionally received separate research policy attention in Zimbabwe. As such, this chapter is pioneering work in treating the two issues of health and agriculture together. The author persuasively argues that the HIV /AIDS epidemic poses serious threats and challenges to the resettlement farming systems in Zimbabwe; that the disease has wider and far-reaching consequences, which may culminate in increased food insecurity as a result of depleted agricultural labour force and death, patient attention, loss of remittances, agricultural knowledge and experience among others.

The author notes that, so far there has not been any corresponding HIV and AIDS management plan developed to mitigate the socio-economic impact of the disease among the newly located farm families. The author warns that the agrarian reform programme, particularly the A2 model, risks declining into subsistence farming if the situation is not seriously considered. To arrest a possible disaster, the author calls for a multi-sectoral approach to fight the disease. Unity

of purpose among all stakeholders, NGOs, various government departments, research institutions, the private sector, farm organisations, as well as farm workers is considered paramount to minimizing the impact of HIV and AIDS on the agrarian sector.

The final chapter of the book, "Land Movements and the Democratization process in Zimbabwe: Contradictions of Neo-Liberalism", underscores the need to recognize the importance of addressing the land question in terms of contemporary equity and historical justice. The author, Sam Moyo, argues that these are crucial parameters within which broader political reform and democratization questions must be addressed. He underscores the fact that the land occupations in Zimbabwe are located in the global quest for land, and also chronicles the FTLRP phase. He further suggests that social movements, including the land occupation movement, can provide some progressive moves in democratization and land reform. He notes that the negative feedbacks that emerge from such movements are mostly short-term against the long-term benefits of assuaging historical grievances and equitable distribution of productive resources.

The book ends with a conclusion and a way forward. The editor of the book, Medicine Masiiwa, argues that in redistributing land to the black majority to achieve political stability, the government was correct. However, he is quick to point out that the method that was used to transfer the land was not the best. Because of the violence that accompanied the last phase of transferring land, significant damage was caused to the economy. As a way forward to rebuilding the shattered economy and the agricultural sector in particular, Masiiwa identifies confidence building by government in its land reform and in the economy in general as the most crucial starting point. The need to strengthen and co-ordinate the institutions dealing with the land issues, consistency, transparency and sustainability are underscored as also crucial to the recovery process.

A Nose for Money. **Francis B. Nyamnjoh. Nairobi, Kenya: East African Educational Publishers Ltd. 2006. [ISBN: 9966-25-427-7; Price: Kshs: 350 US$: 5 Euros: 4**

Reviewed by Owen B. Sichone*

This is the story of the street savvy but (in school terms) poorly educated Prospere, a citizen of Mimboland (a sort of drunkard's haven) who manages through fate and drive and ambition (essential tools for the get-rich-or-die-trying entrepreneur) to change his life-station from beer delivery man to what Zambians would call a /prominent businessman/ with friends in high places.

There is, however, something unclean about the way Prospere becomes prosperous and the author has not spared anyone in his condemnation of the politics of the belly and penis. But maybe we should not hasten to denounce 'prosperity my any means' because it may in fact be the only way that capitalism works. Consider the following: what do we associate big name brands like Barclays Bank or Cathay Pacific with if not civilised and honest business practice? But British pirates, vandals, slavers and opium traders became the knighted owners of international banks and airline fleets, prime ministers and even archbishops - so should we really expect capitalism in Africa to be without corruption? Everyone "oils the lips" and "scratches the back" of people in high places in order to get at Nigerian oil, Zambian copper or Russian gas. Lest we forget, George Bush II has an awful lot of Texan tribesmen in his cabinet. It would seem therefore that our Prospere's fault is not his dishonesty, tribalism or selfishness but rather that he lacks the IQ to make the best productive and long term in-

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vestments that can launder the smell of corruption off his ill-gotten wealth.

Prospere is by no means a self-made man, but that is not the problem - not even Bill gates can make such a claim. The main difference between Mimboland (and by extension African) capitalists and their European, Chinese or Malaysian counterparts is that even after becoming "better customer" to all the corrupt state officials who hand out lucrative contracts to the best giver, he like Fanon noted a long time ago, apes (literally) the French and thus produces nothing for his country. It is not only the */sapeurs/* that think Paris is heaven and that silk is to be worshipped at the altar of elegance and ambiances. It is Mobutism après Mobutu and it has become too authentic for our health. Conspicuous consumption that is not backed by productive industry soon turns into a form of social and economic tuberculosis.

Corruption like Ayi Kwei Armah demonstrated, again, quite a long while ago now, eats up everything and the decadent economy that revolves around the thighs and buttocks of juicy Moniques and Charlottes has an element of self-destruction about it and will certainly not be able to compete against the rest of the world or even allow Mimboland citizens to 'expect power always' (with apologies to NEPA) when they press the electric switch on the wall, or clean water when they turn on the taps.

In the book Mimboland heads the list of the most corrupt countries in the world, and probably performs equally impressively on the infant mortality, illiteracy, malnutrition and low life expectancy charts. The business of Mimboland government appears to be inflicting anxiety, disease and dictatorship on its population while using vast amounts of money bribing opinion makers to prevent disgruntled elements from tarnishing the good name and image of the republic. I know a man from Ghana who likes visiting Zimbabwe – enough said.

A Nose for Money is heir to a long line of witty satires on social life, especially out of Cameroon, and although most of Nyamnjoh's predecessors wrote in French, there is a certain affinity with Mongo Beti and Ferdinand Oyono which marks this book as out of Cameroon and not Kenya (where it was published) or Nigeria. Nyamnjoh's book can be read at different levels and works perfectly for both young readers who may encounter it (as many of us first came across Chinua Achebe or Wole Soyinka) as a secondary school set book or for more advanced observers of life, death and madness in postcolonial African politics.

It is good that Africans can still laugh to keep from crying but it is also a worry that we have still not managed to come to grips with the Man of the People who has so far managed to monopolise political power in most countries. Is there always going to be one more bridge to cross? Indeed if you read this together with Ngugi's opus magnum */The Wizard of the Crow/*, you will not know whether to laugh or to cry. The question is, as the proverbial Tanzanian peasant once asked: when is this independence going to end?

PUBLICATIONS

Research Reports Submitted

Social Science Research Reports

Hussen Eshetu. *The role of non-formal basic education in preventing the spread of HIV to the rural population: Limitations and prospects in Amhara, Ethiopia.*

Kifle Zeleke. *Community response to HIV/AIDS related stigma and discrimination against PLWHA in some selected areas in Ethiopia.*

Richard Wafula Kisaka. *Assessing the relevance of indigenous knowledge systems for sustainable agriculture: A case study of Njoro division, Kenya.*

Sunungurai Dominica Chingarande. *An analysis of the impact of transe-boundary natural resources management on the livelihoods of border communities: The case of ZIMOZA Trans boundary natural resource management area.*

Saif El Din Daoud Abd El Rhman. *The effectiveness of social spending in Sudan: Pro-poor policies or pro-poor spending? Case study of Kassala state.*

Wangenge G. Ouma. *Income generation and the quality crisis in Kenya's public universities.*

Joy Owen. *South Africa. Africa's America: An oasis for African educational migrants?*

Claudious Chikozho. *Policy and institutional dimensions of innovations in Semi-Arid regions: The case of the Makanya-Chome catchments in the Pangani River Basin of Tanzania.*

Edward Mutandwa. *Can biotechnological innovations be considered as a vehicle for revitalizing African agriculture? Case of the Zimbabwean sweet potatoes.*

Carolyn M. Getao. *Flood management in the Kano plains, Kenya: Impacts, people's perception and coping mechanism.*

Euclides Goncalves. *Migrant labour and marriage strategies among youth in southern Mozambique: A study of Ukaba in the administrative post of Mocumbi.*

Jeminos Chipatiso. *The impact of HIV/AIDS stigma on corporate social responsibility: A case study of the mining sector in Zimbabwe.*

Mary Vienney Night & William Kasaija. *The nature and causes of conflict between politicians and public officers in decentralized districts in Uganda.*

Peter Kaumba Lolojih. *The role of civil society in building democracy: A critical assessment of Zambia's return to multiparty politics.*

Richard Wambua. *The making of an engineer: Background characteristics of female engineering students in Kenyan national Polytechnics .*

Satwinder Singh Rehal. *Mining-induced resettlement effects and impoverishment risks: as case study of titanium mineral sands project in Kwale, Kenya.*

Victor Kasulo & J. Luhanga. *Forest resource accounting for improved national income accounts of Malawi.*

Wilson Magaya. *Community based natural resources management: An analysis of community and private sector strategic partnerships as incentives for community participation.*

Gender Issues Research Reports

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Paul M. Nsimbila. *Violence in marriage in Tanzania: The Case of Shinyanga and Tabora regions.*

Flora O. Kasumba. *Child headed households in Tanzania: A case of Makete district.*

Mutasim Ahmed Abdelmawla Mohamed. *Gender gap in human development and its impact on economic growth: The case of Sudan (1990 - 2003).*

Andanje Mwisukha. *Towards gender equity in sports: Insights into the under-representation of women in sports leadership in Kenya.*

Basia Dennis Bless. *Gender analysis of urban living conditions of HIV/AIDS orphaned children in Lesotho.*

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Margart Njirambo Matinga. *Integrating gender in the Malawi energy policy and policy formulation.*

Rose Anne Njiru. *Sexual activities and implications for the reproductive health of adolescent street girls in Nairobi.*

Teferi Getahun. *Gender bias in education and its impacts on rural development in Ethiopia: The case of Awi.*

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Eastern Africa Social Science Research Review, **XXIII, no. 3 (September 2007)**

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Wassie Berhanu and David Colman. *Farming in the Borana rangelands of southern Ethiopia: The prospects for viable transition to agro-pastoralism*

Eastern Africa Social Science Research Review, **XXIII, no. 2 (June 2007)**

Articles

Antony W. Odek and James Alan Oloo. *Challenges facing community home based care programmes in Botswana.*

Joses Muburi Kirigja; Eyob Zere Asbu, William Greene and Ali Emrouznejad. *Technical efficienty, efficiency change, technical progress and productivity growth in the national health systems of continental African countries.*

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.Ndirangu M.; Mwangi J.K. and Changeiywo J. *Educational provision for the academically gifted: Rhetoric or reality? Case of primary schools in Nyandarua District, Kenya.*

Tesfaye Semela. *Identification of Factors contributing to gender disparity in an Ethiopian University.*

Getnet Alemu.. *Revisiting the entitlement approach to famine: Taking a closer look at the supply factor-A critical survey of a literature.*

Book Review

♦ **Books**

Paul Tiyambe Zeleza and Alfred G. Nhema (eds.). 2008. *The roots of African conflicts: The causes and costs.* ISBN 978-1-84701-300-2. £17.95.

Paul Tiyambe Zeleza and Alfred G. Nhema (eds.). 2008. *The resolution of African conflicts: The management of conflict resolution and post-conflict reconstruction.* ISBN 978-1-84701-302-6. £17.95.

The HIV/AIDS challenge in Africa: An impact and Response assessment: The case of Botswana. ISBN 978 9994455 02 7. US$10.00/Eth.Birr 70.00.

The HIV/AIDS challenge in Africa: An impact and Response assessment: The case of Zambia. ISBN 978 9994455 04 1. US$5.00/Eth.Birr 25.00.

Shibru Tedla and Fiona Flintan (eds.). *Gender and social issues in natural resource management research for development.* ISBN 978 9994455 19 5. US$9.00/Eth.Birr 65.00.

Proceedings of the International Conference on International Aid, Trade and Development in Africa: The Search for a Development Paradigm. ISBN 978 99944 55 00 4.

Proceedings of the International Conference on the Social Science and HIV/AIDS in Africa New Insight and Policy Perspectives. ISBN 978 99944 55 01 0.

Tesfaye Tafesse. 2007. *The migration, environment and conflict nexus in Ethiopia: A case study of Amhara migrant-settlers in East Wollega Zone.* xv + 173 pages, ISBN-978-1-904855-84-2 US$9.00/Eth. Br. 65.00.

Victor Muzvidziwa. 2005. *Women without borders: Informal cross-border trade among women in the Southern African Development Community Re-*

gion (SADC). xiii + 180 pages, ISBN-13: 978- 1-904855-61-3, US$10.00/Eth. Br.70.00.

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Muna M.M. Ahmed *et al.* (eds.). 2004. *Dryland husbandry in the Sudan - grassroots experience and development*. OSSREA, Addis Ababa, 2004. ISBN 1904855431. US$7.00/Eth. Br. 60.00.

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Nalugwa, Sarah. Indigenous approaches to the HIV/ AIDS scourge in Uganda. *Social Science Research Report Series* No. 30. ix + 57 pages. ISSN1608-6287. US$6.00/Eth. Br. 39.00.

Bewket, Woldeamlak. Land degradation and farmers' acceptance and adoption of conservation technologies in the Digil watershed, Northwestern Highlands of Ethiopia. *Social Science Research Report Series* No. 29. iiiv + 65 pages. ISSN1608-6287. US$5.00/Eth. Br. 35.00.

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Onsongo, Jane. Factors affecting women's participation in university management in Kenya. *Gender Issues Research Report Series* No. 22. ix + 65 pages. ISSN 1608-6295. US$5.00/Eth. Br.40.00.

Wawire, Violet K. Gender and the social and economic impact of drought on the residents of Turkana District in Kenya. *Gender Issues Research Report Series* No. 21. vii + 29 pages. ISSN 1608-6295. US$5.00/Eth. Br. 30.00.

Kilavuka, Janet Muyoma. A comparative study of the socio-economic implications of rural women, men, and mixed self-help groups: A case of Kakamega District. *Gender Issues Research Report Series* No. 20. vii + 57 pages. ISSN 1608-6295. US$5.00/Eth. Br. 36.00.

Development Research Report Series

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Ahmed, Abdel Ghaffar M.; Alemayehu Azeze; Mustafa Babiker and Diress Tsegaye. 2002. Post-drought recovery strategies among the pastoral households in the Horn of Africa: A review. *Development Research Report Series* No. 3. ix + 70 pages. US$12.00/Eth. Br. 49.00.

Forthcoming Publications :

- Alfred G. Nhema. (ed.). 2006. *Good governance and civil society participation in Africa.*

- The HIV/AIDS Challenge in Africa: An Impact and Response Assessment - The Case of Zimbabwe. ISBN 978 99944 55 03 4.

- The HIV/AIDS Challenge in Africa: An Impact and Response Assessment - The Case of South Africa. ISBN 978 99944 55 03 4.

CALL FOR ARTICLES, REVIEWS AND COMMENTARIES

Since the February 2003 issue of its Newsletter, OSSREA has been publishing short articles on topical issues concerning the transformation process in Africa. The African Union and NEPAD have been among such topics dealt with from various angles. Our aim is to provide members of the academic and research institutes with a lively forum for debate and reflection on matters of critical concern for the people of the continent.
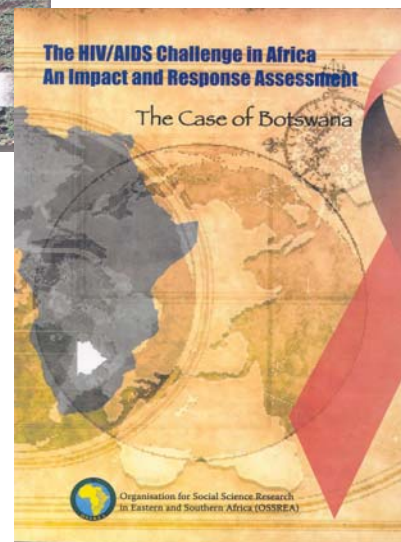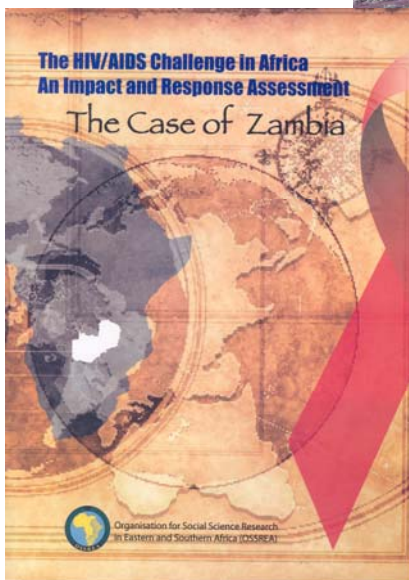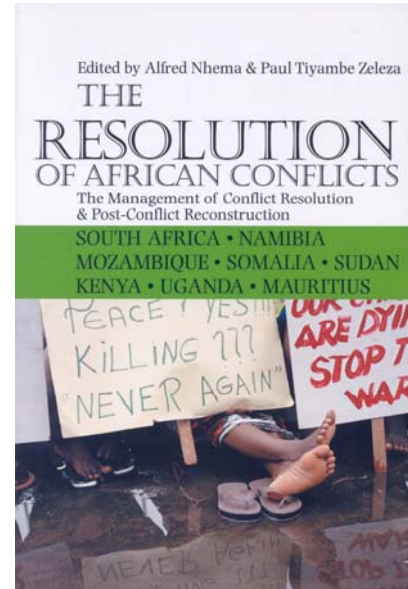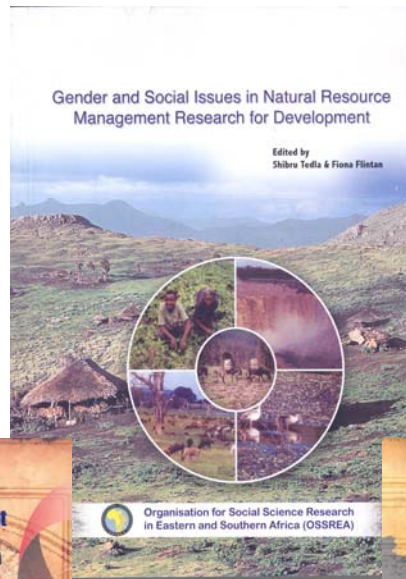
In the February 2008 issue of the OSSREA Bulletin, we plan to publish a few articles on issues of interest to the continent. Accordingly, OSSREA members and other interested scholars are invited to contribute articles.

Articles should be 6-8 pages in length, including a brief abstract. Authors are advised to include their full address and send their contributions by e-mail before **10 January 2008** to:
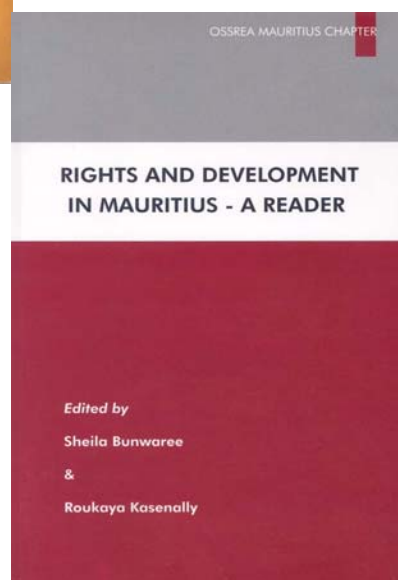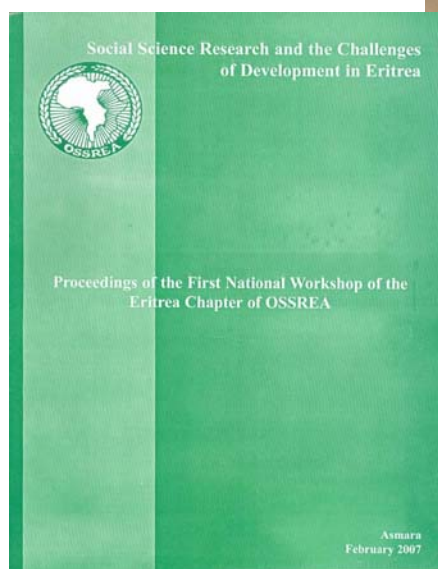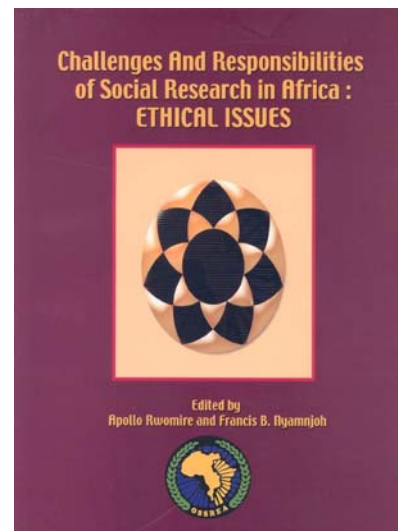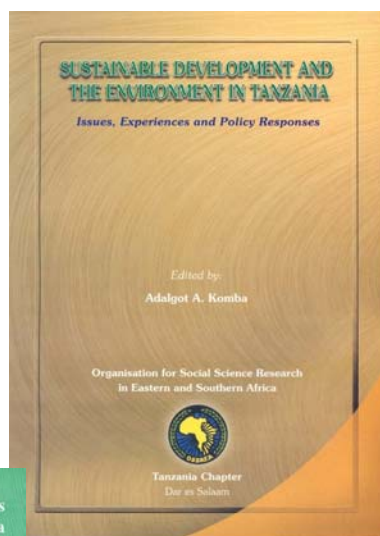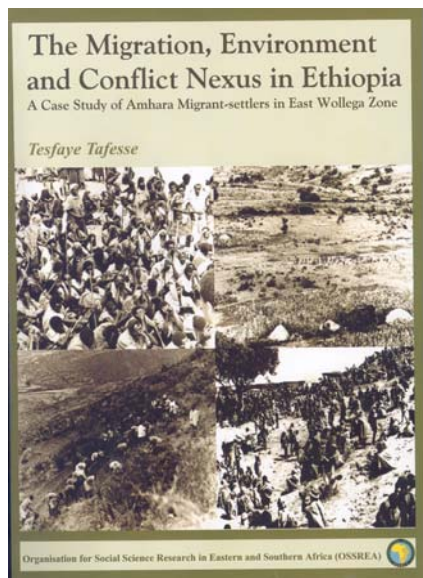
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LATEST PUBLICATIONS

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Tesfaye Tafesse

Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa (OSSREA)

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Tanzania Chapter
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Senior Scholars Research Grant Programme

2007

Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa

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Post-Doctoral Fellowship Grant Programme

Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa

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2007

The 19th OSSREA Gender Issues Research Grant Competition for Young Scholars

2007

Organisation for Social Science Research in Eastern and Southern Africa

The 21st OSSREA Social Science Research Grant Competition for Young Scholars

OSSREA'S TRAINING AND SPECIALISED PROGRAMMES
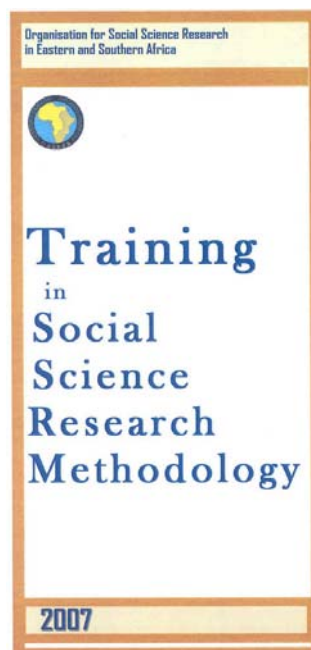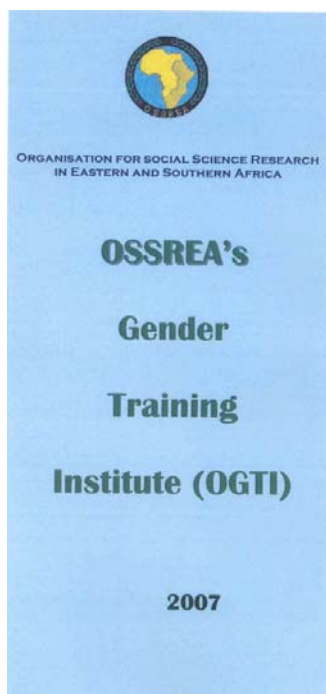
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OBITUARY

Mrs. Tigist Eshetu who served OSSREA for close to 10 years as an office assistant passed away on 14th October 2007. She had been receiving medical assistance both in Ethiopia and Europe for many months. She is survived by her husband and her one-year old son.

The death of Mrs. Tigist is a loss not only to her beloved family but also to her friends and colleagues. All OSSREA staff members express their deepest condolences. It is with great sorrow that we remember our colleague who perished at such a young age. May eternal peace be to her soul and condolences to her family.
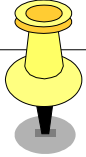
Calendar of Major OSSREA Forthcoming Events

October 2007	Training in Social Science Research Methodology
November 2007	Dissemination Workshop, Lusaka, Zambia
November 2007	Jury Meeting for Senior Scholars Research Grant Competition
November 2007	Sabbatical Research Grant Competition
November 2007	Post-Doctoral Fellowship Research Grant Competition
November 2007	21st Social Science and 19th Gender Issues Research Grant Competitions
December 2007	OSSREA 9th Congress