SOCIAL CANCERS AND HUMAN INSECURITY: AN ANATOMY OF SOME SELECTED AFRICAN COUNTRIES

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ABSTRACT

The image of Africa has been greatly dented by destructive conflicts. Destructive conflicts as witnessed in Nigeria, Somalia, Rwanda, Libya, Egypt, Tunisia and Cote d’Ivoire, among others, raise the question as to whether Africa as a continent has been destined to suffer calamities. Admittedly, most African countries, have implemented a number of standards and human rights codes including conventions against torture, inhuman and degrading treatments, with a view of improving the human security on the continent. Yet, human security remains low in most African countries. Data gathered through critical analysis of the literature revealed that political corruption, unemployment and marginalization (social cancers) have been principal causes of insecurity in these countries. The paper concludes that the path to sustainable human security in Africa involves effective management of political corruption, unemployment and marginalization on the African continent.

Keywords: Social Cancers, Management, Human Security.

INTRODUCTION

Africa as a continent has witnessed some level of facelift throughout the post-independence era. The formation of the Organization of Africa Unity in May 1963 (now Africa Union); the creation of Regional blocs such as the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS); the introduction of the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) and the institutionalization of various adjudicating bodies are all positive attempts made to foster unity among African countries, as well as creative approaches to improving the economic, political and social conditions on the continent.

According to Pobee (1991), Africa is too vast a continent and offers an infinite variety of human beings, diverse temperaments, and political, social and historical orientations. Yet, regardless of the continent’s heterogeneity, many African nations are largely perceived by authors such as Hazoume (1999) to have failed in the management of political corruption, marginalization and unemployment (social cancers), thereby robbing the continent of the desired human security.

Interestingly, most literature especially that on the political history of Africa, tends to blame the woes of the continent on the historical past, specifically on colonialism. The assertion is that the enemies of Africa development are fundamentally ‘without’ but not ‘within’. In as much as colonialism has its own negative effects on the overall development of Africa and cannot be forgotten (Bacho and Adbul-Kadir, 2007; Gyima-Boadi, 2010), the destiny of Africa is largely in the hands of Africans. China, India and Malaysia, for example, were equally colonized like most African countries, yet these countries are doing well
economically. Barash and Weber (2009) have pointed out that, roughly 70% of those who are profoundly impoverished and characterized as the ‘bottom billion’ live in sub-Saharan Africa. They however maintained that, explosive economic growth in Asia, although certainly not equally distributed throughout the populations of India and Thailand for example, has nonetheless largely outstripped Africa in terms of the availability of inexpensive labour. Gross political corruption, widespread unemployment, and marginalization are fundamentally the creation of Africans, notwithstanding the forces of colonialism, globalization and climate change.

Admittedly, political corruption, unemployment and marginalization are global phenomena. It is equally true that natural resources are unevenly distributed globally, yet, in comparative terms, many African countries could be perceived as amongst the most fortunate in terms of natural resource endowment. The continent is blessed with gold; diamonds; oil; timber; cocoa; arable land; rivers and able-men and women amongst other riches. President Bingu wa Mutharika of Malawi, the then AU Chairperson asserted that, ‘Africa is not a poor continent but that it is the people of Africa that are poor’. This, he said, was premised on the realization that Africa has huge and unexploited wealth consisting of natural and mineral resources, wildlife, fish, river basins, lakes and huge arable lands, as well as a large pool of labour which could be drawn upon for rapid economic development (Ngozo, 2010). Surprisingly, Africa remains largely poor and insecure (Rotberg, 2007).

The question is, ‘why does human security remain low in many African countries despite their plentiful resources? Is it as a result of corruption, unemployment and or marginalization? It could be suggested that these social cancers threaten human security through encouraging conflict.

It is true that the African continent cannot remain an island and needs foreign assistance (Smock and Crocker 1995). It is also equally true that Africans are largely in control of the continents’ future. In the view of Brainard, Chollet and Lafleur (2007), African leadership must come from within, but outsiders can help.

**CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

This paper argues that social cancers namely; political corruption, unemployment and marginalization can trigger potential conflict situation thereby undermining human security. Corruption represses governments’ ability to provide the needed jobs for the teeming unemployed especially the youth. Such economic situation can prevent people from getting access to sustainable income to meet their basic needs such as food, clothing, healthcare and shelter. In Africa, where many countries lack safety net for the unemployed, the situation can be frustrating and may induce aggressive behaviour such as deadly agitations. Political corruption, when translated into the denial of the needs of people, including access to political power has the potential to create disaffection among the marginalized people and may manifest in violent confrontation. Analysts have argued that the Darfur Region of Southern Sudan for instance has degenerated into a state of insecurity when the region felt being marginalized and then took arms against the Khartoum government. A ruthless response to such arms attack by the Khartoum government eventually culminated in mutual destruction.
It is premised that if social cancers are likely to lead to potential conflict situation, then their effective management may reduce the scale of conflicts thereby improving the human security condition on the African continent.

**Figure 1: Conceptual framework on human insecurity**

![Conceptual framework on human insecurity](image)

**Source**: Author’s Construct, 2012

**CONCEPTUAL EXPLANATION**

For the purpose of clarity, the key terms; social cancers (corruption, unemployment, and marginalization), management and human security have been critiqued.

**Social cancers**

Social cancers could be effectively understood by looking at the two key words ‘social’ and ‘cancers’. ‘Social’ according to Punch (2004) refers to people and their behaviour. Cancer on the other hand, is explained by Selmon (1994: 303), as a ‘deadly disease which grows invasively; that is, it sends out fine arms that break off and spread to distant parts of the body and start up new growths’. Pamplona-Roger (2008:357-359) has argued that cancer is possibly the most feared and fearful disease of all that affect humanity. He defines cancer as an uncontrolled proliferation of cells producing a malignant tumor. It invades surrounding tissues and may entail metastasis (other tumors of the same type appearing far from the original site). Roger maintains that the natural evolution of cancer leads to death.

Given the explanation above, social cancers could be conceptualized as all human-induced events that have the capacity to engender violence, destruction and other acts that may undermine human security if not confronted by deliberate societal actions. Political corruption, marginalization and unemployment in this article are conceived as forms of social cancers. Like natural disease cancers, corruption, marginalization and unemployment can be devastating to human security as they have the capacity to encourage potential conflicts if not intelligently and courageously confronted.
According to Gyima-Boadi (2002), the term ‘corruption’ is used as a shorthand reference for a large range of illicit or illegal action. Although there is no universal or comprehensive definition as to what constitutes corrupt behaviour, most definitions share a common emphasis upon the abuse of public power or position for personal advantage. Transparency International (2010) defined corruption as the abuse of entrusted power for private gain. It encompasses corrupt practices in both the private and public sectors. Corruption exists in developed and developing countries alike. However, the implications of corruptions are much severer in Africa. Lawal (2007) is of the opinion that corruption has ravaged the economies of many African countries. He indicated that corruption impedes development and minimizes the ability of governments to reduce poverty. Once it is entrenched, its negative effects multiply. It induces cynicism because people begin to regard it as the norm. Manipulating public resources for private gains can limit a nation’s ability to offer its citizens the desired employment opportunities. It could therefore be inferred that, there is a close linkage between corruption and unemployment. Even though the absence of corruption in a country may not necessarily result in the absence of unemployment, yet, effective utilization of a nation’s resources can benefit the masses through the provision of jobs, which is a key component of human security.

According to Okafor (2011), unemployment in simple terms describes the condition of people who are without jobs. Parkin, Melanie and Kent (1998) explain that a person is defined as unemployed if he or she does not have a job but is available for work, willing to work and has made some effort to find work within the period of four weeks. They argue that unemployment is a serious economic, social and personal problem as it leads to loss of production and income, and human capital. They attributed unemployment to high population growth, inadequate jobs and inflation. It could be said that unemployment is an economic condition where the available economically legally work force of a country outstrips the market demand, resulting in idleness of labour. Such condition could impoverish people due to lack of access to sustainable income. The frustration associated with unemployment especially among the teeming youth can engender violent protest as witnessed in Tunisia in 2011. It can therefore be inferred that there is a close connection between unemployment and insecurity even though unemployment is not the only trigger of violence.

Marginalization could be explained as a diminishing sense of importance about a person. It includes the denial of people of their right to decision-making and access to opportunities, including those relating to wealth, education, land ownership and employment. To marginalize is generally to make a group of people un-important and powerless. Marginalization has the tendency to create and galvanize ethnic consciousness, a recipe for chaos if poorly managed. Brock (2011) has pointed out that the hitherto common-place idea of maintaining security only through military force, known as the ‘control paradigm’, is ‘self-defeating’ in the long run. She indicated that a sustainable security approach posits global justice and equality as the key requirements of any effective plan for global security. In her view, deepening oppression and political exclusion among marginalized communities combine with existing poverty and discrimination to present an increasingly dynamic threat to national and international stability. As noted by Akhtar (cited in Brock, 2011:4), in Pakistan the most economically and socially depressed regions, which could therefore be characterized as marginalized, have witnessed a rise in extremism.
Management

Management is a contested term. However, Chandan (2010) argues that, management is an integral part of living and is essential wherever human effort is to be undertaking to achieve desired objectives. Management involves forecasting and planning, organization, command, coordination and control. It is a social process because it comprises series of actions that lead to the accomplishment of objectives (Marfo-Yiadom, 1998).

It could be deduced that management demands concerted efforts and well formulated plans and goals. Social cancers management aims at preventing and or minimizing the negative impacts of social cancers, which in the context of this paper include political corruption, unemployment and marginalization. Social cancers are largely predictable events that threaten to harm individuals and collective groups. It is worth noting that in all cancerous situations, how we act or react or both will determine the outcome of the events. Social cancers management is multi-faceted and demands the efforts of governments, Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs), Civil Society Organizations (CSOs), religious bodies, the media and external/foreign bodies/agents.

Human security

The term ‘human security’ pre-supposes the existence of other forms of security such as state or national security. Generally, security is perceived in terms of protection against danger or risk. According to Fischer and Green (1998), security implies a stable, relatively predictable environment in which the individual or group may pursue its ends without disruption or harm and without fear of disturbance or injury. Security in effect may connote freedom from criminal or military threat to persons, property and the environment.

The Commission on Human Security (CHS, 2003) defines human security as the protection of the ‘vital core of all human lives in ways that enhance human freedoms and fulfillment’. Human security concerns itself with empowerment - aiming at developing the capabilities of individuals and communities to make informed choices in defense of their own class and group interest as well as the protection of the people by shielding them from all manner of menace which affect their development. It focuses on good governance and access to education, healthcare and economic opportunities.

Boutros-Ghali (1994) indicated that the definition of security in today’s world is no longer limited to questions of land and weapons but now encompasses economic well-being, environmental sustainability and the protection of human rights. In Africa and elsewhere around the globe, there appears to be a paradigm shift, as the idea of security is increasingly conceptualised as relating not only to the state but equally to the individual. An earlier conceptualization of insecurity which focused primarily on military threat to sovereign states is now challenged by frequent insecurity emanating from socio-economic forces, notably; threats to sustainable income, food, health, recognition and dignity.

The UNDP 2005 Report (cited in Brown et al., 2007:2) indicated that the nature of war has changed fundamentally compared to the Cold War period, in that conflict is now much more strongly associated with poverty. It noted that from 1946-1989, just over one third of all conflicts occurred in low-income countries, but during the period 1990-2003, low-income developing countries constituted more than half of all the countries and territories experiencing violence. The Report stated that nearly 40 per cent of the world’s recent
conflicts, including several of the bloodiest and longest, occur in Africa, impacting severely on the continent’s development. The UN posits that the best way to tackle global insecurity is to ensure ‘freedom from want’ and ‘freedom from fear’ for all persons (UNDP, 1994). Human security is primarily concerned with people’s safety and development.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study was an exploratory one and sought to establish the factors that could most persuasively be held responsible for human insecurity on the African continent. The idea was not to enumerate all possible triggers of insecurity on the continent. Given the objective of the study, Rwanda, Nigeria, Cote d’Ivoire, Egypt and Tunisia were purposively sampled. The developments in these selected countries in terms of political upheavals and popular agitations since the 1990s were of much relevance to the study. As indicated by Michailof, Kostner and Devictor (2002), the past two decades have seen violent conflicts take an increasing toll on the hopes for Africa’s development. They asserted that almost half of all African countries, and over one in three African people, are affected directly or indirectly by conflicts.

Data sources were primarily secondary and gathered mainly through critical review of published textbooks, journal articles, magazines and daily newspapers on corruption, unemployment and marginalization as pertaining to the Africa continent. The technique adopted in analyzing data was basically descriptive. The analysis was informed by Burton’s (1987) Basic-Needs Theory which postulates that basic needs such as food, security and recognition among others are ontological and non-negotiable and that their frustration sparks conflictual relations.

**DISCUSSION AND FINDINGS**

(A). Political corruption and human insecurity

Political corruption is conceptualized as the use of a public office in a way that forsakes the public interest, measured in terms of mass opinion, elite opinion or both, in order that some form of personal advantage may be achieved at the expense of public interest (Gibson, cited in Aluko 2002:394).

In his book ‘African men of the Century’, Rensburg (1981) praised African leaders including Felix Houphouet Boigny of Cote d’Ivoire, Muhamma Gaddafi of Libya and Robert Mugabe of Zimbabwe among others for their contributions in salvaging the African continent from the bondage of colonialism and/or shaping the course of the African continent. Indeed, Rensburg could be spared of any erroneous assumptions that he might have made given the realities at the time in which the study was conducted. Admittedly, the independence of the African continent from the shackles of colonialism was undeniably a great achievement.

Regrettably, the acquisition of political power after independence became a sword in the hands of political leaders enabling them to oppress their own people, amassing wealth, entrenching themselves in power and giving them immunity against prosecution. All forms of pseudo-democracy operate on the continent, as manifested in Zimbabwe and Kenya. Many economies of Africa such as Somalia, Mali, Zimbabwe and Tunisia are largely troubled, bringing untold hardships to the people and resulting in deadly agitations.
Transparency International (2010) noted that, despite governments’ efforts in committing huge sums of money to tackle the world’s most pressing problems, from the instability of financial markets to climate change and poverty; corruption remains an obstacle to achieving much needed progress. Their study showed that out of the 178 countries considered globally, on a scale from 10 (very transparent) to 0 (highly corrupt), only three African countries, Botswana, Mauritius and Cape Verde, scored above the average of five (5), the midpoint of the scale with a score of 5.8, 5.4 and 5.1 respectively. All the remaining 50 African countries that took part in the study scored below 5 with Somalia considered the most corrupt country, occupying the bottom of the global ranking (178) with a score of 1.1. Of the focal countries in this study, Egypt ranked 98 with a score of 3.1; Nigeria ranked 134 with a score of 2.4; Rwanda ranked 66 with a score of 4.0; Cote d’Ivoire ranked 146 with a score of 2.2; while Tunisia ranked 59 with a score of 4.3. In comparative terms, it was revealed that out of the 53 countries that scored 5.0 and above from 6 geopolitical areas; 8 countries came from the Americas, 10 from Asia Pasic, 22 from European Union and Western Europe, 4 came from Middle East, 3 came from Africa, while Eastern Europe and Central Asia had zero (0). It could be seen that Africa in relative terms did better at least than Eastern Europe and Central Asian countries. However, such comparison can be misleading in that while 20 countries from Eastern Europe and Central Asia took part in the study, in Africa, as many as 53 countries were involved in the study. The study may suggest that corruption is relatively high among African countries.

Asante (2007) particularly linked the foundation of the Ivorian insecurity to corrupt practices of Houphouet Boigny, the first post-independence President who prevented the formation of political parties, stifled freedom of speech and superfluously spent state money by transforming his village Yamousoukro into a new capital and built the largest cathedral in the world there. He further argued that Houphouet Boigny’s predecessor, Konan Bedie nurtured the political turmoil by crushing all opposition, and besides emphasizing the concept of ‘Ivority’, shattering any real sense of unity in the nation. It is noted that Laurent Gbabgo failure to cede power after being defeated in the October 2010 election (Oved (2011) was another landmark violent confrontation which resulted in the death of many people and occasioned an exodus of people both within and across the country. These revelations show that, political corruption, if translated into muggy of dissent, could serve as a fertile ground for violent conflict which undermines human security. Ikejiaku (2009) stressed that even though there are a number of factors that can help explain the relationship between poverty, conflict and development as issues behind instability in most African countries, political corruption indisputably stands as the most persuasive and compelling explanation. Aluko (2002) expressed the Nigerian society is sometimes referred to as a permissive society, with the implication that something is wrong with sections of the society. His opinion was that political corruption was the worst problem facing Nigeria. Consequently, the country is characterized by social malaise as insecurity of life and property and armed robbery. It can be inferred that corruption can rob a nation of its wealth including its ability to provide decent jobs for its citizens.

According to a publication by the French Weekly, (1997) cited in Lawal (2007:4), the fortunes of some African heads of state purported to have been siphoned from the state coffers were given as follows:

- General Sani Abacha of Nigeria-$20 billion
- President H. Boigny of Cote d’Ivoire-$6 billion
- General Ibrahim Babangida of Nigeria-$5 billion
• President Henri K. Bedie of Cote d’Ivoire-$300 million

These revelations are indicative of the pervasive nature of corruption especially among some African political leaders. Barash and Weber (2009) for instance connected the economic woes of Democratic Republic of Congo to bad government and Mobutu Sese Seko, who stole more than $5 billion directly from the national treasury. They indicated that democratic republic of Congo is ‘rich’ as measured by natural resources. Yet 80% of Congolese are desperately poor and real wages are only about one tenth what they were at independence in 1960. The resources in the continent are largely siphoned out by political leaders. In the words of Rotberg (2007), there have been too few Seretse Khamas and too many Idi Amins and Mobutu Sese Sekos on the African continent. He asserted that Africa remains poor and insecure largely because of its immense leadership deficit.

The 2011 political turmoil sparked by the members of the Egyptian public probably could explain how political corruption can foment violence if not properly managed. Hassan (2011) has voiced the opinion that the major cause of the persistence of poverty and under-development in Egypt under the regime of Mubarak over the last 20 years was personal enrichment without cause. Hassan contended that this led to increased anger and frustration among the poor.

The irony is that, in spite of the numerous attempts made to ensure accountability, growth and stability on the continent, as emphasized by the Africa Peer Review Mechanism and African Parliamentarians Network Against Corruption (APNAC), political greed continues to plunge the continent into violent confrontations.

(B). Marginalization and human insecurity

Even though there is no consensus as to what might have ultimately accounted for such a barbarous and remarkable atrocity in Rwanda in 1994. One thing which remained indelible in all the accounts of the genocide of an estimated 850000 Tutsis and Hutu sympathizers was the phenomenon of marginalization. The perceived dictatorship of the Tutsis and the systematic discrimination against the Hutu majority, which has its antecedence in the colonial administration, robbed the Hutus of access to political power, land ownership and higher education. This condition generated hatred among the Hutus. The Hutus therefore sought the least opportunity to vent their anger on the Tutsis. The shooting of the plane over the capital of Kigali that led to the death of President Juvenal Habyarimanana and several top government officials in 1994 only facilitated the explosion of the accumulated anger of the Hutus against the Tutsis and their Hutus sympathizers.

Asante (2007) has voiced out that whether genocide, enslavement, abuse of women, or political corruption, Africans must be in the position to condemn human outrages. It is true that no explanations can justify such horrendous acts. Yet any human social setting in which marginalization is embedded and that is characterized by inequality on the basis of racial, ethnic, religion and social class, has the tendency to slip into momentary barbarism. Marginalization tends to deepening social cleavages and create a widening gap between the rich and the poor (Barash and Weber, 2009). Such condition can foster a sense of hatred and enmity among people which can explode into violence.

Zaremba (2011) has shed light on the interlinked between marginalization and insecurity as manifested in the Darfur Region of Sudan which shares certain similarities with that of
Rwanda. He indicated that, historically, the Arabic population of Northern Sudan had been favourably treated politically by the British colonial policy over the Southern and Western Sudanese. He noted that as the transition from British rule occurred; political power over Sudan was given to the Northern inhabitants leaving the South without a voice. He asserted the perceived marginalization of the South by the North in the area of development, land rights, social and public services has set the stage for political violence that has plagued the Darfur region.

(C). Unemployment and human insecurity

Unemployment undermines human development as it restricts people from getting jobs and sustainable income necessary to meet life challenges (Parkin et al., 1998). The sporadic violence across Tunisia and Egypt since 2011 can be partly linked to unemployment. Admittedly, unemployment is one major global problem that has plagued many nations. However, in Africa, the effects of unemployment could be much pronounced as many countries lack sustainable unemployment support schemes. Alcinda (2011) writes that the collapse of the leadership of President Zine al-Abidine Ben Ali of Tunisia in 2011, was attributed to violent repression of popular street protests over unemployment and political greed that prevented political freedom in the country. It was noted that discussion of corruption and human rights in the media was even considered a taboo. Maggie (2011) similarly argued that the Egyptian uprising which led to the demise of the 30-year rule of Mubarak was sparked by discontent Egyptians over grinding poverty, corruption, unemployment and police abuses. These revelations buttress Brainard et al.’s (2007) assertion that extreme poverty exhausts governing institutions, weakens leaders, and crushes hope, fueling a volatile mix of desperation and insecurity. They argued that in the developing world, poverty is not just a sentence to misery but it can be a sentence to death.

The Tunisia and the Egypt episodes of 2011 have demonstrated that, in conditions of seeming joblessness and poverty, violence, an unacceptable phenomenon, may be perceived as normal. After all, as the African adage says ‘A hungry person is an angry person’. Food, clothing and shelter are ontological needs and people are likely to pursue such ends regardless of the consequence if they are denied such needs. Handy’s (1999:32) explanation perhaps could sum up the debate about unemployment, poverty and insecurity when he indicated that “if you are starving, your needs for esteem or status will be unimportant; only food matters”. Burton (1987) Basic Needs Theory has proved to be a worthy and useful, in explaining the linkage between frustration of basic human needs and conflict as demonstrated in Tunisia and Egypt. Urdal (2007) emphasized that, if young people are left with no alternative but unemployment and poverty, they are increasingly likely to join a rebellion as an alternative way of generating an income. If people especially the youth, fail to find any gainful employment, it is probable that they may engage themselves in resistance movements against the government which can undermine the security of a nation. Brown et al (2007) indicated that, Nigeria has abundant resources of arable land of seventy-five per cent; coal; tin; gemstones, uranium and other resources. And yet the country is largely in a mess. They pointed out that more than 70 per cent of the population lives on less than a dollar a day. This they attributed to decades of military mismanagement and corruption. It can be argued that unemployment, if unmanaged or poorly managed can plunge a country into state of insecurity.
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This study has suggested that the perception that Africa is an accursed continent and destined to suffer holds no iota of truth as the continent is blessed with all that it takes to improve its human security condition. Social cancers - political corruption, marginalization and unemployment which have been the principal sources of insecurity on the Africa continent are fundamentally artificially created by Africans. The enemies of Africa human security are basically ‘within’ but not ‘without’, calling for a deliberate and a holistic action from Africans. External agents can help but the actual management of the social cancers which have bedevilled the African continent lies in the hands of Africans.

If human security is to be promoted and sustained on the Africa continent, then the outlined recommendations should be critically considered:

1. To manage corruption, there should be strong Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) which emphasize on regular accountability reports from public officials. This will make public/ political leaders to be transparent in their doings. This in turn calls for a strong democratic ethos, encompassing ideals such as freedom of speech, freedom of association, free access or right to information and strong Auditing institutions.

2. There should be an independent and efficient judicial system operating within the canons of the rule of law. The judicial system should be free from political manipulation so as to be able to deal with all cases of political corruption brought against any public officials without any fear or favour. The cost of corruption should be made excessively high through severe sanctioning of offenders. Properties acquired through fraudulent means should be confiscated by the state. International collaboration is needed, as most funds siphoned from the African continent are reportedly invested in foreign countries. As indicated by the Week Staff, part of the alleged $70 billion stolen by Mubarak and his family was invested in London, Los Angeles and New York.

3. Unemployment and marginalization in Africa are basically rooted in political corruption, a manifestation of leadership bankruptcy and gross disregard to societal values/ethics. This calls for selfless and visionary leaders. Conferences and workshops on corruption, honesty and accountability should be the focus of the African Union and other regional bodies such as ECOWAS.

4. Participatory poverty eradication programmes based on the local needs of the people should be implemented. There should be independent bodies drawn from the various political divides and/or religious bodies to ensure that funds channelled to such programmes do in fact reach the beneficiaries. The youth especially, should be trained to acquire employable skills that will make them independent and functional. This will help to reduce the rate of unemployment and its attendance costs and most especially prevent the teaming youth from relying solely on the government for non-existing jobs. The skill-training should be adaptive to the local needs of the community.

5. Human security should be taught at all levels of academic institutions - primary, secondary and tertiary. Through this, the youth who are mainly used as instrument of destruction will learn how to deal with conflicts without the recourse to violence. More so, they will see the need to learn how to live and tolerate one another in a pluralistic society with different cultures, religious traditions and political affiliations. This is one of the steps that can help prevent marginalization.
6. To overcome the problem of entrenchment of power, there should be attractive but realistic retirement benefits for African political leaders.

REFERENCES


