The African Union Development Agenda 2063: Can Africa Get It Right?

A Agenda para o Desenvolvimento da União Africana 2063: A África pode acertar?

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ABSTRACT
Despite its huge human and natural resources Africa remains arguably the least developed continent in the world and contributes enormously to the statistics of those living below the global poverty line. To address this issue there is an attempt by African governments to take a combined holistic approach that is aimed at stimulating economic growth and development using a blueprint known as Agenda 2063 (African Union Plan for African Development by the Year 2063). However, despite the plausibility of this framework there exist a high level of scepticism among some scholars and policy analyst that like previous developmental strategies and plans African states might be incapable of implementing the Agenda 2063 development blueprint due to existing weak government institutions, lack of political will and social capital, inadequate funding, corruption among others. This paper took a divergent view - its empirical analysis suggest that the Agenda 2063 blueprint is robust enough to achieve sustainable development, and African governments have the needed sociopolitical and institutional frameworks to implement the blueprint to a positive conclusion.

Keywords: African Union, Economic Growth, Sustainable Development, Agenda 2063, Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

RESUMO
Apesar dos seus enormes recursos humanos e naturais, a África continua a ser sem dúvida o continente menos desenvolvido do mundo e contribui enormemente para as estatísticas das pessoas que vivem abaixo do limiar de pobreza global. Para abordar esta questão, há uma tentativa dos governos africanos de adoptar uma abordagem holística combinada que visa estimular o crescimento económico e o desenvolvimento utilizando um projeto conhecido como Agenda 2063 (Plano da União Africana para o Desenvolvimento Africano até ao Ano 2063). Contudo, apesar da plausibilidade deste quadro, existe um elevado nível de cepticismo entre alguns estudiosos e analistas políticos que, tal como estratégias e planos de desenvolvimento anteriores, os estados africanos podem ser incapazes de implementar o plano de desenvolvimento da Agenda 2063 devido à debilidade das instituições governamentais existentes, falta de vontade política e capital social, financiamento inadequado, corrupção, entre outros. Este documento teve uma visão divergente - a sua análise empírica sugere que o projecto da Agenda 2063 é
This paper sets out to map out Africa’s economic aspiration using the framework of its developmental agendas – African Union Ten Years Plan (2013-2023), Agenda 2024: Science, Technology and Innovation Strategy for Africa, Agenda 2030: Scientific and Technological Development and Agenda 2040: Africa Union’s Plan for African Children - these all make up a comprehensive blueprint for Africa’s development known as the Agenda 2063: African Union Plan for African Development. To achieve this objective of study it would be imperative to understand Africa in the context of this analysis, and that is to look at Africa not just as an abstract geographical construct but rather to first glance at the historical evolution of the modern African states from the loosed “non-hegemonic” status most of its societies possessed in the precolonial era, to the process of “state formation” and the institutionalization of arbitrary boundaries in the colonial era, and how this process of state formation truncated the development of Africa in the post-colonial period thereby creating the developmental problems the Agenda 2063 sets out to alleviate. Building on this, the study shall look at Africa’s response to its arrested development using the framework of the aforementioned development agenda and what the future hold for the continent.

Looking at Africa’s past as a key to understand its present and then articulate its future is important because it is almost impossible for one to fully understand Africa without paying credible attention to its historical evolution in the socio-economic and political spheres. Put more precisely Joseph (1978:3) opined that “anyone wishing to analyze and understand the politics of independent Africa will find it necessary to examine the importance of colonial factors in conditioning contemporary developments”. In the same vein, Austin (1972) observed that the most important factors defining African states foreign relations and domestic policies are their colonial history or heritage, common languages, currency zones, common administrative, educational and legal systems both institutional and imponderables. To capture this more completely, Thomson (2004:7) opined that:

The world (Africa inclusive) does not radically reinvent itself continuously. It evolves. There are no total revolutions where all that is gone before is laid to rest, and a new polity is born enjoying a completely clean state. Traditions, customs, institutions and social relationships will survive and adapt from one era to another. This is why …. history is so usefully. A scholar who wishes to understand the present must know something of the past… the same goes for Africa...
are lines of continuity that run from the precolonial period, through the colonial era, right into the modern age.

Hence in our quest to demystify Africa’s present developmental challenges (security, environmental degradation, corruption, desertification, poverty e.t.c.) and then look at its future (using the framework of the Africa Union developmental agenda) a concise deconstruction of the continent’s historical evolution is imperative to act as a building block for a better conceptualization of issues in the latter part of this study. To this end, this study sets out to answer the two over-arching fundamental questions:

i. Is Africa’s comprehensive developmental plan (Agenda 2063) robust enough to achieve sustainable development in Africa by the year 2063 if fully implemented?

ii. Do Africa have the needed socio-political and institutional frameworks to implement and achieve the Agenda 2063 developmental plan even if the blueprint is robust enough?

These questions are imperatives to any curious mind on African development because over the years the failure to fully implement developmental plans either due to the lack of political will, funds or the weakness of the institutions to implement it remains one of the reasons for Africa’s arrested development. Armed with this observation our a-prior expectations during the empirical part of this study are:

i. The African developmental plan (Agenda 2063) is not robust enough to achieve sustainable development in Africa by the year 2063.

ii. Africa does not have the needed socio-political and institutional frameworks to implement and achieve the Agenda 2063 developmental plan.

2 THE CHALLENGES OF AFRICA IN THE POST-COLONIAL ERA

At independence the cracks and weaknesses that were inherited by the African states as they evolved from the pre-colonial era to colonialism became evident. These played a role in slowing down the pace of Africa’s development and currently pose as challenges to the achievement of current national, regional and continental developmental frameworks. These challenges will be discussed briefly under three broad issues in the table below.
Table 1: Major challenges facing Post-Colonial Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Security challenges</th>
<th>Economic challenges</th>
<th>Political challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Food security</td>
<td>• Neo-colonialism</td>
<td>• Crisis of state legitimacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Environmental security</td>
<td>• Debt crisis</td>
<td>• Military intervention in politics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Human security</td>
<td>• Capital flight</td>
<td>• The obstacles of democratic consolidation, etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Health security</td>
<td>• Brain drain</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conflict, etc</td>
<td>• Corruption and the lack of social capital, etc</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The Author

3 SECURITY CHALLENGES

As a concept, the term “security” has been used to denote the activities involved in protecting a country, building or person against attack, danger, etc. To Wolfers (1952:485), security in its objective sense:

Measures the absence of threats to acquired values, in a subjective sense (it is) the absence of fear that such values will be attacked. In both aspects, a nation’s security can run a wide gamut from almost complete insecurity or sense of insecurity at one pole to almost complete security or absence of fear at the other.

Such absence of insecurity only exists in realist sense as an adjunct of national interest and power. It is conceptualized as the capacity of a nation-state to protect its internal values from external threats (Berkowitz & Bock, 1968). But since Africa’s security concerns are internal, this realist conceptualization of security does not suit our focus here, hence we conceptualize security in the operational context given by Ibeanu (1997: 6-7). To him, security is politically conceptualized as:

The capacity of a ruling group to protect its interest/values (internally and externally located) from external threats and to maintain order internally with minimal use of violence… (Beyond this) security has to do with relations in the labour process. In this sense, it designates two organically connected relations. The first is a general relation between members of society and the natural environment in which they live. Security here refers to the carrying capacity of the biophysical environment. In other words, security measures the capacity of the natural environment to sustain the physical needs of man.

In the context of this paper, security goes beyond ‘arms security’ in terms of the absence from violence but rather it includes food security (absence of hunger), environmental security (absence of environmental pollution), human security (absence of unemployment and want), health security (absence of epidemics and access to adequate and affordable health care) and then conflicts which entails security in its classical sense.

Security has posed a lot of challenges to Africa’s goal to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and accelerate its part to sustainable development. In the health sector, Africa is faced with the problem of recurring diseases such as ebola, polio, cholera, malaria, among others. Commenting
on the dire situation of Africa more than a decade ago which is still relevant today, Thomson (2004: 178) observed that the situation in Africa is relatively not improving:

A quick survey of social statistics illustrates this point. Sub-Saharan Africans in the 1990s for example, died, on average, in their early fifties… At the other end of life, babies in Africa had ten times more chance of dying before their first birthday than those born in the West. Even in the field of Africa’s post-colonial success stories, health and education, the comparisons are distressing. In 1995 over 40 per cent of Africans remained illiterate (with women particularly disadvantaged)… Nor is the situation improving. In many parts of the continent, life expectancy fell below 40 years for the first time since the 1950s. It is estimated that 40 per cent of Botswana’s adult population is HIV positive. In sub-Saharan Africa as a whole during 2001 there were 3.4 million new HIV infections and 2.3 million deaths due to AIDS.

These diseases and epidemics cost Africa a lot in terms of funds as the foreign exchange that ought to be used for capital investment are diverted to check the spread of diseases. The statistics for HIV/AIDS is by far lower compared to malaria and most often the victims of these diseases are the working population, therefore, depriving the continent of its vital human capital.

Beyond health security, in Africa, the activities in the primary sector (extraction of raw materials) have a direct impact on the environment, therefore, causing environmental pollution and degradation. Discussing environmental security in Africa as a big challenge, Ibeanu (1997:14) drew the case of Nigeria’s Niger Delta in these words:

The negative environmental impact of crude oil mining and refining is very well known. Pollution arising from oil spillage makes water unsuitable for fishing and renders many hectares of land unusable and destructive for marine life and crops. Brine from oil fields contaminates water formations and streams, making them unfit as sources of drinking water. At the same time, gas flaring in the vicinity of human settlements and high-pressure oil pipelines that form a mesh across farmlands are conducive to acid rain, deforestation, and destruction of wildlife. (Also) dumping of toxic, non-biodegradable by-products of oil refining is dangerous to flora, fauna and humankind.

This problem is not peculiar to the Niger Delta region of Nigeria rather it paints the gloomy picture of the level of environmental security in the whole of Africa. Ufomba (2015) predicted that issues relating to environmental security will be on the menu of Africa’s developmental challenges in the future. The increasing encroachment of the Saharan desert means that herdsmen will continue to move their cattle to graze in areas farther from the desert and not affected by desertification this will continue to ensure that there is a continual tension between nomadic herdsmen and the farming settlers (farmers-herdsmen clashes). In Nigeria between 2015 to 2018 alone, this phenomenon has contributed to the highest number of civilian casualties second only to the Boko Haram insurgency. Issues on environmental security also have the potential to escalate interstate conflict due to its ability to spill over or affect other states different from the origin. For example, in 2012 there was tension between Egypt
and Ethiopia over the latter’s plan to build the Grand Dam across the Nile which has the potential to negatively affect the economy and environment of the former.

Conflict in terms of violence also remains a source of challenge to Africa’s developmental agenda. Across Africa, there are always issues of civil wars, inter-state conflicts, conflict short of war (CSW), and child soldiering among others. According to Correlate of War (COW), Dataset Africa alone accounts for more than half of the recorded intra-state conflict south of the equator.

### 4 ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL CHALLENGES

Africa today faces a lot of economic and political challenges which hampers on its ability to adequately harness its human and material resources for sustainable development. One of the main challenges of most African states is the “mono-structure” of their economy. Due largely to their colonial experiences, many African states were structured economically to be a source of vital raw materials for export to developed countries as a means of foreign exchange.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2 - African Export Concentration</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>One product (15 countries)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Algeria: Oil/gas</td>
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<tr>
<td>Burundi: Coffee</td>
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<tr>
<td>Guinea: Bauxite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria: Oil/gas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia: Livestock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Two products (14 countries)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Verde: Fish, fruit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congo-Kinshasa: Copper, Coffee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia: Coffee, hides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi: Tobacco, tea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reunion: Sugar, fish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Three products (8 countries)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benin: Oil, coffee, cocoa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon: Oil, coffee, cocoa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea Bissau: Cashews, groundnuts, palm oil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal: Fish, groundnuts, phosphates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Four products (4 countries)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cote d’Ivoire: Cocoa, coffee, refined oil, timber</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone: Diamonds, cocoa, coffee, bauxite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>More Diverse Export Economies (11 countries)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djibouti, Gambia, Lesotho, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Tunisia, Zimbabwe</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


African countries even after independence continue to serve as mere sources of raw materials. The problem with this arrangement is that the prices of these commodities are not only unstable but they are largely determined by the western buyers. Since the economic performance of these African
countries and total budget are dependent on this price; they are then in a volatile position in the trade negotiation table. For example, Clapham (1996) observed that in 1988, the French Transnational Corporation SucDen bought all of Ivory Coast’s cocoa harvest in that fiscal year and that had its repercussion on the revenue of the government. Thomson (2004:179) observed that:

given that the GNP of Cote d’Ivoire was almost totally dependent on this sale, and that there were few alternative companies to sell to, SucDen was always going to receive this product at a bargain price. This helps to explain why the value of Africa’s exports generally fell by 20 per cent between 1980 and 2000 – a fact that only exacerbated Africa’s problem of a lack of access to investment capital.

This problem is worsened by the structural inequality in the world trade system where Africa will have to buy back the finished version of these commodities at expensive prices from the same developed countries that bought the raw materials at a bargain price. This immediately causes a balance of trade problem for African countries and paved the road for the long-down spin that the economies in the continent faced almost immediately after independence.

To salvage this problem, African countries attempted to diversify their economies by establishing local manufacturing plants which policy was tagged as ‘Import Substitution’. As a result of lack of capital, these countries were encouraged to borrow to invest in heavy infrastructures required for such developmental ventures. The result was that by the 1990’s Africa was in deep debt crises. The debt of Sub-Saharan Africa as in 1994 was so high that it accounted to about 90% of its GNP. The servicing of the debt which was in the tune of US$ 221 billion in 1994 will cost Africa about 21 per cent of its export income each year and with the remains taken by corruption and fat salaries for public office holders, it was impossible for Africa to repay its debt at the turn of the century and has no capital for the needed infrastructural investment to attract development. With the coming of debt forgiveness, the situation improved but African countries need capital and these economic challenges are persisting.

5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study adopted both qualitative and quantitative methodology. Data was obtained mainly through secondary sources (archives, previous studies, online resources and database). In the empirical section, this study employed content analysis of data obtained through secondary sources which are mainly documents by the African Union, AU partners and other regional-based organizations. The main source of the data used in the quantitative empirical section is data mined from the responses in an earlier survey conducted by The African Academy of Sciences (AAS) titled “Africa Beyond 2030 (Leveraging Knowledge and Innovation to Secure Sustainable Development Goals)”. The survey was conducted between September 2016 and August 2017 through a series of interrelated activities involving scientists,

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policy-makers and development partners (see, AAS 2018). The instrument used by The African Academy of Sciences is a semi-structured (open- and closed-ended questions) questionnaire covering a range of issues on the nature of programmes and projects and their relevance to Sustainable Development Goals. It covered institutional mandates and priorities, understanding of national development policies and SDGs, policy and institutional barriers to STI advancement in Africa, and factors that influence the participation of African countries and scientists in regional and international STI partnerships.

Based on the questionnaire, AAS also conducted an online survey in October and November 2016. The survey instrument was sent to 600 persons, including AAS fellows, AAS affiliates, policymakers, research and education institutions, and development agencies. One hundred and sixty-nine (169) responses were received, a rate of almost 30%. The responses were split into two groups: Group A (Data from respondents from government-owned agencies and parastatals) and Group B (Data from other respondents not from the above group). The results provide a basis for quantitative analysis of how respondents’ institutions and programmes are aligned to SDGs, STI priorities, barriers to scientific research and innovation, relevance and effectiveness of national STI policies, awareness and/or knowledge of STI, and Africa’s developmental goal in general.

The data obtained were then analyzed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) to test the correlation between the implementation of African development frameworks and sustainable development in the continent.

6 AGENDA 2063: OVERVIEW OF AFRICAN DEVELOPMENTAL FRAMEWORK

In light of its developmental challenges, African countries using the institutional framework of the African Union developed a continent-wide development plan that serves as a blueprint for sustainable development in the continent- this blueprint is tagged the Agenda 2063. “The African Agenda 2063 refers to a document that contains a developmental framework that was adopted by the African Union in 2013 as a blueprint for the development of the continent. The purpose is to go beyond the decolonisation focus of the former Organization of African Unity (OAU) and pay attention to key areas of African developmental needs. In a nutshell, the Agenda 2063 synthesized a broad spectrum of existing plans, programmes and frameworks by national governments, regional economic bodies and global trends into one framework which for all-purpose aims at the development of Africa in a broad front: economic, social, political, scientific as well as cultural” (See, Government of the Republic of Kenya’s “Kenya Vision 2030”; Government of the Republic of Namibia “Namibia Vision 2030”; Government of the Republic of Rwanda “Rwanda Vision 2020” and Government of the Republic of Uganda “Uganda
Vision 2040”). It is itself an encapsulation of the existing African frameworks of development which includes mainly:

- The First Ten Years Plan
- Agenda 2030: Scientific and Technological Development
- Agenda 2040: African Unions Plan for African Children

Most of what we shall discuss here about the Agenda 2063 is based on the content of the AU documents because despite the inauguration of the various plans very little have been done in that regard due largely to institutional limitations.

“...In 2013, the AU adopted “Agenda 2063, The Africa We Want” a long-term development vision for a continent that is prosperous, peaceful, industrialized, integrated into the global economy and trading systems, socially and economically inclusive and developing sustainably” (AU, 2013).

In designing Agenda 2063, African countries drew lessons from previous efforts to turn national economies around and secure sustainable development. They were inspired by at least 50 years of development experience within and among their countries and other countries of the world. Having experimented with many development policies and programmes, such as Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) and Poverty Reduction Strategies in the 1980s and 1990s, respectively, and after 15 years of effort to achieve MDGs, African countries have accumulated diverse and rich policy experience that informs Agenda 2063.

One of the lessons is that policies and programmes associated with previous initiatives, such as SAPs and PRSPs, may have been too focused on short-term solutions to surmount complex development challenges. There is a significant body of evaluation that has concluded that such initiatives have not enabled the continent to create a sustainable development path (Stewart & Wang 2003).

According to Heidhues & Obare (2011), the implementation of SAPs was poor as a result of lack of ownership and political will. Stewart & Wang (2003) concluded that PRSPs did not empower poor countries, particularly in Africa, to engage effectively with development planning and practice. Agenda 2063 promises to be different. It envisions inter-generational, long-term, explicit sustainable development imperatives. It deals with issues of qualitative transformation of African societies and countries. Its foundation is a clear implementation plan, with aspirations that are realistic and attainable. Moreover, “Agenda 2063 seeks to integrate science, technology and innovation in education and training.” It advocates measures to “actively promote science, technology, research and innovation, to build knowledge, human capital, capabilities and skills to drive innovations and for the African century”,
and to “build and expand an African knowledge society through transformation and investments in universities, science, technology, research and innovation; and through the harmonization of education standards and mutual recognition of academic and professional qualifications.”

The realization of the objectives of Agenda 2063 will depend largely on programmes that are designed and implemented by the African Union Committees, Regional Economic Communities, continental and regional organizations (such as the African Development Bank and New Economic Partnership for African Development), African Academic of Sciences, international organizations such as UN bodies and development partners, national governments of AU member states, scientific and engineering associations, and private sector organizations.

7 THE AGENDA 2063 AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

According to AU & NEPAD Agency (2014) “Sustainable development has been the preoccupation of the international community for nearly 50 years. Indeed, since the 1970s, the international community has debated the most effective means to achieve sustainable development i.e. that meets the needs of current generations without compromising the opportunities of future generations” (See also ACBF 2017; Lee & Bozeman, 2005),
Key international activities that have shaped the discourse on sustainable development include the 1972 Stockholm United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, the 1987 World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), the 1992 Rio United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), the 2000 UN Conference on Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), and the 2015 UN Conference on Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

SDGs were adopted in September 2015 at the UN General Assembly in New York, articulating 17 goals which are poverty, hunger, health, quality education, gender equality, clean water and sanitation, clean energy, good jobs and economic growth, innovation and infrastructure, reduced inequalities, sustainable cities and communities, responsible consumption, protection of the planet, life below water, life on land, peace and justice and partnerships for the goals. They are the core of the new UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, a framework that builds on but is broader than the MDGs.

The SDGs framework integrates social, economic and environmental aspects of development, and is universal. The overall goal of the SDGs is to provide global policy guidance to countries to increase the prospects of their success in achieving sustainable development by 2030.

Attainment of SDGs depends to a large measure on investments in the development and application of STI, as explicitly recognized in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and articulated in SDG 9. Paragraph 17.6 - 17.8 of the Agenda covers industry, innovation, and infrastructure.

Various policy reports on the role of STI in implementing Agenda 2030 and achieving SDGs have been issued. They explore policy issues on the development and application of STI, with emphasis on measures to build the capacity of countries to harness and apply STI for the SDGs. A report by Schmalzbauer and Visbeck (2016) emphasizes the procurement and use of science in policy-making on and for SDGs. It claims that “in the coming years, science will need to play an important role in the provision of the data, information and knowledge that is required to facilitate the successful implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the associated SDGs. The 2030 Agenda explicitly recognises that sustainability challenges are fundamentally interrelated. Focusing exclusively on single goals will therefore not be effective. All actions need to be assessed for policy coherence across the goals.” This means that science and society need to be aware of the broad SDG spectrum to find the best pathway to progress towards all the goals. There is a clear alignment between AU’s Agenda 2063 and the SDGs as illustrated in Table 3 below. African countries need policies, programmes and processes that focus on SDGs, alongside the aspirations articulated in AU Agenda 2063.
### Table 3 - The Goals and Priority for the First Ten Years of Agenda 2063

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Aspiration</th>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Priority Areas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1   | A prosperous Africa, based on inclusive growth and sustainable development. | (1) a high standard of living, quality life and wellbeing for all citizens. | • Incomes, jobs and decent work.  
• Poverty, inequality and hunger.  
• Social security and protection including persons with disabilities.  
• Modern and livable habitats and basic quality services. |
|     |                                                                            | (2) Well educated citizens and skills revolution underpinned by science, technology and innovation. | • Education and STI skills driven revolution. |
|     |                                                                            | (3) Healthy and well-nourished citizens.                              | • Health and nutrition. |
|     |                                                                            | (4) Transformed Economies.                                            | • Sustainable and inclusive economic growth.  
• STI driven manufacturing/industrialization and value addition.  
• Economic diversification and resilience.  
• Hospitality/tourism. |
|     |                                                                            | (5) Modern agriculture for increased productivity and production.    | • Agricultural productivity and production. |
|     |                                                                            | (6) Blue/ocean economy for accelerated economic growth.              | • Marine resources and energy.  
• Ports operations and marine transport. |
|     |                                                                            | (7) Environmentally sustainable and climate-resilient economies and communities. | • Sustainable natural resource management.  
• Biodiversity conservation, genetic resources and ecosystems.  
• Sustainable consumption and production patterns.  
• Water security  
• Climate resilience and natural disasters preparedness and prevention.  
• Renewable energy. |
| 2   | An integrated continent politically united and based on the ideals of Pan Africanism and the vision of African renaissance. | (8) United Africa (Federal or Confederate). | • Framework and institutions for a United Africa. |
|     |                                                                            | (9) Continental financial and monetary institutions are established and functional. | • Financial and monetary institutions. |
|     |                                                                            | (10) World-class infrastructure crisscrosses Africa.                  | • Communications and infrastructure connectivity. |
| 3   | An Africa of good governance, democracy, respect for human rights, justice and the rule of law. | (11) Democratic values, practices, universal principles of human rights, justice and the rule of law entrenched. | • Democracy and good governance.  
• Human rights, justice and the rule of law. |
|     |                                                                            | (12) Capable institutions and transformative leadership in place.     | • Institutions and leadership.  
• Participatory development and local governance. |
| 4   | A peaceful and secure Africa.                                               | (13) peace, security and stability are preserved                      | • Maintenance and preservation. |
|     |                                                                            | (14) A stable and peaceful Africa                                     | • Institutional structure for AU instruments on peace and security. |
Experience from the implementation of MDGs shows that the development of explicit strategies to harness and apply STI is necessary for sustainable development. A recent report of the European Union (EU) emphasizes that countries and regional blocs must renew and realign their STI policies and programmes to the SDGs.

8 QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

At the beginning of this study, we presented two a-prior expectations as assumptive answers to the research questions presented. Our a-prior expectations are:

Ho: The African developmental plan is not robust enough to achieve sustainable development in Africa by the year 2063

Ho: Africa does not have the needed socio-political and institutional frameworks to implement and achieve the Agenda 2063 developmental plan

Data to test these hypotheses as stated in the research methodology was mined from the responses in a survey conducted by African Academy of Science (2018) between September 2016 and August 2017 through a series of interrelated activities involving scientists, policy-makers and development partners (see, AAS 2018). The instrument used by The African Academy of Sciences is a semi-structured (open- and closed-ended questions) questionnaire covering a range of issues on the nature of programmes and projects and their relevance to Sustainable Development Goals. It covered institutional...
mandates and priorities, understanding of national development policies and SDGs, policy and institutional barriers to STI advancement in Africa, and factors that influence the participation of African countries and scientists in regional and international STI partnerships.

The one hundred and sixty-nine (169) responses received were mined for the quantitative analysis in this study. The responses were split into two groups: Group A (Data from respondents from government-owned agencies and parastatals) and Group B (Data from other respondents not from the above group).

**Question 1: Is Africa’s comprehensive developmental plan (Agenda 2063) robust enough to achieve sustainable development in Africa by the year 2063 if fully implemented?**

**Group A-1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
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**ANOVA**

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<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>F crit</th>
<th>Decision</th>
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<td>4</td>
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1.08E-10
The result from the two groups shows that there is no variance in the perception of individuals in Group A and that of individuals in Group B. It also showed a strong relationship between the full implementation of Africa’s comprehensive developmental plan (Agenda 2063) and the achievement of sustainable development in Africa by the year 2063. Hence we will reject Ho and accept the alternative hypothesis which is that:

Hi: The African developmental plan is robust enough to achieve sustainable development in Africa by the year 2063
Question 2: Does Africa have the needed socio-political and institutional frameworks to implement and achieve the Agenda 2063 developmental plan even if the blueprint is robust enough?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
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ANOVA

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<th>P-value</th>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The ANOVA analysis showed that there is no variance in the perception of the two groups of respondents. Furthermore, the correlation test showed a strong relationship between the current socio-political and institutional frameworks in Africa and the achievement of the Agenda 2063 developmental plan. This suggests that Africa currently have the institutional frameworks both domestically and in the regional level to achieve the 2063 Agenda hence we will accept the alternative hypothesis which states that:

Hi: Africa has the needed socio-political and institutional frameworks to implement and achieve the Agenda 2063 developmental plan

9 EVIDENCE: RECENT GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT TRENDS OF AFRICA

Despite the pointed challenges in Africa for the past 10 years, economic growth in Africa has been referred to as impressive when compared to other continents since the implementation of the first
phase of the development plan (First Ten Years Plan). Although the living standard of the African population remains averagely low Africa has averaged between about 3% and 5% in the growth of its Gross Domestic Product (GDP) every year since 2003. In 2006, Africa performed remarkably in its economic indices and experienced a GDP growth of 5.7% which slumped to 3.6% by the year 2015. Despite the slump in its aggregate growth, Africa remains one of the fastest-growing economies in the world (WEF 2012; NEPAD Agency 2014; AfDB, OECD and UNDP 2016),

\[\begin{align*}
\text{Source: The African Academy of Sciences (2018)}
\end{align*}\]

10 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study mapped out the status of Africa’s developmental aspiration by the year 2025 and beyond using the frameworks of its developmental agendas – African Union Ten Years Plan (2013-2023), Agenda 2024: Science, Technology and Innovation Strategy for Africa, Agenda 2030: Scientific and Technological Development and Agenda 2040: Africa Union’s Plan for African Children - these all makes up a comprehensive blueprint for Africa’s development known as the Agenda 2063: African Union Plan for African Development. To achieve its objective of study this paper made a brief historical commentary on the evolution of African states from the pre-colonial era to the modern state system. It paid attention to the role colonialism played in state formation in Africa and how this has negatively impacted the developmental trajectory of the continent.

Quantitative analysis using Pearson Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) shows that the Agenda 2063 as a developmental blueprint is robust enough for Africa to achieve sustainable development by the year 2063. Furthermore, the socio-political institutions in the continent are strong enough to implement conclusively this plan. This is a ray of hope for the underdeveloped continent and evidence
from the economic growth trends from the year 2007 to 2017 showed that within the First Ten Years Plan alone Africa has remained one of the fastest-growing GDP in the world.

Based on the findings of the study we recommend that:

- To achieve the developmental plan (Agenda 2063) Africa countries should of necessity increase regional trade to avoid leakages in capital accumulation due to capital flight.

- Africa countries should make their economy more inclusive and open for capital investment, and small and medium scale enterprises.

- African countries should build stronger regional relations which will act as a bridge for exchange in trade, ideas, capital etc.

- African countries should strengthen their domestic political institutions through the institutionalization of transparent and accountable political structures based on a system of government that suits each of the country in question.

- African countries should (re)align their various national developmental programmes to be in line with the continental developmental plan.

African countries should enhance border security to reduce cross-border terrorism and other criminal activities which do not only affects domestic economics but all reduces cross border movement of people, money, and services.
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