

Understanding Armed Conflict and Peace building in Africa

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Introduction

This research paper is designed to give an introductory overview of conflict analysis and resolution efforts in Africa. The paper provides a map of current armed conflicts in Africa and an introduction to some of the main theories and frameworks for understanding and dealing with it. The paper gives background information to conflicts in Africa and is meant to assist researchers under the Fredskorpset Programme to understand the issues pertaining to conflicts in Africa. The paper draws a lot from the presentations made at a Fredskorpset workshop in Pretoria – IDASA offices in February 2006.

1. Understanding Conflict

1.1 Defining conflict

Conflict can be defined as 'the pursuit of incompatible goals by different groups'¹ Commentators often distinguish between '**social conflict**', which refers to conflict between groups and '**political conflict**' when the nature of the incompatibility is political. Conflict can be further categorised as non-violent and violent. Non-violent conflict is expressed without the use of force and is seen by many as a natural element in human society and an essential driving force for social change. Violent conflict on the other hand poses a threat to society and, it can be argued, represents one of the central causes of poverty and 'failed development'.

The focus of this paper will be restricted to violent or armed conflict. A conflict can be categorised as violent when force is used by one or more party. **Violent conflict** can include one-sided violence such as genocide² against civilians and

¹ Maill et al, 2005

² Article 2 of the 1948 UN Convention on Genocide defines the term as means any of the following acts committed with intent to destroy, in whole or in part, a national, ethnical, racial or religious group, as such:

- (a) Killing members of the group;
- (b) Causing serious bodily or mental harm to members of the group;
- (c) Deliberately inflicting on the group conditions of life calculated to bring about its physical destruction in whole or in part;
- (d) Imposing measures intended to prevent births within the group;

can range from a single attack on a civilian to full-scale war³. An **armed conflict** is defined as a situation where both parties resort to the use of armed force, in the form of manufactured weapons or sticks, stones, fire, water, etc⁴. Violent or armed conflict is categorised a **interstate** when waged between governments and **intrastate** when it occurs within a country between a government and a non-governmental party. The Uppsala Peace and conflict project further differentiates between intrastate conflicts that are waged with or without the involvement of foreign troops. They use the category **Intrastate with foreign involvement** to refer to an armed conflict in which one or more of the warring parties receive troop support from an outside government.

Most definitions of armed conflict tend to focus on the number of battle related deaths. The Uppsala Peace and Conflict project defines an armed conflict as; *'a contested incompatibility that concerns government and/or territory where the use of armed force between two parties, of which at least one is the government of a state, results in at least 25 battle-related deaths in one calendar year'*⁵

Other scholars have preferred to look at the cumulative number of battle related deaths. For example Marshall and Gurr (2005) only consider episodes of political violence that have reached minimum threshold of 1,000 battle related deaths to be major armed conflicts. Miall et al (2005) also use the cumulative indicator of 1,000 or more battle related deaths in defining major armed conflicts.

However, accurately measuring battle-related deaths in chaotic conflict conditions can be problematic. Even if we assume that the statistics are accurate, judging the severity of a conflict based on the number of battle-related deaths can be problematic for a number of reasons. Firstly, in many of today's wars civilian casualties outnumber those of combatants and secondly, the knock-on effects of armed conflict, including malnutrition, lack of access to health-care,

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- (e) Forcibly transferring children of the group to another group.

³ Maill et al 2005

⁴ Definition of arms from Uppsala Peace and Conflict database

⁵ Department of Peace and Conflict, University of Uppsala, Conflict Database
URL: <http://www.pcr.uu.se/database/index.php>

increased incidences of sexual violence and forced displacement, are not captured in this approach. Thus, while the battle related deaths indicator provides a useful starting point, it should be supported by detailed case by case analysis which incorporates information from a wide range of sources.

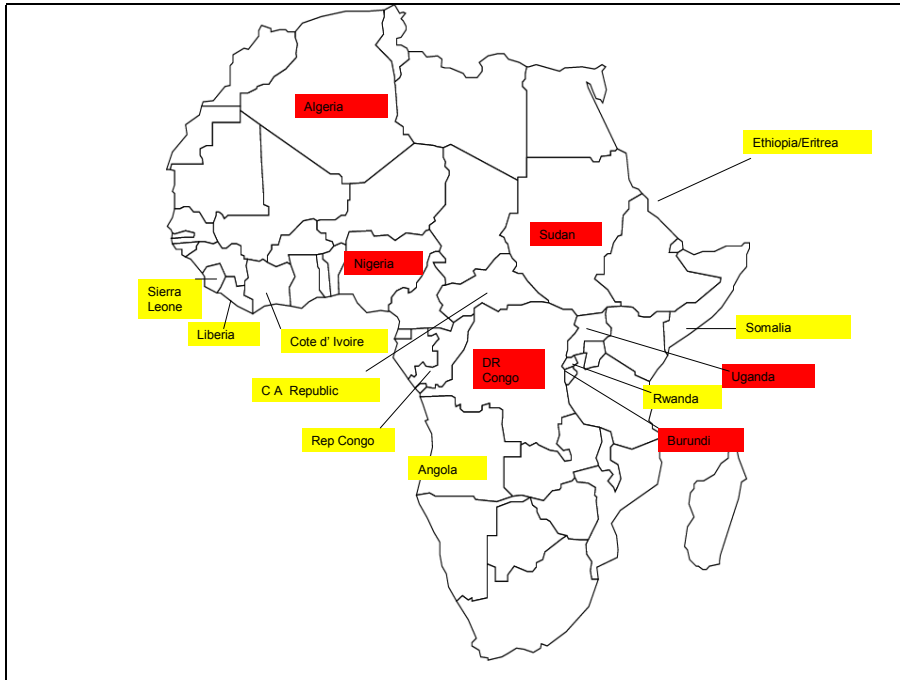
1.2 Armed Conflict in Africa

As discussed above, there is much debate regarding the relevance and reliability of statistics that measure armed conflict in terms of battle related deaths. However, in order to gain an overview of the current level of armed conflict in Africa, the cumulative battle-related deaths indicator provides a useful starting point.

Marshall and Gurr's (2005) Peace and Conflict ledger incorporates data from 161 countries in the world with a population greater than 500,000 in 2005. The ledger highlights those countries with a very real threat of major armed conflict being fought in 2005. In the authors' analysis, episodes of political violence must have reached 1,000 battle related deaths to be considered an armed conflict.

Figure one provides a visual representation of the Marshall and Gurr's analysis in relation to armed conflict in Africa. Red indicates an ongoing (low, medium or high intensity) major armed conflict in early 2005 and yellow indicates either sporadic or low intensity armed, in the same period, or an armed conflict that was suspended or suppressed between early 2001 and early 2005.

Figure 1 Level and Location of Armed Conflict in Africa in 2005



Source: Marshall, M and Gurr, T 2005

The overview of the continent as a whole, illustrated in figure one, helps us to build a picture of regional conflict dynamics. Scholars and practitioners in the field of armed conflict have observed that internal wars invariably have external effects. Regional conflict diffusion or 'overspill' can result from the spread of weaponry, refugee flows, when ethnic groups straddle border or when non-state armed actors operate from neighbouring countries. ⁶In this respect the level of stability in one country can have serious implications for its neighbours. Thus, in dealing with armed conflict in Africa it is essential combine country specific analysis with an understanding of regional conflict dynamics.

The International Crisis Group (ICG) note that, in Uganda the Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) strategy of ambushing humanitarian vehicles and crossing into neighbouring countries has seriously disrupted the peace process in Sudan and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)⁷. Another area of regional conflict

⁶ Miall et al 2005

⁷ ICG-A Strategy for Ending Northern Uganda's Crisis Africa Briefing N°35
11 January 2006

diffusion includes Sudan/Chad. Human Rights Watch (HRW) have highlighted the grave implications of the crisis in Darfur region of Sudan on neighbouring Chad. The organisation note that over the past three years there have been attacks on both Chadian villagers and Darfurian refugees, as part of cross boarder raids by the Sudanese 'Janjaweed' militias⁸. These are not isolated cases nor is regional conflict diffusion new. For example, Miall et al (2005) note the phenomena of regional conflict spill-over in the great Lakes and West Africa during the immediate post-Cold War period.⁹

However, considering regional dynamics is not only significant when analysing factors that precipitate conflict but also those that generate peace. For example, many analysts believe recent developments in Liberia, including the democratic elections which installed Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf as president could have positive repercussions for West Africa as a whole. The ICG note that 'just as Liberia once dragged its neighbours into a horrific war, it could now – with good policy and strong donor support – become an anchor for stability in Sierra Leone, Guinea and Côte d'Ivoire'¹⁰

⁸Human Rights Watch, 2006

⁹ Miall et al (2005) p 80

¹⁰ ICG-Liberia: Staying Focused Africa Briefing N°36 13 January 2006'

1.3 Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons in Africa

As noted in earlier sections, it is important to look beyond the 'battle-related death' indicator in order to gain a more nuanced view of the level and dynamics armed conflict. Statistics that capture the flow of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) provide a useful source of information both in terms of assessing the level of armed conflict as well as the 'spill-over effects' and possible implications for neighbouring countries. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) is a good place to start. Figure two illustrates the top five refugee producing countries in African as well as the main countries of asylum. Figure three shows the five countries with the highest IDP populations, at the time of writing, in Africa.

Fig. 2 Origin of Major Refugee in Populations in Africa - 2004

| Country of Origin ¹ | Main Countries of Asylum | Total |
|--------------------------------|--|---------|
| Sudan | Chad / Uganda / Ethiopia / Kenya / D.R. Congo / Central African Rep. | 730,600 |
| Burundi | Tanzania / D.R. Congo / Rwanda / South Africa / Canada | 485,800 |
| Democratic Rep. Congo | Tanzania / Zambia / Congo / Burundi / Rwanda | 462,200 |
| Somalia | Kenya / Yemen / United Kingdom / USA / Djibouti | 389,300 |
| Liberia | Guinea / Côte d'Ivoire / Sierra Leone / Ghana / USA | 335,500 |

Source: UNHCR, 2005

Fig. 3 Internally Displaced Persons in Africa- 2006

| Country | Latest IDP Figure |
|---------|-------------------|
| Sudan | 5,355,000 |

| | |
|----------|-----------|
| Uganda | 1,740,498 |
| DRC | 1,664,000 |
| Algeria | 1,000,000 |
| Zimbabwe | 569,685 |

Source: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2006

1.4 Root Causes of Conflict

It is widely accepted that understanding addressing the root cause of a conflict is essential to successful and lasting resolution. While there is no unified theory on the cause of violent conflict there are a number of factors that have been cited as explanations.

The observation that 'lesser developed' countries tend to experience higher levels of violent conflict has led some scholars to assume a causal link between poverty and war. However, it now widely accepted that poverty per se does not cause conflict. The role of structural inequality that is, economic and social inequality and access to political power, is considered one of the central causes of violent conflict. Whilst some analyst focus on differing group identities such as ethnicity, religion or economic class as a source of conflict, others view identity an idiom through which other interests are expressed.

Other factors that have been cited in the propensity to conflict include the relationship between military expenditure and economic growth, a debate located within the field of development economics, and the prevalence of small arms, highlighted by think tanks such as 'Saferworld'. The scarcity or abundance of natural resources as well as the role of economic agendas has been explored by a number of scholars.

Some analysts locate the origins of violent conflict in the broader historical or development process and look issues such as state formation in the post-colonial era or the role of rapid market-orientated economic reforms such structural adjustment policies in generating instability and in turn violent conflict¹¹. More recently commentators have started to look at issues such as unequal trade

¹¹ See for example, Storey, A, 1999.

relationships between 'developed' and 'developing' countries and the role this plays in generating economic decline and violent conflict¹².

There is rarely a single cause of armed conflict; rather there are multiple causes, conditions and contingent factors that cause social conflict to become violent or armed. However, it can be argued that for the purpose of conflict resolution and prevention, it is both necessary and useful look for the shared characteristics and patterns. Wallace and Jung (2002) use the 1998 European Council definition of causes of conflict (below) of 'root causes' as a useful working definition. This approach can then be supported by a detailed country/region specific analysis.

Root causes of conflict (European Council Definition 1998)

1. **Imbalance of political, socio-economic or cultural opportunities** among different ethnic groups, including socio-economic inequalities, exclusive government elites, violation of political group rights, destabilisation by refugees and internally displaced people and other demo-graphic pressures.

2. **Lack of democratic legitimacy and effectiveness of governance**, including a legitimacy deficit of government and public institutions, insufficient or declining public services, criminality, social and political violence, and biased law application and enforcement by justice and security services.

3. **Absence of opportunities for the peaceful conciliation of group interests** and for bridging dividing lines between different identity groups. This includes absence of effective dispute resolution mechanisms, absence of pluralism/diversified debate, distrust among identity groups and weak or harming external engagement.

4. **Lack of an active and organised civil society**, including weak civil society organisations, absence of professional and independent media and lack of economic 'peace interests '

Source: Wallace, T and Jung, M, 2002

¹² See chapter on Trade and Conflict (p 21) in Saferworld and International Alert (2004) Strengthening Global Security Through Addressing The Root Causes of Conflict

1.5 Conflict Mapping

There are multiple causes and dynamics in every conflict. Meaningful peace-building and conflict-resolution must start with a detailed analysis causes and specific conditions of a certain country or region. Conflict mapping and analysis is the first step to understanding and managing conflict. Mail et al (2005) suggest using the following framework, based on Weher's (1979) guidelines for initial conflict analysis as a practical starting point.

Conflict Mapping Template (Based on Weher's 1979 Guidelines)

A: Background

1. Map of the area
2. Brief description of the country
3. Outline of the history of the conflict

B: The Conflict Parties and Issues

1. Who are the core conflict parties? What are the internal subgroups and on what constituencies do they depend?
2. What are the conflict issues? Is it possible to distinguish between positions, interests (material interests, values, relationships) and needs?
3. What are the relationships between conflict parties? Are there qualitative and quantitative asymmetries?
4. What are the different perception of the causes and the nature of the conflict among the conflict parties?
5. What is the current behaviour of the parties (is the conflict in an escalatory or de-escalatory phase)
6. Who are the leaders of the parties? At elite/individual level, what are their objectives, policies and interests and relative strengths and weaknesses?

C: The Context; Global, Regional and State-level Factors

1. At the state level: is the nature of the state contested? How open and accessible is the state apparatus? Are there institutions or fora which could serve as legitimate channels for managing the conflict? How even is economic development and are there economic policies which can have a positive impact?
2. At regional level: how do relations with neighbouring states and societies affect the conflict? Do parties have external regional supporters? Which regional actors might be trusted by the parties?
3. At the global level: are there outside geopolitical interests in the conflict? What are the external factors that fuel the conflict and what might change them?

Source: Mial et al, 2005

1.6 Gender and Armed Conflict

There is increasing recognition of the gendered nature of violent conflict and the need to address the 'invisibility' of women and girls in this area. The adoption the United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on women, peace and security in October 2000 addresses the impact of armed conflict on women as well as their, undervalued, contribution to conflict prevention, peace building¹³.

In unstable and chaotic conflict and 'post-conflict' situations women and girls are often the victims of sexual violence including systematic rape as well as forced recruitment into armed movements and sexual slavery. As Amnesty International note; 'When political tensions degenerate into outright conflict, all forms of violence increase, including rape and other forms of sexual violence against women'¹⁴ The Amnesty Internationals report, which covers 131 countries

¹³ UN Resolution 1325, October 31 2000

¹⁴ Amnesty International, 2005

across the world, highlights some of examples of the impact of armed conflict on women in Africa. The gravest examples include systematic gang rape of women and young girls by the Janjawid militia in Darfur, Sudan and rape committed by armed groups as well as UN forces in the Democratic Republic of Congo.¹⁵

However, women do not simply represent passive victims. Women have played active roles both as combatants and commanders as well as being a driving force for peace, reconstruction and reconciliation. Despite the increasing recognition of the importance of mainstreaming gender into work on peace and security women remain to a large degree invisible. This invisibility manifests itself in the exclusion from high level peace-negotiations DDR initiatives, and post-conflict power structures. It has also been argued that women's contribution to early-warning has been undervalued, to the detriment of conflict prevention initiatives.

In order to address the invisibility of women and girls both as victims and actors within the context of armed conflict it is essential devise strategies for gender sensitive peace building and post conflict reconstruction as well as considering the role of women in early warning. This means women having an 'equitable presence at peace negotiations as well as in legislature and in the planning and operation of humanitarian interventions and peacekeeping missions. It has also been recommended that international Truth and Reconciliation Commissions be set-up to highlight the plight of female war victims'¹⁶.

The role of women soldiers must also be addressed in the war to peace transition. Female ex-combatants face different challenges to those of their male counterparts. Stereotypical notions of gender-appropriate work and behaviour are often re-mobilised in the war to peace transition. This can lead to the exclusion of female ex-combatants from re-insertion programmes as well as their failure to register due to social stigma. It has been noted that;

¹⁵ Amnesty International, 2005

¹⁶ UNIFEM Report on *Women, war and peace* in Conflict Trends 3/2003

There are few easy solutions for women who have been soldiers in wars in Africa. Assistance programs must first of all be aware that female ex-soldiers do exist, and then seek them out. To help these women on their way towards reintegration – if not within their original community, then somewhere else of their choosing – is a great challenge. Reintegration planners must also pay special attention to disabled women (and girl) veterans¹⁷.

2. Dealing with Armed Conflict

2.1 Terminology¹⁸

Commentators and practitioners have noted that the terminology used in relation to handling violent or armed conflict tends to be inconsistent. For the sake of clarity, the following section provides a brief definition of some of the most widely used terms. It should be noted that the list is not exhaustive and usage tends to vary from one analyst to another.

Conflict Resolution- is a widely used yet ambiguous term. It incorporates work that addresses and resolves the root causes of conflict. It is used both in reference to the intention to carry-out the above activities as well as the completion of the process.

Peace enforcement-the imposition of a settlement by a powerful third party

Peacekeeping (and peace support operations) -used generically to refer to UN and other regional body missions and operations that fall short of military combat. Peacekeeping has evolved from a focus on simply containing and stabilising the situation until negotiations produce a lasting peace agreement to and expansion of activities including, human rights monitoring, demobilisation activities, policing and temporary administration¹⁹.

¹⁷ Barth, E 2003: *The Reintegration of Female Soldiers in Post Conflict Societies*, Aid Workers Exchange

¹⁸ Definitions based on those given , IDASA, Mial et al 2005 and Mtikulu, 2005

¹⁹ Mtikulu, B 2005

Peace building refers to the full spectrum of intervention that is focused on restoring relations between groups that have been in conflict. As such peace building involves a number of different aspects, which may include forgiveness, cooperation, negotiation, mediation, facilitation, creation of mutual understanding, and/or reconciliation.

Track1 diplomacy – works from the top down and occurs between heads of state, other political figures and intergovernmental representatives. Track 1 diplomacy uses formal negotiations in an attempt to reach political agreements (peace agreements, ceasefire agreements etc).

Track 2 diplomacy is also top down but usually involves unofficial mid level leaders, from international NGOs, churches, academics and private business. It often used as a supplement or precursor to track 1 diplomacy.

Track 3 diplomacy works from the bottom up. It involves activity at grassroots level attempting to form and heal relationships between ordinary citizens in conflict areas

2.3 Conflict Resolution

There are varying approaches to conflict resolution. Some of these approaches are summarised below in a presentation given by Professor Prof Dirk Kotzé (UNISA) an IDASA/Fredskorpset workshop on peace and conflict resolution held in February 2006.

DIFFERENT CONTENDING APPROACHES TO CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Conflict resolution can be studied from several different perspectives or approaches.

The following are only a number of them:

- 1) Traditional methods of conflict resolution: gacaca (Rwanda), kgotla (Botswana), barza (DRC). More focus is placed on these methods and more research is done in this area.

- 2) Islamic approach to conflict resolution (Mali). Since 9/11 more sensitivity exists in Muslim community about negative stereotypes and association with terrorism. Paul Salem (American University, Beirut) has done important research work in this area.
- 3) Legal or judicial approach, especially the emphasis on transitional justice. It involves the use of truth commissions and criminal tribunals or special courts, and also the relationship between conflict / conflict resolution and public international law (especially international human rights law and international humanitarian law).
- 4) The institutional focus on the African Union: institutions like the early warning system, Standby-force and the Peace and Security Council are also a focus for research.
- 5) The reconciliation and state-building paradigm – discussed later.
- 6) Stabilization and consolidation of peace paradigm – discussed later.
- 7) Terrorism as a focus area – more in terms of multilateral cooperation than domestic conflict and policies; some countries have adopted legislation in this respect
- 8) Sociological approach: focus on women, child soldiers, refugees and IDPs in conflict.

Reconciliation and state-building paradigm

Used by SA government and Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA): Paradigm is democratization + economic development. Can also refer to it as an institutional or constitutional approach. It also includes the democratic peace paradigm. The paradigm consists of the following:

- Facilitation or mediation by eminent persons or Presidents: Nyerere, Mandela (Burundi), Masire (DRC), Moi (Sudan), Kiplagat (Somalia), Obasanjo and Mbeki on behalf of the AU (Darfur, Côte d'Ivoire, etc)
- Shuttle diplomacy, especially to negotiate a ceasefire with the rebel movements
- Dialogue to decide on the transition: Sun City (DRC), Naivasha and Machakos (Sudan)
- Negotiating a peace agreement (comprehensive peace agreement / global and inclusive accord)

- Two-phase constitution-making: first an interim constitution and then a final constitution, linked by an election
- A transitional package consisting of –
 - Government of National Unity
 - Truth commission
 - Integration of armed forces and DDR
 - Formation of commissions for human rights, election management, media, judicial services, etc.

Stabilisation and consolidation of peace paradigm

This paradigm is implicit in the approaches of the ISS, AU and in Côte d'Ivoire. It consists of:

- Predominantly a military/security focus: DDR (demobilization, disarmament and reintegration)
- Concentrate on involvement of UN and AU in humanitarian assistance and peace-keeping.
 - Introduce concept of 'post-conflict reconstruction' – example Sudan, Angola and Mozambique
- The deficiencies of this paradigm is captured in the new concept of 'developmental peace missions'.

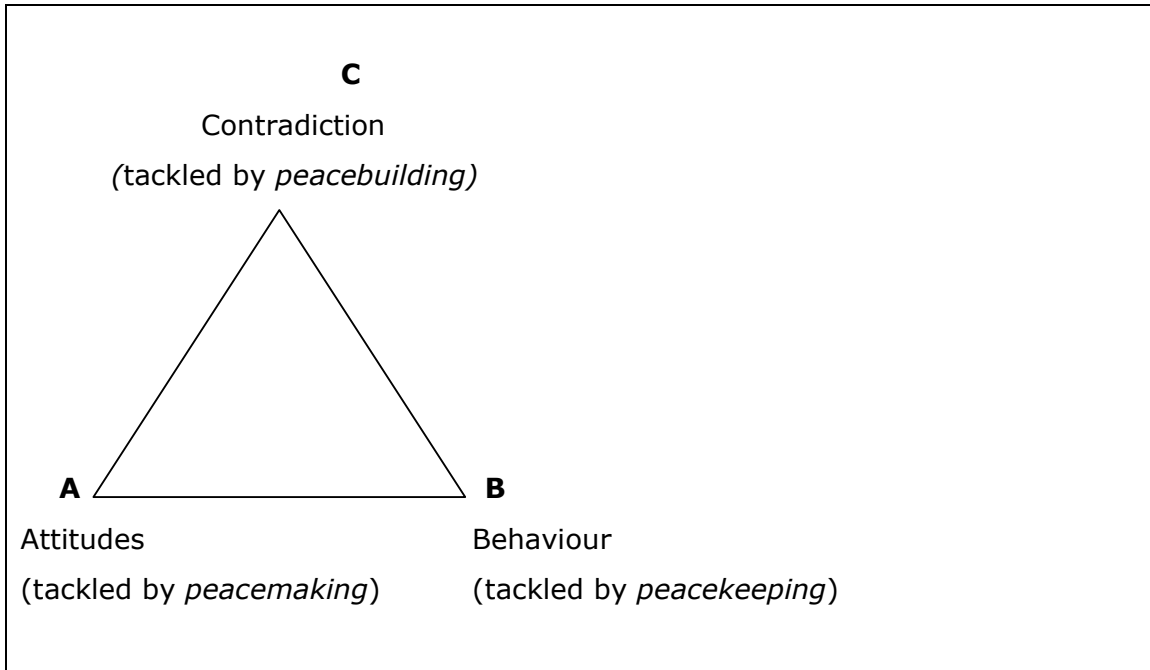
Terrorism (associated with the 'clash of civilisations' paradigm)

Involves mainly the AU and local law enforcement agencies + intelligence
It is more international in character than a domestic or African issue.

Galtung's influential model, in which he notes that conflict, can be viewed as a triangle with contradiction (i.e. Causes) at the top and behaviour and attitudes at the bottom corners is illustrated below. Figure shows which aspects of conflict are dealt with by which type of intervention. Causes (perceived or real) of incompatibility can be addressed through peacebuilding, attitudes of the conflict parties, in other words their perceptions of each other, can be tackled through

peacemaking and finally, behaviour, which may include threats and attacks, is tackled through peacekeeping²⁰.

Figure 4. Galtung's Conflict Triangle



Source: Galtung, Johan 1969

2.3 Peacekeeping in Africa

Peacekeeping missions tend to represent the first stage, in terms of top down interventions, in dealing with armed conflict. Peacekeeping missions aim is to stabilise the situation until negotiations produce a lasting peace agreement. In the past Peacekeeping missions have tended to be the preserve of the United Nations, with African countries contributing blue helmet troops to missions. In recent years there has been much discussion of the need to increase African capacity to deal with armed conflict in a self-sufficient manner. Much of the debate has focused on the African Union (AU) and its role in current and future peace-keeping missions on the continent. There has some been progress towards this end including the recent establishment of the AU-led mission in Sudan (AMIS) and moves towards developing the African Stand-by Force which

²⁰ See Miall et al 2005, Wallace, T and Jung, M, 2002

aims to provide, 'Equal distribution of labour on peacekeeping among the nations'²¹ A detailed discussion of peacekeeping in Africa is provided in "Conflict Trends" 04/2005 edition available through the ACCORD website.

Figure 5 Current African Peacekeeping Missions

MONUC: DRC

UNAMSIL: Sierra Leone

UNMIL: Liberia

UNOCI: Côte d'Ivoire

ONUB: Burundi

UNMIS: Sudan (Southern)

UNMEE: Ethiopia & Eritrea

AMIS: Sudan (Darfur)

Source: Accord: Conflict Trends, 2005.

Figure 5 shows African Peacekeeping missions at the time of writing. For further details on each of the below mission above see ACCORD Conflict Trends issue on Peacekeeping²² Up-to date information on UN peacekeeping missions in Africa is available through the UN website²³.

2.4 Democracy, Democratisation and Conflict

Democratisation is often promoted by the 'international community' sure-fire means of consolidating peace. It is based upon the observation that democracies do not go to war. It has lead to the common assumption that democracy should be introduced as soon as possible. Some analysts have been critical of this 'one-

²¹ Mtimkulu, B 2005 p 34 The African Union and Peace Support Operations,

²² For information via ACCORD on African peacekeeping missions visit, <http://www.accord.org.za/ct/2005-4.htm>

²³ For detailed information on UN peacekeeping missions visit: <http://www.un.org/Depts/dpko/dpko/index.asp>

size fits all' approach and argue that it is essential to critically examine the relationship between democracy, democratisation and violent conflict.

While the issue of democratisation in the aftermath of armed conflict is highly complex it still considered by many to be an essential element in consolidating peace. It has been argued that 'despite many trials and tribulations with democracy in today's multiethnic societies, no other form of government -- including non-democratic power sharing, party-based authoritarian control, rule by the military, or the overwhelming force of a dictatorship -- can more effectively reconcile competing social interests. For this reason, understanding how types and practices of democracy may contribute to or help exacerbate intractable conflict is a critical concern'²⁴ Organisations such as EISA address such issues through their programme on The Conflict Management, Democracy and Electoral Education, details available available via their website.

3 Preventing Armed Conflict

There is an increasing recognition amongst practitioners and policy makers that more energy and resources should be dedicated to preventing armed conflict. Conflict prevention aims to address root causes and escalating factors.

Conflict prevention 'aims both to prevent or impede violence and destructive conflict and to build a just and sustainable peace by transforming underlying 'latent' causes of conflict'²⁵

The 1999 Carnegie Commission Report on Preventing Deadly Conflict played a significant role in increasing focus on operational (immediate) and structural (root causes) conflict prevention. These concepts were later adopted by the international community and have become a cornerstone for thinking on conflict prevention. The African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes many other NGOs have devoted significant energy to conflict prevention over a number of years. More recently, the forging of civil society networks such as the Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict (GPPAC), is testament the shift in focus from reaction to prevention.

²⁴ Sisk, T, 2003

²⁵ 'Living Document on Civil Society and Conflict Prevention' by Dr. Catherine Barnes

The GPPAC was formed in response to the recommendations of UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan's in his report on the Prevention of Armed Conflict (2001) in which he called for NGOs with an interest in conflict prevention to organise at international level. The GPPAC initiator organisations for the African region include West Africa Network for Peace building (WANEP), The Nairobi Peace Initiative-Africa (NPI) and The African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes (ACCORD)²⁶.

Early warning is considered by some analysts as essential to conflict prevention. It has been described as 'any information from any source about escalatory developments, be they slow and gradual or quick and sudden, far enough in advance in order for a national government, or international or regional organisation to react timely and effectively, if possible still leaving them time to employ preventative diplomacy and other non coercive and non-military preventative measures' The potential role of women in early warning and importance of gender mainstreaming within UN conflict prevention has been a particularly interesting development to the debate²⁷.

Other analysts stress the importance of **conflict sensitive development**. Development and humanitarian assistance can create or fuel conflict. The think-tank 'Saferworld' note that 'certain large-scale irrigation systems in Africa, rather than helping to build prosperity, have only served to deepen conflicts between local communities over access to water' The organisation argues that development programmes should be informed by 'a thorough understanding of the actual and potential causes of violence'.²⁸ The role of aid in supporting peace or fueling conflict is discussed in work such as Mary Anderson's analysis 'Do no Harm'²⁹

End

²⁶ Details can be found in the resources and further reading section

²⁷ Hill, 2003

²⁸ Saferworld, section on Conflict-sensitive development available via website http://www.saferworld.org.uk/en/csd_uganda.html

²⁹ Anderson, M, 1999

Resources for Further Reading:

On-line Resources

General:

Accord: An International Review of Peace Initiatives (Published by Conciliation Resources)

URL: <http://www.c-r.org/accord/index.htm>

African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes (ACCORD)

http://www.accord.org.za/

Africa Peace Forum (APFO)

URL: <http://www.amaniafrika.org/>

Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (Johannesburg):

URL: www.wits.ac.za/csvr/

Centre for Conflict Resolutions (University of Cape Town)

URL: <http://ccrweb.ccr.uct.ac.za/>

International Peace Academy (IPA):

http://www.ipacademy.org/

International Alert:

URL: [http:// www.international-alert.org/](http://www.international-alert.org/)

International Crisis Group:

URL: <http://www.icg.org>

Journal of Humanitarian Assistance:

URL: <http://www.jha.ac>

Journal of Conflict Resolution

URL: <http://www.library.yale.edu/un/un2f1a1.htm>

Nairobi Peace Initiative – Africa (NPI-Africa)

<http://www.npi-africa.org>

Online Journal of Peace and Conflict Resolution

URL: <http://www.trinstitute.org/ojpcr/>

Relief web:

URL: www.reliefweb.int/w/rwb.nsf

West Africa Network for Peacebuilding (WANEP)

<http://www.wanep.org/index1.html>

Conflict Prevention

Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict

URL: <http://www.gppac.net/>

Forum on Early Warning and Early Response (FEWER)

URL: <http://www.fewer.org/>

Refugees and IDPS

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

URL: <http://www.UNHCR.org>

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre

URL: <http://www.internal-displacement.org>

Forced Migration Review

URL: <http://www.fmreview.org/>

US Committee for Refugees giving

URL: <http://www.refugees.org>

Conflict and Democracy

EISA project on Conflict Management, Democracy and Electoral Education (CMDEE) URL: <http://www.eisa.org.za/index.html>

International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance.
URL: <http://www.idea.int/>.

Gender, Armed Conflict and Peace

Peacewomen

URL: <http://www.peacewomen.org/>

UNIFEM Portal on Gender, Peace and Conflict

URL: <http://www.womenwarpeace.org/>

Books:

Searching for Peace in Africa, European Centre for Conflict Prevention, Utrecht, Netherlands, 1999).

Opportunities Missed, Opportunities Seized, (Bruce Jentleson (Ed), Rowman and Littlefield, Maryland, 2000).

Intermediaries in International Conflict, (Thomas Prince, Princeton University Press, New Jersey, 1995).

Preventing Violent Conflict, (Michael Lund, USIP Press, Washington, 1997).

Getting to Peace, (Bill Ury, Viking Press, New York, 1999).

Contemporary Conflict Resolution, (Miall, Ramsbotham, Woodhouse, Polity Press (eds), Cambridge, 1999).

Do no harm - How Aid Can Support Peace - or War, (Mary Anderson, Lynne Reiner Publishers, Boulder, Colorado, 1999).

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