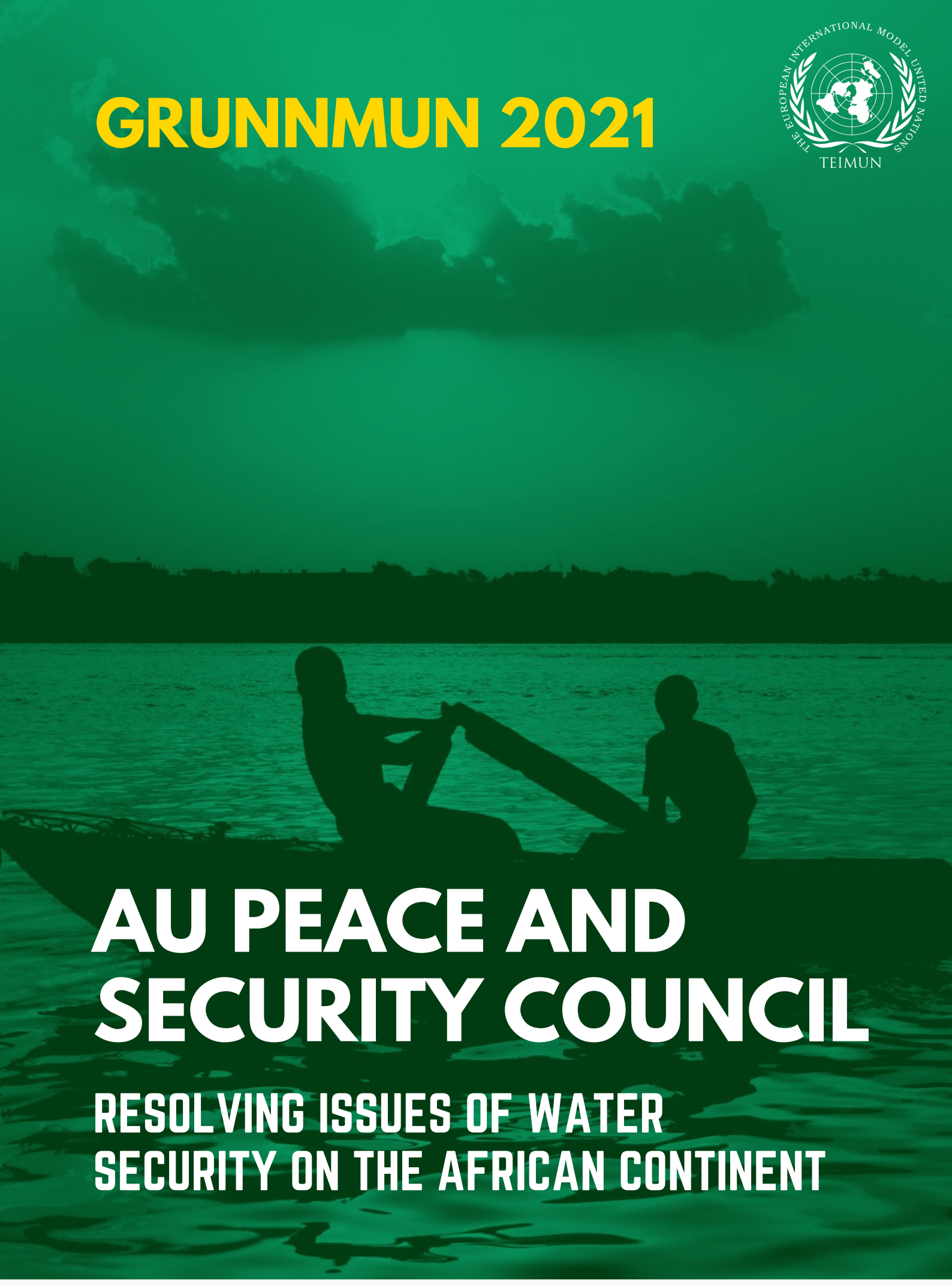
GRUNNMUN 2021



AU PEACE AND SECURITY COUNCIL

RESOLVING ISSUES OF WATER SECURITY ON THE AFRICAN CONTINENT

THE EUROPEAN INTERNATIONAL MODEL UNITED NATIONS

Contents

Welcome Letter

Dearest delegates of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union,

We, your chairs, are overjoyed to know that we will be meeting you this March! Here, we will introduce ourselves and offer you a short description of our council.

Philippe Lefevre

Hello everyone, my name is Philippe, and I'm a student of International Relations and Diplomacy at the College of Europe, with a background in IR and History. I've been doing MUN for (and exactly as I write this) 4 years and I happen to find myself in the sad situation where GrunnMUN might be my last one! I'm a big fan of all different types of MUN but regional committees, historical committees, and crises are particularly interesting to me.

Alongside MUN I also run a think tank, the Institute for a Greater Europe, and work on media and consulting projects in my (albeit limited) spare time. I look forward to meeting everyone at the conference hopefully in person.

Fun Fact: I've met almost the entire royal family (for you Crown enthusiasts).

Bart van Donselaar

Hey, I'm Bart. I'm 20 years old and will be one of your chairs of the African Union Peace and Security Council here at GrunnMUN 2021. This conference will mark my 21st MUN session and my 12th time chairing. I am currently studying International Relations & International Organization, and Minorities & Multilingualism at the University of Groningen, coping mostly by watching a lot of cat videos and listening to Cambodian rock music.

After my first MUN conference, I participated as a delegate, chair or secretariat member at other conferences. During my years in Groningen, I attended GrunnMUN and TEIMUN, which provided me with more than enough motivation to join GrunnMUN as a chair.

Fun Fact: I found out that I graduated high school during an MUN, and got to celebrate with all my MUN friends, doing something I love.

Our Council

The council that we will simulate is the Peace and Security Council, an organ of the African Union. Like the United Nation's security council, the AU PSC has 15 members, yet none are permanent or possess veto powers. The mandate of the council will be elaborated on shortly.

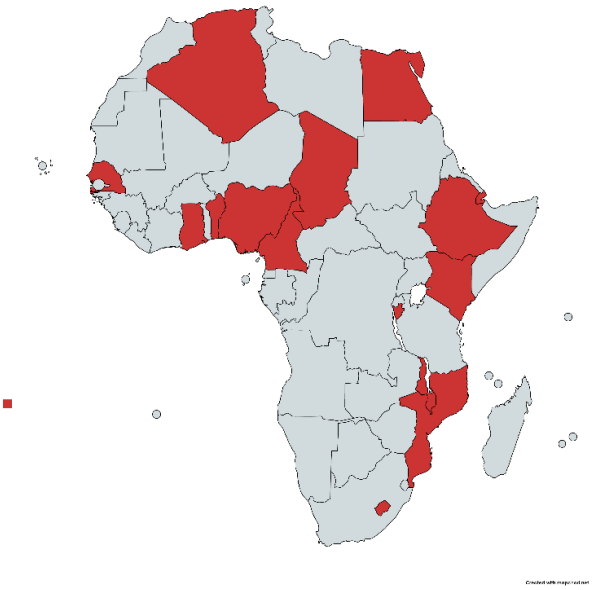
This guide is meant to serve as a basis for your preparation. You are encouraged to do your own research as well, especially about your country's position. If you have any questions or need help with your preparation, do not hesitate to get in touch – we are happy to help!

Sincerely yours,

Philippe Lefevre and Bart van Donselaar

Chairs of GrunnMUN 2021's African Union Peace and Security Council

Committee Description



The African Union Peace and Security Council (AU PSC) is one of the foremost organs of the African Union, created for the prevention, management, and resolution of conflicts. It acts as a security mediator for conflict and crisis issues across the African continent. Established in 2002, it has since worked with a rotating council of 15, rather like the UN Security Council, who are split into regional groups, reflecting some of the important actors with capacity and capability to contribute militarily and financially to the Union.

The PSC is tasked with anticipating and preventing disputes and thus frequently undertakes peace-making and peace-building activities. It also has a wide mandate to ensure the implementation of sanctions against AU Member States, ensure collective security, promoting disarmament, and supporting humanitarian action. It exerts some of the most important power the African Union has from its base in Addis Ababa in Ethiopia. It leads many peacekeeping efforts on the African continent alongside other UN or international actors and offers election protection in difficult times.

During the conference, the AU PSC will be hosting the 15 members currently presiding in the PSC: Algeria, Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, Djibouti, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Nigeria, Senegal.

Chaired by H.E. Smaïl Chergui, an Algerian diplomat, the committee will seek to add to the African Peace and Security Architecture, working with all the aspects of the PSC, including the Military Staff Committee and Committee of Experts. Furthermore, it may call upon Peace Support operations

The Committee will end its discussion with the creation of a PSC Decision, outlining the preambulatory concerns of the PSC, followed by the operative decisions it has made.

Introduction to the Topic

Africa is a vast continent with a diverse people and geography, containing some of the world's longest and most important waterways. The extent to which rivers have shaped the countries around them is difficult to exaggerate. Many nations, from Nigeria, Malawi and the Congo to many more take their names from the water sources around them, and the lifeblood of the country is dependent upon these water sources (Zeydan, 2005). A key example is the Nile, which has been tied to the ebb and flow of the countries of Egypt, Sudan, Uganda, and all the other countries from which its tributaries and sources drain from. For centuries, and indeed millennia, the management of these waterways and sources has been left to the local people, or to nature itself (Hunter et al, 2020). However, as industries become more dependent on them, and populations grow, these sources lack the ability to keep up (Oestigaard, 2012). As electricity requirements push countries to invest in hydroelectric power, most famous here being Ethiopia's Grand Renaissance Dam, it has become a source of tension for those further downstream, where damming can cause a loss of flow.

Cooperation over rivers and water sources has already been a strong area of some cooperation, with the River Niger being a good example (Goulden and Few, 2011). However, the instability around the waterways, and degradation of environmental resources continues to be a problem wracking many major rivers in Africa. The lack of proper water management and protection has led to tensions in the already tense regions of Kenya and Ethiopia, both of which have previously erupted into conflict (Kozacek, 2011) . Climate change, already pushing crop creation to new heights of instability, risks exacerbating this issue, making the possibility of droughts more and more common (Goulden and Few, 2011). Water has now become a vital strategic resource in ways that peacetime has not seen before.

Not that peacetime will necessarily remain for long. With no overarching water security architecture on the continent, the risk of conflict becomes ever higher. Threats of blows in regard to the aforementioned Grand Renaissance Dam have already been exchanged between Egypt and Ethiopia, potentially dragging more countries into conflict (Swain, 2020).

The Peace and Security Council must address this in the context of the security-threat it is. Whilst steps have been taken in many technical aspects of water management and governance, we must step up and face the problem head on, understanding that to solve the problem also brings benefits across the continent for the people of all countries, and create a framework that our children can live with.

Problem Specification

There are multiple areas that are especially vulnerable in terms of water scarcity. In these places, the rising tensions between competing agents have significant multi-dimensional consequences for the distribution of water resources. Below is an overview of the most common issues.

The African continent is not a homogenous entity. In different areas, water security must be attained through different solutions. Concretely, this means that a resolution needs to be sensitive to the geographic, political and social circumstance of specific areas of water

scarcity, and thus has to be informed by empirical findings in these sciences. Although the nitty-gritty of water governance on a case-by-case basis is not a main issue of this debate, the creation of a framework for the members of the African Union under which they can establish such water governance by means of intergovernmental cooperation is. What this will look like is up for debate, but to secure sustainable water governance for the whole of the continent, delegates are required to be well informed about the challenges to water governance in the countries that they represent. The need for security is clearly connected to concrete threats in the form of intergovernmental or domestic tensions. These are based on real threats to life and are diverse in their history. We do not expect to resolve all domestic or border conflicts but compromises in these areas will be essential for cooperation.

Although water security is important in coming to resolve broader questions of water security, debate should also touch on the inequality in access to water by various groupings. While being sensitive to such inequalities cannot improve the effectiveness of policy, such debates could also prove challenging and divisive, as uncomfortable discussions regarding systemic discrimination against certain groups might unfold new tensions between members of the council. Inequality also festers in the voices that are represented in the debate on water security, with local or regional perspectives rarely being included in the discussion. Therefore, the council should consider whether and if so how to empower local and regional actors.

Questions a Resolution Must Answer

With the problem specification in mind, there are four QARMAs. In order for a resolution to pass in this council, it should be able to answer these, and additional questions that might be discussed in the debate.

1. How can we ensure water governance is secure across the continent?
2. How can we reduce tensions in current security threats / zones related to water?
3. How can we ensure that everyone has equal access to water resources?
4. How can we ensure local and regional agency in the distribution of water resources?

As noted, be sure to answer these questions in the debate and in the final product of the council, the resolution. However, when other sub-questions to the main topic come up throughout the debate (and they should), we expect the resolution to have an adequate answer to those as well. For a resolution that answers these questions, extensive debate on them is necessary.

QARMA 1: How can we make sure water governance is secure across Africa?

Historical Background

The importance of water governance in Africa has been known since Ancient times, with the Greek historian Herodotus famously proclaiming: “Egypt is the Nile, and the Nile is Egypt”. For centuries, water governance was often taken as a system of how best to exploit the bountiful water supplies running across Africa. Colonial efforts to harness the infrastructure

of the continent were often geared towards improving agriculture for further exploitation, leaving vast swathes of land designed for large scale agriculture woefully dependent on heavy rainfall and water sources (Oestigaard, 2012). Early development led to a burst of agriculture in many African nations, increasing the populations of many countries quadruple fold, such as Egypt and Sudan, but also putting further pressure on the waterways themselves (Ibid). Not that this has been a problem just for the Nile and the 11 countries it borders, as similar issues and achievements have been found in the Niger Delta, the continent's 3rd biggest waterway, and the Congo river (Reddy, 2013).

Governance itself has been a contested matter for the centuries too, with early agreements on waterways, such as the 1929 Anglo-Egyptian Treaty on the Nile being heavily influenced by imbalanced Colonial forces (Storey, 2019). Since the independence of many African states from European countries, governance has often begun as a fragmented system, the transboundary realities of waterways being overturned by the central need of states to protect their people and control the water for their industries. Many communal aspects of water governance were left to local governance, often acting hard to coordinate ways, and with immediate pressures in mind (Hunter et al, 2020).

Other forms of Governance began to develop with the first major studies on water pressures in Africa, once again focusing on the Nile, in the 1950s and 60s (Oestigaard, 2012). The Jonglei Investigation team in 1953 already conclusively understood the pressures of population on the Nile, which quickly became true (Ibid). Soon after, bilateral treaties between states along the same waterway, the Niger and Nile key amongst these, proliferated. The focus quickly became the quality of water governance, focusing on aspects of sustainability, but with little focus on wider issues of continental water governance and security. Much of the late 20th Century has left the issues of water governance off the agenda, and only since the 2000s has regular policymaking and issue building occurred in this area (Economic Commission for Africa, 2009).

Recent Developments

Decentralization has become a key part of the work on water governance in Africa since management on the topic was first discussed in 1992 (African Development Bank, 2019). The idea of transferring political and practical power to manage governance helps to encourage the principles of good governance amongst the local populations that have been managing it, whilst also allowing for larger coordination on a wider schema. Adaptation policies are generally crafted and managed locally, with reliance often stronger in more formal settlements. Nonetheless, a lack of effectively planned responses to climate issues and management persits (Hunter et al, 2020).

Outside of the strict realm of water governance, good governance measures themselves have proliferated throughout the continent. Whilst still rooted in western ideas of "governance", there has been a distinct need to increase transparency and root out corruption from all forms of governance (African Development Bank, 2019). Especially in cities, including some of the biggest on the continent in Nairobi and Lagos, water corruption has led to organized crime groups running water systems, mismanagement of water allocation amongst farmers, and little to no accountability (Ibid).

Recent developments have also looked at the range of other governance issues at multi-level areas. Macro (country wide) and micro (local and sectoral) water governance has been increasingly necessary to develop newer aspects of governance which have until recently

been taken into isolation. Recent studies have shown that those with the least water services have the weakest governance, and thus coordinated governance issues are required (Plummer and Slaymaker, 2007).

Relevant Actors and Institutions

The United Nations Environmental Programme has been at the forefront of water governance issues for decades, alongside the UN Economic Commission for Africa. As a global organization with research and experts worldwide, it has helped draft the Africa Water Vision for 2025, a recommended reading, and continues to help the continent in matters of security and governance.

Furthermore, the African Development bank, which works in close cooperation with the African Union, has worked strongly with the AU in financing and supporting actions on water governance. Similarly, the African Minister's Council on Water (AMCOW), formed in 2002, has worked on the ministerial level to support good water sanitation and security frequently, even pushing for the "African Water Week" which has shed a spotlight on the issue of Water security since 2008.

Other actors are incredibly varied across the countries of Africa, with many featuring some level of devolution and decentralisation, there is an explicit need to address these requirements for redistributing power to deal with water governance issues, and bring power to the locals who deal with it on a day-to-day basis.

International Approaches that Have Already Been Undertaken

The Dar Es Salaam roadmap for achieving water security and sanitation was an important roadmap for sustainable and universal access for Water in Africa, building off six years of the African Water Week ministerial meetings by the AWCOM. It is an important document for improving governance in the area, yet its implementation has been marred by difficulties for practical considerations.

The United Nations "Water for Life" program from 2005-2015 was important for helping African countries achieve the Millennium Development goals (which relate to all aspects of Water security and is found frequently in this guide), helping to improve sanitation and water governance across the continent.

A myriad of climate-change related responses, especially in the context of the Sustainable Development Goals, have touched on aspects of Water Governance and security, but remain fragmented in their relationship to explicit security measures.

QARMA 2: How can we reduce tensions in current security threats / zones related to water?

History of the Problem

Water has been a part of conflict and warfare since it became a resource to fight over (Zeidan, 2005). What transforms it into a true threat is its use and manipulation by actors willing to use it to trigger conflict or to gain an advantage inside a conflict. Water itself is not

a threat and will not as some people call "become the new oil", since it is not necessarily a commodity like that. However, Water is a threat multiplier, if there are issues of instability, be it ethnic, tribal, political, social, these can be exacerbated by water scarcity, or the threat of it (PowerII et al, 2017). Once again, the dramatic issues with climate change lead more people to think of water scarcity as a threat, and work to make actors who might already be paranoid and tense to be even more so.

A historical example in the Middle East has been the Jordan River, where threats to the Sea of Galilee between Syria, Jordan, and Israel, have been frequently targeted across it's time as a British Mandate, Jordanian Rule, and Israeli Administration (Lowi, 1993). During the Sudanese Civil War, the Nile became an area of significant water insecurity where canals became targeted, and the ecologically more deserted north became at odds with the wetter north (Oestigaard, 2012).

Most conflicts have arisen over the concept of damming waterways, with the Nile once again being a significant example. When damming a river, issues arise from both the effects on the river from the Dams construction, and the longer-term effect. In the short term, in order to create a reservoir from which to create a steady stream of water, a large area must be flooded, meaning that there will be a temporary lack of flow downstream, as well as destruction to the local life around the flooded reservoir. In the longer-term, the flow of the stream could be permanently affected. When attached to the Nile, Egypt has been the most angered by these effects, with the Jonglei Dam in Sudan setting off much controversy (Oestigaard).

Recent Developments

One of the major projects that has brought this to the forefront has been the Ethiopian Grand Renaissance Dam, which to some has already brought conflict to its surroundings. The local resistance in Tigray, a region of Northern Ethiopia, erupted in 2020, with some claiming that issues of local water and resource management exacerbated the already discontent Tigray Regional Government and the Central government (Swain, 2020; Wolfe, 2020). As well as this, the Dam itself would become the largest hydroelectric power plant in Africa and take between 5 and 15 years to fill. According to Egypt, the length of time that the flow will be diminished is unacceptable, and strong words have been exchanged over the filling process, which began in July 2020. This project is a good case study for the possibilities of conflict over water, and should be taken as a starting point to work through difficulties on an African wide basis.

The underfunding and already critical situation of many countries facing water security threats has only exacerbated contemporary issues. As mentioned, it is those already facing tensions that are most affected by water insecurity, with those also usually having less capacities to bring themselves to a more secure situation (Economic Commission for Africa, 2009).

Relevant Actors and Institutions

In these cases, it is very much the nation states and their regional governments who are the key actors. It requires a strong look at a nation's growth and development to understand the ways it can work with its natural water resources.

The United Nations, both the UNSC and UNEP, has focused heavily on the threat of Water Security for the past few decades. In 2001 then-UN Sec Gen Kofi Annan acknowledged that the fierce competition for water could become a source of conflict. Since then, action by the UNSC has attempted to highlight issues of water security world-wide.

International Approaches that Have Already Been Undertaken

The Water, Peace and Security Tool has been developed by US and European organizations to seek where potential conflicts over water security could emerge and highlight to the global community ways this can be halted. Supported by UNESCO Chairs of studies and Universities from around the world, it focuses keenly on these issues: https://waterpeacesecurity.org/

Treaties to support flow have been used frequently, such as the Nile Waters Treaty between Egypt and Sudan in 1959, but these treaties are often short-lived owing to geographical changes. Furthermore, other actors such as Ethiopia do not recognise these treaties, and thus have continued their operations below.

The Blue Peace Framework has been a pioneering water security framework for the Middle East and has made incursions into a framework for African water peace too: https://www.thebluepeace.org/about-blue-peace-who-we-are

QARMA 3: How can we ensure that everyone has equal access to water resources?

Historical background

Access to water resources has historically been unequal, and this inequality can be identified along certain lines. Concretely, low-income households and individuals face additional challenges to accessing water resources. When inquiring how this inequality takes place on a larger scale, one quickly finds that clean water is simply not affordable in many cases (Muller, 2018). Water often needs cleaning treatment, which drives up the price. There are cheaper options for water, but these are less safe. In times of drought or during floods, the lack of water supply disproportionally hurts the same demographic (Muller, 2018).

Inequality also happens when political borders affect access to water; physical geography is not controlled by the location of an artificial line on a map. When one country builds a dam on a river to retain water in a basin, countries that lie down the stream of that same river suffer the consequences. When there is a drought in an area, the effects of are not contained within the political borders of a country. Hence why this issue is transboundary and requires cooperation to be resolved.

Human geography, the study of where people live, offers intriguing insights into the inequality caused by a lack of water infrastructure. Where there is plenty of it in urbanized areas (cities), it tends to be lacking in rurally organized areas. Water infrastructure is key in getting water from sources to the consumer, and when it fails, individuals are at risk (Toulmin, 2009).

For water to be accessible, it needs to be affordable - meaning affordable for all. But if water should be affordable, how can that be realized? And do governments have a role in securing water for everyone, regardless of their socio-economic circumstance?

Most research done regarding water governance in Africa is done on the Southern African macro-region. Some of the research might not apply to every instance of water mismanagement elsewhere. Keep that in mind when reading this guide and researching information for the country you represent.

Recent Developments

Overall access to water has in recent decades been influenced by the consequences of global climate change and large-scale population growth across the African continent. The same population tends to urbanize. These dynamics exacerbate existing inequalities and will thus be considered below.

Climate change leads to an increase in the frequency of natural water disasters, i.e., floods and droughts. How droughts cause water scarcity seems obvious; floods, however, endanger water accessibility in another way. Clean water can become contaminated because of flooding and debris from physical damage to infrastructure can constrain drainage. Water service can thus be complicated by both too much and too little water (Toulmin, 2009).

Because of rising living standards, communities are increasing their consumption of water and thus fuelling demand. Urban communities tend to have a higher amount of access to water than rural communities, and urbanization and population growth only exacerbate this disparity (Ashton, 2005; Showers, 2002)

Relevant Actors and Institutions

Much of the international organization of water resources in Africa takes place on various regional platforms. For many southern African countries, the SADC performs statistical research and functions as a platform for intergovernmental research. There are also regional organizations specifically for water governance in certain areas, such as the Lake Chad Basin Commission (LCBC). However, like many regional bodies, the LCBC has failed to make significant progress in the era of water governance (Nakayama, 2003; Muller 2018).

In the southern African region, national water governance is poorly organized and local organizations try to take care of some of the needs of communities (Muller, 2018). How this leads to discrepancies in the debate on water governance is partially covered in the last QARMA explanatory section, but suffice to say that in many instances, national governments are out of touch with the needs of people on ground.

Past International Approaches

Important to mention is that increasing access to water and sanitation was one of the Millennium Development Goals set by the United Nations. In the period 2000-2015, there was significant progress (Toulmin, 2009), but as we now know, many of the goals set by leaders were not reached. New goals were set, namely the Sustainable Development Goals.

Yet again, sustainable access to water and sanitation is on the agenda, with concrete goals set by many world leaders.

Not many other internationally coordinated approaches exist. Investment from Western countries, either by private or public bodies does take place, though this is often in the form of charity donations, thus non-governmentally. This is further covered in the last QARMA explanatory section. Effective international water governance is generally lacking, which is why a discussion on this platform would be highly beneficial in real life.

(Wikimedia Commons)

QARMA 4: How can we ensure local and regional agency in the distribution of water resources?

Historical Background

The discussion has been largely informed by national and international perspectives, while local and regional expertise can improve water management and is necessary to satisfy the needs of people on the ground. The exclusion of these perspectives has for a long time limited communities ability to secure and manage local water resources. This is exacerbated by many of these resources being owned by international actors, rather the people who use them and thus offer local expertise.

Further, outside discourse on Africa often paints it as a helpless homogenous entity that needs to be saved by outside parties. This discourse further works to take a way agency from local and regional communities, but also from national entities. It is true that certain countries on the African continent lack resources in the field of water governance (as an example), but that does not mean the people and institutions are helpless and need saving. This applies to water governance aid and to development aid in general (Cherlet & Venot, 2003; Mawdsley, 2014).

Portraying the African continent as helpless has real-world consequences: there is much foreign aid from non-African governments to African countries. This might or might not occur in good faith, but it does expose countries to systemic instabilities if aid is suddenly

withdrawn. This can work to reinforce colonial ties and take away the agency governments have over their (water) policy (Mawdsley, 2014).

Recent Developments

In the 21st century, Chinese foreign aid to various African countries has increased significantly. One of many forms of such aid is the creation of and investment in water infrastructure projects. The loans taken out to finance these projects can be predatory, and in general China tends to invest in projects that eventually will serve their geopolitical interests. All the while, agency over project development is put in foreign hands (Sun, 2014). Other countries are not off the hook, though: in general, modern foreign aid continues to have the same self-fulfilling effects of taking away agency from local, regional and national entities in Africa and placing it in the hands of outsiders (Lyons, 2014). There are many concrete examples of (predatory) foreign aid investments, specifically into water infrastructure projects, from non-African countries.

Foreign aid does not only take away ownership of the physical water infrastructure that is essential in getting water to consumers, but this aid also revokes ownership from water policy. Recently, governments increasingly create policy that is in the interests of foreign donors, which means the needs of the people that should be served are systematically ignored (Cherlet & Venot, 2003).

Promising developments can be found in Integrated Water Resource Management (IWRM). This is a loose policy program that emphasizes good governance and the connection between water and land resources and economic and social welfare. Local and regional needs are also integrated (Funke et al., 2007).

Relevant Actors and Institutions

China and other major nation states that invest in water projects are key in this area, providing us with countless examples of foreign water aid that has been difficult to reconcile with local ownership. Foreign development more generally in Africa has been of a controversial nature, with some claims of neo-colonialism, whilst the very real need for investment into the continent increases. A balance must be struck in order to create unity on these matters and make sure no-one is left behind.

Local and regional governments are vital for improving agency in this area, and empowerment of these governments and politics is necessary if there is to be a successful approach towards this issue. Many countries, such as Nigeria, Ethiopia, and Cameroon, feature levels of federalization, or decentralisation, and all countries have some level of local governance that can be improved with central governments.

National governments themselves are of course also key in this and must attempt to strike the aforementioned balance between investment and interest of foreign donors, to recruit the help of investors without neglecting their responsibility to their constituents.

Past International Approaches

The UN's Integrated Water Resources Management, a part of the aforementioned Decade for Action "Water for Life" 2005-2015, which sought to lay out key international

development objectives for water management that can help push for local and regional ownership of development issues. It is an important contribution to the partnership between Water governance of local and national authorities and aid donors around the world.

The African Development Bank in its Water Sector Governance (explained earlier too) has reached out for a new Water Partnership Programme that seeks to further the local ownership dimension of water governance.

Sources for Further Research

The Africa Water Vision for 2025. An important development for the millennium created by the United Nations Commission for Africa and the African Development Bank.

The Dar es Salaam Roadmap for achieving the N'gor Commitments on Water Security and Sanitation in Africa. Passed by the African Ministers' Council on Water and a key document in the commitment to Water security.

The Regional Water Protection Framework. Created by the Blue Peace Bulletin it draws from research in Middle Eastern water security studies and has developed exciting ideas for regional water protection worldwide.

The Water Peace and Security Map. Created by the aforementioned Water peace and Security Partnership, it is a great visualisation of some of the key crisis areas across Africa (and the world) that will be important to look into for the committee.

The Blue Peace Index. A Similar project from the Blue Peace Initiative looking a countries with a significant risk of going into water-related conflicts or being exacerbated by water scarcity.

Theory and Practice of Water Sector Governance in Africa. Created by the African Development Bank as part of its Water Partnership Programme, a fantastic understanding of metrics and theory in Water Governance.

Major River Basics of Africa. A good geographical and political overview of the Major River basins of Africa which are important to understand the realm of Water Security.

Bibliography

African Development Bank. Water Sector Governance in Africa The Water Partnership Program and Its Mission, 2019. www.afdb.orgTel.

African Union Directorate of Information and Communication. "African Water Ministers Adopt Dar Es Salaam Roadmap for Achieving Water Security and Sanitation," 2016. https://au.int/en/pressreleases/20160726-1.

African Union. "The Peace & Security Council |." Accessed January 16, 2021. https://au.int/en/psc.

Ashok Swain. "Egypt, Ethiopia, Sudan: Grand Renaissance Dam Tensions Rise — Quartz Africa." Quartz Africa, 2020. https://qz.com/africa/1887231/egypt-ethiopia-sudan-grand-renaissance-dam-tensions-rise/.

Ashton, P. (2005). "Water and Development: A Southern African Perspective". In Trottier, J., & Slack, P. (Eds.), Managing Water Resources, Past and Present (pp. 149-74). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Cherlet, J., & Venot, J.-P. (2003). Structure and Agency: Understanding Water Policy Changes in West Africa. Water Policy 15, 479-95. London: IWA Publishing.

Codi Kozacek. "Water Conflict: Violence Erupts Along Ethiopia-Kenya Water-Stressed Border - Circle of Blue." Circle of Blue, 2011. https://www.circleofblue.org/2011/world/water-conflict-violence-erupts-along-ethiopias-and-kenyas-water-stressed-border/.

Economic Commission for Africa. "The Africa Water Vision for 2025: Equitable and Sustainable Use of Water for Socioeconomic Development." Economic Commission for Africa, 2009.

Funke, N., Oelofse, S.H.H., Hattingh, J., Ashton, P.J., & Turton, A.R. (2007). IWRM in developing countries: Lessons from the Mhlatuze Catchment in South Africa, Physics and Chemistry of the Earth, Parts A/B/C 32(15-8), 1237-45. London: Elsevier Science Ltd. doi : 10.1016/j.pce.2007.07.018.

Futehally, Ilmas. "Preventing Water Wars: How to Build Bridges over River Disputes." The Guardian, 2014. https://www.theguardian.com/global-development-professionals-network/2014/sep/30/water-wars-conflict-peace-nile-africa.

Goulden, Marisa, and Roger Few. "Climate Change , Water and ConfliCt in the Niger River Basin." Usaid, 2011. https://www.wilsoncenter.org/event/climate-change-water-and-conflict-the-niger-river-basin.

Hunter, N. B., M. A. North, D. C. Roberts, and R. Slotow. "A Systematic Map of Responses to Climate Impacts in Urban Africa." Environmental Research Letters. IOP Publishing Ltd, October 1, 2020. https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ab9d00.

Lowi, M. (1993). Water and Power: The Politics of a Scarce Resource in the Jordan River Basin (Cambridge Middle East Library). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. doi:10.1017/CBO9780511598708

Lyons, J. (2014, October 13). Foreign Aid is Hurting, Not Helping Sub-Saharan Africa. Le Journal International. https://www.lejournalinternational.fr/

Mawdsley, D.E. (2012). From Recipients to Donors: Emerging Powers and the Changing Development Landscape. Zed Books Ltd.

Muller, M. (2018). "Water Security in a Southern African Context". In World Water Council (Eds.), Global Water Security: Water Resources Development and Management (pp. 165-84). Singapore: Springer. doi: 10.1007/978-981-10-7913-9_7

Nakayama, M. (2003). International Waters in Southern Africa. United Nations University Press.

Oestigaard, Terje. "Water Scarcity and Food Security along the Nile: Politics, Population Increase and Climate Change." Current African. Vol. 1, 2012. https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/152248/FULLTEXT01-5.pdf.

Plummer, Janelle, and Tom Slaymaker. "Rethinking Governance in Water Services," 2007. https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/602.pdf.

Powell, Neil, Rasmus Kløcker Larsen, Annemarieke de Bruin, Stina Powell, and Carmen Elrick-Barr. "Water Security in Times of Climate Change and Intractability: Reconciling Conflict by Transforming Security Concerns into Equity Concerns." Water (Switzerland) 9, no. 12 (2017). https://doi.org/10.3390/w9120934.

Ratna Reddy, V. "Water Security and Management: Lessons from South Africa." Economic & Political Weekly. Vol. 37, 2013.

Showers, K.B. (2002). Water Scarcity and Urban Africa: An Overview of Urban–Rural Water Linkages. World Development 30(4), 621-48. London: Elsevier Science Ltd.

Simon Wolfe. "Escalating Tigray Conflict Can Spiral into a Regional Water War." BusinessDay, 2020. https://www.businesslive.co.za/bd/opinion/2020-12-07-escalating-tigray-conflict-can-spiral-into-a-regional-water-war/.

Storey, Henry. "Crisis on the Nile: Egypt's Water Security under Threat." Foreign Brief, 2019. https://www.foreignbrief.com/middle-east/crisis-on-the-nile-egypts-water-security-under-threat/.

Sun, Y. (2014, February 7). China's Aid to Africa: Monster or Messiah? Brookings. https://www.brookings.edu/

Toulmin, C. (2009). Climate Change in Africa. Zed Books Ltd.

Zeidan, Bakenaz A. "Water Security and Population Dynamics in the Nile River Basin." Tenth International Water Technology Conference, IWTC10 2006, 2005. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/237276301.