The Effects of Neocolonialism on Africa’s Development

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Abstract

This article examines the effects of neocolonialism on Africa’s development and explores potential strategies to counter its negative impact. The legacy of colonialism has cast a long shadow over the continent, with neocolonial practices posing significant obstacles to sustained socio-economic growth and self-determination. This study aims to extensively understand neocolonialism’s multifaceted impacts on Africa’s economic growth and development by employing a qualitative approach and analyzing secondary data sources. The analysis highlights the intricate dynamics of neocolonial control in Africa, including economic dominance, political interference, cultural subjugation, and power imbalances. Moreover, it sheds light on the role of foreign aid and trade, multinational corporations, and international financial institutions in perpetuating neocolonial practices. These means and mechanisms enable the former colonial powers to exert indirect influence over Africa’s economic and political landscape, impeding genuine progress. Findings reveal that Africa’s nominal and flag independence following decolonization has not translated into genuine autonomy and self-sufficiency. Instead, the continent continues to face economic dependence, corruption, and stunted development due to neocolonial exploitation. The exploitation of Africa’s vast natural and human resources, unequal trade relationships, and support for authoritarian regimes have all contributed to the continent’s ongoing struggles. To address these challenges, the article proposes tentative strategies and solutions. These include promoting fair trade practices, empowering African nations to regain control over their resources and economies, promoting regional integration and cooperation, strengthening governance and institutions, and fostering a more equitable global economic order. Africa can achieve genuine economic growth, social progress, and self-determination by countering neocolonial practices and fostering sustainable development. Acknowledging the complex web of neocolonial dynamics is crucial for formulating effective strategies and policies to dismantle neocolonial structures and promote sustainable development.

Keywords: Development, Neocolonialism, Underdevelopment, Dependency, and Exploitation

Introduction

Colonialism ravaged Africa, but neocolonialism is thwarting the seed of African growth and development. Many scholars, as well as historians who wrote on colonialism, focused more on the facts that Africa was and is inordinately exploited of their human (slavery) and natural (raw materials) resources as well as endure brutal and tyrannical control of the imperialist’s power,
but this is one aspect of it. The other part is the Berlin Conference of 1885, which divided the African continent into political units and colonies and merged people who were not supposed to be together.

The Europeans scrambled Africa without consulting Africans, created artificial boundaries without due consideration of traditional boundaries, displaced Africans and separated language groups from each other, merged independent villages and communities, and turned African colonies into plantations and mineral mines. This is why one ethnic group in Africa can be located in various African countries. For instance, the Yoruba tribe can be found in Nigeria, Ghana, Benin, and Togo; the San tribe can be found in South Africa, Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland, Botswana, Namibia, and Angola; the Berbers tribe can be found in Morocco, Algeria, and Libya; Somali tribe can be found in Somalia, Djibouti, Ethiopia, and Kenya; Hutu tribe can be found in Rwanda, Burundi, and DR Congo; and Chewa tribe can be found in Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe (Saylor, 2011).

The scrambling of Africa explains, to a greater extent, the reason behind many internal conflicts and development crises within African countries to date. To be specific, most of these conflicts circulate around tribal and ethnic struggles as well as state boundary crises. While there may be other reasons, this explains the rationale behind Africa’s stunt development. The Berlin conference, which was disguised under the cloak of abolishing the slave trade and modernizing Africa, was intended to achieve “European’s economic greed which manifested in their occupying territories and developing their trade at the expense of Africans and African resources and avoiding conflicts which had increased due to their contests to occupy the West African coasts and settle in these coasts. The long-term result of the conference was the re-design of a new political, racial, and national map for Africa” (African Union, 1995, p.7).

After the Second World War that ravaged the European economy, colonial governments became increasingly aware that colonial rule could not continue. They were under pressure to defend why they were keeping African societies under their rule, notwithstanding the United Nations’ declaration of the right to self-determination. While they responded that Africans were being prepared for future self-government, the truth remains that they were not ready to hand over rule to African people. The wave of African independence, which started in the late 1950s, saw countries like South Africa, Egypt, Malawi, Ghana, Nigeria, Uganda, Tanzania, Lesotho,
Swaziland, Botswana, and others gain independence peacefully. At the same time, colonies like Angola, Mozambique, Algeria, and Kenya were forced to fight wars to win their independence from their colonial masters (South African History Online, 2019).

The changing scenario of world politics saw the collapse of former imperialist powers (i.e., Germany, Belgium, France, Britain, Portugal, Spain, and others.) and the emergence of new imperialist powers (i.e., the erstwhile Soviet Union and the United States). The influence of the new imperialist power in the decolonization of Africa was not unintentional; the Cold War between the two superpowers and the quest to preach US-dominated capitalism and former USSR-dominated communism are the motivating factors behind their support (Shafiqur et al., 2017). After the wave of independence, the expectations of most those seeking freedom and independence from colonialism were dashed into the whirlwind as most African countries were politically independent but economically and socially dependent, hence nominal and flag independence. Many African countries were given independence on asymmetric terms that favored the ex-colonists at the expense of the colonized.

Furthermore, the colonialists handed power over to the comprador bourgeoisie - “the wealthy, educated and exploitative native elites or classes that unconditionally submit to the colonial dictations both in political and economic relations” (Aamir, 2015, p. 6). Also, the major political, economic, and sociocultural ideas, beliefs, norms, values, practices, institutions, and structures introduced by the imperialists were not dismantled at independence - this paved the way for the new form of colonialism in post-colonial African states. Neocolonialism does not require physical, direct control or manipulation by the imperial power; rather, it is through means and mechanisms like foreign aid, foreign trade, multinational corporations, foreign direct investments, international financial organizations, media, and literature. As a result, African countries have remained at the mercy of their former colonial masters and imperialists’ design and in the shackles of poverty, corruption, economic dependence, and stunted development with little or no hope of progressing soon.

This article uses a qualitative approach and secondary data sources to argue that neocolonial practices have hindered Africa’s economic growth and development. It also highlights the role of foreign aid, foreign trade, multinational corporations, Bretton Wood Institutions, corrupt African elites, and others in perpetuating neocolonial control and the negative effects of neocolonialism.
on Africa’s economic growth and development. Additionally, it proposed tentative strategies and solutions to counter these effects. It concludes by emphasizing that the end of formal colonialism in Africa did not signal the end of foreign control over the continent and that neocolonialism continues to pose significant obstacles to African countries’ economic growth and development. The exploitation of natural resources, dependence on foreign trade and investment, and support for authoritarian leaders have all contributed to the ongoing struggles of the continent. While African nations should empower themselves to take control of their resources and economies, the international community should also recognize and help address these issues to facilitate sustainable growth and development in Africa.

**Statement of the Problem**

The legacy of colonialism continues to cast a long shadow over Africa’s development trajectory. Despite gaining political independence from their colonial masters several decades ago, many African nations still grapple with numerous challenges that hinder their progress toward sustained economic growth, social advancement, and self-determination. A phenomenon known as neocolonialism has emerged as a critical obstacle, characterized by indirect forms of control and exploitation by former colonial powers. Neocolonialism in Africa takes various forms, including economic dominance, political interference, cultural subjugation, and unequal power dynamics. This article aims to analyze the multifaceted effects of neocolonialism on Africa’s development and propose tentative strategies and initiatives to counter its negative impact, empowering African nations to achieve self-sustaining and equitable growth.

**Research Objectives**

- To analyze and evaluate the effects of neocolonialism on Africa’s economic growth and development.
- To examine the role of foreign aid, foreign trade, multinational corporations, and international financial institutions in perpetuating neocolonial control in Africa.
- To identify and assess the negative consequences of neocolonialism on Africa’s economic growth and development.
- To propose strategies and solutions to counter the effects of neocolonialism and promote sustainable development in Africa.

**Research Questions**
What are the effects of neocolonialism on Africa’s economic growth and development?

How do foreign aid, foreign trade, multinational corporations, and international financial institutions contribute to neocolonial control in Africa?

What are the negative consequences of neocolonialism on Africa’s economic growth and development?

What strategies and solutions can be proposed to counter the effects of neocolonialism and promote sustainable development in Africa?

**Review of Literature**

**Conceptual Review: Neocolonialism**

To define neocolonialism properly, it is important to define colonialism, and in this article, neocolonialism and imperialism will be used synonymously. Etymologically, colonialism is derived from the Latin word *colonus*, meaning farmer or inhabitant. Sarah Trembath stresses that “*colonus* as an etymology of colonialism is a subtle reminder that the practice of colonization usually involved the transfer of population to a new region, where the arrivals lived as permanent settlers while upholding political, economic, and social allegiance to their country of origin” (Trembath, 2022). Hence, colonialism according to English Oxford Dictionary is “the policy or practice of attaining full or partial political control over another country, dwell in it with settlers, and exploiting it economically.” It involves subjugating people to another, and the subordinated society and its population are legally inferior (Ulrike, 2012).

Colonialism can be in the form of settler, exploitation, plantation, surrogate, and internal colonialism - all of which are exploitative and oppressive (Oko et al., 2022). Neocolonialism, on the other hand, is a new form of colonialism. The French philosopher Jean-Paul Sartre coined the term in 1956, but Kwame Nkrumah first used it concerning the decolonization of African countries (Ardant, 1965). Stressing this, Oseni Taiwo affirms:

> Neocolonialism is the subtle propagation of socio-economic and political activity by former colonial rulers aimed at strengthening capitalism, neo-liberal globalization, and cultural suppression of their former colonies. In a neocolonial state, the former colonial rulers ensure that the newly sovereign colonies remain dependent on them for economic and political direction. The dependency and exploitation of the socio-economic and political lives of the now
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sovereign colonies are executed for the economic, political, ideological, cultural, and military gains of the colonial masters’ home states. This is usually carried out through indirect control of the economic and political activities of the newly sovereign states instead of through direct military control, as in the colonial era (Oseni, 2022).

Echoing the above, Serequeberhan (1998) affirms that “neocolonialism in Africa is that which internally replicates in a disguised manner what was carried out during the colonial period. This disguised form constitutes the nature of the European neocolonial conquest as it concerns the politics of economic, cultural, and scientific subordination of African states” (ibid., p. 13). Through the guise of developmental aid and support and technological and scientific aid, the ex-colonial masters enforce their hegemonic political and cultural control in the form of neocolonialism. In Neocolonialism: The Last Stage of Imperialism, Kwame (1965) affirms that “neocolonialism is the worst form of imperialism. For those who practice it, it means power without responsibility; for those who suffer from it, it means exploitation without redress. The essence of neocolonialism is that the State subject to it is, in theory, independent and has all the outward trappings of international sovereignty but, in reality, its economic system and thus its political policy is directed from outside” (p. xi). Neocolonialism can manifest in various forms, such as influencing government policy decisions, providing funding for the State, placing individuals in positions of power, exerting control over foreign exchange, and imposing a banking system controlled by the imperial power (Northrop, 2012).

The fight against neocolonialism is not about preventing developed countries from investing in less developed countries but rather about ensuring that their financial power is not used to exploit and make these countries poorer (Kwame, 1965). In The Face of Imperialism, Michael (2011) affirms that imperialism perpetuates the strongest influence in world history, as nations with imperialistic tendencies take resources, markets, land, and labor from other countries for their gain. Neocolonialism, perpetuated by more technologically advanced nations, ensures that these low-income countries cannot develop and grow. It is worth underscoring that countries that were never colonized can also become neocolonialist states. Practical examples are Liberia and Ethiopia. These African countries have never experienced colonialism but have become neocolonial states by relying on international finance capital due to their weak economy (Attah, 2013). When African countries gained their independence, the imperial and colonial powers could no longer control them directly and physically and, therefore, devised new means and
mechanisms to control them indirectly. According to Mark Langan (2017), the concept of neocolonialism warns us of “the potential regressive impact of unregulated forms of aid, trade, and foreign direct investment in relation to poverty decrease and well-being in African countries.”

Development

Development in human society is a multidimensional process. There is a human, historical, economic, and social dimension of development (Walter, 1973). The term development was first used in 1756. Etymologically, it was derived from the French “développement, and from Old French développemens, which means- unroll, unwrap, unfurl, unveil, reveal the meaning of, explain, etc.” (Wiktionary, 2022). Development is the “process of expanding and growing; a gradual unfolding, a full working out, or disclosure of the details of something” (Online Etymology Dictionary, 2022). Development in the human context includes personal and social group development. Personal development refers to an individual’s growth in skills, abilities, freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility, and material well-being. Social group development, on the other hand, refers to the interactions and interdependencies of individuals within a group working towards common goals. In this context, development indicates an increasing ability to manage internal and external relationships (Walter, 1973). In modern studies, development has been used synonymously with economic development. According to Walter Rodney (1973), the justification for this is that the economy is an index of other social features.

Economic development, therefore, refers to the transformation of an economy by implementing technological advancements, industrial upgrades, and improvements in infrastructure and institutions. These changes increase labor productivity and reduce transaction costs (Yifu, 2017). The primary objective is to cater to the welfare and well-being of the people. Supporting this, Walter affirms that economic development in a society is linked to the collective ability of its members to interact with their surroundings. This ability is influenced by their understanding of natural laws (science), the use of that understanding to create tools (technology), and the organization of work (Walter, 1973). On the historical dimension of development, Karl Marx and Walt Rostow wrote extensively on different stages of development in society. Karl Marx identified five stages: communalism, slavery, feudalism, capitalism, socialism, and communism.
The communal stage is a basic stage in which properties are collectively owned, men primarily engage in hunting, women engage in domestic work, and goods are shared equally.

The second stage is slavery, where class society develops as the population increases and some individuals within families and groups become dominant. The third stage is feudalism, in which land becomes more important than human labor, and agriculture is the main source of survival. Conflicts exist between land ownership and those who own land become powerful in society. The fourth stage is capitalism, which brings about new forms of exploitation, and the Industrial Revolution led to the spread of scientific ideas and values. Wealth is produced by machines in factories and mines and is concentrated in the hands of a few individuals known as the bourgeoisie. Karl Marx believed capitalism would eventually give way to socialism, where the State controls the means of production, and eventually to a stateless, classless society known as communism (Mohit, 2017; Felluga, 2011; Walter, 1973).

Discussions on development will not be complete without mentioning underdevelopment. However, it is vital to note that some scholars prefer using the term “developing” to avoid negative connotations. A thorough look at the theories of the development and evolution of human societies shows that every human society has developed in one way or another. Underdevelopment is a relative and controversial concept that looks at the differences in levels of development among societies based on per capita income, poverty, literacy, life expectancy, and infrastructure. Additionally, underdevelopment can refer to the exploitation of one country by another. This second sense made the concept of underdevelopment a paradox, as countries rich in resources are poor and vice versa. Eurocentric scholarship has portrayed Africa’s underdevelopment as a divine fate. However, according to Rodney Walter (1973), a bigger issue is that Africans have internalized a belief that they cannot transform and develop their natural environment. While Africans must take responsibility for driving their growth and development through strategic planning, it is important to acknowledge that imperialist exploitation, unequal trade, and production relations have hindered Africa’s development.

**Theoretical Framework: Dependency Theory**

Raul Prebisch, an Argentine economist and statesman, proposed the dependency theory in the late 1950s. Authors like Andre Gunker Frank, Immanuel Wallerstein, Fernando Henrique Cardoso, Claudio Katz, Ruy Mauro Marine, Samir Amin, and others also wrote on dependency
theory. The major argument of dependency theorists is that metropolis or wealthy nations accumulate and retain wealth at the expense of poor or periphery nations due to wide-ranging effects like labor and raw material exploitations, unfavorable policies, unequal terms of trade, beside others, or due to exploitative relationships that exist between their economic, social, political and other factors (Christian, 2022). Developing countries, especially in Africa, offer cheap labor and raw materials internationally. These resources are sold to industrialized and developed economies, which have the means to convert them into finished goods. Developing countries purchase those manufactured goods at very high prices, depleting the capital that should be invested in their productive capacity. According to Andre Munro (2022), the above result is “a vicious cycle that perpetuates the partition of the world economy between a rich core and a poor periphery.” Dependency can be symmetric or asymmetric.

Symmetric dependency entails a situation where economic, social, political, and other endeavors between two or more countries are symbiotic, mutual, and equal. Symmetric dependency can be explained further using Stefan Linder’s Country Similarity Theory, which holds that countries at the same level of development (i.e., per capita income, technological capacity, and others) are more likely to have a smooth and mutual interdependency. Hence, developed nations depend on each other more symmetrically than developing nations. For instance, three-quarters of the United States’ trading partners are developed economies (MBA Knowledge Base, 2021).

On the other hand, asymmetric dependency entails an exploitative relationship with no mutual benefit and a loss of auto-centric capacity and capability to develop. The core-periphery relationship (i.e., relationships between wealthy and developing nations) is a perfect example of asymmetric dependency. Immanuel Wallerstein’s version of dependency theory, also known as world system theory, holds that while colonized or peripheral nations can progress economically and for ex-colonists to decline, the global capitalist system still necessitates the existence of developing countries or regions that can be exploited. He shifted the focus of analysis from a country-to-country system of dependency and exploitation to a global system. According to Wallerstein, focusing solely on individual countries is incorrect, as global capital and corporations are more powerful than nation-states and operate beyond national boundaries. He argues that the world system is defined by relations between three types of capitalist zones: the
core, semi-periphery, and periphery, and that countries can move up or down the economic ladder within this system (Karl, 2015).

Material and Methodology

To critically expose the effects of neocolonialism on Africa's growth and development, this article employs a qualitative approach and uses secondary data sources to explore and analyze the effects of neocolonialism on Africa’s development. This will address the "how" and "why" of the research question and enable deeper interpretation and understanding of experiences, phenomena, and context of the research problem" (Jennifer, 2017, p. 61). The method of analysis is adopted in this paper to ensure a critical and comprehensive evaluation of information, proving the validity of theories and determining the truth (Sanjida, 2022). The study does not involve primary data collection or empirical research but relies on existing literature, historical accounts, and scholarly analysis. The researchers review relevant academic works, books, journal articles, reports, and other scholarly sources discussing neocolonialism in Africa. These secondary sources provide the necessary data and information to understand the historical context, the impact of neocolonial practices, and the challenges African countries face in their development efforts.

Methodological Framework: Mechanisms and Methods of Neocolonialism

Foreign Aids and Trade

Foreign aid has a rich historical background, with military assistance being the predominant form of aid in ancient times. During the colonial era, European powers allocated significant funds to their colonies, primarily focusing on infrastructure improvement and economic growth. The aftermath of World War II witnessed the implementation of the Marshall Plan and the establishment of international organizations like the United Nations, the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund. These institutions have played crucial roles in distributing international funds, determining aid eligibility criteria, and evaluating the impact of foreign aid (Williams, 2022). However, it is essential to acknowledge that foreign aid was also exploited after World War II as an economic and political instrument to control and manipulate developing nations. The United States, the former Soviet Union, and their allies employed foreign aid as a diplomatic tool during the Cold War to foster political alliances and gain strategic advantages (Williams, 2022). While the Marshall Plan successfully rebuilt Europe, recent foreign aid efforts
have faced criticism for their excessive amounts and hindrance to growth and development in recipient countries.

Proponents of aid argue that the success of the Marshall Plan could be replicated in Africa by implementing appropriate policies. However, they often overlook the fact that the Marshall Plan was a short-term and specific intervention, unlike the ongoing and open-ended commitments that exist today. Such long-term aid commitments can foster a sense of entitlement among governments, hindering innovation and progress (Dambisa, 2009). Akinola (2012) emphasizes that providing financial aid to poorly-functioning governments will likely result in wasted funds and increased reckless spending. The prevalent practice of aid provision has led to increased debt, higher inflation rates, currency market instability, limited attractive investment opportunities, and heightened risk of civil conflict and turmoil in African nations.

Consequently, foreign aid is ineffective in alleviating poverty in African countries (Kieran, 2022). Furthermore, foreign aid has perpetuated corruption in countries with rampant corruption. Corrupt government officials can misuse aid resources, acquire military equipment, initiate unimportant projects, and expand the government workforce without contributing to growth or development. Rather than uplifting people experiencing poverty and promoting progress, aid money can fuel corruption. The African Union estimates that corruption costs the continent $150 billion annually, and international donors often disregard the inadvertent contribution of aid money to graft (Adeniyi et al., 2016). Consequently, many African governments have become heavily dependent on foreign aid, leading to minimal human development and insignificant per capita income (Dambisa, 2009).

Despite the negative impact of aid on African growth and development, aid continues to flow into the continent. This aid distribution is often driven by the political and strategic interests of donor nations rather than the actual needs of recipient countries, resulting in a new form of colonialism. African countries become dependent on donor countries and end up indebted to them, perpetuating profit maximization and private gain for the donor nations (Nna et al., 2011). The success and effectiveness of the Marshall Plan were attributed to several factors, including substantial funding, a defined time limit, open market conditions, and recipient-led plans. The key factor was that the recipients created the plans, focusing on restoring private sector-led
growth and avoiding economic instability (Westcott, 2022), which the African recipient countries lacked.

In addition to foreign aid, foreign trade can contribute to African neocolonialism through imbalances in bargaining power, unequal access to information, and unfair trade agreements. Commodity trade mispricing, for example, allows multinational corporations to undervalue goods or services, leading to substantial losses for African countries. Multinational enterprises (MNEs) often use mispricing to artificially shift profits from higher-tax to lower-tax jurisdictions, reducing the overall tax burden (Irene & Elisabeth, 2022). African nations heavily rely on exporting agricultural and raw materials, frequently sold below market prices, resulting in significant revenue losses. For instance, Ghana’s gold and cocoa exports were significantly undervalued, leading to approximately $2.2 billion in tax revenue loss between 2011 and 2017 (Irene & Elisabeth, 2022).

Similarly, Ethiopian coffee growers receive minimal compensation compared to foreign companies and investors who earn substantially more from Ethiopian coffee (Rosa, 2020). The combined effects of foreign aid and unfair trade practices perpetuate a cycle of dependency and hinder economic growth in Africa. It is imperative to reevaluate and reform these approaches to promote sustainable development and equitable economic partnerships on the continent. The success of the Marshall Plan highlights the importance of recipient-driven plans and a focus on private sector-led growth and stability (Westcott, 2022). African nations must prioritize self-determined strategies that address their unique challenges and effectively leverage their resources to foster sustainable development. By addressing the issues of foreign aid and unfair trade practices, Africa can strive toward greater self-sufficiency and prosperity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Net Official Development Assistance Received in Billions (Us Dollars)</th>
<th>Trade (% of GDP) of Sub-Saharan Africa</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>17.82</td>
<td>38</td>
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<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>19.24</td>
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<td>1997</td>
<td>14.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>14.48</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table above shows the ODA received by Sub-Saharan Africa over the years. A general upward trend suggests that foreign aid has continued to increase and flow into the sub-Saharan African region. The table also reveals fluctuations in the trade as a percentage of GDP in Sub-Saharan Africa. The trade percentage remained relatively stable between 1991 and 2005 but increased in the subsequent years, peaking in 2008 and fluctuating afterward. This suggests a growing reliance on trade as a driver of economic activity in sub-Saharan Africa. The economic implication of the above data is a dependency on external assistance, limited economic diversification, inefficient resource allocation, potential debt issues, missed growth opportunities, and vulnerability to external shocks.

**Multinational Corporation (MNC)**

According to Lazarus (2001), “a multinational corporation is a business organization whose activities are located in more than two countries and is the organizational form that defines foreign direct investment” (p. 10197). The African continent has the tendency to accelerate
overall development and become the richest continent, considering that it harbors more than 30% of the world’s mineral reserves and approximately 10% and 8% of the world’s oil and natural gas, respectively (World Bank, 2017). Despite ample natural resources in many African nations, the continent grapples with poverty, economic stagnation, and underdevelopment issues. The question that arises is, what factors have prevented African countries from effectively utilizing these resources, and who controls or benefits from them?

Examining Africa’s colonial history posits that multinational corporations largely operate within the continent and are a major contributing factor. The nature and context of these corporations’ operations in Africa necessitate regulation, as they often represent the interests of their colonial predecessors and are characterized by the alienation of natural resources and the imposition of centralized political authority over land and resources previously controlled by localized institutions. This effectively removes concession rights from local communities and transfers them to the government. Oyier (2017) writes that local communities and the public traditionally held control over natural resources in Africa, but colonial powers disrupted this by transferring control to the government. Subsequent African governments have maintained this model, with the management of natural resources being the responsibility of the state machinery and minimal involvement from citizens.

This exclusion of those whose livelihoods depend on the activities of multinational corporations from the decision-making process about natural resources is a significant concern. Semata observed that certain African governing officials collude with multinational corporations to exploit resources, gain personal wealth, and exploit their citizens through unethical means, such as corruption and providing foreign corporations with excessive tax breaks, to the disadvantage of local businesses and industries (Semata, 2019). Multinational corporations engage in corrupt practices, such as bribing government officials, to pass laws that benefit their illegal activities. Mark Langan (2018) writes that in 2016, the Anglo-Irish oil company Tullow used the United Kingdom’s Department for International Development to influence the Ghanaian government to pass a new Oil Exploration and Production Bill. This Bill allowed oil companies to operate under a “Hybrid System,” avoiding stricter regulations. The department got the support of organizations such as the Ghana Petroleum Commission, the Natural Resource Governance Institute, and the African Centre for Energy Policy by providing funds. Studies have found that investors of multinational corporations often seek out nations with inadequate governance to
increase profits, bypass complex and time-consuming regulations, and tailor rules to their advantage (OXFAM International, 2013).

Through trade mispricing, tax avoidance, and tax evasion, multinational corporations refrain from paying their fair share of taxes. According to UNCTAD, “developing countries lose an estimated US $100 billion a year through another set of tax avoidance schemes involving tax havens” (UNCTAD quoted OXFAM International, 2015). Oxfam report (2019) also estimated that 75% of the wealth of Africa’s wealthy individuals is held in offshore accounts, resulting in a loss of $14 billion annually in uncollected taxes for the continent. This decline in revenue is caused by factors such as globalization, high levels of debt, tax evasion, and the global financial system. Taxes are crucial in funding development and providing public services such as clean water, energy, transportation, healthcare, social security, and education in Africa. However, the ease of moving capital through the global financial system and the ability of multinational corporations to exploit loopholes in tax laws to avoid paying their fair share or opting out of the corporate tax system has become a major problem.

An example of how multinational corporations steal from Africa through tax havens and tax avoidance is the case of Associated British Foods, a company operating in Zambia that was accused in 2015 of not paying any taxes in Zambia despite its local affiliate, Zambia Sugar, earning profits of $123 million. The revenue lost to tax havens by the Zambian government was ten times greater than the amount given to Zambia by the U.K. in educational subsidies. Similarly, in Nigeria, the Shell Group, through its affiliate Shell Petroleum Development Company of Nigeria, had a special sharing arrangement with another affiliate, Shell Petroleum International Matthschappij BV, which allowed it to make no profit for eight years, resulting in a loss of £20.09 million in tax revenues for the Nigerian government.

According to the U.N. Conference on Trade and Development, many African countries are vulnerable to tax avoidance due to high volumes of intra-company trading, the secrecy surrounding foreign investment activities, loopholes in treaties, and inadequate resources to effectively address the outflow of wealth. (The Conversation, 2022) Tax avoidance and tax havens are rooted in unequal economic relationships, trade agreements with multinational corporations and their Western allies, outdated tax treaties, and colonial legacies. This has resulted in Africa receiving less benefit in comparison to the aid it receives. Developing African
economies have been persuaded to deregulate and privatize their economies to attract foreign investment. While this may seem logical in terms of attracting necessary inward investments, it has primarily served the interests of multinational corporations. Poor African nations will continue to be exploited as long as developed nations continue to gain financial benefits from declaring themselves tax havens. Without reforming the tax laws in Africa, the rule of law and effective tax administration will not be strengthened. Gugu (2021) writes:

Multinationals and foreign governments from developed countries have long histories of low tax payments in Africa through unequal economic partnerships, trade terms, and benefits from colonial regimes. Tax avoidance effects are more pronounced on the continent because many African countries still have the unequal bargaining power to effectively reform their tax regimes, authoritarian incumbents who benefit from brokering special secret deals with businesses, and weaker tax administration capacities to investigate and enforce tax compliance properly. The result is that Africa loses more money through unequal and outdated tax treaties and trade terms than what it receives through aid.

**Bretton Wood Institutions**

The Bretton Woods Agreement of 1944, backed mainly by the U.S. and the U.K., gave birth to the Bretton Woods institutions such as the World Bank, International Monetary Fund, and the International Trade Organization (later renamed the World Trade Organization in 1995). The agreement established a new monetary system, making the U.S. dollar the dominant global currency instead of gold. The U.S., the only country able to print dollars, became a leading power in the world economy (Amadeo, 2022; Peet, 2009). The main aim of the Bretton Woods Institutions was to rebuild the European economy post-World War II. However, over time, the focus of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund shifted from lending money to economic development projects in emerging capitalist countries. The creation of the World Bank and IMF was presented as a halfhearted attempt to restore the global economy after WWII. However, it also served to advance and defend capitalist interests and ideologies in developing nations and counter socialist movements in those countries.

The Structural Adjustment Program, which hurt African economies, was based on the Washington Consensus that primarily promoted free-market policies such as stabilization, trade liberalization, privatization, currency devaluation, deregulation, and reduced government
intervention. This allowed the Bretton Woods Institutions to exert control over the economies of developing countries, particularly in Africa (Bretton Woods Project, 2019). Poverty in Africa persisted due to the negative impact of the Structural Adjustment Program. According to Fatton (1992), the Bretton Woods Institutions manipulated and controlled African states through the loan conditions and requirements for repaying them. Most African states implemented the reforms not because they were necessary for their development but because they were a condition for aid. The Structural Adjustment Program was ineffective not because it was intended to provide assistance but because it aimed to control the economy. Thomson (2010) writes that after implementing the reforms, export prices decreased, import prices increased, national industries were privatized, local investment was hindered, and agricultural and non-agricultural sectors aligned with external needs, increasing dependency.

Fraser Logan (2015) argued that the effectiveness of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) in African development was evaluated based on two parameters: effectiveness and necessity. At first, SAPs were considered effective in adjusting inefficient economic policies and promoting a more open and diverse market, leading to economic growth. The necessity of adjustment was seen as necessary for counteracting African debt and promoting political stability through cooperation and interdependence. However, later, the effectiveness of SAPs was rejected as African countries experienced increased debt and economic stagnation. The blame was placed on internal factors such as civil wars, the colonial legacy, disease, and drought, but mostly on inefficient, irresponsible, and corrupt African governments. This left SAPs as necessary but inevitably ineffective due to African states’ inability to repay loans, suggesting they may not be suitable for the African context. The failure of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) in Africa can be attributed to the requirement for solutions tailored to the African context. Scholars have put forth multiple perspectives on the reasons behind this failure, with some attributing it to the inefficient implementation or lack of commitment by African leaders.

However, others like Heidhues and Obare (2011) posited that the primary issue lies with the limited capacity and capability of SAPs to promote market and institutional development in Africa effectively. This demonstrates the importance of considering cultural, economic, and political factors when implementing development programs in different regions. The governance of the Bretton Woods Institutions is also a matter of significant concern due to the persistent
power imbalances between the global North and South. The legacy of colonialism has resulted in
developed nations having a disproportionate influence on international trade and finance policies,
often prioritizing their interests at the expense of developing nations.

The World Bank and IMF’s governance structure is flawed and undemocratic, with limited
representation for developing nations in decision-making. Despite reforms, leadership positions
are still appointed by the U.S. and Europe, and voting power is heavily skewed in favor of
developed nations, particularly the U.S. and E.U. The global South, which makes up 75% of the
world’s population, has a minority of voting power, with disparities in allocation, and the
average person in the North has more power than the average person in the South. These
institutions also perpetuate racial prejudice, exacerbating power imbalances and inequalities in
the global economy. Jason Hickel (2020) affirms:

The votes of people of color are worth only a fraction of their
counterparts, which is considered normal. In some cases, the
differences between countries are particularly striking. Take
Bangladesh and Nigeria, both of which were British colonies. In
the IMF, a British person’s vote today is worth 41 times more than
a Bangladeshi’s vote and 23 times more than a Nigerian’s vote.
Voting power in the World Bank is allocated according to each
country’s financial shares. In the IMF, it is primarily according to
gross domestic product (GDP), with some consideration also given
to a country’s “market openness”. As a result, the countries that
became rich during the colonial period now enjoy extreme power
when determining the rules of the global economy.

While some may defend the unequal power distribution in these institutions as appropriate for
larger economies to have more control over global economic decisions, it contradicts the
principles and values of the World Bank and IMF, which purport to promote democracy. This is
why these organizations have been able to implement harmful neoliberal structural adjustment
programs in the global South, benefiting multinational corporations and Western investors at the
expense of the South. Despite calls from civil society and political leaders in the global South to
democratize the World Bank and IMF through implementing a Double Majority, where
significant decisions would require both shareholder and member-state majority, these calls have
been ignored (Hickel, 2020). The World Bank and IMF have also violated their rules by
supporting dictatorships for their political and economic interests. For example, in 1982, an IMF
official, Erwin Blumenthal, wrote a report on Mobutu’s administration in Zaire, warning foreign
lenders of non-repayment as long as Mobutu was in power. Despite the Zairean government
borrowing 5 billion dollars and having 2.25 billion dollars in debt subject to four Paris Club rescheduling measures between 1976 and 1981, the IMF and WB continued to provide aid, even increasing it, despite Mobutu’s gross economic mismanagement and misuse of loans. During the Cold War, Mobutu’s regime was a strategic ally of the U.S. and other powerful countries in the Bretton Woods Institutions. In the 1990s, World Bank aid declined because Mobutu’s regime was no longer considered valuable (Bretton Woods Project, 2020).

Media and Literature

Media and literature serve as prominent sources of socialization in contemporary society, having the ability to shape and influence people’s perceptions and interpretations. When used effectively, they can contribute to forming harmonious relationships within society. However, when misused, they have the potential to distort public images and contribute to societal dysfunction. During colonialism, colonial agents such as missionaries, merchants, and administrators spread negative ideas and images about Africa. Currently, this is perpetuated through media and literature, with Western news agencies and international cable networks dedicating a significant proportion of their coverage to developing countries, particularly Africa. Through such coverage and literature, Africa is often portrayed as a homogenous entity plagued by war, human rights violations, corruption, disease, poverty, and violence, with no history or culture, as a wild jungle, and a place suffering from hunger and starvation (Michira, 2002).

The negative perception and stereotypes of Africa are rooted in its historical association with slavery and colonialism, which positioned Africa and Africans as culturally, intellectually, politically, and technologically inferior. The Western journalists, editors, and academics who write about Africa often perpetuate these ideas, viewing Western cultures as superior to those of developing nations. Nana Bonsu (2008) argues that “Western media often employ a generic label of Africans when reporting about events involving individuals from African countries, such as Ghana and Senegal, while accurately identifying citizens of Italy or Portugal as such.” Furthermore, African news is frequently overshadowed by negative events, with Ama Biney (1997) noting that misinformation about Africa has become prevalent in the West. The Western media often uses metaphors and euphemisms, such as “black-on-black violence,” when writing about events in Africa while failing to employ similar language when reporting on similar events in Western countries.
The media serves as a neocolonial tool that selectively reports on Africa, emphasizing crises and neglecting African progress, advancements, and contributions to the global community. The principles of journalism, including objectivity, accountability, credibility, fairness, and impartiality, have been compromised. Western media often portrays Africa, a continent with over 10,000 ethnic groups, 2,000 languages, and 54 countries, as a single country and presents a skewed image of Africa as a failed, unstable, economically underdeveloped, famine-stricken, disease-ridden, and culturally primitive continent. Western media coverage fails to address the historical context and the West’s role in contributing to Africa’s underdevelopment. In reality, Africa plays a vital role in global economic growth and development, producing over 20% of the world’s petroleum, 50% of diamonds and gold, more than 50% of cocoa and palm products, and the computer chips driving the high-tech economy (Hawak, 1992; Olujobi, 2006). Supporting the above view, Rod Chavis (1998) writes:

The media portrays a negative image of Africa, focusing on its problems and ignoring its contributions and significance to the world. This perpetuates the belief that Africa is an inferior and underdeveloped continent. The media also fails to acknowledge the importance of African resources to industrialized nations and the profits generated from the exploitation of African art and culture. The media is primarily controlled by Western corporations whose primary motivation is profit, leading to a skewed representation of Africa in the global community. The lack of recognition of African achievements and the exploitation of African resources further perpetuates this negative image.

Paul Johnson’s statement in the New York Times Magazine in 1993 about the revival of colonialism in a new form being encouraged on practical and moral grounds, particularly in Africa where governments are breaking down, is a refined colonial viewpoint that conceals the reality of the situation in Africa. While Africa had and still has corrupt and incompetent leaders, this viewpoint ignores the underlying causes of the African states’ disintegration, which is the West colluding with corrupt African elites to bleed African economies through Western-imposed neo-liberal economic reforms. Rod Chavis (1998) writes, “There are very good reasons for concealing reality since the maintenance of the existing domestic and international power structures are at stake.” For instance, the U.S. intervention in Somalia in 1992 had a hidden purpose, contrary to the media portrayal of a neutral humanitarian mission. Before the overthrow of the pro-US government led by Siad Barre in 1991, oil development rights were granted to U.S. companies Conoco, Amoco, Chevron, and Philips by Barre’s regime. These companies
stood to profit from vast oil reserves, but the media ignored this aspect during the crisis (Amy, 1997).

The New World Information and Communication Order (NWICO) initiative by UNESCO in the 1970s aimed to address the unequal distribution of communication resources that favored industrialized nations, the imbalance in the flow of information from North to South, and the monopoly of transnational corporations was countered and sabotaged by the industrialized North (especially U.S., U.K., and Singapore) who withdrew their membership from UNESCO, causing a major reduction in its budget as they were its main funders, and ultimately ending the NWICO debate (iResearchNet, 2019). The Western Media has devoted a lot of its resources and energy toward painting the continent of Africa in a bad light. The fact is that Africa is presented as a failed and poor continent that needs aid and development assistance by the West and its allies around the world to mask their excessive exploitation and economic interest in African resources on which they depend for their development and economic growth.

**Effects of Neocolonialism on Africa’s Development**

**Pseudo-Sovereignty**

Since African countries gained independence, none have experienced true or empirical sovereignty. Although they have the legal status of international sovereignty (i.e., juridical sovereignty), their economies and political systems are controlled by outside powers from the Global North through aid and development assistance. Ishwor Thapa (2020) affirms that states under the influence of neocolonialism are, in theory, independent and have all the recognized legal features of international sovereignty. However, in reality, their economic and political systems and policies are manipulated and directed from outside. Some scholars like Brown (2013) dispute the idea that foreign powers are taking away Africa’s sovereignty, claiming that the aid relationship does not challenge the right of African states to govern. While this may be factitious, the contention is that African leaders are always placed in a dilemma or difficult position where they have to make decisions that benefit foreign interests over their citizens, resulting in the denial of true sovereignty.

Countries like France still hold control over former colonies through forced colonial pacts, with leaders who refuse being punished while those who comply are rewarded. This results in African
independence being nominal and an illusion. Mark (2018) writes, “Critical scholars argue that external elements denude genuine, empirical or de facto sovereignty. While legal sovereignty is certainly present, African elites and political leaders regularly find themselves in a ‘catch twenty-two’ where they are often forced or compelled to capitulate genuinely decision-making to foreign benefactors or else to repudiate foreign aid and impose austerity on already impoverished peoples” (ibid., p. 210).

Corruption

Foreign aid is intended to improve the living conditions of the populace and strengthen its institutions and the rule of law, but the reverse is the case in Africa. It has incapacitated the African economy and has encouraged corruption among African leaders by creating an environment to misuse foreign aid for personal gain with no accountability. The weak governance system in Africa has also contributed to this. For example, strong institutions and effective systems are lacking to ensure that aid is being used for its intended purpose. This presents an opportunity for corrupt leaders to divert some of the funds for personal gain. In 2011, reports surfaced that a substantial amount of money intended for the Somali government and donated by Arab countries had gone missing. A subsequent investigation by the U.N. found that a large portion of development funds from 2009-2010 had been mishandled and that most of the funds held in the Somali Central Bank were taken for personal gain (Ibrahim, 2017). In Angola, the President’s family and close associates have been accused of using their control over state-owned companies and banks to siphon off money from foreign aid and oil revenues (Krawczyk, 2020).

Commodity Trade Mispricing

The mispricing of commodities (i.e., oil, metals, plant proteins, grains, and more) in Africa is a significant economic issue, resulting in governments losing revenue and contributing to global trade imbalances. Multinational corporations and developed countries exploit natural resources in developing countries by paying low prices for resources and charging higher prices in developed countries, resulting in a transfer of wealth from developing countries to developed countries. This can occur through trade policies, which favor industries in developed countries and influence commodity prices in developing countries. Mispricing arrangements such as mis invoicing and offshore money transfers also contribute to the problem. African countries
affected by commodity mispricing include Ghana, Ivory Coast, Nigeria, Algeria, Angola, Ethiopia, Uganda, Kenya, South Africa, Burkina Faso, Mali, Chad, and Benin (Irene & Elisabeth, 2022). Addressing this issue requires fair pricing mechanisms, preventing exploitation by corporations and developed countries, and efforts to prevent mispricing arrangements.

**Overdependence and Debt Accumulation**

African countries’ budgets have been increasingly financed by foreign aid. Neocolonialism encourages overdependence and debt accumulation in Africa in several ways. One of the ways is through trade policies that favor developed countries and limit the ability of developing nations to develop their economies. This leads to a situation where developing nations are forced to rely on exports of raw materials to developed countries rather than developing their industries. According to the African Development Bank report, “Africa’s dependence on exports of primary commodities has increased over the past few decades. In 1980, primary commodities accounted for around 60% of Africa’s exports, while in 2017, they accounted for around 80%.

This suggests that African countries increasingly rely on exporting raw materials and crude minerals rather than developing their industries” (AFD quoted in UNDP, 2016, p. 10). Additionally, developed countries may also use their economic and political power to influence the policies of developing nations, leading to the implementation of economic policies that benefit industrialized countries at the expense of emerging nations. For instance, Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) require certain conditionalities from African countries as a criterion for receiving loans from international financial institutions like the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (WB). These programs often require countries to cut government spending, devalue their currencies, and open their economies to foreign investment, favoring foreign investors over domestic industries and over-reliance on exporting raw materials. Hence, since the resources are not used to develop the African economy, the African governments depend on borrowing to finance their development projects. This leads to a situation where developing nations cannot sustain their economies and become heavily dependent on foreign aid and loans.

This dependence on foreign aid and loans can lead to a cycle of debt, as developing nations are forced to borrow money to meet their basic needs. A report from UNCTAD (2019) shows that
Africa has the highest level of external debt as a percentage of the Gross Domestic Product of any region in the world. In 2019, Africa’s average external debt as a percentage of GDP was around forty-five percent (45%).

Environmental Degradation

Neocolonialism facilitates environmental degradation through the over-exploitation of resources in Africa for the advantage of the developed nations. Over-exploitation leads to the depletion of resources, loss of biodiversity, and damage to ecosystems. For instance, in Angola and Nigeria, foreign oil companies have been extracting oil for decades, leading to air, water, and soil pollution, as well as harm to wildlife and the destruction of habitats (Baumüller et al., 2011). Additionally, neocolonial economic policies prioritize economic growth over environmental protection, leading to pollution and other environmental hazards. Furthermore, neocolonial power structures can limit the ability of colonized peoples to advocate for and protect their land and other natural resources, leading to their degradation. In Ethiopia, foreign companies are leasing large areas of land for commercial agriculture, displacing local communities and destroying natural habitats (Asebe, 2020).

The Collapse of Indigenous Industries and Investment

Multinational corporations in Africa use their economic and political power to exploit resources and labor for profit, often at the expense of local industries. This results in the collapse of many indigenous industries, loss of jobs, and marginalization of local entrepreneurs. MNCs engage in practices such as dumping, receiving subsidies, dominating supply chains, and influencing regulations, further undermining local industries. They also extract natural resources without properly compensating local communities or considering environmental impacts, further damaging the viability of local industries.

Cultural Homogenization and Forced Assimilation

Neocolonialism caused cultural homogenization and forced assimilation, where developed countries impose their culture on less developed countries through various means such as trade agreements, foreign aid, and media. This results in losing traditional cultures, values, and feelings of alienation and inferiority. In Africa, Western fashion, beauty standards, and education systems have been imposed on traditional societies, leading to the devaluation of local cultures and languages and alienation among students.
Human Rights Violation and Abuse

Neocolonialism has also resulted in the abuse of human rights or human rights violations. Developed and imperialist nations have employed their economic power to exploit the resources of less developed African countries, leading to poverty and a lack of access to necessities for the local population. For instance, in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), foreign companies have exploited the country’s vast mineral resources, such as cobalt and coltan, without adequately compensating the local population. This has led to widespread poverty and human rights abuses, including forced and child labor (Ida, 2022). Additionally, powerful Northern countries have employed their political influence to support oppressive governments in less powerful countries, leading to human rights abuses such as political repression and violence against political opponents. In the 1960s, the United States supported the dictator Mobutu Sese Seko in the DRC, despite his widespread human rights abuses because he was seen as a bulwark against communism. This support helped to prop up his regime for decades, leading to widespread human rights abuses and economic collapse (Stephen, 2014).

Conclusion

This article explores the phenomenon of neocolonialism in contemporary Africa and its impact on the continent’s development. The article argues that despite the end of formal colonialism in Africa, outside forces continue to control many African nations through economic and political means, perpetuating poverty and inequality.

The control of Africa’s natural resources by foreign powers has had significant negative effects on the continent’s progress, leading to the depletion of resources and environmental degradation. Additionally, the manipulation of African economies through foreign aid and loans has resulted in a lack of economic growth and development. Moreover, the erosion of Africa’s agricultural and industrial sectors by trade policies that benefit industrialized countries has further hindered its economic development. The legacy of colonialism has also significantly impacted Africa’s social, cultural, and political development, suppressing indigenous languages, cultures, and traditions and leading to a lack of representation and accountability in political systems imposed by the colonizers. Despite these obstacles, there have been some successes in development in certain regions of Africa, indicating the potential for sustainable and equitable growth with the
right policies and support. The article argues for recognizing and addressing neocolonial practices that hinder Africa’s development by ending the exploitation of its resources and supporting policies that promote fair trade and debt relief. Additionally, African nations must be empowered to take control of their resources and economies to achieve sustainable and equitable growth.

**Recommendations**

**Planned Development**

To achieve sustainable economic growth and empirical sovereignty in Africa, there should be intentionally planned development led by African governments and communities. This involves conducting research, developing strategic plans, and implementing and monitoring progress over time. Indigenous knowledge and technology can significantly promote sustainable development and prevent neocolonialism by addressing specific local needs and challenges in a culturally appropriate and sustainable way. Traditional agricultural practices and water management techniques can improve soil health, increase crop yields, conserve water, and protect the environment.

**Regional and Continental Integration**

Regional and continental integration in Africa can prevent neocolonialism, increase self-sufficiency, and improve development by creating a larger market for African goods and services, facilitating the sharing of resources and expertise, and improving infrastructure development. This can lead to increased trade, investment, and reduced business costs in Africa.

**Selective Import Substitution Industrialization**

Selective import substitution industrialization is an economic policy that aims to promote domestic production and consumption of goods and limit the importation of certain goods. This can potentially prevent neocolonialism and boost economic development in Africa. Protection of domestic industries through policies like import tariffs or subsidies can reduce dependence on foreign companies and promote economic autonomy. Additionally, promoting domestic production can reduce outflows of resources and capital and keep wealth within the country, promoting sustainable development.

**Economic Diversification**
Economic diversification in Africa involves reducing reliance on a single commodity or industry by developing new industries such as technology, renewable energy, and tourism and promoting investments in a wider range of sectors. Successful examples include Kenya, Rwanda, and South Africa’s technology industry, Morocco and South Africa’s investment in renewable energy, and Egypt, South Africa, and Tanzania’s thriving tourism industry. Diversifying exports can also increase the resilience of African economies to fluctuations in international or global commodity prices.

**Afrocentric Education**

Afrocentric education is an approach that emphasizes the perspectives and experiences of African people and aims to challenge Eurocentric biases in traditional education systems. It involves including more African-centered content in the curriculum, using African-centered teaching methods, and promoting a sense of self-worth and pride in African heritage among students. This approach seeks to empower students to become agents of change in their communities and is intended to supplement and complement traditional education systems rather than replace them.

**Selective Foreign Direct Investment (SFDI)**

Selective foreign direct investment targets specific sectors or regions that align with the host country’s needs and priorities. It aims to promote sustainable and responsible business practices, skills transfer, and technology transfer to support the host country’s economic and social development.

African governments should implement policies and regulations that attract FDI in infrastructure, renewable energy, education, agriculture, health care, and rural development. Selective FDI is often characterized by a strong emphasis on sustainable and responsible business practices, skills transfer, and technology transfer to prevent neocolonialism and promote economic growth and development.

**Attaining Self-Reliance in Basic Needs**

Attaining self-reliance in basic needs such as defense, food security, water, and energy can benefit Africa in several ways. Countries like Kenya, South Africa, and Senegal have invested in renewable energy and implemented policies to reduce dependence on fossil fuels. Morocco and
Egypt have implemented policies to increase water efficiency and reduce dependence on external water sources. Ethiopia, Malawi, and Rwanda have implemented policies to increase domestic food production and reduce import dependence. Self-reliance in these areas can help Africa become more independent, self-sufficient, and resilient, which are critical steps toward overcoming the legacy of neocolonialism in Africa.

**People-Centered Governance**

People-centered governance prioritizes the needs and well-being of citizens, particularly marginalized and underrepresented groups. It seeks to address unique challenges African countries face, such as poverty, inequality, and underdevelopment. It involves transparent and accountable government, citizen participation in decision-making, policies that promote inclusive economic growth, and addressing root causes of poverty and inequality. People-centered governance also considers the historical legacy of colonialism and neocolonialism and seeks to empower citizens and communities to take control of their development. The goal is to create more equitable and sustainable development outcomes for all citizens by ensuring their voices are heard and their needs are met in decision-making.

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