

**REVIEW OF ACTS OF
INTERNATIONAL POLITICAL
ORGANS:
THE AFRICAN UNION APPROACH**

Prepared By: Dawit Belay

Advisor: Yacob Hailemariam (Dr.)

**A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate of AAU in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Masters of Law (LLM) in Public
International Law**

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Addis Ababa University
School Of Graduate Studies, College of Law
and Governance

Review of Acts of International Political Organs: The African Union
Approach

By: Dawit Belay

Approved by Board of Examiners

Advisor

sign

Examiner

Examiner

DECLARATION

I _____, hereby declare that this research paper is original and has never been presented in any other institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, I also declare that any information used has been duly acknowledged.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACHPR	African Commission of Human and People's Rights
ACJHR	African Court Of Justice and Human Rights
Acta U. Danubius Jur.	Acta Universitatis Danubius Juridica
AEC	African Economic Community
AFDB	African Development Bank
Afr. Hum. Rts. L. J	African Human Rights Law Journal
Afr. J. Int'l & Comp. L.	African Journal of International and Comparative Law
AJIL	American Journal of International Law
Am. Soc'y Int. L. Proc	American Society of International Law Proceeding
AU	African Union
Aus YIL	Australia Yearbook of International Law
AUC	Africa Union Commission
B.C Int. & Comp .L.R	Boston College International & Comparative Law Rev.
B. L. J.	Business Law Journal
Brook J. Int'l L.	Brooklyn Journal Of International Law
Brown J. World Affair	Brown Journal of World Affairs
BYIL	British Yearbook of International Law
CA	Constitutive Act of the AU
Cal. W. Int'l L. J.	California Western International Law Journal
CML Rev.	Common Market Law Review
COMESA	Common Market of Eastern and Southern Africa
Crim. L. F.	Criminal Law Forum
EAC	East African Community
EBRD	European Bank for Reconstruction and Development
EC (EEC)	European Community
ECA	UN Economic Commission for Africa
ECE	UN Economic Commission for Eastern Europe
ECJ	European Court of Justice
ECLAC	UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
ECOSOCC	Economic and Social Council of the AU
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
ECSC	European Coal and Steel Community
EctHR	European Court of Human Rights
EJIL	European Journal of International Law

Emory Int'l L. Rev.	Emory International Law Review
Emory J. Int. Disp. Resol.	Emory Journal of International Dispute Resolution
ESCAP	UN Economic Commission for Asia and the Pacific
EU	European Union
EUMETSAT	The European Organization for the Exploitation of Meteorological Satellites
Euratom	European Atomic Community
Eur. Competition J.	European Competition Journal
ExC	Executive Council of the African Union
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organizations
Fordham Int'l L. J	Fordham International Law Review
GA	General Assembly of the United Nations
GAOR	General Assembly Official Records
Harv. Int. L. J.	Harvard International Law Journal
Hofstra L. and Pol'y Symp.	Hofstra Law and Policy Symposium
HRLJ	Human Rights Law Journal
ICC	International Criminal Court
ICJ	International Court Of Justice
ICRC	International Committee of the Red Cross
ICTR	International Crime Tribunal for Rwanda
ICTY	International Crime Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia
IDA	International Development Associations
IFC	International Financial Cooperation
ILO	International Labor Organizations
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IMT	International Military Tribunal
Intl. & Comp L.Q (ICLQ)	International and Comparative Law Quarterly
I.L.M	International Legal Materials
IO Law Rev.	International Organization Law Review
J. Int'l Econ. Law	Journal of International Economic Law
Maastricht J. Comp. L and Max Planck UNYB	Maastricht Journal Of European & Comparative Law Max Planck United Nations Yearbook
McGill L.J	McGill Law Journal
Melb J. Int'l L.J.	Melbourne Journal of International Law
Mich. J. Int. L	Michigan Journal of International Law
Minn. L. Rev.	Minnesota Law Review

N.C. J. Int'l & Comm. Reg.	North Carolina Journal of International Law and Commercial Regulation
Neth. Q. Hum. Rts	Netherlands Quarterly of Human Rights
Nordic JIL	Nordic Journal International Law
N.Y.U.J.I.L	New York University Journal International Law
NYIL	Netherlands Yearbook International Law
OAU	Organization of African Unity
OSCE	Organization for Security and Cooperation of Europe
Pace Int'l L. Rev.	Pace International Law Review
PAP	Pan-African Parliament
PCIJ	Permanent Court of International Justice
PRC	Permanent Representatives Committee
PSC	Peace and Security Council
Rev. Int'l L. & Pol.	Review of International Law and Policy
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
Santa Clara J. Int'l L.	Santa Clara Journal of International Law
SC	Security Council of the United Nations
STC	Specialized Technical Committee
SYIL	Singapore Yearbook of International Law
TFEU	Treaty on the Functioning of the EU
Toronto Fac. L. Rev	Toronto Faculty of Law Review
U. Botswana L. J.	University Of Botswana Law Journal
UN	United Nations
UNAT	United Nations Administrative Tribunal
UNCLOS	UN Convention on the Law of the Sea
UN DOC.	UN Documents
Vand. J. Transnat'l L.	Vanderbilt Journal of Transnational Law
Willamette J Int L. and Disp. Resl.	Willamette Journal of International and Dispute Resolution
WHO	World Health Organization
WMO	World Metrological Organization
WTO	World Trade Organization
WTO DSB	WTO Dispute Settlement Body
WTO DSU	WTO Dispute Settlement Unit
Yale Human Rights and Development L.J	Yale Human Rights and Development Law Journal

YEL
ZaöRv

Yearbook of European Law
Zeitschrift für ausländisches öffentliches Recht und
Völkerrecht

ABSTRACT

Following the judgment of Reparation for Injuries Suffered case, which acknowledged IOs as bearers of right and obligations in the international plane, the debate about IOs turned to their accountability in control of their acts. Since ICJ asserted, in the case, IOs degree of personality only, the conception that their sphere of activity is strictly limited to the provision of their founding instruments has prevailed. This restriction at times has been relaxed by the implied powers theory. Even here, IOs acts can, to the most, go to those justified by objectives and purposes they pursue. Acts of IOs, thus are required to be within their mandate. Control to legality and validity of IO acts has traditionally managed by the insertion of the doctrinal limitations such as *compétence d' attribution*, *domaine reserve*, *ultra virus* etc. however, lately, institutional mechanism are being included within structures of IOs. These institutions take either political or judicial form.

Whichever is preferred, the institution reviews acts of other internal bodies within the organization. Seen from this point of view, the present situation of IOs is not uniform. In some IOs, institutional control is neglected deliberately. In some others the political means is chosen in remaining some others, judicial review is established. This study looks at the review system of the African Union. Specifically control system of the union against acts of the political organs is investigated. It is evident that starting from the eve of the transformation to AU onwards, the continental organization has reorganized itself to reach the goals it aims to achieve. The study thus discusses the review of the system and argues that from the perspective of the revitalized objectives of the union and present state of international law, a number of important elements are dropped from being incorporated though the existence of the system by itself is very radical to the (O)AU.

CHAPTER ONE

REVIEW OF ACTS OF INTERNATIONAL POLITICAL ORGANS: THE AFRICAN UNION APPROACH

1.1 Background of the Problem

Since the last century international organizations have become the most important devices in regulating interstate relation. In many respects, they have helped to mitigate the defects of traditional international law and relations. Mainly, they have facilitated cooperation among states and advocated respect and adherence to values of the international community. Considerable time has passed for organizations in international relations to attain the present form. Post war international relations have benefited a lot from the rise of IOs. *Jus cogens* and *erga omnes* obligations are fruits of the age of IOs. The turn to soft laws is also highly related to IOs. The proliferation of IOs again increased the number of multilateral treaties. All these re-structured international relations and developed international law.

As a result, IOs as mechanisms have been repeatedly resorted to in various fields of inter-state relations. A great number of IOs, with universal membership, have been created by states. This is because international relations are now conducted more on a multilateral basis than in the past. Regionally as well, IOs operate in a huge extent. Two opposing schools of thought exist regarding regional organizations. Both schools upholding regionalism, they differ on the duration of the role of these regional organizations. One of the two insists on the permanent replacement of universal schemes by regional organizations. The other, in contrast, recognizes regionalism as a preliminary stage or forerunner to a more effective worldwide organization in a more propitious political future. The current trend however appears to accommodate, and even integrate, regionalism with universalism. This is the typical situation in relation to peace and security oriented arrangements. The peculiar feature of this field is that a legal framework integrating the regional and universal organizations dealing with the matter is formulated. In general, IOs have become the promising, if not the particular, preference of states to solve common problems they face.

Africa established the first regional organization of its own, namely the Organization of African Unity (OAU), in the second half of the last century. African States organized themselves, following their independence, to tackle common problems they were challenged by. The organization has been structured in a way to achieve its objectives. But, it was realized by member states of the Organization that their defective continental body could not and should not represent them in the New Millennium. Thus, they replaced it by the African Union 2002. In this effort, an attempt is made not to make the AU a mere omission of the 'O' from the OAU. Though the latter organization is presented as a continuation of the OAU, significant modifications have been introduced to it. Its objectives are widened and deepened. It is made to be based upon updated and crucial principles to the present Africa. The Union has enlarged its organs and assigned powers of important nature. These internal institutions of the Union have been charged with their own mandate in the direction to achieve the overall purposes and objectives of the Union.

The principal and important organs of the Union, and of course of other IOs, are political organs. The membership may comprise all Member States as in the case of the AU and UN General Assemblies or limited number of states as in AU PSC and UN SC. The political organs of the AU have been granted decisive powers. In fact, they are the most powerful internal bodies of the Union. So exercise of their powers is a delicate matter to member states of the Union.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Although states themselves create IOs, they repeatedly get into conflict with their own off springs. IOs also sometimes affect the interest of third parties in their functioning. Hence, the problem of accountability of IOs has more than one dimension: towards their members, other organs, their staff and third parties. The topic has been the latest issue, in relation to IOs, taking the breath of academics and legal practitioners. The fall of the UN safe area of Srebrenica, the child mortality rate increase in Iraq during the economic sanction, and the use of depleted uranium in Kosovo by NATO has exacerbated the importance of studies on the matter. The factor that makes their accountability more difficult is their immunity from the jurisdiction of domestic courts. Doctrine based

mechanism and internal institutional approaches have, thus, been adopted to ensure such accountability. And the controlling arrangement has varied with the increase of the number of international organizations. Some organizations have kept silent on any such mechanism particularly relating to control of their political organs. Some others establish a judicial body to inspect legality of the organization. In others, quasi-judicial organs are envisaged.

Like any other IOs, therefore, issues of legality of an act of the African Union or one of its organs may be contested. This would be primarily claimed by the member states. The same may be claimed by one organ over the act of another. Third parties as well may be affected by a decision of an organ of the Union and thus demand remedy. In addition to the insertion of some principles addressing the matter, institutional mechanisms have been envisaged in the Constitutive Act. Exploring this system of review in the Union will be the gist of this study. Through out the study, the main question to be dealt with include the following

Why do IOs require control mechanisms?

What type of review mechanisms, control mechanisms in general, exist in the international plane?

Which of such mechanisms have been incorporated in the AU system?

To what extent has this system been clothed with contemporary developments of international law?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

With this context in mind, it will be attempted to conduct a comprehensive study. The doctrinal approach of assuring legality will not be addressed here. Rather, the paper will aim to examine the institutional mechanism of the African Union. The nature of the body with controlling mandate will be assessed. As an institution created at the beginning of the new millennium, the extent to which the system incorporates new developments of present international law will be assessed. The specific nature of the African Union will be the guiding factor of determining the effectiveness and efficiency of the AU review System.

As an associated issue to the subject matter of the study, the approach of the OAU in this regard will be described and addressed briefly. Incidentally, the present practice of the system of the Union will be part of the study.

1.4 Research Methods

In this work effort will be exerted to attain the objectives specified fully. In the direction of this, the study will focus on the discussion of the legal framework articulated. Accordingly, documentary analysis will be the basic means employed. The study will utilize primary sources. The Constitutive Act of the African Union, the protocol of the Court of Justice and Human Rights, and various protocols adopted by the Union and relevant Rules of Procedure of organs of the Union will be inspected. In addition to the primary sources, other publications relating to the matter will be consulted. Through out the discussion issues raised will be examined critically. Therefore, all the relevant matters are hoped to be addressed.

Moreover, the study will be colored with some comparative experiences of other IOs. This is justified by two reasons. Firstly, as indicated in the objectives, the evaluation of the update of the system will be highlighted and this demands the knowledge of present feature of the matter in other institutions. Secondly, as it is commanded to the drafting body, on the eve of the drafting of the Constitutive Act of the AU, the new organization has been established with an eclectic approach particularly of the experience of the European Union. This again makes a comparative analysis indispensable to the study. Therefore, comparative study is conducted when deemed necessary.

1.5 Significance of the Study

In its findings, the study will locate the exact type of review mechanism that has been preferred by the Union. Not being limited to this, the relevance of the mechanism in the present context of Africa will be pointed out. An attempt will also be made to determine the scope of the review system from the perspective of various factors. Particularly, from the aspect of political and economic integration of the Union to the achievement of which is it is set up as displayed in the Constitutive Act of the African Union and other relevant documents.

The extent of protection of rights and interests of major actors of within the Union and international law generally will be investigated. As this will also show the current state of international Law in the region a related observation will made that may depict the changes in the conception of the doctrine of state sovereignty in Africa; if there is any.

Another significance of the study is its address of the interaction of politics and law within with in the organization. As political organs of the AU have been granted crucial powers, their exercise and implementation is expected to raise some issues. Hence, the grounds of review of these political organs will be looked at closely. This would have the effect of indicating the dominating factor in the Union: rule of law or politics.

Consequences of such reviewed acts assume important positions in the review system. In this study, generally the feature of international law with this particular point has been explored. And the African Union position in relation to this has been indicated. In doing so, the research will describe the state of the system as it exists. The study is, in this regard, the first of its kind as far as the knowledge of the present author is concerned.

In the recommendation part of the study, possible resolutive measures would be suggested. In some instances, only interpretational approaches and better understanding of the matter have been recommended. In others, and when it is the way out, legislative, both amending and promulgatory, solutions have been recommended. Organs of the Union, member states and other interested bodies may utilize these solutions to counter the problems when they face. Above all, however, it will open the floor for further examination of the issue.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

This study faces some constraints. The first is the fact that the Court of Justice and Human Rights have not become operational. The discussion is thus limited to analyze the legal framework. This has led the study to be exclusive of the practical aspects of the system apart from the specified set up in the Protocol of the African Court of Justice and Human Rights. The reader, therefore, should note that the problems that may arise in practice are not dealt with in the present research albeit those attempted to be included in mere speculation.

Another is the lack of important research materials and resources particularly those in the possession of the organization only such as full or portions of deliberations conducted on important legal instruments such as the Constitutive Act and protocol of the Court. The Union does not provide information on important progresses in the Union and consistently update its website. The present author shares the observation on Max du Plessis who stated, in his Article entitled 'A Court not Found?' that

"The AU website is even less helpful when it comes to sourcing up-to-date information concerning the African Court of Justice and Human Rights. The 'archives' only go back a few months and invariably, when one clicks on the icon to read further on the decisions of the AU Assembly of Heads of States and Governments in respect to the proposed merged African Court, one is informed that 'the page cannot be found.'"

1.7 Organization of the Study

With this background, the study follows a path classified into three chapters. In the first chapter, general introductory but relevant concepts of IOS will be examined. At the beginning, status of IOs in the international plane will be discussed with the aim of positioning the African Union in the same. Besides, activities of IOs, as actors in international law, are described. The scope, extent and limits the actions of IOs are determined. The principal limitation of acts of IOs, i.e. the principle of Ultra vires, and its consequences are illustrated in depth. The purpose of the discussions in chapter one is justified by the importance of elaboration of issues that are presupposed to be known for any review system study.

In the second chapter, focusing on and particularizing the issue, the review system of IOs will be analyzed. Explaining the two broad classifications of review systems, as part of overall dispute settlement system of IOs, critical evaluation of the two approaches will be conducted from the angle of different factors. Following that, authoritative interpretation of IOs from its aspect of review will be clarified. After identifying the theoretical dimensions of review systems, in the second part of the chapter, illumination of the experience of IOs, to wit UN and EU, in regard to the matter, will be done in a manner permeating the reader to compare and assess the review system of the AU.

In the last chapter of the study, the issue will be brought directly in the connection to the African Union. The chapter will start with concise inspection of the structure of the Union. Accordingly, all organs of the Union will be examined with the aim of characterizing which organs categorized as policy or political organs, administrative organs or judicial organs. This is needed as the study deals with interrelationship of organs of the Union. After that the review system of the Union is to be discussed in detail. First, the authoritative interpretation system will be seen. And then, the power of the court as a review body of the Union will be studied.

The research will accomplish its journey by briefly summarizing the major points of the study and problems identified. The study will be finalized by forwarding conclusions and recommendations relating to the research question investigated.

CHAPTER TWO

INTRODUCTION TO BASIC COMMON ISSUES OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION

2.1 International Organization In The International Setting

With the transition of interstate relation to cooperation from its earlier coexistence feature, the role and number of international organizations evinced significant change. This is a result of their involvement in numerous aspects of international relations. As one commentator describes

*"... it is clear that international organizations have come to be so common a feature of international life and accepted, as a response to the needs of international intercourse rather than as a fulfillment of a philosophical or ideological desire to achieve world government... Clearly interdependence is increasingly being acknowledged and accepted as a practical reality, which required an organizational structure in international relations."*¹

Hence, IOs are one of the crucial means of coordination in tackling problems faced by the international community.

As a political approach to international legal problems, international organizations are directed to the attainment of goals set by its own members. Organs endowed with political discretion are, thus, always features of such organizations. In the words of Professor Amerasinghe:

*"... in principle international organization has at least one organ, namely the plenary assembly, in which all members without exception have representation so that they can be kept informed of developments in and exercise of powers and contribute to giving content in a more detailed fashion to the goals of the organization, possibly in terms of its own interests compared with those of other members..."*²

However, political organs are not the only composing element of the overall organization.

¹ D.W Bowett, *The Law of International Institutions*, (4th ed.) (1982), p. 1

² C.H. Amerasinghe, *Principles of the Institutional Law of International Law of Organizations* (2nd ed., 2005), pp.132

In a considerable number of organizations, political organ or non-judicial & quasi-judicial or judicial organs are included in the structure. The GA, the SC and the ICJ of the UN system can be cited as an instance of such composition. This composition helps for the effective operation of the organization. It also, in some cases, established a check of one organ on another. This interrelation is central theme of the present study. However, for the accomplishment of this, an overview of general issues regarding international organization will follow below.

2.2 International Organization as International Legal Person

The conception of states as the only entities under international law with legal effect has been eroded beginning from the second half of the twentieth century. The traditional sphere of international relation could not maintain states' only approach to international legal personality. This perception of states as the single international person was accurately expressed by Oppenheim in the following words: "Since the law of nations is based on the common consent of states, and not of individual human beings, states solely and exclusively are subjects of international law."³ During the prevalence of this attitude legal person under international law used to be described in terms of states. Other actors in international relations 'were not considered as subjects, or at best, were analyzed in state-centric terms: as gatherings of states, or as derogations from statehood (servitude for e.g.) or as essentially unclassified experiments.⁴ This, however, was penetrated into by Individuals⁵ and International organizations⁶ in the latter phase of international law and

³ Lassa Oppenheim, *International Law: A Treatise*, I (4th ed., 1928) pp.133-134.

⁴ Jan Klabbbers, *Introduction to International Institutional law* (2002), p.42.

⁵ Traditionally, international law and the individual were linked via the state availing the device of nationality (Malcom Shaw, *International law* (5th ed., 2003)). Deviations from this conception were viewed later. In the treaty of 1907, establishing Central American Court of Justice, individuals were provided with rights to bring cases directly before the court (Ibid., p.233). The 1919 Treaty of Versailles had also allowed individuals to bring claims of compensation against Germany directly. (Ibid) The PCIJ had similarly reaffirmed this capacity of individuals in the Danzing Railway Officials case (Ibid). Following this newly developed trend, various universal and regional international human right instruments incorporated provisions entitling individuals to have direct access to international courts and tribunals. (Ibid.) As far as obligations are concerned, a number of international crimes, the commission of which led to liability of the individuals, were created before the turn of the 20th Century. These crimes include piracy *jure gentium* war crimes, injuries to submarine cables, postal offenses and others (Bantekas B. and Nash T., *International Criminal Law* (2nd ed., 2002) p. 45); see also Shaw, above n 5, p.232). Many believe, however, individual criminal responsibility is established in the Charter of the IMT and subsequent judgments it gave. In the same decade, international conventions specified the responsibility of individuals. With the establishment the *ad hoc* tribunals, the jurisprudence of the concept developed. Finally, a permanent court of international nature that deals with, among others individual criminal

international relations: law of cooperation. Sovereign states though kept their predominance, cannot uphold the fact of their singlehood international personality. Other entities, then, began to act in a manner that legal effect would be attached to their activities in international law.

Various scholars, at present, argue that legal personality has become the feature of not only international organizations and individuals but also that of multinational entities or corporations.⁷ Accordingly, it is propounded, such entities, as international legal person, have the ability to acquire rights and assume obligations including enforcement of rights through bringing international claims.⁸ In fact, it is fundamental in the contemporary international relations, to acknowledge the participation of a number of entities in the international arena. Therefore, propositions that transcend acts of such entities as devoid of legal effect would be ignorant of the reality and futile. This, in particular holds true for international organizations.⁹

2.2.1 Approaches To International Personality of International Organization

As indicated by Professor Shaw, all cooperation between or among states that end up with the establishment of some kind of arrangements should not be taken as if they are

responsibility was created evincing the status of the individual as a subject of international law. Cf: Alexander Orakhelashvili, *The Position of the Individual in International Law*, 31 *Cal W. Intl. L. J* 241 (2000-2001), pp. 241-276 (analyzing the above areas of contact between the individual and international law as insufficient to provide for individuals as legal person in international law.)

⁶ International conferences were the dominant mode of diplomacy in the period following the 1648 Westphalian peace. Among such, the congress of Vienna (1815) and the peace conferences of The Hague (1899-1907) are the popularly known. (See Amerasinghe, above n 2, pp.1-7; Shaw, above n 5, p. 162 and Klabbers, above n 4, p. 171). In the 19th century, other mechanisms such as associations and commissions were employed, for instance, in the case of the Rhine Commission (1815) and the European Commission for Danube in 1956. Within the same century, the World Anti-Slavery Convention, the ICRC and the International Law Commission, non- governmental associations were founded by the earnest effort of private citizens. With the turn of the 20th century, a breakthrough organization the League of Nations was established. This, in turn, was substituted in 1945 by the United Nations whose international personality was declared in 1949.

⁷ Robin F. Hansen, *The International Legal Personality of Multinational Enterprises: Treaty Custom and the Governance Gap*, 10 *Global Jurists* 1 (2010), pp.1-129 (arguing MNEs have state granted international legal personality); OECD Guidelines for Multinational Enterprise as quoted in Shaw, p. 224 (describing international practice dealing with such corporations); Cf: Jose E. Alvarez, *Are corporations subjects of International law?* 9 *Santa Clara J. Int'l L.* 1(2011)

⁸ *Reparations for Injuries Suffered in the Services of the United Nations*, Advisory opinion, 1949, ICJ Rep, p.174.

⁹ Brownlie had indicated the number of IOs in 1990 around 170. After four years, Peter Bekker counted 350 IOs. After similar periodic interval between the above two estimates, their number was claimed to be 7000. (Klabbers, above n 4, p.1 (notes)). According to Amerasinghe, however, their numbers range between 500 and 700 with 3:1 proportion to states. (Amerasinghe, above n 2, p.6 (notes)).

bestowed with legal personality.¹⁰ Some of such engagements are not persons in the eyes of international law. Their international status varies from one to another case. This, in turn has resulted in more than one theory of international personality of international organization which will be discussed in the following sections.

I. Will Theory

Pursuant to the proponents of this theory, international organizations operate in the international arena only when states explicitly empower them, in their founding treaties, with legal personality of international nature.¹¹ States which sign the constitutive treaty determine whether organizations they establish should have legal personality distinct from themselves. Transcending the assertion of state-granted personality, the theory upholds positivism of international law. This proposition is best described in the following excerpt:

“[g]enerally, international law is thought to be based on the freely expressed consent of states, and therefore, the same should apply to the creation of international organizations. It is difficult to go against states’ wishes in international law, so when states have clear intentions concerning the legal personality of international organizations they have established, then those intentions must be respected.”¹²

Accordingly, personality of international organizations needs to be specified by contracting states expressly. This approach has been employed in the constitutive documents of international Seabed Authority, the International Olive Oil Council, the Western Indian Ocean Tuna Organization and more recently the International Criminal Court.¹³

¹⁰ Shaw, above n 5, p.1187; See also Jan Klabbers, Institutional Ambivalence by Design: Soft Organization in International law, 70 Nordic JIL 403, p. 405(He describes that inter-cooperation has increasingly been organized through mechanisms that were deliberately kept at that fringes of international law or even outside it altogether. He cites the OSCE based on the non-binding Final Act of Helsinki, the Arctic Council based on non-binding instrument as examples).

¹¹ Esa Passivirta, The European Union: From an Aggregate of states to a Legal person? 2 Hofstra L. & Pol’y Symp. 371, p.4.

¹² Klabbers, above n 4, p. 42.

¹³ United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS), done at Mantego Bay, 10 December 1982 entered into force 16 November 1994, Art. 176 (The Authority shall have international legal personality and such legal capacity as may be necessary for the exercise of its functions and the fulfilment of its purpose; International Agreement on Olive Oil and Table Olives, done at Geneva, 29 April 2005, Art. 5(1) (The International Olive Council shall have international legal personality....) ; Convention on

However, a number of treaties of international organizations that do not expressly endow international personality also exist rendering the will theory insignificant.¹⁴ The influence of this doctrine has also diminished lately due to the collapse of communism.¹⁵ Another problem of the theory lies on the situation where international organization that has secured its personality has been isolated by other subjects of international law from transaction i.e. no international person is “willing to enter into any engagements with it.” In such instances, the will theory doesn’t give any redress rendering its concept of personality empty.¹⁶ Additionally, general international law is deviating from the will and interest of individual states’ towards the realization of community interests which undermines the relevance of will of states in international law generally and as a basis if international organizations personality as well.¹⁷

II. Objective Theory

In contrast to the will theory, the theme of this theory lies on the intention of the member states.¹⁸ This intention is not expected to necessarily be crystallized into words. Consequently, even if states do not bestow express legal personality on an international organization, it can be deduced from the powers given to them. As per the analysis of Dr.Passivirta, the objective theory suggests that “if an organization operates in a sufficiently autonomous manner, it may possess legal personality *ipso facto* in addition to that conferred by constitute elements.”¹⁹ Therefore, on the basis of objectively viewed criteria international law determines the personality of international organizations. Professor Klabber has clearly expounded what Seyersted, the first exponent of the doctrine, meant:

the Western Indian Ocean Tuna Organization, done at Mahe, Seychelles, 19 June 1991, Art. 8(1) (The organization shall have international legal personality and such legal capacity as way be necessary for the exercise of its functions & the fulfilment of its purpose...); UN General Assembly, Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court (last amended 2010), 17 July 1998, Art. 4 (The court shall have international legal Personality.)

¹⁴ Passivirta, above n 11, p. 4.

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ Klabbers, above n 4, p.54

¹⁷ Karsten Nowrot, New Approaches to the International Legal Personality of Multinational Corporations towards a Rebuttable Presumption of Normative Responsibilities, ESIL Research Forum on International Law: Contemporary Issues, Graduate Institute of International Studies(HEI), Geneva, Thursday 26-Saturday 28 May 2005, Workshop No 7, P.8

¹⁸ Shaw, above n 5, p. 1189.

¹⁹ Passivirta, above n 11, p. 4.

“According to Seyersted, the legal personality of international organization follows the same pattern as that of states: as soon as an entity exists as a matter, i.e. meets the requirements that international law attaches to its establishment, the entity possesses international legal personality. For states, this follows from the acquisition of ‘statehood’; for organizations, then, it follows from acquisition of ‘Organizationhood.’ Importantly, then the will of the founders doesn’t decide on personality as a separate matter.”²⁰

Elsewhere, Seyersted himself states: “International organizations, like states, come into being on the basis of general international law when certain criteria exist, and these necessary criteria do not include a convention.”²¹

Personality of international organizations will, thus, be an automatic feature once the entity attains ‘Organizationhood’. This level will be inferred the possession of certain attributes by the body itself.²² Although what these attributes include are not settled, one view contends that the creation of internal organs to discharge the functions on their own is among the criteria.²³

Nevertheless, likewise the contract theory, objective theory is considered defective. The major criticism is directed towards the theory’s disregard of the will of states. If an international organization will always be clothed with personality, even when states intend to establish an organization devoid of legal personality, it would go against the interest of the founding states. This overruling characteristic [of the theory] in turn, would elevate the theory to *jus cogens*.²⁴

III. Presumptive Personality

Included among the approaches to international personality is one what Klabbers calls ‘presumptive personality’. As envisaged in this approach, acts of international personality lead to the presumption of those organizations personhoods;²⁵ thus, a source of

²⁰ Klabbers, above n 4, p. 55.

²¹ F. Seyersted, International Personality of International organization. Do Their Capacities really depend upon Their Constitutions? (1964) 4 IJIL 53 as quoted in Phillipe Gautier, The Reparations for Injuries Case Revisited: The Personality of European Union in Max Planck Year Book of United Nations Law (2000), p.335.

²² Rosalyn Higgins, Problems and Process: International Law & How We Use It as quoted in Simon Chesterman, Does Asian Exist? The Association of South East Asian Nations as an International Legal Person 12 SYIL 133 2008, p. 203

²³ Gautier, above n 21, p.355 (describing the main criteria of organizationhood, as purported by Seyestered himself, is possession of distinct will.)

²⁴ Klabbers, above n 4, p. 55.

²⁵ Ibid.

international personality. He asserts that a support for this pragmatic approach can be found in the famous ICJ Advisory opinion: Reparations for Injuries Suffered Case. He summarizes his reasoning as follows:

"In an often quoted passage, the court held that 'fifty states representing the vast majority of the members of the international community, had the power in conformity with international law, to bring into being an entity possessing objective international personality recognized by them alone, together with capacity to bring claim.' The surprising element in this passage is that the court left it unspecified whether those fifty states had actually used their power to create an entity with international legal personality. The court merely presumed this to be the case, and as no one bothered to rebut the presumption, it survived."²⁴

The implication of his argument is that preceding acknowledgement of personality of international organization is not material. From their mere operation one may deem personality of such organizations.

Another scholar forwards similar opinion, though in his case international organizations are established subjects of international law and adopts the approach to other entities participating in the international plane. But, his argument relates to international personality and hence relevant for the discussion at hand as it clearly portrays the concept of 'presumption personality.'

According to this researcher, it is not in the interest of international community to exclude 'influential actors' from the ambit of international law.²⁶ Only those actors that cannot be considered influential—due to their limited participation in the interactions of international arena—will not be beneficiaries of the presumption. Rather, they need to have an express grant of international personality.²⁷

It should also be noted that those 'influential actors' will be accorded a rebuttable presumption. When it is demonstrated that a contrary normative expression "or at least a sufficient uniform practice" of international community exist, the presumption can be refuted.²⁸

IV. Implied Powers Theory

²⁶ Nowrot, above n 17, pp.7-13

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ Ibid., p.14

The dominating and widely endorsed²⁹ basis of international personality is the implied power theory. Exponents of this school of thought argue that personality of international organizations is derived from specific powers and functions, which cannot be exercised without a corresponding international status, endowed to them.³⁰ Personality is, thus, indirectly inferred, in this case, from the bestowed powers and functions. Due to this, it is also known as functional theory.³¹ In the Reparation for injuries suffered advisory opinion, the ICJ opined " ...by entrusting certain functions to it, with the attendant duties and responsibilities, [member states] have clothed it [the UN] with the competence required to enable those functions to be effectively discharged."³²

In the analysis of Professor Alvarez, quoted below, the court has touched upon three distinct but correlated points of inference from which UN personality was implied:

"[t]he court argued that such personality could be inferred from

- (1) Necessity (since it was necessary to permit the organization to achieve the expressed goals indicated in the Charter)*
- (2) Members intent (since they had decided to create an independent entity and not merely a means to harmonize the actions of separate states) and*
- (3) The practice of the organization (since it had concluded treaties with states)."³³*

Transpired by this case is the fact that overall examination of aspects of IOs activity hints as to their status. International organizations have, thus, become entitled, by virtue of this functional theory, to rights, plainly with their correlative duties, on international plane. This school of thought adopts a flexible view of international personality with expansive and equally limiting potential.³⁴

Nevertheless, this observably influential theory is not immune from critics. For some scholars its defect begins with its failure to clarify the yardstick, as well organs that determine, functional necessity.³⁵ Its bias to the 'goodness' of international organization

²⁹Passivirta, above n 11, p. 5; Niels M. Blokker and Henry G. Schermers, *International Institutional Law: Unity with Diversity* (3rd ed., 1995), p.979

³⁰ Passivirta, *ibid.*; Blokker and Schermers, *ibid.*

³¹ Jose E. Alvarez, *International Organization as Law- Makers* (2006) p. 93

³² *Reparations for Injuries Case*, [1949] ICJ Rep., p. 179

³³ Alvarez, above n 31, p.134

³⁴ *Ibid.*, p.135

³⁵ Klabbers, above n 4, p.38

is another pitfall. Its assumption of IOs as “a good thing” is not representative of the reality, to some critics.³⁶

2.2.2 Preliminary Conclusion on IOs Personality

In an almost consensual manner, personality of IOs has been upheld though the grounds of recognition vary as inspected previously. This has primarily resulted from ICJ’s advisory opinion itself. Most of the theories trace their origin in the case. Admittedly, in one way or another, the court has touched upon elements of more than two theories. Observing this, Professor Alvarez states:

“...because of this mix of arguments, the court didn’t clarify whether the legal status of UN arose because its members really intended the result, because such intent could be implied or because of the automatic operation of general international law whenever such institutions are created. While the court’s reliance on ‘intendment’ suggests the first rationale, its conclusion with respect to non-members needs to recognize the objective personality of the organization suggested the second or the third.”³⁷

Therefore, this failure of the court and the subsequent dearth of the jurisprudence, to clearly articulate the factors that indicate international personality, have led some authors to stipulate basic requirements. Pursuant to Professor Amerasinghe, the following should be fulfilled:

- (i) An association of states or international organization or both (a) With lawful objects and (b) With one or more organs which are not subject to the authority of any other organized communities than, if at all, the participants in those organs acting jointly;
- (ii) The existence of a distinction between the organization and its members in respect of legal rights, duties, power and liabilities etc. (in the Hohfeldian sense) on the international plane it being clear that the organization was ‘intended’ to have such rights, duties, power and liabilities.³⁸

In the opinion of the renowned international law Professor Ian Brownlie, the following must be present

³⁶ Ibid., p.37

³⁷ Alvarez, above n 31, p.133

³⁸ Amerasinghe, above n 2, p. 32

- (i) A permanent association of states, with lawful objects equipped with organs.
- (ii) A distinction in terms of legal powers and purposes, between the organization and its members
- (iii) The existence of legal powers exercisable on the international plane and not solely within the national systems of one more states.³⁹

Slomanson, likewise, outlines the following prerequisites

- (i) A permanent association of state members with established objectives and administrative organs
- (ii) Possession of some power that is distinct from the sovereign power of its member states and
- (iii) Power exercisable on an international level rather than solely within national systems of its members.⁴⁰

The latter commentators deal with the membership and commonality objectives aspects of IOs almost identically whereas the former one includes IOs to membership not confining it to states. This is a recently observed practice. The suggestion of the first author on the other hand, condenses some elements together.

For the purpose of this study, thus, and the requirements has been re-written as follows:

- (i) Establishment of a permanent association of states or IOs or both, for the attainment of lawful objects, with administrative organs.
- (ii) A distinction in terms of legal powers and purposes between the organization and its members
- (iii) Existence of powers which would enable the organization to act in the international plane.

Another important point worth mentioning here is the consequence of international personality. It should be duly noted that those organizations fulfilling the above

³⁹ Ian Brownlie, *Principles of Public International Law* (6th ed., 2003), p.649

⁴⁰ William R. Slomanson *Fundamental Perspective in International Law*(4th ed., 2003), p. 163 as quoted in Reluca David, *The European Union and Its Legal Personality 1993-2010* available on <http://ssrn.com/abstract=1566492>

requirements are not to be considered as states⁴¹ for all legal persons in the international legal system are not the same. This means: even if their personality is acknowledged, IOs are not to be equated with states- the original subjects of international law. The bare effect of IOs personality would be, then, entitlement to enjoy rights and assume obligations under international law. Therefore, no equivalence should be assumed. Let alone with states, IOs themselves do not acquire identical entitlements. This will depend on the competence of each organization which will be dealt in the coming sections.

Moreover, one needs to distinguish between international personality and personality at non-international level. The attainment of international personality would not imply IOs national legal capacity. The latter will be addressed in whole other way. In some cases, constituent instruments of IOs explicitly stipulate the national juridic status of the organization they create.⁴² In such instances, member states would be bound to recognize the organization. States which are not party to the IOs may, in some cases, even be bound.⁴³ In others, the personality will be governed by the respective laws of national jurisdiction.⁴⁴ UK is the prominent example following this way. In UK, parliamentary action declaring the accord of personality to the concerned IO is necessary.⁴⁵

2.3 African Union's International Standing

The African Union is established to attain important objectives common to the states of Africa and their people. The membership is open to states of the African continent only.⁴⁶ In reaching the objectives enshrined in the Constitutive Act, none of which appear to be contrary to international law, the principles sets forth there in must be

⁴¹ Amerasinghe, above n 2, p. 92 (Summarizes the court's view, in the Reparations for Injuries case, as not suggesting that IOs enjoying legal personality are not super- states, states or consider the same rights duties, capacities etc as states.)

⁴² Id., p.40 (citing Art.IX (2) and VII (2) of FAO Constitution, Art.45 of the EBRD Agreement; Art VII (2) of the IDA Articles of Agreement; Art VI (2) of the IFC Articles of Agreement, Art IX (2) of the AFDB Agreement and Art.48 (1) of the CDB

⁴³ Amerasinghe, above n 9, p. 71 (explaining Switzerland's admission of UN legal personality due to the sole reason of agreement regarding its headquarters, even if it was not member of the organization.)

⁴⁴ Ibid., p. 76; See also Klabbbers, above n 4, p. 49 (discussing the freedom of each legal system to develop its own requirements.)

⁴⁵ Amerasinghe, Ibid., p.73

⁴⁶ Constitutive Act of the Africa Union, Adopted on July 11 2002, entered in to force on May 26 2001[hereinafter Constitutive Act or CA], Art 29(1)

accorded.⁴⁷ These principles guide the Union in its interaction with its members and external parties. The principle depicts the rule of the Union towards the achievement of the Unions objective.

The union is also endowed with various organs, which have their own mandates.⁴⁸ These organs are internal bodies of the Union and belong to the organization and 'not to the member states'⁴⁹ they function in accordance with the principles and rules of the Union. No doubt exists as to the fact that they enumerated competences of the Union include those powers exercisable at the international plane.⁵⁰ The overall observation of the Union structure indicates that the Union undoubtedly has international legal personality.⁵¹

There is also another reason to ascertain the international personality of the Union. The organization of African Unity is the predecessor of the African Union. It used to manage cooperation and coordination of among African states in their common affairs. But due to some limitations in its functions, as discussed in Chapter Three of this study, reconsideration of the organization was felt. African states observed 'the imperative need and a high sense of urgency to rekindle the aspiration of their peoples for stringer unity, solidarity and cohesion in a larger community of peoples transcending cultural, ideological, ethnic and national differences' and committed themselves to revitalize the continental organization [OAU] - in order for it to have more active role and be more responsive to the demands of the prevailing circumstances.⁵² As a reaction they decided to establish an African Union 'in conformity with the ultimate objectives of the charter of the OAU and the provision of the Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community.'⁵³ Implied in this is then, heads of states and governments of Africa didn't disregard the OAU totally. Rather, having the objectives and purposes of the OAU in

⁴⁷ Ibid., Art 3 and 4

⁴⁸ Ibid., Art 5

⁴⁹ Ibid.

⁵⁰ See, for instance, Ibid., Art 9, Art 13, Art 15

⁵¹ Nsongurua Udombana, *The Institutional Structure of the African Union: A Legal Analysis*, 33 Cal. W. Int'l L.J. 69 2002-03, P. 83

⁵² Sirte Declaration, EAHG/Draft/ Decl. (iv) Rev.1 Fourth Extraordinary Session of the Assembly of Heads of State and Governments, 8-9 September 1999, Sirte, Libya (hereinafter Sirte Declaration), paragraph 5

⁵³ Ibid., Paragraph 8

mind and keeping it intact, addressed the problem by renovating the institution. Hence, the African Union didn't replace the objectives of the OAU.

Some doubts were raised as to the succession of rights, duties in functions of the OAU immediately after the adoption of the AU CA. the problem would have been solved by the inclusion of a provision stipulating so. But it didn't happen except for assets and liabilities of the OAU.⁵⁴ However, assessment of subsequent practice of the Union suggests the succession. Maluwa puts the scenario in the following words: 'where the creators and the members of the new organization are exactly the same as those of the predecessor organization, such succession in practice been granted, even where the constituent instrument of the new entity is silent on the matter. This is certainly the case regarding the succession of the OAU and the AU.⁵⁵

If it is ascertained that the AU has succeeded OAU in legal terms then it will automatically be an international person with rights and duties as its predecessor.

2.4 Regional Organizations in international law

Cooperation is being undertaken in international law, both at government or state level, in socio-politics, economy and trade matters as well as fields of peace and security. Regional organizations role is also significant. In some instances, regional mechanism even yields greater progress particularly where the similarity and interconnection among the members of the region is observable.⁵⁶ The establishment of commissions such as ECA, ECE, ESCAP, ECLA, and the UN displays effectiveness of regional approaches.⁵⁷

Regional organizations are loosely regulated by international law except those dealing with maintenance of peace and security. The latter are ones governed by the strong legal regime namely the United Nations Charter which by some scholars has been described as constitution of international community.⁵⁸ In this instrument, the criteria that are

⁵⁴ Constitutive Act, Art 33(1)

⁵⁵ Tiyanjana, Maluwa, From the Organization of Africa Unity to the Africa Union: Rethinking the Framework for Inter-state Cooperation in Africa in the era of Globalization, 9 U. Botswana L.J 49 2009, P.55

⁵⁶ Bowett, above n 1, p.166.

⁵⁷ Ibid.

⁵⁸ Bardo Fassbender, The UN Charter as Constitution of the International Community, 36 Colum. J Transnational L 529 (1998) p. 529; Pierre -Marie Dupuy, The Constitutional Dimension of the Charter of

expected to be met by regional arrangements and agencies have been specified: the link and the consistency requirements.

The link test demands some commonality among the members of the 'to be' established organization. However, as one can be misled from the word 'regional,' territorial proximity is not mandatorily needed.⁵⁹ Some degree of spatial proximity cannot be dropped though.⁶⁰ If members share economic, sociocultural and political factors, they need to be considered as fulfilling the conditions.⁶¹

The other is the consistency requirement pursuant to this, a regional organization required to adhere to the purposes and principles of the UN Charter. This should be reflected on both the constitution and activities of the organization.⁶² Upon the fulfillment of these preconditions is that a say about regional organization would be acceptable.

However, as pointed out earlier, Art 52 of the Charter which stipulates the prerequisites deals with IOs established for the purpose of maintaining peace and security or collective self-defense. Thus, the relevance of the provision to inter-state relations, other than maintenance of peace and security, is none except in the case of organizations of multi-purpose nature. In other words, where a regional organization engages simultaneously in various fields such as economic cooperation, sustainable development, etc. along with peace and security, the above requirements will implicitly apply. Beyond this, organization such as river commissions, fisheries etc. are not to be regulated by the stated provision. What is equally important to be noticed is that there is no provision that underplays the

the United Nations Revisited in 1Max Planck UNYB 1997, p. 33 (describing the charter as the basic covenant of the international community and the world constitution in some aspects.); Nicole J. Schrijver, *The Future of the Charter of the United Nations*, 10 Max Planck UNYB 2006, P.34

⁵⁹ W Hummer and M. Schweitzer, Comment of Art 52, in B. Simma et al (eds.) *The Charter of the United Nations: A Commentary* (2nd ed.,I) (2002) P.822

⁶⁰ Ibid.

⁶¹ The Egyptian delegation suggested at the San Fransisco conference the following definition: "There shall be considered as regional arrangements organization of a permanent nature grouping in a given geographical area several countries, which by reason of their proximity, community of interests of cultural or linguistic, historical, or spiritual affinities make themselves jointly responsible for the peaceful settlement of any disputes which may arise... as well as for the safeguarding of their interests and development of their economic cultural relations." But, this definition is rejected for being too restrictive ,12 UNCIO, 850, 957 as quoted in Mutlaq Al – Qahatani, *The Shangai Cooperation Organization and the Law of International Organizations*, 5 Chinese Journal of International Law 129 (2006), pp. 131-132

⁶² Hummer and Schweitzer, above n 59, p.825

engagement and development of regional organizations in other fields not covered by Art.52 and chapter VIII of the charter in general. Rather, founding constitutions or treaties of such organizations and general principles of international law would primarily be of some avail.

2.5 Power And Competence of International Organizations

Ability to act in the international sphere necessitates the determination of scope and demarcations of such entitlement. International persons are not similar as to their capacity. Capacity is general in nature in the case of states.⁶³ This does not, however, hold the same for other international entities. IOs would have ability and capacity to act so long as it is carried out in pursuit of their functions and purposes. This will justify the manner and matter of acts of IOs. To state a concrete example, the International Tin Council can exercise its general 'capacity to contract' concluding contracts relating to tin.⁶⁴ Likewise, the OECD, an economic organization, cannot enter into a military pact, which is beyond its competence.⁶⁵

In the contemporary study of IOs, discussions relating to competence and responsibilities dominate by far. The 1970s hot debate on international personality aspect of IOs has given way to matters related to competence. International tribunals have forwarded their opinions. Scholars have investigated the issue repeatedly. For the purpose of this study, some remarks on the matter need to be made. Because, obviously, any review of acts of IOs need to expound and ascertain the nature, legality and validity of the same. In doing so, examination of powers and competences at both specific organs and overall organizations level will be conducted. Due to the non-comprehensive nature of IOs capacity, specific competences they enjoy need to be assessed in light of the legal basis of their power.

2.5.1 Foundations Of Power Of International Organization

⁶³ R. Wessel, *Revisiting the International Legal Status of the EU*, 5 *European Foreign Affairs Review* 507 (2000), p. 511; see also Dapo Akande, *The Competence of International Organizations and the Advisory Jurisdiction of the Court of Justice*, 9 *EJIL* 437, p.443

⁶⁴ P.H.F Bekker, *The Legal Position of Inter-governmental organizations: A Functional Necessity Analysis of Their legal status and Immunities (1994)* as quoted in Wessel, *Ibid.*, p.510 (note)

⁶⁵ Klabbers, above n 4, p.60

A new organization or an existing one can be endowed with powers. States invest powers on IOs mainly through treaties. Treaties destined for this purpose are subdivided into two: Constituent treaties and Contractual treaties.⁶⁶

I. Constituent Treaties

In most cases, IOs are created and vested with power by constituent treaties. Beyond expression of consent, such treaties depict the organizations' constitutional order. This dimension of the treaty is derived from its feature of creating various organs of the organization.⁶⁷ In the words of one commentator, 'such treaties, after giving birth to the organization, undertake 'control of that same treaty at the expense of the parties' authority, and operates on the basis of a *kompetenz-kompetenz*...'⁶⁸ Constant practice by the organization itself and contracting states towards it and mode of interpretation distinguish it from multilateral and bilateral treaties.⁶⁹

II. Contractual Treaties

In limited cases, states confer power on IOs by mere conclusion of treaties. Dan Sarooshi, a scholar who has conducted an in-depth study on the matter, cites the post WWII Peace Treaty of the Four Powers.⁷⁰ Pursuant to this treaty, the General Assembly was given power to decide on the future of the Italian colonies where the four powers could not reach an agreement within a year of the entry into force of the treaty, on the matter. Unarguably, this was an *ad hoc* power.⁷¹

Conferral of such power on a permanent basis has also been witnessed. The recent endowment of power of referral and deferral on the Security Council as per Art.13 and

⁶⁶ Danesh Sarooshi, Some Preliminary Remarks on the Conferral by States of Powers on International organizations, 4 New York University Jean Monnet Working Paper 1(2003) available at <http://www.centers.law.nyu.edu/jeanmonnet/archive/papers/03/030401.pdf.html> ; p. 4 See also Niels & Schremers, above n 29, p. 23 (Concurring with treaties as the most usual form, they also maintain informal agreements such as decisions of governmental representatives in a conference, as in Asian – African Legal Consultative Committee, Inter-American Defence Boards and International Wool Study Group, establish IOs.

⁶⁷ Brownlie, above n 39, p 657; Blokker N., and Wessel R., Updating International Organizations, 2 International Organizations LR 1 2008, p.1

⁶⁸ Catherine Brolmann, The Institutional Veil of Public International Law International Organizations and The Law of Treaties (2007), p.113

⁶⁹ Shaw, above n 5, p.1194

⁷⁰ Sarooshi, above n 66, p.9 (Note 11)

⁷¹ Ibid., pp.9-10

Art.16 of the Rome Statute respectively is a case at hand. Accordingly, the Security Council has the power to refer situations to the prosecutor of ICC, in which one or more crimes, within the jurisdiction of ICC, appears to have been committed. In the same manner, investigations may be suspended by the council and prosecutions be stopped for renewable 12 months period. This conferral is made by Rome Statute which is not an establishing document of the Security Council or the UN in general.

It should, however, be noticed that in cases where such power is given to an IO or a specific organ, the establishing instrument or the constituent treaty must allow, or at least not prohibit, the exercise of the newly granted power.⁷² In the case stated earlier, had it not been for the chapter VII of the UN charter (enforcement actions of the council), the empowerment would have resulted in *ultra vires*.⁷³

2.5.2 Constituent Instruments As A Basis Of Competence

Constituent instruments envisage a general competence, designated as capacity, which means activities an organization engages in to achieve its functions and purposes.⁷⁴ General conditions to act such as to conclude treaties bring international claims etc. are, thus, indicated in these founding documents. Besides, more specific and concrete powers, usually termed as competences, are also described in constituent instruments.⁷⁵ In the Agricultural production and conditions of admission case the ICJ has confirmed that constitutions of IOs underpin their power, both general and specific ones.

Such grant of power to act may be made through explicit attribution in the constitution or by implication in the same.

⁷² Voting Procedure on Questions Relating to Reports and Petitions Concerning the Territory of South West Africa, Advisory Opinion of June 7th 1955, Separate Opinion Lauterpacht J, *ICJ Rep 1955*, p. (stating "organization cannot accept the fulfilment of a task which lies outside the scope of its function as determined by its constitution.")

⁷³ Prosecutor *vs.* Dusko Tadic, ICTY, Appeal Chamber, Decision on the Defence Motion for Interlocutory Appeal on Jurisdiction, 2 Oct. 1995 available at <http://www.icty.org/x/cases/tadic/acdec/en/51002.htm> accessed on Jun 2011 (referring art.41 as the pertinent provision to establish ICTY) see also R. A Kolodkin, 'Ad hoc' International Tribunal for the Prosecution of Series Violations of International Humanitarian Law in the Former Yugoslavia 5 *Crm. L. F.* (1995); Cf: A. P. Rubin, 'An International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia?' 6 *Pace int'l L. Rev.* 7(1994) pp. 7-17

⁷⁴ Sarooshi, above n 66, p.21

⁷⁵ Klabbers, above n 4, p.279

I. Attributed Powers

The basic premise of this doctrine lies in its consideration of IOs as offspring of states. It, then, proceeds advancing that member states determine in what manner an IO acts defining its mandate in the constitution of the organization. Any operations of the organization must be grounded on powers specifically given to them; hence, no activity beyond those enumerated in black and white. This doctrine is an aspect of positivist international law. The assertion, in the Lotus case, that restriction on the independence of states was not to be presumed transcends this perception.⁷⁶ Formerly judge of the ICJ Thirlway, though relating to jurisdiction of international tribunals has advocated explicit power stating:

*"jurisdiction or competence is not, in the sense in which those terms are used in relation to a dispute, a general property vested in the court or tribunal contemplated: it is the power, conferred by the consent of the parties, to make a determination on specified disputed issues which will be binding on the parties because that is what they have consented to."*⁷⁷

IOs, in the case of Thirlway international tribunals, cannot outgrow and remain confined to powers that has been specified in the constituent instruments and sanctioned by the consent of states. The clause of domestic jurisdiction is a dimension of this doctrine.⁷⁸ In many IOs, such clauses delineate the scope of IOs activities vis-à-vis its member states. The clauses are features of IOs irrespective of the diverging views as to their current significance.⁷⁹

The demarcation underlined by the doctrine of attributed powers pose some problems. Primarily, it will subordinate IOs to the will of states. The 'stick-to-enumerations'

⁷⁶ Ibid., p.64.

⁷⁷ Brown, the Inherent Power of International Courts and tribunals, 76 BYIL, p.209.

⁷⁸ Niels and Blokker, above n 29, pp 142-143 (explains the introduction of domestic clause as a guarantee that the organization would stay out from internal affairs of its members.)

⁷⁹ Those who consider the provision as obsolete include Brownlie, I., Principles of Public International Law (5th ed., 1998), P.55; Bernhardt, R., Domestic Jurisdiction of States and International Human Rights organs, 7HRLJ 205 1986, p. 205; Leo Gross, Domestic Jurisdiction, Enforcement Measures and the Congo, AustYIL 137 1965, P.140: Cf: The Position of the UN Secretary General in UN Press Release SG/SM/6613, June 26 1998 Thirty-fifth annual Ditchley Foundation Lecture given by Secretary-General Kofi Annan at Ditchley Park, United Kingdom

proposition will, in the final analysis, render IOs to be 'vehicles of state members'.⁸⁰ Equally again, for it is hardly possible to foresee and exhaustively list powers of IOs, the doctrine of attribution would incapacitate them to deal with progress and development.⁸¹

II. Implied Powers

The doctrine of implied powers is the heart of IOs. It serves as the basis of both personality and competence of IOs. The perils of the non-comprehensive capacity of IOs, as compared to that of states, and the demise of the principle of attribution are mitigated by virtue of this doctrine. To a great extent, operation of IOs is facilitated by this same doctrine.

A break through assertion of implied powers is made in the famous Reparation for Injuries Suffered Case. The pertinent paragraph of ICJ opinion in the case reads:

"Under International Law, the organization [the UN] must be deemed to have those powers which, though not expressly provided in the charter, are conferred upon it by necessary implication as being essential to the performance of its duties."⁸²

Accordingly, the mission of an IO determines the scope of its acts. Not only have the visible powers mattered, but also the abstract ones as well. In implying powers terms will be read into the organization's statute with the purpose of giving effect to the intention of state parties to the constitutional treaty. Its rationale is, then, both in its original and present version, to ensure the effective operation of IOs.⁸³ Its application is not, therefore, limited to constitutions that include clauses indicating its use as in the case of EUMETSAT, European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts or EC. It also governs constitutions that do not employ such 'explicit implied powers provision'.⁸⁴ This is a result of the fact that implied powers are assumed for the sake of efficiency rather than permission of member states. Consequently, there will be inference of powers so long as it is essential to the performance of duties.

⁸⁰ Klabbers, above n 4, p.66.

⁸¹ Ibid.

⁸² Reparations for Injuries Suffered, 1949 ICJ Reports, p.182-183.

⁸³ See the discussions of Klabbers, above n 4, pp.67-73 (he contends two phases of implied powers doctrines i.e. the 'innocent version' of in the 1926 advisory opinion and the wide version of the doctrine envisaged in the Reparations for Injuries case.); See also Alvarez, above n 31, p.92

⁸⁴ Niels and Blokker, above n 28, p.175.

Notwithstanding the concurrence on points discussed so far, what the term 'essential' entails has brought division of opinion. One line of argument contends that essentiality should not be taken as meaning 'absolutely essential' or 'indispensable'.⁸⁵ It suffices if the power to be implied would enable the organization to function to its full capacity as expressed in its objects and purposes.⁸⁶ Where efficiency of the organization justifies the implication of the power, it can be considered as 'essential'. Professor Alvarez, on his part, elaborates the term 'essentiality' as permitting 'any action that is not strictly speaking essential' or 'necessary' but is merely desirable and consistent with the Charter powers or aims.⁸⁷

Proponents of this line of thought list a number of ICJ decisions in their support. The reasoning of the court in the Reparation for injuries suffered case, in which UN's right to bring claims is asserted, is based, for them, on the need to ensure efficient performance and to afford effective support to its agents; and is not rendered, as they argue, on the analysis of the fact whether the non-recognition of the right would make the organization unable to perform its function.⁸⁸ The recognition of the presumption, in the certain Expenses case, that acts undertaken, for the fulfillment of one of the stated purposes of the UN, would not be *ultra vires* is also cited in supplementing their stance.⁸⁹ Similarly, in the Effect of Awards case, the court's acknowledgment of power of the General Assembly to establish a tribunal justifying it as being essential to ensure the efficient working of the secretariat and to give effect to the paramount consideration of securing the highest standards of efficiency, competence and integrity is pursuant to the proponents, evidence of their expansive approach.⁹⁰ In general conditions of international life dictate the route of inference of powers.⁹¹

Inversely, others emphasize on the need of restrictive understanding of implied powers. To them, an in-between-words reading, rather than a functional or purposeful one, serves as a ground of implication. In their opinion, implied powers emanate from concrete

⁸⁵E. Lauterpacht, The Development of the Law of International Organizations by the Decision of International tribunals; 152 Rdc (1976, IV) IV87 at 430-432 as quoted in Akande, above n 63, p.444

⁸⁶ Akande, Ibid., p.445.

⁸⁷ Alvarez, above n 31, p.93.

⁸⁸ Akande, Ibid., p.445.

⁸⁹ Ibid; See also Klabber, above n 4, p.71.

⁹⁰ Akande, *ibid.*

⁹¹ *Ibid.*

provisions of constituent documents.⁹² The prominent exponent Judge Hackworth had, in the Reparation case, maintained: “powers not expressed cannot freely be implied. Implied powers flow from a grant of express powers, and are limited to those that are necessary to the exercise of powers expressly granted.”⁹³ Once opinion of minorities, this limitative construction lifted itself to majority in the Legality of the Use by a State of Nuclear Weapons Case. Therein the court stated:

“[i]nterpreted in accordance with their ordinary meaning, in their context and in light of the object and purpose of the WHO constitution, as well as of the practice followed by the organization, the provisions of its Article 2 may be read as authorizing the organization to deal with the effects on health of the use of nuclear weapons, or any hazardous activity, and to take preventive measures aimed at protecting the health of populations in the event of such weapons being used or such activities engaged in.

The question put to the court in the present case relates, however, not to the effects of the use of nuclear weapons on health, but to the legality of the use of such weapons in view of their health and environmental effects. Whatever those effects might be, the competence of WHO to deal with them is not dependent on the legality of the acts that caused them. Accordingly, it does not seem to the court that the provisions of Art.2 of WHO constitution, interpreted in accordance with the criteria referred to above, can be understood as conferring upon the organization a competence to address the legality of the use of nuclear weapons, and thus inturn a competence to ask the court about that....The reference in question put to the to the health and environmental effects, which according to the WHO the use of a nuclear weapon will always occasion, does not make the question one that falls within WHO's functions.”⁹⁴

Here, the court appears to be oriented to the ‘stated purpose’ justification of implied powers. A precise link to explicit powers or purposes is required. However, this is an inconsistent one to previous opinions rendered by the ICJ itself.⁹⁵

Even though both threads of arguments more or less equally appeal to attentions, the liberal interpretation seems to be widely accepted. And this has made IOs adaptive to developments, within or otherwise, of IOs. However, controls have been set up on implied powers. Actions which are expressly ruled out from the mandate of an organization; acts incompatible with aims and purposes of constitutions of IOs; existence

⁹² Tunik, Legal Bases of International Organizations Action in R. J. Dupuy (ed.) A handbook of International Organizations (1988) at 265-269 as quoted in Akande, above n 53, p.445.

⁹³ Reparations for Injuries, 1949 ICJ Reports 174, Hackworth J. Dissenting, p.198; See also Bekker, as quoted in Wessel, above n 64, p. 517 (arguing necessary and essential to be applied literally and strictly).

⁹⁴ Legality of the Threat and Use of Nuclear weapons, Advisory opinion, 1996 ICJ Rep., p.72.

⁹⁵ Akande, above n 63, p.446.

of a proper organ to act and actions directed to states, on which an organization does not have jurisdiction preclude implication of power.⁹⁶

2.5.3 *Vires Acts of International Organizations*

In a manner resembling the confinement of movements of fishes to waters, activities of international organizations are limited to constitutional mandate. They are expected to remain within the ambit of their constitutive instruments. No matter how deep or high they interact depending on teleological or other modes of interpretation with expansive effects, IOs are not to abuse or misuse such justifications and act contrary to their constitution. The areas envisaged within the governing documents of the organizations are their sphere of activities in the *strictu sensu*. Cross overs of this destined territory will be ruled by the doctrine of *ultra vires*.

I. Parties to Challenge

Objections to *ultra vires* acts may be explained from a number of perspectives. Firstly, the acts may be detrimental to the interests of member states for the accomplishment of some objectives. For this purpose, therefore, states allocate and grant powers and competences to them. Any excessive activities would then encounter this intention of member states.⁹⁷ The effects sometimes extend to non-members as well.⁹⁸ Categorically, thus, it may be said that states can challenge such *vires* acts. Judge Bustamante, in his dissenting opinion of Certain Expenses case, had highlighted states' right to challenge, for a mistake of interpretation, actions of IOs in order to determine departures from the UN charter.⁹⁹ This reasoning logically and equally applies to constitutions of other IOs. Practically, also states have objected such acts both individually and collectively. In the Case Concerning Application of the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide, Bosnia requested the invalidity of SC arms embargo resolution for it has disregarded its less possession of arms and unwittingly contributed to the

⁹⁶ Ibid.

⁹⁷ Yoshio Kwashima, Some Aspects of Illegal Acts of International Organization, 16 Osaka University Law Review 13 (1968) p. 17 (describing the possibility of arbitrary acts of IOs encroachment on members in the direction of achieving their purpose.)

⁹⁸ Alvarez, above n 31, p.93 (maintaining, as indicated in the Reparations Case, UN can claim damages as against non-member states.)

⁹⁹ Certain Expenses Case, 1962 ICJ Rep, p.304.

genocide of the Bosnian population and in effect, it violated a norm of jus cogens-prohibition of genocide in international law.¹⁰⁰ Portugal and South Africa also contested SC's handling of the Southern Rhodesia situation.¹⁰¹ IOs had, likewise, objected, in fact acted contrary to, acts they considered ultra vires. The Arab League invited its members to ease the implementation of SC Resolution adopted in relation to the Lockerbie incident.¹⁰² OAU, on its part, went far and called African Nations to suspend compliance with the Resolution.¹⁰³

Secondly, IOs themselves display vested interest in pronouncing such acts invalid or illegal. Acts that violates competence and separation of powers in general, provides ground for invalidation. The internal legal system of the organization may be affected as a consequence. Organs with power of interpretation of the constitution ascertain nature and extent of powers.¹⁰⁴ This also has implication to organization's itself right of challenge.

Non-governmental or non-state related parties can also be affected by *vires* acts. Normally, IOs transact with domestic legal persons as in the case of contract for constructing a building or contract to provide supply.¹⁰⁵ *Vires* activities of an organization may, thus, produce negative impacts on such parties. As a consequence, a request for invalidation may be submitted. Even if presented before domestic courts, which will not be the case always, the applicable law will be international law.¹⁰⁶

II. Nature of Ultra Vires Acts

Ultra vires acts include decisions and resolutions undertaken in pursuant to constitutional and subsidiary powers spelled expressly or impliedly.¹⁰⁷ Violations of constitutional rules or principles along with subsequent legislations, which are, usually, termed internal law of

¹⁰⁰ Klabber, above n 4, p.240.

¹⁰¹ Leo Gross, Voting in the Security Council: Abstention in the Post 1965 Amendment Phase and its Impact on Art.25 of the Charter, 63 AJIL 315 (1968) 316-318 as quoted in David Schweigman, The Authority of the Security Council under Chapter VII of the UN Charter: Legal Limits and the Role of the International Court of Justice (2001) p.206

¹⁰² Ibid., p.206 (note.)

¹⁰³ Ibid.

¹⁰⁴ Ebere Osieke, The Legal Validity of Ultra Vires Decisions of International Organizations, 77 AJIL 239 (1983), p.242.

¹⁰⁵ Amerasinghe, above n 2, p.197.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid., p.196.

the organization, clothes the act with vitiating element¹⁰⁸ Acts that contravene rules of international law and general principles of international law also fall within it.¹⁰⁹

Ultra vires acts are subdivided into substantive and procedural. Even though the difference between the two is not definitively lined, effect on policies of the organization of the act may highlight their distinction. This is to mean that one may categorize all acts affecting policies of organization as substantive *vires* acts.¹¹⁰ These include acts relating to budget, allocations of functions and powers, appointment of executive head, amendment to constitutions, admissions and termination of membership etc.¹¹¹ On the other hand, procedural *ultra vires* acts emanate from non-observance of specified procedures.¹¹² Failure to appoint a committee whose recommendation is required for a decision by a superior organ, adoption of a matter that was not placed on the agenda of an organ in accordance with the prescribed procedure, adoption of a decision by the wrong organ or by a smaller majority than that laid down in the rules etc. . . . are some instances.¹¹³

Vires acts may result in invalid or illegal consequences though usually employed interchangeably. Strictly speaking, invalid acts result from erroneous or mis-appreciation of facts.¹¹⁴ A breach of legal rule is not required in invalid decisions rather than in illegal decisions. The following hypothetical example concerning the SC elaborates the distinction:

“An invalid but not illegal decision would be an Art.39 [of the UN charter] determination by the SC that a breach of the peace had occurred following reports that the territory of state A had been violated by an invasion of state B. If it would later turn out that the invasion was conducted by troops of state A in disguise, the decision would be invalid, as it was based on factual assumptions that proved to be erroneous. In this case the decision would not be illegal since the council did not breach a legal rule which is binding on it; it merely made an error in judgment.”¹¹⁵

¹⁰⁸ Christian Ahlborn, The Rules of International Organizations and the Law of International Responsibility, ACIL Research Paper no. 2011-03 (SHARES service), finalized 26 April 2011 (www.sharesproject.nl) p.7.

¹⁰⁹ Appeal Relating to the Jurisdiction of the ICAO Council Case, (India v. Pakistan) 18 August Judgment, 1972 ICJ Rep[hereinafter the ICAO Case], p.109

¹¹⁰ Osieke, above n 104, pp.243-244

¹¹¹ Ibid.

¹¹² Ibid., p.245.

¹¹³ Ibid.

¹¹⁴ Schweigman, above n 101, p.205.

¹¹⁵ Ibid.

III. Legal Status And Effects Of Ultra Vires

In circumstances where constitution of an IO deal with consequences of *ultra vires* acts, the respective provisions of the constitution apply. The European Community Treaties, for e.g., has empowered the CJEC to supervise the acts of the European Council and the European Commission. The grounds of review are lack of competence (jurisdiction), substantial violation of procedural requirements, infringement of the EEC treaties & related rules and misuse of powers. Most unlawful acts appear to be included here. In general, where such legal framework has been incorporated, *ultra vires* issues will be governed accordingly.

The problem is in the absence of such mechanism. Though such scenes are handled inconsistently, observations of the prevailing practice suggest some points. To begin with, it has been asserted that acts discharged for the purpose of attainment of objectives are not to be presumed *ultra vires*.¹¹⁶ Judge Bustamante also reiterates that each organs of UN are deemed careful in their actions to comply with the prescription of the UN Charter.¹¹⁷ Therefore, unless a complaint is lodged, *ultra vires* acts are considered within power and be accorded the consequent legal effects. *Express verbis*, their legal status is equivalent to those done within power.

The fate of *vires* acts, against which protest has been voiced, however, is divided between two opinions. Some argue that such acts are null and void *ab initio*. They oppose such things called voidable acts of IOs. Voidability cannot be a solution in international law. Professor Amerasinghe, one of the two major supporters of this stance, argues:

*"In general invalidity of acts involves the void ability of those acts. This means the act produces all its effects as long as it is not annulled by the competent organ. Thus, the invalidity of the act depends on how effective recourse is to the competent organ. In the case of IOs, however, there is nothing comparable to the remedies existing in national law in connection with administrative acts. Hence, the concept of void ability cannot be applied to the acts of IOs. The act had to be either an absolute nullity or fully valid."*¹¹⁸

However, Professor Yoshio Kawashima doubts this aspect of the position. He prefers to abstain from distinguishing voidability and nullity on the sole basis of existence of a

¹¹⁶ Certain Expenses Case, 1962 ICJ Rep., p.205.

¹¹⁷ Kawashima, Above n 97, p.31.

¹¹⁸ Amerasinghe, above n 2, p.212.

review organ. He holds that determination of nullity equally requires evaluation by a review body.¹¹⁹ In this line of argument, the import of domestic administrative law principle to IOs and the assumption of the need of independent judicial organ are not acceptable:

“...it is to be noted, however, that even in the absence of the express provisions (concerning illegal acts) in the basic instrument, it cannot be necessarily maintained... that there is no means of recourse available to the members of the organs of an organization for reviewing illegal acts. The fact that at the present stage of development of international organizations, the problem we have dealt with is only about to emerge as a practical concern of international life.”¹²⁰

Moreover, for Osieke, this proposition produces more problem than it solves. He rejects nullity as a solution except in cases where this is incorporated in constitutions of IOs.¹²¹ Otherwise, *ultra vires* actions of IOs need to be rendered devoid of legal effect from the date of their invalidation. For Osieke, this is evinced in the practice of IOs.¹²² Special character of decisions of IOs also demand, as he contends, voidability:

“Many of their decisions, such as those relating to the admission of new members or the creation of committees or subsidiary organs, very often become effective immediately after adoption, and it would be unrealistic to maintain that all the actions taken by the organization and its organs, as well as third parties, should be considered as absolute nullities on the basis of the subsequent invalidation of the substantive decisions by a review body. The fact that these acts are only voidable may not be entirely satisfactory, but the alternative [absolute nullity] would lead to uncertainties and chaos, which would weaken the effectiveness of IOs.”¹²³

In the present author’s opinion, similarly, measures taken to redress defects of IOs need, as much as possible, to be immune from affecting their influencing capacity, because, their effectiveness is paramount to the international community. The state-centric international law loop holes are rectified by IOs. They adhere to values of the international community.¹²⁴ Ensuring their orderly operation is crucial. Seen from this perspective, nullity, undoubtedly, jeopardizes their functioning.

¹¹⁹ Kawashima, above n 97, p.31

¹²⁰ *Ibid.*, p.35.

¹²¹ Osieke, above n 104, p.244.

¹²² *Ibid.*

¹²³ *Id.*, p.245

¹²⁴ Manfred Laches, Legal Framework of an International Community, 6 *Emory Intl. L. Rev.* 329 (1992), p.334.

Having ascertained the right remedy, we need to contextualize it to our dissected discussion. Accordingly, substantive *ultra vires* acts will continue to produce legal effects and lose this feature after invalidation.¹²⁵ Procedural irregularities, on the other hand, will vitiate acts only where wrong decision or miscarriage of justice ultimately result.¹²⁶ This is astutely reflected in the Judge Dillard separate opinion in the ICAO case: “It is, of course, not impossible to contemplate a situation of gross abuse of procedural requirements leading to a miscarriage of justice. In such a situation the validity of the decision adopted by a subordinate adjudicating body may be legitimately challenged on appeal.”¹²⁷ When a wrong decision or miscarriage of justice would ensue will be determined upon the appreciation of specific factual situations.

¹²⁵ Osieke, above n 104, p.244.

¹²⁶ *Id.*, p.247.

¹²⁷ ICAO Case, Separate Opinion Dillard J., 1972 ICJ Rep, p.127

CHAPTER THREE

THE NEED FOR, MECHANISMS AND EXPERIENCES OF REVIEW SYSTEMS IN INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

3.1 The Need for Mechanisms of Review

Control of IOs has primarily been achieved through the insertion of limitative doctrines such as conferred powers, implied powers and ultra vires in constitutive documents.¹ Such approaches retain their significance yet. More recently, institutional mechanisms are being incorporated in systems of IOs and receiving better acceptance. The facts that necessitate this development are briefly summarized below.

i) Sovereignty of Members vis-à-vis Independence of the Organization

It is repeatedly witnessed that members end up in conflict with IOs to which they are parties. Since IOs have powers only to affect the surrendered part of states' sovereignty, excessive encroachment would face drastic opposition. A careful analysis need to be made not to exceed the line. Additionally, organs of IOs should not trespass this territory and scratch the '*domain reserve*' of members. In relation to UN intervention, one UN official has described this sovereignty-independence tension as critical.² The frequent plea of domestic jurisdiction clause testifies to it.³ The swing therefore should be balanced otherwise, as Klabbers describes it, both the members and the organization can take each other hostage for the power of members extend to handling their issue outside the organization and that of the organization to impair cooperation or integration as the case may be.⁴

¹ Jan Klabbers, Constitutionalism Lite, 1 International Organization Law Review 31, pp 38-41

² Christopher Joyner, The United Nations And Democracy, 5 Global Governance 333 (1999), P 336.

³ For example, regarding the UN Nolte states that Art. 2(7) has been invoked frequently but it has not proved to be an effective tool for denying the United Nations the power to act. He emphasizes that the provision is directed to protect states from acts of the UN and not against acts of other states even though sometimes it has been understood as embodying the general principle of non intervention. See for more, Nolte, Article 2(7) in Simma, B., *et al.* (eds., 2nd ed.), The Charter of the United Nations: A Commentary (2002).

⁴ Klabbers, above n 1, p.44

Moreover, the different perspective of states and IOs with respect to what warrants implication of power can be best resolved by naming a watchdog than setting 'criteria or definitions'.⁵ Allegation of such kind ought to be determined by a reviewing body.

Not only these, assurance of legitimacy and legality along with certainty demands the same. Most organs of IOs are provided with political discretion. Discretionary powers are not absolute and equivalent to arbitrary.⁶ Within the range of the discretionary freedom, the appropriate act only should be selected. As judge Jennings accurately observed in the Lockerbie Case

*"all discretionary powers of lawful decision making are necessarily derived from the law, and are therefore governed and qualified by the law. This must be so if only because the sole authority of such decisions flows itself from the law. It is not logically possible to claim to represent the power and authority of the law, and at the same time, claim to be above the law."*⁷

Exploring the matter, Amerasinghe has identified three grounds of illegal discretion exercises: improper motive, substantive irregularity and procedural irregularity.⁸ These factors could result in the abuse of discretion and ultimately undermine legality and legitimacy. Assigning a body for such review purpose, thus, establishes and increases legitimacy and certainty.⁹

ii) Staff vis-à-vis Organization's Administration

As any corporate person, IOs perform their day to day activity through natural persons. Organizations, thus, need to employ their own staff. The basis of employment can be

⁵ Schremer H. and Blokker N., International Institutional Law: Unity within Diversity (3rd., 1995), p.159. (They assert that judicial organs are effective to decisively define scope of implied powers)

⁶ Ballo v UNESCO, ILO Administrative Tribunal, Twenty-Eighth Ordinary Session, Judgment No 191(1972), (English Translation) [hereinafter the Ballo Case], para. F [The Tribunal stated that 'Discretionary power must not...be confused with arbitrary power].

⁷ Questions of Interpretation and Application of the 1971 Montreal Convention Arising from the Aerial Incident at Lockerbie, 1998 ICJ Rep.(hereinafter Lockerbie case), Dissenting Opinion, Jennings J., P.110

⁸ Amerasinghe, Principle of the Institutional Law of International Organizations (2nd ed., 2005), pp.303-306

⁹ Erika De Wet, The Chapter VII Powers of the United Nations Security Council (2004), p.119

statutes or contractual services.¹⁰ Whatever the source, employee-employer relationships give rise to a number of claims and disputes. Disciplinary measures and discretionary decisions usually constitute grounds of review. As discussed in Carew case by WBAT, in disputes regarding disciplinary powers one must inspect:

“(i) the existence of the facts, (ii) whether they legally amount to misconduct, (iii) whether the sanction imposed is provided for in the law of the World Bank (iv) whether the requirements of due process were observed. . . ”¹¹

In discretionary decisions, on the other hand, the assessment focuses on

“whether that decision was taken with authority, is in regular form, whether the correct procedure has been followed and as regards its legality under the organizations own rules, whether the administration’s decision was based on an error of law or fact, or whether essential facts have not been taken into consideration, or again, whether conclusions which are clearly false have been drawn from the documents in the dossier, or finally whether there has been a misuse of authority.”¹²

Non-fulfillment and non-observance of terms of appointment as in the case of termination of employment, increase of salary, promotion etc. are also susceptible to review.¹³

The above stated factors comprise only the basics and the most generally applicable justifications of control. And its utility is limited to background setting purpose. Peculiar causes of each global or regional organization are not investigated here. If any remains, it will be dealt with in the sections devoted to assessment of selected International Organizations.

3.2 Chauvinism or Messianism?

The immediate issue that emerges from a discussion on the importance of review system is nature and kind of such review body. The response to this is immensely connected to the

¹⁰ Jan Klabbers, *An Introduction to International Institutional Law* (2002), p. 27; See also, Amerasinghe, above n 6, p.280 And 308

¹¹ *Carew v IBRD*, World Bank Administrative Tribunal, Decision No 142, May 19, 1995, para. 32

¹² *Ballo Case*, para., F

¹³ Amerasinghe, above n 8, p.302

debate revolving around international adjudication. Interpretations of constituent instruments also suffer from such arguments. The morale of the controversy can easily be described as law-politics dichotomy or more specifically as Franck and Lahore address it messianism, belief in the ability of judicial solutions to solve international problems vs. chavinism, belief in the superiority of political resolution of disputes.¹⁴

On the one hand, it is very well known that states naturally propagate their national interest irrespective of the forum. Safeguarding their interest is an attribute of national governments. As emphasized by professor Schachter "governments are expected to take positions in the political organs in accordance with their conception of natural interest and...this conception will embrace considerations based on ties of alliance, friendship or political bargaining."¹⁵ This attitude is also duly noted in the international arena. As reported by one commentator, the policy behind the consent based jurisdiction to the ICJ, which was principally insisted by Western Power, is one dimension of protection of national interest.¹⁶ Therefore, when disputes arise, states seek political mechanism. Political solutions are preferred due to the fact that states believe they will control the outcome.¹⁷ It is clear then, as observed by one scholar, 'the more vital the outcomes of the dispute, the less prepared states are to devolve control of its solution to an independent body.'¹⁸

This position has, as a consequence, resulted in the separation of disputes into legal and political. Exponents of this position advance that only legal disputes are susceptible to judicial settlement as political disputes are to political means. The earlier face of this demarcation was proposed by Imperial Russia in the First Hague Peace Conference of 1899. As suggested back then, those issues immune from vital interests and national honor were

¹⁴ Frank and Lehrmann, *Messianism and Chauvinism in America's Commitment to Peace through Law in the International Court of Justice at A Crossroads* (Damrosch ed, 1987) as quoted in Fred Morrisson, *The Future of International Adjudication*, 75 *Minn. L. Rev.* 827 (1990-91), p.829

¹⁵ Oscar Schachter, *The Quasi-Judicial Role of the Security Council and the General Assembly* 58 *AJIL* 960 (1964), p. 962

¹⁶ Helmut Steinberger, 'The International Court of Justice' in *Max Planck Institute for Comparative Public and International Law, Judicial Settlement of Disputes: International court of justice and Other Courts and Tribunals, Arbitration and Conciliation- An International Symposium*(1974) 193, 207 as quoted in Andrew Coleman, *International Court of Justice and Highly Political Matters*, *Melb. J. Int'l Law* 29 (2003), pp.37-38

¹⁷ Coleman, *Ibid.* p.14

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

taken as ripe for third party compulsory arbitration.¹⁹ The stronger claim in this regard came from the US in the Nicaragua *vs.* US case of 1986. The US, in this case, objected the admissibility decision of the court and announced the misuse of the court for political purpose stating that: "The conflict in Central America...is not a narrow legal dispute; it is an inherently political problem that is not appropriate for judicial resolution. The conflict will be solved only by political and diplomatic means not through a judicial tribunal. The ICJ was never intended to resolve issues of collective security and self- defense and is patently unsuited for such a role."²⁰

In the prevalent state, however, this distinction barely receives acceptance in the international community. Professor Lauterpacht once wrote:

*"All international disputes are, irrespective of their gravity, disputes of a legal character in the sense that, so long as the rule of law is recognized, they are capable of an answer by the application of legal rules....All conflicts in the sphere of international politics can be reduced to contests of a legal nature...[T]he only decisive test of the justiciability of the dispute is willingness of the disputants to submit the conflict to the arbitrament of law."*²¹

What he meant was every dispute comprises both legal and political facet and no matter how the political aspects outweighs it can be subjected to judicial scrutiny. No provision of the Statutes and Rules of procedure of ICJ, for instance, prohibits the court from entertaining legal disputes which also displays political dimension.²² Affirming this, the ICJ, in the same case stated that

'legal disputes between sovereign states by their very nature are likely to occur in political contexts, and often only one element in a wider and high standing political disputes between the

¹⁹ Edward McWhinney, *Judicial Settlement of International Disputes: Jurisdiction, Justiciability and Judicial Law-Making on the Contemporary International Court* (1999), P.43

²⁰ "Statement of Department of State on US Withdrawal from Nicaraguan Proceedings, 18 January 1985, 79 AJIL 438, p.441

²¹ Lauterpacht H., *The Function of Law in the International Community* (Oxford: Clarendon Press), p.158, 164

²² Sohn L.B., *The UN System as authoritative Interpreter of Its Law in* (Schacter O., and Joyner C., eds.) *United Nations Legal Order* (1995), p.181

*states concerned...[and] never has the view been put forward before, that because a legal dispute submitted to the court is one aspect of a political dispute, the court [ICJ] should decline to resolve for the parties the legal issue between them. ... If adopted this view would create far reaching and unwarranted restriction upon courts and peaceful solution of international disputes."*²³

Apart from this, judicial mechanisms are rejected as a for a of review for their undemocratic feature. This argument was originally raised in the US in connection with courts and constitutional interpretation.²⁴ It goes saying on that judges are unelected, unaccountable and uncontrollable unlike the executive and legislature which are directly responsible to the people.²⁵ It is, thus, an anti-majoritarian organ to interpret the constitution, pursuant to the advocates of this position. But this understanding of the courts is characterized as exaggeration for judges are appointed and confirmed by elected officials, and the federal judiciary may be more capable of adapting to changes in the political consensus than the notion of an independent judiciary would immediately suggest. Although this argument is not without point, in the context of international law it is less persuasive since selection process of judges is more democratic.²⁶

In sum, in the direction of securing national interest, and also other possible grounds such as legal /political distinction of disputes as disguise, states favor political mechanisms including political organs of IOs, in which they are well represented and can influence the outcome, as dispute settling, interpreting and review bodies.

On the other hand, there is judicial disposition of international disputes. Notwithstanding its inherent problems, adjudicatory settlement has the following merits. Firstly, it ends disputes at some point.²⁷ Leaving the quality of the solution aside, it any how leads to termination of a dispute. The institutional impartiality also counts significantly. Because decisions arrived at

²³ Case considering United State Diplomatic and Consular Staff in Tehran (United States of America v. Iran) 1980 ICJ Rep,[hereinafter Consular Staff in Tehran case] para. 37

²⁴ Geoffrey Watson, Constitutionalism, Judicial Review and the World Court, 34 Harv. Int'l L.J. 1 (1993), pp. 28-33

²⁵ Ibid., p.28

²⁶ Ibid., p.31

²⁷ Richard B. Bilder, International Dispute Settlement and the Role of International Adjudication, 1 Emory J. Int'l Disp Resol. 131 (1986-87) p.146

by a neutral process enhances acceptability and legitimacy between or among the parties or international community in general.²⁸ Its application of neutral and equitable principles and norms of international law adds more value.²⁹ The structured adjudicative process again ensures a careful handling of the case and attainment of constructive solution. The parties will scrutinize their arguments and positions before they stand in front of a third party body which induces restraint and reasonableness in both parties.³⁰ This creates opportunities for a better understanding of the case.

In one study published in 1999 around 13 international judicial bodies were identified.³¹ The present figure also shows an ascending tendency of judicial institutions.³²

As review bodies' judicial forums have been integrated in the framework of some IOs. Art.37 of the ILO Constitution establishes a mechanism in which reference can be made to the International Court of Justice for the pronouncement of interpretation.³³ Holding the apex, ICJ has, therefore, the final say. Art.75 of the WHO constitution similarly provides that "[a]ny question or dispute concerning the interpretation or application of this constitution which is not settled by negotiation or by the Health Assembly shall be referred to the International Court of Justice in conformity with the Statute of the Court, unless the parties concerned agree upon another mode of settlement." This has formulated a means that if a party to a dispute is not satisfied with the decision of the Health Assembly appeal lies to the court. The involvement of judicial institutions may vary from as in the case of

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ Ibid., 148

³⁰ Ibid., 149

³¹ Cesare Romano, The Proliferation of International Judicial Bodies: The pieces of the Puzzle, 31 N.V.U.J Int'l L. & pol. 709 1998-1999 pp.715-717 (His data considered only those judicial bodies that fulfilled his five elements of a judicial organ. For him an international judicial body must be permanent; it should be established by an international legal instrument; must apply international law; the rules of procedure it follows need to predate the case and it is required to render legally binding decision. He followed strict requirements. Cf. Stephen Schwebel, The Reality of International Adjudication and Arbitration, 12 Williamette J. Int'l L. and Dis. Res. 359 (2004) p. 362 (he adds the ICTY and ICTR, the Iran- US Claims Tribunal and the UN Compensation Commission. All these are excluded by Romano due to their *ad hoc* existence)

³² Since 1999 a number of judicial bodies have been established. To name few: the African Court of Justice; the African Court of Human Rights, the Appellate Body of the WTO, International Criminal Court etc.

³³ Art.37 of the Constitution of ILO. It reads: "Any question or dispute relating to the interpretation of this Constitution or of any subsequent Convention concluded by the Members in pursuance of the provisions of this Constitution shall be referred for decision to the International Court of Justice."

WMO where the president of ICJ appoints an independent arbitrator to the case of WHO where judicial body, namely ICJ, is an optional mechanism of settlement.³⁴ It is not also a problem that the interpretation is delivered in advisory jurisdiction. For the procedure is enshrined in the constitution of the respective organizations, it would be binding on organs of the organization and member states.³⁵

Recently, controlling roles of courts have received more attention in the field of International Economic Law. Thus, one author observes that in the cooperative economic regimes “the subjugation of politics into law” has occurred.³⁶ This achievement may be explained in reference to various factors. One is the benefit accruing to states following reciprocal trade liberalization. The result from such trade engagements is ‘positive sum game’.³⁷ Therefore, states will not hesitate to be parties to compulsory adjudication. In fact, they essentially require judicial protection as the field is dominated by package deal negotiations.³⁸ Another important reason for the expansion of such judicial activism is the democratic legitimacy and political support it enjoyed.³⁹ Guarantee of individual freedom, non-discrimination and rule of law ensures such legitimacy.⁴⁰ Legal mechanisms are not also the sole ways.⁴¹ For example, in WTO, though adjudication is given primacy, consultation, good offices, conciliation, enquiries and arbitration are presented too.⁴² In a study conducted in 1999, more than 20% of the WTO dispute settlement proceedings are out of court with a DSB ruling.⁴³ This politico-legal integration has contributed to the effectiveness.

In conclusion, the 1990s American Scholars chauvinism-messianism debate was observatory of the reality and pragmatically articulated. It is unwise to pick and side with one of the two.

³⁴ For more explanation see Amerasinghe, above n 8, pp.29-31

³⁵ Ibid., p.30

³⁶ Yuval Shany, No Longer a Weak Department of Power? Reflections on the Emergence of a New International Judiciary, 20 EJIL73 2009,p.90

³⁷ Ernst-Ulrich Petersman, Dispute Settlement in International Economic Law-Lessons for Strengthening International Dispute Settlement in Non-economic Areas, 2 J. Int'l Econ. Law 89 (1999), p.230

³⁸ Ibid., 231

³⁹ Ibid.

⁴⁰ Ibid.

⁴¹ The WTO DSU offers Consultation (Art 4), Good office (Art, 24), Conciliation (Art, 24), Mediation (Art, 24), Enquiries (Annex 4 of the DSU) and International Arbitration (Art, 25)

⁴²Petersman, above n 37, p. 209

⁴³Ibid.

In the opinion of the author, review mechanisms of international character ought to consult both legal and political approaches. That is what international economic law teaches. Political endeavors to ascertain legality must be encouraged. But the ultimate position must be reserved to judicial bodies. This is particularly true in IOs where there is no principle of separation of powers and judicial activism insanely looked for.⁴⁴

3.3 Authoritative Interpretations and Review system

3.3.1 Authoritative Interpretation of Constituent Instruments

Simply stated, interpretation means clarification of an unclear text. It is one of many ways to understand the text of a treaty or document.⁴⁵ This is the predominant usage of the concept.⁴⁶ And it is when such clarification texts demonstrate a governing aspect that an interpretation would be authoritative. In other words, authoritative interpretation refers to 'the adoption of interpretation that is intended to bind subsequent cases that arise under the [respective] regime.'⁴⁷ This is to be contrasted to the determination of interpretational disputes resulting in a ruling that are short of binding non- parties to a dispute.

The act of interpretation is more crucial in the case of constitutional treaties particularly. Many faces of constituent treaties make the task of interpretation difficult. A representative statement of most constitutions of IOs was made relating the UN Charter: "first, it is highly political treaty, in the second place, it is multilateral and thirdly, it is like many treaties- often faulty in its drafting. Finally, it is signed in five authoritative versions."⁴⁸

Therefore, the task of interpretation is a critical act. Even though the prime Constitution of IOs, the United Nations Charter, leaves interpretation to each organ, subsequent

⁴⁴Ibid., 231

⁴⁵ Ulf Linderfalk, *On the Interpretation of Treaties: The Modern International Law as Expressed in the 1969 Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties* (2007), p.10

⁴⁶ The term interpretation is sometimes confused in the concept of interpreting a text and understanding it. But, the authoritative sense of the term is the understanding than the task of interpretation see *ibid.*, p.10

⁴⁷ Stephan Zamora, *Authoritative Interpretation and Enforcement of International Economic Law*, in Schachter and Joyner(eds.) *United Nations Legal Order* (1995), P. 554

⁴⁸ [pollux], *Interpretation of the Charter*, 23 BYIL54 (1946), p.55

constitutions of IOS have followed different mechanisms. Basically, the mechanisms can be classified in to two.

According to the analysis of one author, authoritative interpretation, in the sense of IOs, must be provided by an internal but non-adjudicatory organ.⁴⁹ To this person, the need for internal means arises from the importance of ensuring the participation of members of the organ and the closeness to the policy making process.⁵⁰ He also prefers non- adjudicatory mechanism as they also look for interpretation that is a product of consultation and compromise.⁵¹ Again in this way, a party is not required to produce ‘an accusation of wrongdoing’ and present a formal argument regarding the facts of the dispute.⁵² A supplementary position to this is Henxner’s 1959 appraisal of the then innovative interpretation mechanism of the IMF, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the International Finance Corporation:

“When compared with the arrangements of other public international organizations, the machinery for final interpretation of the basic instruments of these three organizations is remarkable and unusual; first because the function of authoritative interpretation rests with the ordinary executive organs of these institutions and not with any tribunal external to them; second because the exercise of interpretive function is not limited to decisions on actual disagreements, but is used also to resolve doubts in interpretation and thus to prevent controversies and to assure uniform application of operative arrangements; third because the executive organs have exclusive jurisdiction to decide on questions of interpretation of the instrument that may arises between members themselves; and fourth because the persons exercising the interpretive function represent interested parties and their votes are weighted according to certain defined criteria.”⁵³

Such attitude has led the expansion of the system in other IOs. The Coffee Organization, established by the International Coffee Agreement, had reserved authoritative interpretation

⁴⁹ Eric J. Pan, *Authoritative Interpretation of Agreements: Developing More Responsible International Administrative Regimes*, 38 Harv. Int’l .L.J. 503 1997, p.517

⁵⁰ Ibid.

⁵¹ Id.,p.518

⁵² Id., p.519 (note 69)

⁵³ Ervin P. Hexner, *Interpretation by Public International Organizations of their Basic Instruments*, 53 AJIL 341 1959, pp.343-344

to the plenary organ.⁵⁴ The WTO grants its Ministerial Conference exclusive authority to adopt interpretations of the WTO Agreement.⁵⁵ This body comprises representatives of all State Parties that convene at least once in two years.⁵⁶ The decision of interpretation must be sanctioned by a three-fourth majority of the members.⁵⁵ The Africa Union also endows the General Assembly with power of interpretation albeit on an *ad hoc* basis.⁵⁷

In some others, interpretation is reserved to judicial organs. This is directed to insulate the activity from political manipulations. In relation to the Cartagena Agreement, for example, it has been said that “the court is organized in a manner that is independent of the governments of the member countries and from other bodies of the Cartagena Agreement with the authority to define communitarian law [norms which comprise the judicial structure of the Cartagena Agreement], resolve the controversies which arise under it, and to interpret it uniformly.”⁵⁸ This approach is also proper to resolve questions of interpretation involving the organization and its members as impartial body is required.⁵⁹ Furthermore, judicial organs are suitable to afford better protection to states having minority status in plenary organs.⁶⁰ The doctrine of separation of powers also magnifies the need for judicial interpretation.⁶¹

The present author also recurs to the latter view. As I have mentioned earlier somewhere, it is unwise to detach politics from international law and relations. Therefore, all possible efforts must be exerted to gain the positive outcomes. This can be done, for example, by

⁵⁴ International Coffee Agreement, 1962 reprinted in 1 I.L.M.236, 1962, Art. 39(1)

⁵⁵ Agreement Establishing the World Trade Organization available at www.wto.org/english/docs_e/legal_e.htm#wtoagreement, Art IX (2)

⁵⁶ *Ibid.*, Art IV

⁵⁷ Art. 27 of the Constitutive Act of the African Union. The provision states: “The Court shall be seized with matters of interpretation arising from the application or implementation of this Act. Pending its establishment, such matters shall be submitted to the Assembly of the Union, which shall decide by a two-thirds majority.”

⁵⁸ Treaty of the Court of Justice of the Cartagena Agreement, May 28 1979, English version reprinted in 18 I.L.M, 1203 1979, Preamble

⁵⁹ Schremmers and Blokker, above n 5, p.846

⁶⁰ *Ibid.*

⁶¹ Kaiyan Homi Kaikobad, *The International Court of Justice and Judicial Review: A study of the Court's Power with Respect to Judgments of the ILO and UN Administrative Tribunals* (2000), p.58

letting political organs of an IO to decide the appropriate meaning of a term in discharging its activity. However, judicial solutions of such activities, like authoritative interpretations, must be maintained at least at final stages. This is warranted by self-oriented behavior of states. In such instances, justice will only be served by an impartial body. All the benefits forwarded in favor of the first type authoritative interpretation can be incorporated to the latter in a manner that does not jeopardize the independence and impartiality of the judicial organs.

From the foregoing, it is comprehensible that authoritative interpretations have a binding effect on subsequent cases emerging within the regime. Irrespective of the organs or state parties involved, the interpretation is expected to be adhered to. An aspect of this conclusion is also that once such interpretation is rendered no one can act contrary to it and this even presumably indicates that acts giving rise to the rendition of the interpretation need to be rectified as continuation of the challenged act amounts to contradiction to the binding interpretation. In this regard, authoritative interpretation, particularly given by judicial bodies, has an implication of reviewing the challenged act.

3.3.2 Power of Annulment: Is it a Prerequisite for Review?

It may be a wonder of many how interpretive pronouncements of judicial organs that are not clothed with power annulment be considered to have a review effect. To put it in interrogative form: Is annulment power required for review system?

Inspection of experiences of IOs tells that only the Court of Justice of the European Union possesses such annulment power. Most other IOs, do not grant similar power.

However, absence of an express annulment power may not deny an interpretation, in the form of judgment or else, a review aspect. The reason for such assertion relies on practical and logical explanations than clear cut rules. Pragmatically, the legal consequences would bring about effective annulment. In his study of judicial Review, professor Kaikobad writes, relating to the ICJ, that

“...where the court finds in its contentions proceedings that an act of an international body is invalid in terms of ultra vires, the act will, of course, continue to exist in law or fact because in contentions cases the decision is final and binding only on the litigating states, and no other entity, state or otherwise. For that very reason, however, the disputing affected state may be heard to argue that act is not any more opposable to it. It could be argued in such circumstances that the act in question cannot create or affect or has ceased to create or affect legal obligations for the disputing state. In short, the act will almost certainly be void inter partes, as opposed to being null and void erga omnes In empirical legal terms, where an act of an international body has been declared null and void by way of a judgment of the highest judicial organ of the UN system, the act will lose its presumption of legality and validity. It will then cast doubt over most, if not all, subsequent acts adopted on the basis of the invalid act.”⁶²

What he says is that even if not annulling in *strictu sensu*, the declaration of invalidity or illegality will extract out the bindingness of the challenged act. Mann, by his proposition of ‘relative nullity’ also shares this view of professor Kaikobad.⁶³

Similarly, an advisory opinion given against validity of an impugned act will make continuation of any situation ‘legally and politically intolerable.’⁶⁴ Some writers even dare to assert that “an advisory opinion holding a UN decision illegal will have the same effect as annulment.”⁶⁵

Observing the asymmetry of judicial review systems in municipal laws, professor Kaikabod also suggests not to strictly adhere to annulment as a prerequisite.⁶⁶

3.4 Experiences of Judicial Review in Some Selected IOs

Some basic theoretical foundations of review of acts IOs have been illuminated above. The reactions to international judiciaries and the increasing role of the latter in non-municipal arena have been raised. A point logically worth elucidation next, thus, will be experience of

⁶²Ibid., P. 46

⁶³Ibid.

⁶⁴Ibid.

⁶⁵Schremer and Blokker, above n 5, p576

⁶⁶ Kaikobad, above n 61, p. 49-50

IOs with respect to judicial reviews. Here, however, only the UN and EU practices will be illustrated. The UN will be discussed due to its prominent status among IOs and its recognizable constitutional influence on other non-state institutions. Any study of IOs that fails to address the UN will not be taken complete. Since its establishment, some six decades ago, huge developments have been made. Hence, considering its influential position, investigation of its judicial review system will be crucial.

Following that the European Union will be on line. The Union has formed the most effective review system as it will be dealt with. Even though, there is controversy as to the exact juridic nature of the union, no body denies its IO aspect which makes the study of its judicial review system most relevant. In addition, the European Union has served as a guide during the establishment of the African Union which makes its study a little less than mandatory.

3.4.1 Judicial Review in the United Nations Systems

3.4.1.1 *Trauvax preparatorias* and Text of the charter

Repeated attempts to vest the ICJ, the principal judicial organ, with significant roles in the UN system at the age of establishment, proved failure. First the court was proposed to hold advisory power to states.⁶⁷ The exponent, the Belgium delegate, modified its proposal urging amendment of the chapter on Pacific Settlement of Dispute to include that: “[a]ny state party to a dispute brought before the Security Council, shall have the right to ask the Permanent Court of International Justice whether a recommendation or a decision made by the SC or proposed in it infringes on its essential rights. If the court considers that such rights have been disregarded or are threatened, it is for the council either to reconsider the question or to refer the dispute to the Assembly for decision.”⁶⁸ In the belief of the delegates, this would “strengthen the juridical basis” of the SC decisions.⁶⁹ In the same

⁶⁷ Belgium at the beginning urged that whenever the SC intervened to settle a dispute, its action should become final after the parties had an opportunity to “ask an advisory opinion from the ICJ as to whether the decision respected its independence and vital rights.” Doc. 2, 6/7 (k), 3 UNCTAD Docs. as quoted in Watson, above n 23, p.8

⁶⁸ Ibid., p.9

⁶⁹ Ibid.

conference Belgium called for the naming of the court as an established procedure to handle disagreements on interpretation on the Charter between organs. But it was agreed that United Nations is unfit to be set up with a judicial organ at the summit.⁷⁰

However these events in the preparation stage and the absence of express power permitting the court to engage itself in review activities in the present texts of the Charter have been considered as not excluding judicial review. Watson, thus, concludes from his survey of the Charter, *travaux preparatoires* inclusive, that

*"... the report on interpretation did not rule out judicial review altogether; it held instead that if an organ produced an interpretation that was not 'generally acceptable' it would be without 'binding force.' Plainly, this statement implies that the court would not be required to give effect to a Security Council decision based on an interpretation that was not 'generally acceptable' and therefore 'without binding force.' Moreover, the report clearly stated that the court might be called on to resolve disputes over interpretation and implied that the court's word would be final, at least in that particular dispute and with respect to those parties."*⁷¹

Another scholar similarly stated the effect of the text assertions reached at the San Francisco Conference on the role of the court as not explicitly supportive of "the notion of judicial review by the court of the Security Council's decisions" only.⁷² He then continues to argue that '[t]his would not, however, necessarily mean that the Charter precludes the court from examining the validity of the decisions of the political organs of the UN should such a question arise in proceedings duly brought before the court.'⁷³ Appreciating the lack of an express prohibition against judicial Review, this personality asserts that 'Judicial review mechanisms may be developed through practice.'

⁷⁰ The Sub Committee concluded: "Under Unitary forms of national government the final determination of such a question may be vested in the highest court or in some other national authority. However, the nature of the organization and its operation would not seem to be such as to invite the inclusion in the Charter of any provision of this nature." Ibid., p.364

⁷¹ Watson, above n 23, p.13

⁷² Karmul Hossain, Legality of the Security Council Action: Does the International Court of Justice Move to take up the Challenge of judicial Review? 5 Rev. Int'l L. & Pol. 133(2009), p.148(Citation omitted)

⁷³ Ibid.

3.4.1.2 Development through case-law

a) Certain Expenses case

And it is true as well that the ICJ has engaged itself in review of acts of some organs of the UN. In the Certain Expenses case of 1961, for instance, the court was asked its opinion whether expenses of the 1950s operations of the Congo and the Middle East Falls under Art 17(2) of the charter which provides that “[t]he expenses of the organization shall be borne by the members as apportioned by the General Assembly.” Before the resolution was adopted by the Assembly, France had requested the Assembly to frame the legal question, to be presented to the court which the opinion was to deal with, to include examination of the fact that the expenditures were decided in conformity with provisions of the charter though the Assembly rejected it finally.⁷⁴

In delivering its opinion, then, the court took French question into consideration and stated that it could not be precluded from assessing whether “the expenditures were decided in conformity with the provisions of the charter, if the court finds it appropriate” and “it is in full liberty to consider relevant data available to it forming an opinion on question posed to it for advisory opinion.”⁷⁵ Finally, the court held that “the operations were taken to full fill the prime purpose of the United Nations that is to promote and to maintain peaceful settlement of the situation.”⁷⁶ In doing so, the court validated the act of the Assembly. In following Passages of the decision however, the court confusingly stated that it “does not have the ultimate authority to interpret the Charter... As anticipated in 1945, therefore, each organ must, in the first place at least, determine its own jurisdiction.”⁷⁷

b) Namibia Case

The Namibia (South West Africa) case is another occasion where an activity of judicial review is conducted by ICJ. Following the decision of the General Assembly, the Security

⁷⁴ Certain Expenses of the United Nations Case, 1962 ICJ Rep [hereinafter Certain Expenses Case], p.156 (The amendment was rejected by 47 votes to 5 with 38 abstentions.)

⁷⁵ Ibid., p.157

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Ibid., p. 168

Council in its consecutive resolutions declared that South Africa had violated its Mandate in Namibia, the then South West Africa, and the Mandate had been terminated and also ordered South Africa to withdraw.⁷⁸ However, South Africa failed to comply which led the SC to request an advisory opinion on the legal consequences of the continued presence of South Africa in Namibia notwithstanding Resolution 270.⁷⁹

One of the objections pleaded by the government of South Africa was that the advisory requesting resolution 284 of the council was invalid.⁸⁰ It, along with France, also contested the validity of the General Assembly Resolution which terminated the Mandate of Namibia and alleged the presence of South Africa there illegal as ultra –vires.⁸¹ In addressing this, the court first stressed its lack of judicial review powers and continued stating that

“[t]he question of validity or conformity with the Charter of the General Assembly Resolution 2145 XXI or related Security Council resolution doesn’t form the subject of the request for advisory opinion. However, in the exercise of its judicial function and since objections have been advanced the court, in the course of its reasoning, will consider these objections before determining any legal consequences arising from those resolutions.”⁸²

Rejecting the objections, then, the court concluded that decisions made by the Security Council had been adopted in conformity with the purposes and principles of the charter and in accordance with its Art.24 and 25. Here again, the court assessed the contestation and upheld the validity of the resolutions.

c) Lockerbie case

The explosion of Pan Am Flight 103 over Lockerbie, Scotland became an important case in international law. Home states of the victims, US and UK, conducted investigation and uncovered the involvement of two Libyan intelligence officers whom they demanded to be

⁷⁸ See: SC Res 264(1969) ; SC Res 269 (1969); SC Res 276 (1970); SC Res 283 (1970) SC Res 284 (1970)

⁷⁹ Legal Consequences for States of the Continued Presence of South Africa in Namibia (South West Africa) Notwithstanding Security Council Resolution 276(1970), 1971 ICJ Rep[hereinafter the Namibia Opinion], p 19

⁸⁰ De Wet, below n 9, p.35

⁸¹ Ibid.

⁸² The Namibia Opinion, p.45

extradited.⁸³ Libya, for its part, regarded the claims falling within the scope of application of the Montreal Convention to which all three were parties. Basing its argument on the convention, Libya brought an application before the ICJ requesting, among others, provisional measures to enjoin the US and UK from taking any action against the state of Libya directed to compel surrender its accused nationals to jurisdictions external to Libya.⁸⁴

The provisional measures and preliminary objections stage of the Lockerbie case suggested the possibility that the court might be willing to review the validity of the underlying Security Council decisions. In the provisional measures, as noted by one author, "the bench exhibited near consensus regarding the *prima facie* validity of resolution 748(1992)."⁸⁵ In the separate opinion of the judges however, disagreement on the ultimate validity of resolution 748 was viewed. It varied from judge Oda's opinion that "[t]here is certainly nothing to oblige the Security Council, acting within its terms of reference, to carry out a full evaluation of the possibly relevant rules and circumstances before proceeding to the decisions it deems necessary,"⁸⁶ to the statement of Judge EL-Kosheri, who went far to examine the validity the Security Council resolution 748, in his dissenting opinion and ended up stating that 'it is possible to consider that the Security Council, when adopting paragraph one of resolution 748 (1992), impeded the court's jurisdiction freely to exercise it, inherent judicial function with regard to issues on which the argument had been heard just a few days before and that by doing so the Security Council committed an act of *excess de pouvoir* which amounts to a violation of Art 92 of the charter."⁸⁷ Finally, before the court proceeded to entertain merits of the case. Libya agreed for the transfer of its national to Netherlands for trial.

⁸³ The Joint Declaration by the US and the UK on 27 November 1991 reprinted in 31 I.L.M. 723(1992), p. 724

⁸⁴ Questions of Interpretation and Application of the 1971 Montreal Convention Arising from the Aerial Incident at Lockerbie, 1992 ICJ Rep. (Provisional Measures Order of Apr.14) [hereinafter Lockerbie case], p.8

⁸⁵ David Schweigman, The Authority of the Security Council under Chapter VII of the UN Charter: Legal Limits and the Role of the International Court of Justice (2001), p.268.

⁸⁶ Lockerbie Case (Prov. Measures), Declaration of Oda, p.129

⁸⁷ Lockerbie Case (Prov. Measures), Dissenting Opinion of EI-kosheri, p.210

The significance of this case begins with its contentious nature which has “greater precedential value.”⁸⁸ Watson, further astutely states that

“...it also suggests that the court does not think judicial review should be exercised only when implicitly or explicitly endorsed by a UN organ seeking an advisory opinion on the effect of that organ’s acts. The decision implies that the international community is moving toward a broader acceptance of judicial review than the framers of the UN Charter perhaps envisioned the subsequent practice under the Charter may have altered its interpretation. Such a shift is permissible under treaty law, at least if the world community acquiesces, and this aspect of the Libya decision has not been widely rejected by states as of yet.”⁸⁹

It is also observed by another writer that the judgment on preliminary objections in which the court joined the question of Libya’s claim to the merits “implies that the court will further examine the arguments by the parties related to the validity and reviewability of Security Council Resolutions 748 (1992) and 883 (1993).”⁹⁰

The case studies above transpire an apparent conflicting stands of the court as far as judicial review is concerned. In the two instances the court in effect tested the contested acts and affirmed their validity. In deed, due to factual elements of the cases the court pronounced their validity. And the possibility of their invalidity or nullity had been hanging there. Therefore, actual exercise of reviews was involved there despite the court’s acknowledgement of its lack of review power. Some limits the effect of this self-preclusion assertion as suggesting that “it has no right to judicial review in the sense where this is a separate or special institution as known in national law.”⁹¹ The Lockerbie case pushed the development of the case law one step forward in that the majority judges conceded the

⁸⁸ Watson, above n 23, p.27

⁸⁹ Ibid.,pp.27-28

⁹⁰ Schweigman, above n 84 ,p.840

⁹¹ Dapo Akande, The International Court of Justice and The Security Council: Is There Room for Judicial Control of Decisions of The Political Organs of The United Nations?, 46 Int’l & Comp. L.Q. 309 1997, p.333 (stating ICJ lacks power to quash decisions of UN political organs); See also Bernd Martenczuk, The Security Council, the International Court and Judicial Review: What Lessons from Lockerbie? 10 EJIL 617 1999, PP.526-27(Propounding that the Charter does not foresee a specific means or procedures by which decisions of political organs will be scrutinized by the court)

validity of Resolution 748(1998) relying on the presumption of validity in contentious case. The modest conclusion one can arrive at, from the surveyed practices of the court, is that the court can engage in an implied power of judicial review on the part of the court to the exercise of its judicial functions.⁹²

3.4.1.3 Some Factors that can serve as a ground of Review

Once we are convinced pertaining to the existence of power of review by the ICJ, save its limited scope, exploration of the grounds of review stands next in the study. Many researchers have devoted their ink to the matter in particular with regard to activities of the Security Council. A number of them adhere limits have to be, and in fact have been established, on the powers of the Security Council amid carrying out its mandate of maintaining peace and security. It is forwarded, therefore, that there are some factors that cannot be contravened by actions of the Security Council as dealt with below. It should be noted also these constraints apply similarly to other organs, both subsidiary and principal, of the organization.

a) Purposes and Principles of the UN

Art 24(2) of the Charter expressly limits the Council to perform its activities "...in accordance with the purposes and principles of the United Nations." These purposes of the UN are maintenance of peace and security, respect for self-determination of peoples, promotion of human rights and resolution of socio-economic and humanitarian problems. These principles of the system include sovereign equality of states, the obligation to act in good faith, peaceful settlement of disputes, prohibition of use of force, the principle of cooperation and non-international in the domestic affairs of member states.

Judge Weeramantry in the *Lockerbie* and judge *ad hoc* Lauterpacht in the *Genocide* case expressed that this phrase in Art 24(2) sets limits on the Council.⁹³ It, therefore, means that

⁹² Schweigman, above n 84 , p.271

⁹³ Lockerbie Case, Declaration of Weeramantry J., ICJ Rep 1992, 3, p.61.[Judge Weeramantry stated: "Art 24 itself offers us an immediate signpost to such a circumscribing boundary when it provides in Art. 24(2) that the Security Council in discharging its duties under Art 24(1), 'shall act in accordance with the purposes and

the Security Council cannot discharge its duties at the expense of any of them. Some, however, doubt their utility as limitations since they are too vague to be implemented and end up giving broader powers to the Council than limiting it.⁹⁴

Though true that the inherent vagueness in principles and purposes display perils, the Council need to balance the realization of its primary goal with the realization of secondary goals contained in the Charter.⁹⁵ Therefore, when the Security Council resorts to enforcement measures, the principle of sovereign equality, which typically include territorial sovereignty demands the council not to change the borders of a state against its will or transfer one part of a state territory to another.⁹⁶ Again, the council cannot impose settlement on parties to a dispute as disputes have to be settled in accordance with the principles of justice and international law.⁹⁷ Thus, the principles and purposes stipulated in the Charter substantively bar acts of the Council and obviously other organs of the UN.

b) Peremptory Norms of International law

The VCLT is the first formal document that dealt with the concept of *jus cogens*. Art 53 of the convention reads:

"A treaty is void if, at the time of its conclusion, it conflicts with a peremptory norm of general international law. For the purposes of the present convention a peremptory norm of general international law is a norm accepted and recognized by the international community of states as a whole as a norm from which no derogation is permitted and which can be modified only by a subsequent norm of general international law having the same character."

principles of United Nations.' The duty is imperative and the limits are categorically stated."]; See also Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide (Provisional Measures), Bosnia and Herzegovina vs. Yugoslavia (Serbia and Montenegro), ICJ Rep. (1993)[hereinafter the Genocide Case], Dissenting Opinion, Lauterpacht ad hoc J, ICJ Rep. 1993 325,440. [Similarly Judge *ad hoc* Lauterpacht remarked: "Nor should one overlook the significance of the provision in Art 24(2) of the Charter that, in discharging its duties to maintain international peace and security, the Security Council shall act in accordance with the purposes and principles of the United Nations."]

⁹⁴ De Wet, above n 24, p.192

⁹⁵ Ibid., p.193

⁹⁶ Derek Bowett, "The Impact of Security Council Decision on Dispute Settlement Procedures," 5 EJIL 94(1994), p.107

⁹⁷ Art. 1(1) of the UN Charter

Therefore, norms of *jus cogens* underlie international law. They cannot be deviated at any rate except they have been superseded by other rules of the same genre. Their barring effect is not limited to treaties; it extends to any legal act or situation inconsistent with *jus cogens* requirements.⁹⁸ It follows, therefore, any act of the Security Council in conflict with norms of *jus cogens* necessarily becomes of no effect.

In *the Genocide* case this was one dimension of the dispute. Being incapacitated, due to the arms embargo imposing Resolution 713 of SC, to defend it self against the genocidal acts of Yugoslavia, Bosnia contended to construe such Resolution as assisting the commission of genocide in Bosnia by the Serbs who had access to the arms stock of former Yugoslavia and argued that any resolution that served this purpose is without effect.⁹⁹ Judge *ad hoc* Lauterpacht also admitted Resolution 713 as an 'act contrary to a rule of *jus cogens*.'¹⁰⁰ With respect to the consequence of the Resolution also he wrote that

*"in strict logic, when the operation of paragraph 6 of security council resolution 713(1991) began to make members of the United Nations accessories to genocide it ceased to be valid and binding in its operation against Bosnia Herzegovina and that members of the United Nations then became free to disregard it."*¹⁰¹

Though the named judge did not conclusively designate the resolution invalid, he, in effect, had influenced actions of states individually and collectively.¹⁰² Some states were induced to act in non-compliance.¹⁰³ The recent decision of the Court of First Instance of the European Union in the, Kadi case, is more firm and concordant to the position of the judge *ad hoc* Lauterpacht.¹⁰⁴

⁹⁸ Christopher Ford, *Adjudicating Jus Cogens*, 13 *Wis. Int'l L.J* 145 (1994-95), p.146

⁹⁹ *The Genocide case*, p. 332

¹⁰⁰ *Ibid.*, 325

¹⁰¹ *Ibid.*, 441

¹⁰² see Akande, above n 91, p.322.[Malaysia and Croatia Showed their readiness to supply arms to Muslim led Bosnian Government. The US Congress issued a bill lifting the arms embargo on Bosnia. The Organization of Islamic Conference declined the SC's arms embargo invalid and illegal].

¹⁰³ *Ibid.*

¹⁰⁴ *Yassin Abdullah Kadi v. Council of the European Commission and Commission of the European Communities*, Case T-315/01, 21 September 2005, para. 235 available at <http://eur->

c) Human Rights

Respect for human rights is at the corner stone of the United Nations system. Art 1(3) of the Charter stipulates, as its purpose, that cooperation of international community be based in promoting and encouraging the respect of human rights and fundamental freedoms. Organs of the UN also share this obligation with member states. In the *Namibia advisory opinion* and *Diplomatic and Consular staff cases*, the ICJ had mentioned that violation of human rights and fundamental rights, by state members, amounts to contravention of the purpose and principles of the organization.¹⁰⁵ It would be then illogical to claim the promoter of respect to such rights may act *a contrario*. Thus, substantive obligations emanate from the purpose of promoting observance of human rights and organs of the organization including Security Council, cannot be exempted from this obligation.¹⁰⁶

However, as limitation on acts of the SC, human rights are sub-divided into derogable and non-derogable rights. Art 4(2) of the ICCPR lists the right to life, prohibition of torture and degrading the treatment, prohibition of slavery and servitude or civil imprisonment, the impermissibility of non-retroactive punishment, the right of recognition before the law and freedom of thought, religion and conscience as rights from which no deviation even in times of emergency is allowed.¹⁰⁷ The Security Council itself cannot stray away in its activities. The fact that most of these non-derogable rights have attained the Status of *jus cogens* strengthens their limitative aspect.

lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:62009A0085:EN:HTML. The Court stated: "International law thus permits the inference that there exists one limit to the principle that resolutions of the Security Council have binding effect: namely, they must observe the fundamental peremptory provisions of *jus cogens*. If they fail to do so, however improbable that may be, they would bind neither the member states of the United Nations nor in consequence the community."

¹⁰⁵ The Namibia Case, p. 37 ; In the Namibia advisory opinion ICJ stated that "denial of fundamental human right is a flagrant violation of the purposes and principles of the charter." Again, in the Diplomatic and Consular Staff case, the Court ruled: "wrongfully to deprive human beings of their freedom and to subject them to physical constraints in conditions of hardship is in itself manifestly incompatible with the principles of the charter of the United Nations, as well as with the fundamental principles enunciated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights"[The Consular Staff in Tehran case, p. 39]

¹⁰⁶ De wet, above n 23, p.201; Gill T.D, Legal and some Political Limitations on the Power of the UN Security Council to Exercise its Enforcement Powers under Chapter VII of the Charter, 26 NYIL 33 (1995) p.72 (asserting that duty of SC to respect essential human rights and be derived from Art 24(3), 55 and 56 of the Charter)

¹⁰⁷De Wet *ibid.*, p.201

Nonetheless, this should not in any way imply that derogable rights category of human rights are easily escapable. Primarily, the principle of proportionality applies, as the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural, affirmed.¹⁰⁸ The committee derived this conclusion from the “commitment in the Charter to promote respect for all human rights”.¹⁰⁹ The SC, thus, cannot avoid the protection of at least the core contents of the right.¹¹⁰

d) General International law

Whether general international law is a constraint on the activities of the Security Council is controversial. On the one hand, enforcement measures of the SC allow infringement upon and restriction or suspension of the rights of states which the exercisable under both customary and conventional international law. And this is what is done in the case where trade and communication embargo, maritime blockade or ‘no fly zone’ is imposed on perpetrators of international peace the security.¹¹¹ The grounds which constitute a threat to peace include acts such as civil unrest, arms buildups, failure to surrender suspects of terrorism, which are not basically violations of international law.¹¹² This, however, does not exclude them from matters in which the Security Council can take measures.¹¹³ It is submitted, therefore, the Council need not base its determination upon considerations of international law.¹¹⁴

An aspect of this view, limits the effect of international law to measures of the SC in the context of peaceful settlement and adjustment of disputes. This argument underlies Art 1 of the Charter which divides the path to achieve international peace and security in to two. Pursuant to the proponents, from between the two roles of the SC relating to the international peace and security, namely maintenance and restoration of peace and

¹⁰⁸ United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, General Comment 8: The Relationship between Economic Sanctions and Respect for Economic, Social and Cultural Rights UN Doc. E/C.12/1997/8 para. 7

¹⁰⁹ Ibid.,

¹¹⁰ Schweigman, above n 8, p. 171

¹¹¹ Gill, above n 105, p. 63

¹¹² Ibid., 62

¹¹³ Ibid.

¹¹⁴ Ibid.

adjustment and settlement of breaches of the peace, only in the case of the latter is the Council required to conform to international law.¹¹⁵ They also add the supremacy clause, in Art.103 of the Charter vis-à-vis other treaties as implicating that the SC is unbound by international law.¹¹⁶

In contrast, it is argued by some, that international law governs acts of the SC. One premise for such assertion is the nature of the organization which is established by states. Therefore, states are undoubtedly limited by international law and it would be less acceptable than ever that sovereign states should have created an international organization equipped with broad powers of control and sanction vis-à-vis themselves but itself exempted from the duty to respect both the Charter which gave birth to it and international law.¹¹⁷ Akande also denies that the San Francisco conference limited the application of international law on the peaceful adjustment of disputes only. His survey of the *travaux préparatoires* supports the limitation of the SC by international law though not conclusively.¹¹⁸ The similar attribute both the UN and its members have i.e. their equal subjection to international law, also shows, as Akande suggests, that they have obligations under it.¹¹⁹

Therefore, unless the Charter specifically allows the council not to be limited by international law, it is required to act in compliance to international law.¹²⁰ Where the grant of power is general, the mere fact that it is subject to international law, obliges it to accord with general international law.¹²¹

3.4.1.4 Review of Judicial Actions

In the UN, judicial actions are also reviewable. The organ under discussion here is the United Nations Administrative Tribunal. In its original form, the statute of the Tribunal under its Art 10(2) provided that the tribunal's decisions were 'binding and without appeal'

¹¹⁵ Hans Kelsen, *The Law the United Nations: A Critical Analysis of its Fundamental Problems* (1951), p. 294

¹¹⁶ Akande, above n 91, p.319

¹¹⁷ Bedajoui, *The New World Order and the Security Council – Testing the Legality of its Acts* (1994), p.7

¹¹⁸ Akande, above n 91, pp. 319-320

¹¹⁹ Ibid.

¹²⁰ Ibid.

¹²¹ Ibid.

denying any possibility of revision. But the 1955 amendment included the present Art 11(1) of the Statute that acknowledges a special system of review by which member states, the Secretary General and a person in respect of whom a judgment has been rendered by the tribunal may request review.¹²² Pursuant to this system, a request is forwarded to the committee on Applications for review of judgments of the Administrative Tribunal to decide whether there is a substantial basis for the application and if so, requests an advisory opinion of the ICJ.¹²³

The grounds of review under the statute of the tribunal are confirmation or excess of jurisdiction or competence, errors on questions of law, failure to exercise jurisdiction and fundamental errors of procedure occasioning a failure of justice.¹²⁴ This seems to suggest that the challenges are generally procedural in nature. However, as judge Oda indicated, “the court is [at times] expected...to function in substance similarly to an appellate court vis-à-vis UNAT, to review the actual substance of the Secretary General’s decision and, if necessary, to substitute its own opinion on the merits of that of UNAT.”¹²⁵

3.4.1.5 Legal consequences of the Invalidity Pronouncements of the Court

It is a wonder of many what the effect of decisions or opinions of the court that rendered acts of the organs invalid would be. The solution for this relies on the premise of the following points. The court is, even though one among the principal organs, not superior; hence no hierarchy is envisaged in the charter.¹²⁶ Second, decisions of the court in contentious cases oblige the parties to that particular case only.¹²⁷ Advisory opinions are also advisory and lack binding effect.¹²⁸ But as stated elsewhere in this study before, the single

¹²² GA Res.957(X), UN GAOR,10th Sess., Procedure for the Review of United Nations Administrative Tribunal; amendment to the Statute of the Administrative Tribunal, UN Doc .A/3116(1955) P.31

¹²³Statute of the Administrative Tribunal of the United Nations, adopted by the GA/Res. 351 A on 24 November 1949 and last amended by GA/Res. 52/166 on 15 Dec 1997, Art 11(2)

¹²⁴Ibid., Art. 11(1)

¹²⁵ Application for the Review of Judgment No. 333 of the United Nations Administrative Tribunal, 1987 I.C.J. 18, 89(May 27)(Separate Opinion of Judge Oda), Para., P. 75

¹²⁶ Kaikobad, above n 61, p. 45

¹²⁷ Statute of ICJ, Art. 59

¹²⁸ Akande, above n 91, p. 333

effect of this feature of the judgments of ICJ is absence of annulment power as in the most municipal judicial review systems.

Still, however, the pronouncement of the court in any case is not without impact. Firstly, non-compliance may be witnessed following the invalidity of the court's decision or opinion.¹²⁹ Compliance in the UN is strongly correlated with validity of a resolution.¹³⁰ This is also viewed in the Namibia Opinion where the court asserted, after examining the validity of the SC reduction, that "the decision are *consequently* binding on all states members of the United Nations, which are thus under obligation to accept and carry them out."¹³¹ In other words, the court maintained that those resolutions in conformity to the purpose and principles of the charter give rise to binding obligations on member states. Otherwise, compliance cannot be expected. The Security Council would also be influenced by pronouncements of the court. Within the council, deliberations and positions of member states are molded by the arguments of the court and receive immense acceptance.¹³² If, therefore, will inevitably direct the activities of the council. In addition, it prevents similar illegal decisions from being undertaken in the future.¹³³ Needless to say, other subsidiary and principal organ would be pressured to follow the path set up by the pronouncement of the court.

3.4.2 Judicial Review and the EC Law

The Maastricht Treaty stipulates under its Art. 6(2) that "[t]he Union shall respect fundamental rights, as guaranteed by the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms signed in Rome on 4 Nov 1950 and as they result from the constitutional traditions common to the member states, as general principles of community law." A right incorporated within in this convention is the right to a fair trial. The ECtHR in the *Golder case* emphasized that this provision implies a right of access to a

¹²⁹ Ibid., p. 322 (Stating the analysis of Judge *ad hoc* Lauterpacht in the Genocide Case Case was accepted, in effect, by certain states and Organizations.

¹³⁰ De Wet, above n 8 ,p. 55 (arguing advisory opinions Clarify law which creates greater chance of compliance)

¹³¹ Akande, above n 91, p.335

¹³² De Wet, above n 8,p. 57

¹³³ Gill, above n 105, p.124

court for every person wishing to commence an action in order to have his civil rights and obligations determined.¹³⁴ Moreover, individual's entitlement to effect judicial protection of rights they derive from the community legal order has been asserted by the ECJ.¹³⁵ Consequently, the European Court of Justice holds the widest review power against acts of political organs of the Union in distinct manner from other IOs. The system is so broad as to include citizens of Members States of the EU as applications. Interpretation of the primary laws, EC treaties and validity of subsidiary legislations are checked by the court. Binding and non-binding acts or omissions of the internal bodies are subjected to scrutiny of the court. And significantly, the fact that the ECJ's judgment has the effect of annulling the contested act evinces the unique aspect of the system compared to other IOs as described below in depth.

3.4.2.1 Structure of the Community Courts

The Court of Justice of the EU consists: the Court of Justice¹³⁶, the General Court¹³⁷ (used to be called the court of first instance before the Treaty of Lisbon of 2009) and Specialized courts.¹³⁸ The mission of the court is to ensure that "the law is observed in the interpretation and application of the treaties."¹³⁹ Presently, the court has the mandate to deliver a preliminary opinion as to whether an agreement envisaged is compatible with the founding treaties.¹⁴⁰ This also includes giving opinion on the question whether the Union or any Union institutions has the mandate to enter into that agreement.¹⁴¹ This has led some to

¹³⁴ *Golder v United Kingdom*, Serie A 18 (1975), Judgment of 21 February 1975, ECHR (1975) available at <http://www.robin.no/~dadwatch/echr/golder.html>, Section 25

¹³⁵ *Corthaut and Frederick*, *ibid.*, p.489

¹³⁶ Art 19 of TFEU

¹³⁷ *Ibid*

¹³⁸ *Ibid.*; The only such court established is the 2004 Civil Service Tribunal.

¹³⁹ *Ibid*

¹⁴⁰ Art 218 of the TFEU. It reads "A Member State, the European Parliament, the Council or the Commission may obtain the opinion of the Court of Justice. Where the opinion of the Court of Justice is adverse, the agreement envisaged may not enter into force unless it is amended or the treaties are revised."

¹⁴¹ *Katerina Yocheva*, *Specific Acts of the Court Justice of the European Union Opinion of the Court of Justice 2011*, *Acta U. Danubius Jur.* 75 2011, p. 76; See also *Case 8/55 Federation Charbonnier de Belgique v ECSC High Authority*, Opinion of AG Langrage, delivered on 12 June 1956. [Former Advocate Langrage has describing the Treaties as Constitution]

think that the court has a constitutional court facet.¹⁴² The legal frameworks governing the activities of the court are the founding Treaties, rules of procedure of the courts and the statute of the Court of Justice of the EU. The Rules of procedure of the Court of Justice distinguishes among the following acts of the court: judgments,¹⁴³ decisions,¹⁴⁴ orders,¹⁴⁵ opinions¹⁴⁶ and opinions and views of the Advocate General.¹⁴⁷ The court with all its three jurisdictions has, as stated by one academic, delivered 15,000 judgments as of 2011.¹⁴⁸ This shows the importance of the court in the Union.

The court has assumed roles that allow it to balance the power of the community institutions with member states.¹⁴⁹ Protection of citizens' rights is also one of goals of the court's activities. In the interpretation of the general and unclear written rules of the community, the court has safeguarded rights of individual citizens.¹⁵⁰ Enhancement of transparency accountability and democratic decision making has been achieved by the court's power of review, which is employed in two various means.¹⁵¹

a) Action for Annulment

Pursuant to Art 230 of the treaty, an action contesting any binding of secondary law may be lodged. This is a direct judicial control mechanism stipulated in EC law. And the following requirements need to be fulfilled.

¹⁴² Yocheva, *ibid.*, p.

¹⁴³ Judgments of the Court are rendered Pursuant to Art.63 *et seq* of the Rules of Procedure of the Court of Justice on reference for a preliminary ruling, direct action (as in actions for failure to fulfill an obligation & action for annulment) and appeals see *ibid.*,p.78

¹⁴⁴ The Court gives Decisions under Art 123b of the Rules of Procedure of the Court of Justice in *ibid.* P.78

¹⁴⁵ Orders may be delivered in the form of Terminating proceeding by judicial determinations or orders made following an appeal against an order concerning interim measures or intervention or orders terminating the case by removal from the register, declaration that there is no need to give a decision of Referral to the General Court for instance according to Art 43 of Rules of Procedure of the Court of Justice, in *ibid.*, 79

¹⁴⁶ This is to be done under art 107 and 108 of the Rules of Procedure and Art 30(6) of the TFEU

¹⁴⁷ The Advocate General may act in accordance with Art 59 of the Rules of Procedure; Art 123e of the same(in the procedure for review of decision of the General Court) and Art 104b of the Rules of Procedure

¹⁴⁸ Yocheva, above n 141,P 77

¹⁴⁹ Jurgen Schwarze, Judicial Review in EC Law- Some Reflections on the Origins and the Actual Legal Situation, 51 ICLQ 17(2002) P.22 P.18

¹⁵⁰ *Ibid.*, P.22

¹⁵¹ Keon Lenarts and Tim Corthaut, Judicial Review as a Contribution to the Development of European Constitutionalism, 22 YEL1 2002, P.

i/ *Locus standi*

As to the parties permitted to file action for annulment three categories are distinguished. The first type of applicants often referred 'privileged applicants' include the Council, the European Parliament, the Commission and Member States.¹⁵² The 'quasi-privileged' group¹⁵³ consists of the Court of Auditors, the European Central Bank and recently the Committee of Regions,¹⁵⁴ an advisory body of EU. All these bodies are allowed to bring actions for annulment for the purpose of protecting their prerogatives.¹⁵⁵

A somewhat implied right is given to Member States parliaments that act through their states. By virtue of this, proceeding for annulment can be brought on grounds of infringements of the principle of Subsidiarity by a legislative EU act.¹⁵⁶ The formal applicants here are member states though their real authors would parliaments and their chambers.¹⁵⁷

The last category 'non-privileged' applicants are natural or legal persons as enshrined in the fourth paragraph of Art 230 EC. Individual regions of the member states, unlike the Committee of Regions, also fall within the non-privileged applicants as implied in Art 263 (4) of the TFEU. From among the three categories, the latter two have rights. While the semi-privileged applicants utilize the action relating to their prerogatives, the non-privileged ones need to show their 'direct and individual concern'. This requirement has given rise to fierce debate.¹⁵⁸

¹⁵² Art 263(2) of the TFEU. The European parliament was not originally a privileged applicant as confirmed in the *cosmetology judgment European Parliament v. Council*. It is only following the Nice amendments to the EC Treaty that it joined the group of privileged applicant.

¹⁵³ Art 263 (3) of TFEU

¹⁵⁴ Art 263 (3) of TFEU; See also, Agne Limante, *Actions for Annulment Before ECJ After the Lisbon Treaty: Has the Access to Justice Improved?* Available at <http://egpa-conference2011.org/documents/PSG10/Limante.pdf> last accessed on June 19 2012

¹⁵⁵ Art. 263 of the TFEU

¹⁵⁶ Protocol No.2 on the Application of the Principles of Subsidiarity and Proportionality, Annex 2 to the TFEU, C 115/201, O. J. 9. 5. 2008, Art. 8

¹⁵⁷ *Ibid.*

¹⁵⁸ To cite some: A. Arnall, *Private Applicants and the Action for annulment since Codorniu*, *Common Market Law Review* 48 (2001); Cigam, *Protecting the Interest of Civil Society in Community Decision-Making-The Limits of Art 230 EC*, 52 *ICLQ* 995; X., Goursoff, *The EC System of Legal Remedies and*

An act would be of 'direct concern' where it does not leave room for any discretion, or some but purely theoretical discretion is left, to the address as to the implementation of the measure.¹⁵⁹ The implication of the term 'direct' can easily be shown by proving a direct causal link between community measure and its effect.¹⁶⁰ On the other hand, the test of 'individual concern,' as stated in the *Plaumann* case, will be met when " that [the contested]decision affects them or by reason of circumstances in which they are differentiated from all other persons and by virtue of these factors distinguishes them individually just as in the case of the person addressed"¹⁶¹. This criteria has been considered strict and 'an insurmountable obstacle for access to community courts'.¹⁶²

Some lesser standards have been, thus, suggested. An influential proposal is maintained by Advocate General Jacobs advancing that "a person is to be regarded as individually concerned by a community measure where by reason of particular circumstances, the measure has, or is liable to have a substantial adverse effect on his interests."¹⁶³ This standard deems the applicant be differentiated, in the same way as an addressee, unnecessary. The degree of the harm of the act only counts.

Again, the Court of First Instance also adopted other criteria than the *Plaumann* formula. Pursuant to the CFI, in the *Jego Quere* case of 2002:

Effective Judicial Protection: Does the System Really Needs Reform?, Legal Issues of Economic Integration 221(2003); Albertina Albors-Llorens, The Standing of Private Parties to Challenge Community Measures: Has the European Court Missed the Boat? 62 Cambridge Law Journal 72(2003); Jose Manuel and Cortes Martin, *Ubi ius, Ibi Remedium?*- Locus Standi of Private Applicants under Art.230(4) EC at a European Constitutional Crossroad , 11 Maastricht J. Eur. and Comp. L 233 (2004) and others more.

¹⁵⁹ See *International Fruit Company v Produktschap Voor Groenten en Fruit*, Joined cases 21-24/72, Judgment of 12 December 1972 available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:61972CJ0021:EN:PDF> Para. 6

¹⁶⁰ Ibid.

¹⁶¹ *Plaumann Co. v Commission of the European Economic Community* - Case 25-62, Summary of Judgment 15 July 1963 available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:61962J0025:EN:HTML#I2>, para. 4

¹⁶² Manuel and Martin, above n 158, pp.234-235

¹⁶³ Opinion of Advocated General Jacobs *Union de pequenos Agricultores (UPA) v Council* C-50/100, delivered 21 March 2002 available a <http://curia.europa.eu/juris/document/document.jsf?docid=47224&doclang=EN&mode=&part=1>, p. 60

*"[an individual] is to be regarded as individually concerned by a community measure of general application that concerns him directly if the measure in question affects his legal position, in a manner which is both definite immediate, by restricting his rights or by imposing obligations on him. The number and position of other persons who are likewise affected by the measure, or who may be so, are of no relevance in that regard."*¹⁶⁴

The last statement of the CFI'S position abandons the 'closed class' test of the *Plaumann*. The 'closed class' approach of the *Plaumann* was born in the *Codorniu* case in which the *Plaumann* was considered fulfilled when the applicant proves that it belongs to a closed group of persons affected by the legal act and the institution which adopted it had a duty to take in to account the effects of this act to the closed group.¹⁶⁵

But none of the above two refinements were absorbed by the Court of Justice which insisted in consistent application of the *Plaumann* formula as criteria for *locus standi* of private parties.

ii/ Reviewable Acts

Nature of the challenged act also matter. Applicants of annulment proceedings need to ascertain that the act the context is susceptible to review. The reviewability of an act also correlates to the categories of applicants. This is to mean that among the categories of applicants, difference exists as to the acts they can lodge application against.

The cumulative reading of paragraph 1 and 2 of Art 230 transpires that the fully and semi privileged applicants may demand annulment of any regulation, directive, decisions, recommendations and opinions or any other kind of measure.¹⁶⁶ The range is wide to include almost every act of the institutions whether they are binding or not. Moreover, the Treaty of Lisbon has, as some scholars contend, expanded the acts to be reviewed by adding instruments such as conclusions of the European Council or international agreements.¹⁶⁷

¹⁶⁴ *Jégo-Quère et Cie SA v Commission*, Case T-177/01, (2002) available at <http://eiop.or.at/eiop/texte/2005-017.htm>, Para. 22

¹⁶⁵ Anthony, above n 158, p.34

¹⁶⁶ Art 288 cum Art 263(1) of the TFEU

¹⁶⁷ Limante, above n 153, p. 7

Non-privileged applicants, in contrast, are allowed to bring actions against decisions addressed to the plaintiff, or a decision addressed to another person, or a regulation which is of direct and individual concern to the plaintiff.¹⁶⁸ The Treaty of Lisbon has relatively relaxed the position of private applicants in proceedings of annulment. The notable innovation of the abandonment of the 'individual concern' test is in the case of regulatory acts which do not entail implementing measures.¹⁶⁹ All delegated and implementing acts of non legislative character, be it regulations, directives or decisions, fall within regulatory acts of Art 263 paragraph 4 of the TFEU.¹⁷⁰ To determine whether an act is subject to review, it is material to examine the context of the act than the form of issuance.¹⁷¹

It should also be noted that the late extensive use of delegation of power to various bodies of the Union has led the Court to assert that community bodies established to produce legal effects on third parties can not escape judicial review.¹⁷² This opinion of the Court has been incorporated to the Treaty of Lisbon in a form amendment. Therefore, legal acts of Union bodies, offices and agencies intended to produce legal effects *vis-a-vis* third parties have now been brought under the power of the Court.¹⁷³ The implication of this amendment is that legal effects of an act rather than the organ or body issuing the act that matters.

iii/ Grounds of Review

Thirdly, illegality of the measure must be shown. Lack of competence vitiates the legality of a measure.¹⁷⁴ Obviously, an act of an organ of the Union must be performed within the area of its competence. An act of the Commission which according to the Treaties should be adopted by the European Council would be susceptible to annulment as upheld in *France v.*

¹⁶⁸ Art. 230(4) of the EC Treaty

¹⁶⁹ Art. 263(4) of the TFEU

¹⁷⁰ Limante, above n 153, p. 8

¹⁷¹ Klabbers, above n 9 p.17

¹⁷² *Sogelma v. EAR*, Case T- 411/06, Judgment of the Court of First Instance, 8 October 2008 available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:62006TJ0411:EN:HTML>, para. 36-37

¹⁷³ Art 263 of the TFEU. The new insertion reads "...It[the Court of Justice] shall also review the legality of acts of bodies, offices or agencies of the Union intended to produce legal effects vis-s vis third parties."

¹⁷⁴ Art 263 of TFEU

Commission.¹⁷⁵ Needless to say, institutions of EU must engage in activities falling within the competence of the Community. In *Germany v European Parliament and Council*, the court annulled a directive on grounds of lack of competence of the community as such.¹⁷⁶

Infringements of procedural requirement may include omission of procedure contained in the relevant legislation and breach of a fundamental procedural principle such as the rights of defense.¹⁷⁷ This occurs, for example when the Council adopts something without consulting the EU Parliament or the Economic and Social Committee while such duty was prescribed.¹⁷⁸ In *Schneider Electric v. Commission*, the court held that the infringement by the Commission of the applicant's right of defense errs the Commission's decisions.¹⁷⁹

Only contraventions to procedural requirements that are essential constitute illegal measure. Thus, a procedural requirement would be essential "if it may exercise an influence on the content of the act or deprive the applicant of the possibility to control its legality. If an irregularity has no impact on the act itself, it will insufficient to establish the invalidity of the decision concerned."¹⁸⁰

Another ground is infringement of the [EC] treaties or any rule relating to its application.¹⁸¹ Included in this are the founding Treaties the ECSC Treaty, the EEC Treaty and the Euratom Treaty; the first amending treaties, Merger Treaty of 1967 and Single European Act of 1987; the Maastricht Treaty, the Amsterdam Treaty, Nice Treaty and finally the Lisbon Treaty. Therefore, acts of EU institutions are checked against these primary sources of EU law. In addition, any rules relating to its application are also check points.¹⁸² Contradiction to all these laws of EU produces illegal and invalid acts. Interpretation of the Court has also

¹⁷⁵ Klabbers above n 9, pp.243-244(note)

¹⁷⁶ *Federal Republic of Germany v European Parliament and Council of the European Union*, C-76/98 available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:41049TJ0411:EN:HTML>, para. 165

¹⁷⁷ Malcolm Nicholson et al, *The Scope of Review of Merger Decision under Community Law*, 1Eur. Competition J. 123 (2005), p. 124

¹⁷⁸ Klabbers, above n 9, p.244

¹⁷⁹ *Schneider v Commission*, Case T-310/01 available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:62002TJ0077:EN:HTML> par 440 and 462

¹⁸⁰ Nicholson *et al*, above n 176, p.126

¹⁸¹ Art 263(2) of the TFEU

¹⁸² *Ibid*.

extended to international treaties to which the Union is party to be watched as law against which EU institutions cannot act.¹⁸³

Misuse of power also renders an act of EU organs or bodies illegal. Any use of power by the organs of the union for purposes other than those for which the power is formulated will result in annulment.¹⁸⁴ One example can be the writing of job descriptions so as to fit specific individuals at the exclusion of others.¹⁸⁵ The rendition of an act as misuse depends much on the original purpose of a power granted and will principally be ascertained by inference or conjecture.¹⁸⁶

iv/ Time Limit for Action

Annulment proceedings must be instituted with two months of the notification or publication of the challenged act.¹⁸⁷ This is peculiar to action for annulment and no time bar is provided for other review mechanisms of the Union. The two months period will begin to count starting from the publication of the measure or its notification to the plaintiff or from the day it came to the knowledge of the latter.¹⁸⁸

b) Preliminary rulings

Through preliminary ruling an indirect control over political organs of the Union has been established. Courts of member states avail this mechanism. Following the request of parties to litigation, national courts determine whether question of EC laws be referred to community courts. This unifies the interpretation of EC laws in all member states. This procedure, retaining the independence of courts member states, prevents 'a body of national case law not in accord with the rules of [Union] law from coming to existence in any

¹⁸³ *International Fruit Company v Produktschap Voor Groenten en Fruit*, Joined cases 21-24/72, Judgment of 12 December 1972, available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:61972CJ0021:EN:PDF> Para. 6

¹⁸⁴ Klabbers, above n 9, p.244

¹⁸⁵ Ibid.

¹⁸⁶ Ibid.

¹⁸⁷ Art 263(6) of the TFEU

¹⁸⁸ Ibid.

member state.¹⁸⁹ And indeed, this has been proved. As noted by some writers ‘almost all the major principles established by the ECJ were decided in the context of a reference to that court for a preliminary ruling... and plays a central part in the development of and enforcement of [EU] law.’ As published in one study, more than 200 requests of preliminary rulings are submitted to the ECJ per annum.¹⁹⁰ This figure echoes the importance of the mechanism in the EU system.

i/ Who can seek Rulings

As enshrined in Art 267 of the TFEU “any court or tribunal of a member state can request the ruling of the ECJ.” The phrase ‘courts or tribunals’ have, in practice, been understood in its expanded sense than the mere notion of courts law. In *Broekmeulen v Huisarts Rigistratie Commissie* case, appeals committee of a professional body above which there is no opportunity of appeal were considered as permitted to refer questions involving EC law.¹⁹¹ Industrial arbitration board was taken as ‘court or tribunal’ in *Handels–og Konfurfunktionaerernes Forbund/ Denmark v Dansk Arbejdsgirer forening acting on behalf of Danfoss*.¹⁹² Generally, the ECJ examines the following points¹⁹³ to ascertain that an institution would fall within the phrase ‘any court or tribunal’:

- Has the body been established by law?
- Is its jurisdiction compulsory?
- Is it permanent?
- Does it have an adversarial procedure?
- Does it apply rules of law?
- It is independent?

¹⁸⁹ Fairhurst J., *Law of the European Union* (8th ed., 2010), p. 177

¹⁹⁰ Steiner J., Woods L. and Twigg- Flesner C., *EU Law* (9th ed., 2006), p. 193

¹⁹¹ Fairhurst, above n 188, p. 175(note 2)

¹⁹² *Broekmeulen v Huisarts Registratie Commissie*, Case 246/80, Judgment of 6 October 1981 available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:61980CJ0246:EN:PDF>, para., 8

¹⁹³ *Handels –og Kontorfunktionaerernes Forbund/ Danmark v Dansk Arbejdsgiverforening acting on behalf of Danfoss*, Case C- 109/88, 1989 available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:61988CJ0109:EN:PDF>, para. 9

Where the court finds all these criteria fulfilled, the ECJ would receive the application of such institution for its ruling.

But it should be noted that these courts and tribunals are not obliged to refer matters involving EC law. As suggested by Lord Denning in *Bulmer V Bollinger*, only issues of EC law which are conclusive to a judgment should be forwarded to the ECJ.¹⁹⁴ If it is not 'necessary' as in the case where the ECJ had already ruled on the matter or it was reasonably clear and free from doubt or the ruling of the court would not affect the outcome of the case, no obligation exist on the courts and tribunals.¹⁹⁵ Even though this trend predominates, in one case presumption in favor of referral to the ECJ on points of Union law has been pronounced recently.¹⁹⁶

Again, however, there are courts or tribunals that are mandatorily expected to refer. This obligation is imposed on 'courts of last resort.'¹⁹⁷ Concrete obligation to refer, thus, lies on most supreme courts or constitutional courts or national courts against the decision of which no judicial remedy remains. There will not be discretion to not refer where no superior courts or bench exists and a decision on the question of EC law is necessary to enable the national court to give judgment. The national court, however, retains discretion as to the determination of referral like courts in discretionary referral procedure.¹⁹⁸ The distinction between mandatory and discretionary procedure, which lies on the availability of superior judicial remedies, may misleadingly imply that preliminary rulings are appeal procedures. But, it is not. As assessed by Hartley

"[t]here are two major differences between an appeal and a reference. First, in the case of an appeal the initiative lies with the parties: the party who is dissatisfied with the court's judgment

¹⁹⁴ Steiner et al, above n 190, p. 204. Similarly Steiner et al asserts that the ECJ identified five criteria to determine an institution as a court a tribunal: statutory origin, permanence, *inter partes* procedure, compulsory jurisdiction and the application of rules of law.

¹⁹⁵ *Bulmer v Bollinger* [1974] available at <http://law-uk.info/2012/06/bulmer-v-bollinger-1974-2-all-er-1226/>, para.23

¹⁹⁶ *Ibid.*

¹⁹⁷ *R v International Stock Exchange of the UK and the Republic of Ireland, ex parte else* (1993) available at http://www.justcite.com/Document/b2qZnYedoSaaa/r-v-international-stock-exchange-of-the-united-kingdom-and-the-ireland_para_87

¹⁹⁸ Art 267(3) of the TFEU

decides whether to appeal and then take the necessary procedural steps. The court a quo normally has no further say in the matter and can not prevent the appeal being lodged. Secondly, the appeal court decides the case, even though the appeal may be on limited grounds only, and it has the power to set aside the decision of the court a quo; normally it can then substitute its own decision for that of the lower court. These features are not found in the procedure for preliminary reference the court a quo decides whether the reference should be made and only specific issues are referred to the European Court. Once it has decided these, the European Court remits the case to the national court for decision."¹⁹⁹

ii/ Objects of the Ruling

As provided under Art 267 of the TFEU, the Court of Justice of the European Union shall have jurisdiction to give preliminary rulings concerning the interpretation of the Treaties and the validity and interpretations of acts of the institutions, bodies, offices and agents of the Union. Accordingly, there are three issues for the purpose of this provision: interpretation, effect and validity. In case of interpreting the law, the object of referral is not limited to constitutive treaties but includes annexes and protocols as well as the acts of the community institutions or international agreements concluded by European communities.²⁰⁰ Effect of law is also closely related to interpretation of law.

Regarding assessment of the validity of community law, the object covers all deeds of the community institutions.²⁰¹ The term acts of institutions include both binding and non-binding acts.²⁰² Unless it is to uphold the validity of community acts, invalidity issues must be referred to ECJ. As ruled in the *Foto Frost case*, national courts are not competent to

¹⁹⁹ Hartley T., *The Foundation of European Community Law* (7th ed., 2010), P. 287

²⁰⁰ *SRL CILFIT and others v Ministry of Health and Lanificio di Gavardo SPA*, Case 283 /81, Judgment of 6 Oct 1982 available at http://www.cvce.eu/obj/judgment_of_the_court_of_justice_cilfit_case283_81_october_1982-en-d3cb219e-2606_4ae9_b37c-2b2e4c42c60d.html, para. 20

²⁰¹ Oana Mariuca Petrescu, *Procedural Aspects Regarding for Preliminary Rulings*, 8 *Romanian Journal of European Affairs* 33 (2008), P. 38

²⁰² *Ibid.*, p.39

establish the invalidity of derived community law acts.²⁰³ In investigating validity the court in substance assesses lawfulness. It has been stated that the Court of Luxemburg (ECJ) noticed that it has to perform a lawfulness exam both from a formal and a material stand point by assimilating validity with lawfulness.²⁰⁴ Another author also observes that “the jurisprudence of ECJ has emphasized that the recourse regarding the validity of the community acts represents a lawfulness control modality regarding the said similar to recourse for annulment.”²⁰⁵

The proposition that ‘preliminary ruling presupposes direct effect i.e. the possibility interested party to invoke Union rules in national courts and the obligation for the national judges to uphold any right resulting from those rules’ has been forwarded.²⁰⁶ However, the ECJ has held that an act need not be directly effective to be subject to interpretation under Art 234.²⁰⁷ In the opinion of the present writer as well, it is not commendable to stress on the ‘direct effect’ approach as the primary purpose of the preliminary ruling mechanism, as opined in *Reinmullen-Dusseldorf case*, relates to ‘the preservation of the community character of law establishing by the treaty and has the object of ensuring that in all circumstances the law is the same in all the states of the Union.’²⁰⁸ Therefore, for the purpose ensuring uniformity of EC law, the direct effect requirement would not be relevant. Rather, as described by one writer, since the mechanism is a ‘public remedy’ broader approaches would make it effective.²⁰⁹

²⁰³ *Foto Frost v Hauptzollant Lubeck –Ost*, Case C- 314/85, Judgment of 22 October 1987 available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:61985CJ0314:EN:HTML>, para. 11

²⁰⁴ Petrescu, above n 201, p.39

²⁰⁵ Ovidiu Tinca, *Drept Comunitar general*, edita a III-a, Publishing House Lumina Lex, Bucuresti, 2005, pp. 381-400 as quoted in *Ibid*.

²⁰⁶ Mathijsen, P.S.R. F., *A Guide to European Union Law* (10th ed., 2010), P.142

²⁰⁷ *Impresa Cosruzioni Comm Quirino Mazalia v Ferovia del Renon*, Case 111/75(Preliminary Ruling), Judgment of 20 May 1976, Summary of Judgment available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:61975CJ0111:EN:PDF> Para. 7-9

²⁰⁸ *Ibid*.

²⁰⁹ Report of the Court of Justice on Certain Aspects of the Application of the Treaty on European Union, Luxembourg, May 1995

From the paragraphs in the above it is obvious that matters of national law, application of EU law and issues regarding when a national court should make reference would be excluded from the jurisdiction of ECJ with respect to Art 267 of TFEU.

iii/ When to Refer

The courts of Member States decide the appropriate stage at which to refer the matter to ECJ. The national courts, however, are required to establish the factual and legal contexts of the question so that the ECJ would have the necessary information.²¹⁰ This, in fact, presupposes the hearing of both sides.²¹¹

3.4.2.2 Effects of Declaration of Invalidity

In contrast to the annulment proceeding, effects of declaration of invalidity pursuant to Art, 267 of TFEU have not been dealt with the treaties. In the former, the court has been empowered to declare an act null and void.²¹² And this nullity operates absolutely i.e. *ex tunc*.²¹³

The silence with respect to effects of preliminary references has forced the ECJ to deal with the matter on case by case approach. Undoubtedly, the ruling of the court in preliminary references binds the referring court.²¹⁴ Beyond *inter partes*, the general effect of a declaration of invalidity is also recognized in *International Chemical Corporation v Amministrazione delle Finanze dello sato case* in which the court held

“although a judgment of the court given under Art 177 of the treaty declaring an act of an institution, in particular a council or commission regulation, to be void is directly addressed only

²¹⁰ Gerhard Bebr, Direct and Indirect Judicial Control of Community Acts in Practice: The Relation between Articles 173 and 177 of the EEC Treaty, 82 Mich. L. Rev. 1229 (1983-1984), p. 1230.

²¹¹ Christian Ganj, References for a Preliminary Ruling under Art 267 TFEU, Quick EU Law Series <http://www.ganj.ro> accessed on Dec 27 2011, Section Three

²¹² Ibid.

²¹³ Art 264 of the TFEU: It reads “If the action [instituted pursuant to Art 263] is well founded, the Court of Justice shall declare the act concerned to be void. However the court shall if it considers this necessary state which of the effects of the act which it has declared void shall be considered as definitive.”

²¹⁴ *Commission of the European Communities v. Council of the European Communities*, Case No 22/70, Judgment of March 31, 1971 available at <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:61970J0022:en:HTML>, para. 34

to the national courts which brought the matter before the court, it is 'sufficient reason' for any other national court to regard that act as invalid for purposes of a judgment which it has to give."²¹⁵

Therefore, declaration of invalidity is 'sufficient reason' for later cases in national courts. This suggests then that invalidity rulings of the ECJ have general effect but not 'absolute.'²¹⁶

Regarding the 'ex tunc' or 'ex nunc' effect of declaration of invalidity, however, the ECJ did not yet adopt a single position. In a number of instances, it has given declaration of invalidity without notifying the temporal effect of such declaration.²¹⁷ In some others, it has demanded the relevant institutions "to take the necessary measures compatible with community law."²¹⁸ One author deduced from the observation of the practice of the court that the ECJ court seems to let the concerned community institutions to draw the necessary conclusions as to the effect of invalidation.²¹⁹

3.4.2.3 Judicial Review: A Comparison of UN and EU

The experience of judicial review in international organizations particularly in the UN and EU displays a wide distinction since the objectives they are setup to achieve differ. In the former, the existence of judicial supremacy is doubtful when seen from the angle

²¹⁵ Bebr, above n 208, p. 1240

²¹⁶ SPA International Chemical Corporation v Amministrazione Delle Finanze Dello Stato, Case No 66/80, Judgment of May 13 1981 available at eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ.do?Uri=CELEX:61980C5006:EN:PDF, Para 13

²¹⁷ See, for example, *Express Dairy Foods v. Intervention Bd. for Agricultural Produce* (Case No.30/79), 1980 E. Comm. Ct. J. Rep. 1887, 1899 (Preliminary Ruling); *S.A. Buitoni v. Fonds d'Orientation et de Regularisation des Marches* (Case No.122/78), 1979 E. Comm. Ct. J. Rep. 77, 685 (Preliminary Ruling); *Yoshida GmbH v. Industrie- und Handelskammer Kassel* (Case No. 114/78), 1979 E. Comm. Ct. J. Rep. 151, 169 (Preliminary Ruling); *Yoshida Nederland B.V. v. Kamer van Koophandel en Fabrieken vor Friesland* (Case No. 34/78), 1979 E. comm. Ct. J. Rep. 115, 136 (Preliminary Ruling); *Firma Milac, Gross- und Aussenhande Alrnold Noll v. Hauptzollamt Saarbrtlcken* (Case No.131/77), 1978 E. Comm. Ct. J. Rep.041, 1051 (Preliminary Ruling) as quoted in Bebr, above n 208, p.1242

²¹⁸ See *Royal Scholten-Honig Ltd. v. Intervention Bd. for Agricultural Produce* (Nos. 103, 145/77), 1978 E. Comm. Ct. J. Rep. 2037, 2081 (Preliminary Ruling) (ground No. 86); *SA Moulins et Huileries de Pont-a-Mousson v. Office National Interprofessionnel des Cereales* (Nos. 124/76 and 20/77), 1977 E. Comm. Ct. J. Rep.1795, 1813 (Preliminary Ruling) (ground No 28); *Albert Ruckdeschel & Co. v. Hauptzollamt Hamburg St. Annen* (Nos. 117/76 and 16/77), 1977 E. Comm. Ct. J. Rep. 1753, 1772 (Preliminary Ruling) (ground No. 13) as quoted in *Ibid.*,

²¹⁹ *Ibid.*, P. 1243

authoritative interpretation where as in the European Union the court has power to give authoritative interpretation in preliminary rulings and other instances.

As a derivative of this assertion, in the UN the ICJ is only allowed to review acts of the political organs incidentally in discharging its other functions. The Court of Justice of the European Union, in contrast, ensures the legality of acts of EU bodies as one of its principal functions. The grounds of review regarding acts of the Security Council, and of course other UN bodies, are violations of international law, international custom, human rights, *jus cogens* and purposes and objectives of the UN . In the EC law, on the other hand, the factors are lack of competence, violation of the Treaties and other laws enacted to the application of the treaties, misuse of power and infringement of procedural requirement. It is observable, then, that the grounds in both institutions depict scope difference as those in the UN system are more of substantive limitative grounds.

In relation to the entities that are entitled to bring actions also there is difference between the UN and EU. In the latter, member state, organs of the union and persons, though in limited aspect, are entitled to contest legality of acts. In the UN, in contrast, it seems that member states, and considering advisory opinions, organ of the UN only can raise review questions albeit indirectly.

Regarding consequences of impugned acts, the Court of Justice of EU has both annulment and illegality declaratory powers while nothing is stated in this respect in connection to the ICJ.

CHAPTER FOUR

REVIEW OF ACTS OF POLITICAL ORGANS OF THE AFRICAN UNION

4.1 The African Union: Its Transition from OAU

For almost the last four decades of the 20th century, continental matters of Africa had been handled by the OAU. Since its establishment in 1963, OAU had represented the continent before the international community. Directed to tackle the then African problems, the OAU listed the following objectives:

“to promote the unity and solidarity of African states; to coordinate and intensify their cooperation and efforts to achieve a better life for the peoples of Africa; to defend their sovereignty, their territorial integrity and independence; to eradicate all forms of colonialism from Africa; and to promote international cooperation, having due regard to the Charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration on Human Rights.”¹

Back then, the focus of OAU and of course individual African states too, was ascertainment of the avoidance of foreign interference as it can be implied from the objectives above. In fact, this had been clearly articulated in the 1945 Pan African Congress convened in Manchester. The proclaimed African visions, there, were: achievement of independence from colonial rule throughout the continent so that Africans could rule themselves and achievement of continental unity in order to bring about faster economic growth and development and make Africa a strong continent within the international system.² It was thus, search of solutions for these problems that preoccupied the activities of OAU.

In pursuance of these purposes, the organization adhered to the principles of sovereign equality of all member states; non-interference in the internal affairs of member states; respect for sovereignty and territorial integrity of each state and for its inalienable right to

¹ Charter of the Organization of Africa Unity, adopted on May 25,1963, entered in to force on September 13,1963, 2 I.L.M 766 1963 [Hereinafter OAU charter], Art.2

² Susan Waiyego Mwangi, 'From the OAU to AU: The Experience, Promise and Expectation, in (Adejumobi S. & Olukoshi A., eds., 2009) The Africa Union and New Strategies for Development in Africa, p. 29

independent existence, peaceful settlement of disputes by negotiation, mediation, conciliation and arbitration, unreserved condemnation, in all its forms of political assassinations as well as subversive activities on the part of neighbouring states or any other states, absolute dedication to the emancipation of African territories which are still dependent and affirmation of a policy of non-alignment with regard to all blocks.³ Again, the critical observation of the principles proves the emphasis African states paid to their sovereignty. Practically as well, organs of the OAU and their compartments had been devoted to the respect of this principle. This strict protection of sovereignty has earned the Organization 'regime-protective' feature.⁴

From the perspective of its objectives, OAU's achievements are recognizable. It has successfully abolished colonialism and related racist rules in the continent.⁵ It has also voiced the common interest of the member states.⁶ This was evinced by the adoption of the UN Declaration on the rights of peoples to Self-determination.⁷ In relation to economic matters also, a number of accomplishments were scored. The prominent one is the establishment of the African Economic Community.⁸ Moreover, at its late days, the OAU had begun to deal with human rights, rule of law and good governance. Most of such issues were addressed in the form of Declarations.⁹

³ OAU Charter, Art.3

⁴ Yassin El- Ayouty, *An OAU for the Future: An Assessment in the Organization of African Unity After Thirty years* (El-Ayouty ed., 1994), p. 179 as quoted in Jonathan Rechner, *From the OAU to AU: A Normative shift with Implications for Peace Keeping and Conflict Management, or Just a Name Change?*, *Vand. J. Transnat'l L* 543 2006, p. 557

⁵ Tiyanjana, Maluwa, *From the Organization of Africa Unity to the Africa Union: Rethinking the Framework for Inter-state Cooperation in Africa in the era of Globalization*, 9 *U. Botswana L.J* 49 2009, P.55; See also Pierre Buyoya, *Toward a Stronger African Union*, 12 *Brown J. World Affair* 165 2005-06, p. 165

⁶ Mwangi, above on 2, p, 31

⁷ *Ibid.*

⁸ *Ibid.*

⁹ See for e.g. *Declarations on the Framework for OAU Response to Unconstitutional Changes of Government*, AHG/ Decl. 1 (XXXVIII) adopted at the 36th Ordinary Session of the OAU Assembly Heads of States and Government, Lome, Togo, July 2000; *Declarations on the Principles Governing Democratic Elections in Africa*, AHG/Decl.1(XXXVIII), 38th Ordinary Session of OAU Assembly of Heads of States and Governments, 8 July 2002, Durban, South Africa; *OAU Declarations on Democracy, Political, Economic and Corporate Governance*, AHG/ 235(XXXVIII) Annex I, 38th Ordinary Session of the OAU Assembly Heads of State and Government, 8 July 2002, Durban, South Africa,

Nevertheless, the Organization had been born with defects. Its objectives had missed important points such as rule of law and sustainable development.¹⁰ The rigid interpretation of sovereignty, which is attributable to the text of the OAU charter, incapacitated the organization and forced it to stand and see atrocities and human rights violations in the territories of its member states.¹¹ As the states denied their consent to the OAU to intervene, the principle of non-intervention of the Charter had tied the hands of OAU in many devastating conflicts.¹² Any action without states' consent would directly contradict the OAU Charter. This necessitated a 'conceptual shift'.¹³

The various obstacles that impeded the activity of the OAU used to be corrected in sporadic and uncoordinated way primarily through *ad hoc* decisions and arrangements like the Cairo Declaration, establishing the Mechanism for Conflict Resolution and Declaration.¹⁴

In 1999, the Assembly of Heads of African States and Governments of the OAU called, following the invitation of the Libyan leader, Colonel Qaddafi, an extra-ordinary meeting in Sirte, Libya. The theme of the summit was 'Strengthening OAU Capacity to enable it to meet the Challenges of the New Millennium.'¹⁵ In the summit the need to effectively address the new social, political and economic realities were realized and the active role of a continental organization was underlined.¹⁶ Finally, in the Sirte Declaration, African Heads of States and Governments decided to establish an African Union in conformity with the ultimate objectives of the Charter of their continental organization and the provisions of the Treaty establishing the African Economic Community.¹⁷ After reviewing the proposal

¹⁰ OAU Charter, Art 3; Constitutive Act of the Africa Union, Adopted on July 11 2002, entered in to force on May 26 2001[hereinafter Constitutive Act or CA], Art 3

¹¹ Rechner, above n 4, P 557

¹² Ibid.

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ Mwingi, above n 2, p 33

¹⁵ Sirte Declaration, EAHG/Draft/ Decl. (iv) Rev.1 Fourth Extraordinary Session of the Assembly of Heads of State and Governments, 8-9 September 1999, Sirte, Libya paragraph 6 (hereinafter Sirte Declaration)

¹⁶ Ibid., paragraph

¹⁷ Ibid., paragraph 8(i)

presented by Libya, in Sirte, the Legal unit of the OAU produced a draft constitutive Act of the AU, which was adopted in Lome, Togo in 2000, and launched in Durban in 2002.¹⁸

4.2 Structure of Organs of the African Union

With the turn of the 21st century, which was proclaimed by former president of the South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, as the will be 'African Century', the third institutionalization of Pan Africanism has been witnessed: the African Union (AU).¹⁹ The Union has huge ambitions to accomplish on the African continent. Art 3 of the Constitutive Act of the Union sets forth broader list of purposes compared to the OAU's:

(a) to achieve greater unity and solidarity between the African countries and peoples of Africa; (b) to defend the sovereignty, territorial integrity and independence of its Member States; (c) to accelerate the political and socio-economic integration of the continent (d) to promote and defend African common positions on issues of interest to the continent and its people (e) encourage international cooperation, taking due account of the charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (f) promote peace, security and stability on the continent (g) promote democratic principles and institutions, popular participation and good governance (h) to promote and protect human and peoples' rights and other relevant human rights instruments (i) establish the necessary conditions which enable the continent to play its rightful role in the global economy and in international negotiations (j) to promote sustainable development at the economies (k) to promote cooperation in all fields of human activity to raise the living standards of African peoples (l) to coordinate and harmonize the policies between the existing and future regional economic communities for the gradual attainment of the objectives of the union (m) to advance the developments of the continent by promoting research in all fields, in particular science and technology and (n) work with relevant international partners in the eradication of preventable diseases and the promotion of good health on the continent.

An observation of this long enlistsments suggest that some are re-affirmation, some others emphatic and few others new introductions to the objectives of the OAU. Achievement of greater unity and solidarity among Africans, respect for sovereignty, territorial integrity and independence of African states, encouragement of international cooperation were also goals

¹⁸ Durban Declaration in Tribute to the Organization of African Unity on the Occasion of the Launching of the African Union, Ass/AU/Decl. 2(l), adopted at the First Ordinary Session of Assembly of the Union 9-10 July 2002, Durban, South Africa, para. 3

¹⁹ T Murithi and A. Ndinga, Introduction- Building an Africa Union for the 21st Century in the African Union and Its Institutions (Akokapri J. & Angela Ndinga & Tim Murithi eds., 2001), P.1

that were being pursued by the OAU.²⁰ The AU has also committed itself to attain them. Those related to economic and politico-social integration and economic development, pulling up the living standard of Africans are elaborated purposes of the Union inherited from the OAU.²¹ Advancement of research with particular focus on science and technology, promotion of human and peoples' rights of Africans and democratic principles and institutions along with good governance and population participation and maintenance of peace, security and stability on the continent are additional insertions to the objectives of the Union.²²

Actualization of these into actions, therefore, requires the establishment of a number of institutions. The renewed commitments and the additional endeavours must be coordinated and necessitate structural development and creation of organs in the Union. The present organs of the African Union are the General Assembly, the Executive Council, the Pan African Parliament, The Peace and Security Council, the African Court of Justice and Human Rights, the African Union Commission, the Economic and Social Council, the Permanent Representatives' Committee, the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Right, the Specialized Technical Committees and the Financial Institutions.'

A. The General Assembly

The Assembly, the supreme organ of the Union, comprises all African Heads of States and governments or duly accredited representatives.²³ The fact that this organ is entrusted with crucial power has compromised the AU's supranational character.²⁴ The principal functions of the Assembly are determination of common policies of the Union, monitoring the implementation of policies and decisions of the Union and ensuring compliance by all member states; acceleration of the political and socio-economic integration; giving decisions on intervention in a member state, when recommended by the PSC, or when a state requests intervention; determination of sanction to be imposed on member state that disregards

²⁰ Compare: OAU Charter, Art. 2 and Constitutive Act, Art.3

²¹ Ibid

²² Maluwa, above n 5, P 75

²³ Constitutive Act, Art 6(1)

²⁴ See the enlisted powers of the GA under Art. Art 9(1) of the Constitutive Act

principles and decisions of organs of the Union; consideration of membership requests, appointment of principal officers of the Union and establishment of the STC or any other organ when deemed necessary; interpretation of the Constitutive Act of the Union till the establishment of the African Court of Justice and Human Rights; and giving directives to a concerned organ on matters of conflict management, wars, acts of terrorism, emergency situations and the restoration of peace.²⁵

The Assembly meets twice a year in ordinary session as it has increasing responsibilities.²⁶ Its decisions are taken, failing consensus, by two-thirds majority of the member states of the Union. Procedural matters, including questions whether a matter is one of procedure or not, is decided by a simple majority vote.²⁷

As specified in Rule 33 of the Rule of Procedure of the Assembly, its decisions may take one of the following three forms: regulations, directives and recommendations, declarations, resolutions and opinions.

B. The Executive Council

Another significant organ of the Union is the Executive Council. It is composed of Foreign Affairs Ministers of Member states or such other ministers or authorities as are designated by the governments of member states.²⁸ Thus, the delegation would be bound by the instructions of their government and act accordingly.²⁹

As a policy organ, ExC coordinates and takes decisions on policies in areas of common interest to member states including

²⁵ Ibid. Art 6(3)

²⁶ Decisions on the Periodicity Ass/AU Dec 53 (111), Ordinary Session of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the African Union, July 2004, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia as quoted in Girmachew Alemu, Introduction to the Norms and Institutions of the African Union, www.nyulawglobal.org/globalex/African_Union.html, p. 12

²⁷ Constitutive Act, Art.7(1); Rules of Procedure of the Assembly of the Union, First Ordinary Session, 9-10 July 2002, Durban, South Africa (hereinafter procedure of the Assembly), Rule 18 (1)-(2)

²⁸ Constitutive Act, Art 10(1)

²⁹ Nsongurua Udombana, The Institutional Structure of the African Union: A legal Analysis, 33 Cal. W. Int'l L.J. 69 2002-03, P. 94

“foreign trade, energy, industry and mineral resources, food, agricultural and animal resources, livestock production and forestry; water resources and irrigation; environmental protection, humanitarian action and disaster response and relief; transport and communication; insurance; education, culture, health, human resources development; science and technology; nationality, residency and immigration matters; social security including the formulation of mother and child care policies, as well as policies relating to the disabled and the handicapped and establishment of African awards, medals and prizes.”³⁰

In its supervisory mandate, the ExC monitors the implementations of policies formulated by the Assembly and considers project proposals from the Specialized Technical Committees.³¹ It has also the power to recommend establishment of other offices of the Union to the Assembly or amendment or revision of the CA.³² Again, it is endowed with the power to request, on matters relating to its competence, advisory opinion from the African Court of Justice and Human Rights.³³

The Council requires the approval of its two-third members to arrive at decision, where consensus could not be reached.³⁴ The two-third majority requirement is strict when compared to simple majority vote of the Council of Ministers of the OAU.³⁵ This was related to the recommendation power of the Council of Minister.³⁶ But now, being empowered to give binding decisions, the requirement is greater than simple majority.

C. The Pan African Parliament

The Constitutive Act of AU has also established the PAP.³⁷ This reflects the evolving commitment of Africans towards democratic values and principles. Its establishment ensures the full participation of African peoples in the development of economic integration of the

³⁰ Constitutive Act, Art 13 (1)

³¹ Rules of Procedure of the Executive Council of the African Union, First Ordinary Session, 9-10 July 2002, Durban, South Africa (hereinafter Procedure of the Council), Rule 5(1) (0)

³² Constitutive Act, Art 24(2) and 32(3)

³³ Protocol on the Statute of the African Court of Justice And Human Rights, adopted 1 July 2008 Ass/AU/Dec. 196(XI)[hereinafter Protocol to the New Court], Art 53(1)

³⁴ Constitutive Act, Art 11(1)

³⁵ Udombana, above n 29, p 95

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Constitutive Act, Art 5(1)(c)

continent.³⁸ It would enable Africans to involve in discussions and decision-makings. Ultimately, the PAP aims to be an organ with full legislative powers whose members will be elected by universal adult suffrage.³⁹ As outlined in the protocol, the PAP will pursue the direction

to facilitate the effective implementation of the policies and objectives of the (O)AU/AEC and, ultimately the African Union; to promote the principles of human rights and democracy in Africa; to encourage good governance transparency, accountability in member states; to familiarize the peoples of Africa with the objectives and policies aimed at integrating the African continent within the frame work of the establishment of the African Union; to promote peace, security and stability to contribute to a more prosperous future for the peoples of Africa by promoting collective self-reliance and economic recovery; to facilitate cooperation and development in Africa; to strengthen continental solidarity and build a sense of common destiny among the peoples of Africa and to facilitate cooperation among Regional Economic Communities and their parliamentary fora.⁴⁰

With these objectives, the first term of PAP has been inaugurated in 2004 and is now at the mid of the second term. The PAP structure consists of the plenary, the bureau, the permanent committees and the secretariat.⁴¹ The plenary is composed of five members of national parliaments of each member state.⁴² Among the five members, two need to be from opposition parties and one must be a woman.⁴³ Even though they are appointed, the parliamentarians will vote independently and in their personal capacity once they administer an Oath.⁴⁴ Each member shall have an equal vote and will represent peoples of Africa.⁴⁵ They will also enjoy privilege and immunities in accordance with the General Convention on the privileges and immunities of the OAU and the Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations.⁴⁶ The term of a member of the PAP concurs with the tenure of membership in

³⁸ Protocol to the Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community Relating to the Pan-African Parliament, adopted on 2 March 2001, entered into force (December 2003), [hereinafter PAP Protocol], Preamble paragraph 5; see also Art.2(2) of the same

³⁹ PAP Protocol Art, 2(3)

⁴⁰ Ibid., Art. 3

⁴¹ Strategic Plan 2006-2010 'One Africa, One Voice' (online) available at <http://www.panafricanparliament.org> (accessed on Feb 28 2012), [hereinafter the 2005 Strategic Plan] p.3

⁴² PAP Protocol, Art 4(1); the 2005 Strategic Plan, ibid.

⁴³ PAP Protocol, Ibid., Art 4(2)

⁴⁴ Ibid., Art. 6

⁴⁵ Ibid., Art.12(2) and Art.2(2)

⁴⁶ Ibid., Art. 8 and Art .9

national parliaments. Meaning, at the time where a PAP member is recalled or ceases to be member of his national parliament,⁴⁷ the seat he holds in the PAP will be considered vacant.

The protocol of the PAP prescribes two sessions per year at the minimum.⁴⁸ The same two-third majority rule, except the simple majority, regarding procedural matter, including the question whether an issue is a matter of procedure, governs the decision making process.⁴⁹ As it exits, the PAP has consultative and advisory mandates only.⁵⁰ In other words, its decisions do not have binding powers a fact which has been considered weakness of the current system.⁵¹ Nevertheless, upon its own motion or at request from any organ, the PAP can examine, discuss or express opinion and forward its recommendations on any matter such as human rights, democracy, good governance, and rule of law or budgetary issues.⁵² It has also power to request officials of the (O)AU/AEC to attend its sessions and produce documents and assess its duties.⁵³ Representatives of policy organs may be requested, by the PAP, explanations on issues affecting, or likely to affect the life of the African Union.⁵⁴ Furthermore, via its President, the PAP may invite and demand explanation from the Chairperson of the Assembly regarding decision taken by the Assembly.⁵⁵ This poke system on the Assembly, the supreme organ, is expected to grow to a full Check system in later ages of the PAP.

D. The Peace and Security Council

Though not originally organ of the Union, the African Peace and Security Council (PSC) is incorporated, pursuant to Art 22 of the PSC protocol, as organ of the Union. The protocol replaced the Cairo Declaration and its Central Organ OAU Mechanism for Conflict

⁴⁷ Ibid., Art. 5(3) and 4(e)

⁴⁸ Ibid., Art. 147 (1)-(3)

⁴⁹ Ibid., Art. 12(12)

⁵⁰ Ibid., Art. 11(1)-(9)

⁵¹ Gerhard Hugo, The Pan African Parliament: Is the Glass Half full or Half Empty? ISS Paper 168 (2008) available at <http://www.issafrica.org/uploads/paper168.pdf.html> accessed January 20 2012, p.8

⁵² Ibid., Art. 11(1)-(9)

⁵³ Ibid., Art. 11(5)

⁵⁴ African Union (Pan African Parliament) Rules of procedure (Midland 2004) [here in after Procedure of PAP], Rule 2(2) as quoted in Girmachew, above n 26, p 22

⁵⁵ Ibid., Rule 67 (1)-(4), Rule 74 (1)-(2)

Prevention, Management and Resolution.⁵⁶ Succeeding the Central Organ, the PSC is accorded with principal powers to anticipate and prevent disputes and conflicts; to authorize the mounting and deployment of peace support missions; to recommend intervention in Member States; to institute sanctions whenever an unconstitutional change of government takes place; to implement the Common Defence Policy of the Union, to examine and take appropriate actions when independence and sovereignty of a Member State is infringed upon to support and facilitate humanitarian action in situations of armed conflicts or major natural disasters.⁵⁷ In discharging these and other related duties, the PSC will take the principles, enumerated under Art 4 of the protocol, into consideration. These include, among others, peaceful settlement of disputes and conflicts, respect for the rule of law, fundamental human rights and freedoms, the sanctity of life and international humanitarian law, respect for the sovereignty and territorial integrity of Member States, non-interference in the internal affairs of one state by another and the right of the Union to intervene in Member States in grave circumstances, namely war crimes, genocide and crimes against humanity.

Structurally, the PSC consist fifteen member states, five elected for three years term and ten for the term of two years.⁵⁸ The principle governing membership is 'equitable regional representation and rotation.' The five regions of the continent submit candidates for election.⁵⁹ The protocol stipulates criteria the Assembly shall consider in electing members of the PSC. Rough observation of these criteria appears to suggest that members of the PSC are expected to have exemplary behaviour.⁶⁰ Admittedly, this might urge or induce Member States to fulfil their due obligation and will also earn the Council legitimacy in addition to the acknowledgment of the international community the principal purpose of which African states usually tend to target.

⁵⁶ Protocol Relating to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union, adopted 2 March 2001, entered into force 14 December 2003, [hereinafter Protocol of PSC], Art. 7

⁵⁷ Ibid., Art. 7

⁵⁸ Ibid., Art. 5(1)

⁵⁹ Ibid., Art. 5(2)

⁶⁰ Ibid., Art. 5(2) Most of the requirements deal with compliance to the principles & rules of the CA and adherence to Democracy and good governances doctrines.

In its activities the PSC utilizes the support of various bodies. The panel of the Wise,⁶¹the Continental Early Warning System (CEWS),⁶²the African standby force (ASF),⁶³the military staff⁶⁴ and the peace fund⁶⁵ are subordinate organs of the Council and of much help to the latter. The AU commission is also expected to work together with the PSC.⁶⁶

As a permanent decision-making organ, the council shall meet, as often as necessitated by circumstances, at Permanent Representatives level, with two sessions in a month at least.⁶⁷ The Ministers and HSG of members of the PSC are also obliged to meet at least once a year.⁶⁸ The chairperson position will follow the alphabetic order of the existing members for the term of one month.⁶⁹ Each member has an equal vote.⁷⁰ Simple majority for procedural issues and two-third for the remaining is required to adopt a decision when consensus cannot be reached.⁷¹

E. The Permanent Representatives Committee

This organ is the forum in which permanent representatives of the Union and other duly accredited plenipotentiaries of member states meet.⁷² The PRC handles the routine works of the Executive Council, to which it is accountable.⁷³ As an advisory to the Executive Council, the PRC shall prepare the agenda and draft decisions.⁷⁴ It discusses the program and budget

⁶¹ Protocol of the PSC, Art.11(1)-(8)

⁶² Ibid., Art. 12(1)-(7)

⁶³ Ibid., Art. 13(1)-(7)

⁶⁴ Ibid., Art. 13(8)-(12)

⁶⁵ Ibid., Art. 21

⁶⁶ The Chairperson of the Commission brings matters of peace, security and stability in the continent to the attention of the Council and to the panel of the wise. S/he may employ his good offices relating to affairs of conflicts. Besides, s/he ensures and follows up implementation and decisions of the Council and the Assembly. Ibid., Art. 10(2) and(3)

⁶⁷ Protocol of the PSC, Art.8(2)

⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁹ Ibid., Art. 8(6)

⁷⁰ Ibid., Art. 81(12)

⁷¹ Ibid., Art. 8(13)

⁷² Rules of Procedure of the Permanent Representatives Committee Ass/AU/2(I)-c, adopted at First Ordinary Session of Assembly of the African Union, Durban, South Africa 9-10 July 2002,[hereinafter Procedure of PRC], Rule 3

⁷³ Ibid., Rule 2

⁷⁴ Ibid., Rule 4(1)(c)

of the Union, the financial report of the Commission and the Board of External Auditors.⁷⁵ It also monitors the implementation of the budget of the Union and the policies, decisions adopted and agreements concluded by the Council.⁷⁶ Additional matters may also be referred, by the Council to the PRC for consideration and implementation.⁷⁷ An auxiliary aspect of its activities is also facilitation of communication between the Commission and Member States.⁷⁸ This covers power to make recommendations on areas of common interest of member states.⁷⁹

The permanent representatives will meet at the Headquarters at least once in a month.⁸⁰ The quorum will be satisfied where two-third members attend the session.⁸¹ In the absence of consensus, procedural matters, including determination of an issue as procedure, will be taken by simple majority.⁸² All other matters need the consent of two-third majority members.⁸³ Assessed from the perspective of the PRC's advisory power, the requirement of two-third majority appears strict and unwarranted.

F. The Specialized Technical Committees

Other bodies that are accountable to the Executive Council are the Specialized Technical Committees (STC's).⁸⁴ Ministers or officials of various sectors of member states make up the STCs.⁸⁵ These committees, with in the ambit of their mandate, shall

“prepare projects and programs of the Union and submit it to the Executive Council; ensure the supervision, follow up and the evaluation of the implementation of decision taken by the organs of the Union, ensure the coordination and harmonization of projects and programs of the Union; submit to the Executive Council either in its own initiative or at the request of the Executive Council, reports and recommendations on the implementation

⁷⁵ Ibid., Rule 4(1)(f)-(h)

⁷⁶ Ibid., Rule 4(1)(h)

⁷⁷ Ibid., Rule 4(1)(o)-(p)

⁷⁸ Ibid., Rule 4(1) (e)

⁷⁹ Ibid. Rule (d)

⁸⁰ Ibid., Rule 5(1)

⁸¹ Ibid. Rule 6

⁸² Ibid. Rule 13(2) and (3)

⁸³ Ibid. Rule 13(1)

⁸⁴ Constitutive Act, Art.14

⁸⁵ Ibid., Art 14(3)

of the provisions of [the] Act; and carry out any other functions assigned to it for the purpose of ensuring the implementation of the provision of [the] Act.”⁸⁶

Currently, operating STCs are the Committee on Rural Economy and Agricultural matters; the Committee on Monetary and Financial Affairs; the Committee on Trade, Customs and Immigration matters; the Committee on Industry Science and Technology, Energy, Natural Resources and Environment; the Committee on Transport, Communications and Tourism; the Committee on Health, Labour and Social Affairs; and the Committee on Education, Culture and Human Resources. These Committees will meet as often as demanded by their work but subject to any directives given by the Executive Council.⁸⁷

G. The Economic, Social and Cultural Council (ECOSOCC)

Another organ of the union with advisory capacity is the ECOSOCC. Within this organ, the General Assembly, the Standing Committee, Sectorial Cluster Committees and Credentials Committee exist.⁸⁸ The General Assembly is the highest decision making body of the ECOSOCC.⁸⁹ Members of the General Assembly are One hundred fifty (150) Civil Society Organizations (CSOs).⁹⁰ COSs include Social groups, Professional groups, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), Community Based Organizations (CBOs), Voluntary Organizations and Cultural Organizations.⁹¹ CSOs of the African Diaspora, as defined by the Executive Council, are also accorded membership.⁹² The 150 seats will be apportioned, among, 2 CSOs of each Member State, 10 operating at regional and 8 at continental level, 20 African Diaspora Organizations, and 6 of ex-officio capacity nominated by the Commission.⁹³ This distribution of seats will also balance gender equality and representation of the youth between the ages of 18 and 35.⁹⁴ With this composition, the intention is to

⁸⁶ Ibid., Art. 15

⁸⁷ Ibid., Art. 14(1)

⁸⁸ Statute of the Economic, Social and Cultural Council of the African Union ASS/AU/Dec. 48(III), adopted at Fifth session of the Assembly of the African Union, Art 8

⁸⁹ Ibid., Art. 9(1)

⁹⁰ Ibid., Art. 1

⁹¹ Ibid., Art. 3(2)

⁹² Ibid., Art. 3(3)

⁹³ Ibid., Art. 4(1)

⁹⁴ Ibid., Art. 4(2)

allow the broad participation of Africans through representative CSOs and professional groups in the activities of the Union. One writer, commenting on the implication of the establishment of ECOSOCC, says

*"[t]he African Union, unlike its predecessor OAU, seems determined to graduate from 'politicians club' to a people centred and driven regional organization. The ECOSOCC process is a historical opportunity for the formulation of a new social contract between African governments and their people. Involving CSOs in African Union endeavours is a positive move and is a way of involving ordinary citizens of Africa in decision and policy making processes of issues that concern their daily lives."*⁹⁵

Observed from the statute, the ECOSOCC will, indeed, voice the interest of African peoples.

For the accomplishment of this aim, the ECOSOCC is given the floor to contribute: to the translation of the objectives, principles and policies of the Union to concrete programs, in the promotion of popularization, popular participation, human rights, the rule of law, good governance, democratic principles, gender equality and child rights and sharing of best practices and expertise; to foster and consolidate partnership between the Union and the CSOs through effective public enlightenment, mobilization and feedback on the activities of the Union and to undertake studies, when requested or by its own initiative and make recommendations.⁹⁶

Each member of the ECOSOCC General Assembly is provided with an equal vote.⁹⁷All decisions of the Assembly need to be sanctioned by two-third majority members' approval.⁹⁸

H. The African Commission on Human and People's Rights

Established under Art 30 of the African Human and Peoples' Charter (the Banjul charter), the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, a treaty based mechanism, is

⁹⁵ Charles Mutasa, Is the African Union ECOSOCC a New Dawn and a New Deal? , www.sarpn.org.za/documents/d0001191/p1321-ECOSOCC_AU_Mutasa_March2005.pdf.html , P.5

⁹⁶ ECOSOCC Statute, Art.7(1)

⁹⁷ Ibid., Art. 16

⁹⁸ Ibid.

integrated in to the African Union System in 2002.⁹⁹ The functions it assumed, as per Art. 45 of the Banjul Charter, can be generically classified in to three: Promotional mandate, in which the commission is particularly empowered to collect documents, undertake studies and research and make recommendations to governments, formulate principles to solve legal problems and cooperate with continental and international institutions;¹⁰⁰ Protective mandate exercised through interstate communication and other communication procedures, examination of state reports and individual complaints on human rights violations in limited cases;¹⁰¹and Interpretive mandate.¹⁰² Additional tasks may also be referred to it by the Assembly of the African Union¹⁰³

The Commission is composed of eleven members called Commissioners chosen from among African personalities with the highest reputation known for their high morality, integrity, impartiality and competence in human and peoples' rights.¹⁰⁴ The Commissioners also serve in their individual capacities.¹⁰⁵ The Commission meets twice a year for fifteen days.¹⁰⁶ In lately developed trend, the Commission also appoints Rapporteurs and use fact-finding missions.¹⁰⁷ The technical and administrative work of the commission is handled by the Secretariat.¹⁰⁸

The commission, thus, organizes reports and forward recommendations to state parties and the Assembly of the Union.¹⁰⁹

⁹⁹ Decision on the Interim period ASS/AU Dec. 1(I), adopted at the First Ordinary Session of the Assembly of the African Union, 9-10 July 2002, Durban, South Africa, Paragraph XI

¹⁰⁰ African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, adopted 27 June 1981, entered in to force 21 October 1986 [hereinafter African Charter], Art. 45(1)

¹⁰¹ Ibid., Art. 45(1)

¹⁰² Ibid., Art. 45(3)

¹⁰³ Ibid., Art. 45(4)

¹⁰⁴ Ibid., Art. 31(1)

¹⁰⁵ Ibid., Art. 31(2)

¹⁰⁶ _____, The African Commission on Human and peoples' Rights, The Danish Centre for Human Rights (1998)[hereinafter Danish Centre on African Commission] available at <http://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=the%20african%20commission%20on%20human%20and%20peoples2Fwww.humanrights.dk%2Ffiles%2Fpdf%2FPublikationer%2Fafr.commmanus.pdf&w> P. 11

¹⁰⁷ Vincent Nmehielle, The African Human Rights System: Its laws, practice and Institutions (Maritnus Nijhoff, 2001) as quoted in Girmachew, above n 26, p.

¹⁰⁸ Danish Centre on African Commission, above n 106, p.13

¹⁰⁹ Ibid.

I. The AU Commission

The AU commission is the 'Secretariat of the Union'.¹¹⁰ In other words, the AU Commission constitutes the 'engine room' of the Union. The Commission consists of a Chairperson, Deputy Chairperson and eight Commissioners.¹¹¹ And as a permanent organ, it will have the necessary staff. Art. 3(2) of the Statutes of the AU Commission provides for the following major functions:

*"to represent the Union and defend its interests under the guidance of and as mandated by the Assembly and the Executive Council, to initiate proposals for consideration by other organs; implement the decisions taken by other organs; to organize and manage the meetings of the Union; act as the custodian of the CA, its protocols, the treaties, legal instruments, decisions adopted by the Union and those inherited from the OAU; prepare the Union's program and budget for approval by the policy organs; prepare strategic plans and studies for the consideration of the Executive Council and strengthen cooperation and coordination of activities between member states in fields of common interest."*¹¹²

Recently a step has been taken to transform the commission to Authority by the Assembly, though it did not enter into operation.¹¹³ This will make the to-be African Union Authority "the main Pan African body driving African integration."¹¹⁴ With the raise to authority, it is being suggested that the AU Commission should be provided with right of enforcement, power to implement decisions and to enforce treaties so as to gain credibility.¹¹⁵

J. African Court of Justice and Human Rights

An invention in the third institutionalization of Pan Africanism is the African Court of Justice, which is now merged with the African Court of Human Rights (ACHR) and formed the African Court of Justice and Human Rights. This organ is positioned as one of the

¹¹⁰ Constitutive Act, Art.20(1)

¹¹¹ Statute of the Commission of the African Union Ass /AU/2(I)-d, adopted at First Ordinary session of the Assembly of the African Union, 9-10 July 2002, Durban, South Africa, [hereinafter Statutes of AU Commission], Art.2 (1) and Art.6; see also Constitutive Act, Art. 20(2)

¹¹² Ibid., Statutes of AU Commission, Art. 3(2)

¹¹³ AU/Dec 233 (XII) as quoted in Babatunde Fagbayibo, The (Ir)relevance of the Office of the Chair of the African Union Commission: Analysing the Prospects for Change, 56 Journal of African Law 1 2011, P .5

¹¹⁴ Geert Laporte and James Mackie(eds.),Building the African Union: An assessment of Past progress and Future prospects for the African Union's Institutional Architecture(2010), P. 21

¹¹⁵ Ibid.

principal organs of the Union.¹¹⁶ The principle of rule of law seems to get acceptance among African states for the court upholds the supremacy of law.¹¹⁷ This organ, a focal point of this paper, will be explored in further details in the coming sub-topics of this of this chapter.

K. The Financial Institutions

The constitutive Act of the AU also enshrines the creation of three financial institutions to wit the African Investment Bank (AIB), the African Monetary fund (AMF) and the African Central Bank (ACB).¹¹⁸ These institutions have common purpose of facilitating trade within the continent to achieve accelerated economic integration in Africa.¹¹⁹

The African Investment Bank promotes investment activities, and utilizes available resources for the implementation of investment projects, mobilizes resource from capital market inside or outside of the continent and provides technical assistance to investment projects.¹²⁰

The African Monetary Fund, in its part, provides financial assistance to AU member states; coordinates monetary policies of member states and encourage capital flow among African states.¹²¹

Thirdly, the African Central Bank promotes international monetary cooperation ascertainment of exchange stability and work for the elimination of foreign exchange restrictions.¹²²

Preliminary Remarks on Internal Structure of the AU

The institutions of the AU can be categorized differently. Abdul Mohammed divides the institutions into the group of Governing Institutions, Executive Institutions, Accountability

¹¹⁶ Protocol on the Statute of the African Court of Justice and Human Rights, ASS/AU/Dec. 196(XI) adopted on July 1 2008 [hereinafter protocol of New Court], Art. 2

¹¹⁷ Udombana, below n125, p.818

¹¹⁸ Constitutive act, Art.19

¹¹⁹ www.au.int/en/organs/fi

¹²⁰ Ibid.

¹²¹ Ibid.

¹²² Ibid.

Institutions and Technical and Financial Institutions.¹²³ The Pan African Strategic Plan, on the other hand, structures the Pan African Parliament as legislature, the Court of Justice and the African Court of Human and peoples' rights as judiciary and the Executive Council, the STCs, the Financial Institutions, the AU Commission, the PSC, the PRC and the 'ECOSOCC as compartments of the Executive branch but putting the General Assembly at the peak of all the three arms.¹²⁴ Due to scope considerations, no comment will be made on categorization of AU institutions. Rather, basis of classification employed in this study will be defined. For the purpose of this study, internal organs of the Union will be grouped in to three: Policy organs, Judicial or Quasi-judicial organs and Non-policy organs.

Policy Organs are internal institutions of the Union, irrespective of the number of the membership, where the members are delegates of states, and in which political decisions are made or recommended. In the context of the African Union such organs are the GA, the ExC, the PRC and the PSC.

Judicial or Quasi-Judicial organs: are bodies composed of independent and impartial individuals so as to ensure institutional independence from political bias, and resolve disputes between concerned parties, states or otherwise, rendering binding and non-binding pronouncements. The African commission on Human and peoples' Rights and the African Court of Justice and Human rights belong within this group.

Non-policy Organs: These are institutions, such as the Executive organs, that cannot be classified as neither of the two above. Here fall the ECOSOCC, the AU commission, the PAP and the Financial Institutions.

¹²³ Abdul Mohammed, *Toward an Effective African Union: Participation, Institutions and Leadership in the African Union and Strategies for Development in Africa* (Adejumob: & Olukoshi: eds., 2009), p.45

¹²⁴ The 2005 strategic plan, above n 41, p.2

4.3 Evolution of the African Court of Justice and Human Rights

4.3.1 Towards Judicial Organs

The African customary laws have been described as being dominated by non- adversary dispute settlement system.¹²⁵ Confrontation is alien to the system. As Udombana notes 'traditional African dispute settlement places a premium on improving relations between the parties on the basis of equity, good conscience and fair play rather than on strict legality.'¹²⁶ The African system is one of forgiveness, conciliation, open truth, not legal friction or technicality.¹²⁷ African procedures favour consensus and amicable dispute settlement, frowning upon the adversarial and adjudicative procedures common to western legal systems.¹²⁸ The collective interactions of African States have fallen under the influence of this thinking. As a flow from this trend; members of the OAU have preferred non- adjudicatory commissions at continental level.¹²⁹ It appears that the fourth principle of the OAU provides for the settlement of disputes by negotiation, mediation, conciliation and arbitration. This stipulation omits adjudication, which is basically litigation, deliberately. The stringent advocacy of states regarding their sovereignty has also contributed to the preference of OAU members to quasi-judicial mechanisms.¹³⁰

The principal organ in the OAU's dispute settlement architecture was the Commission of Mediation, Conciliation and Arbitration.¹³¹ The commission comprised twenty-one individuals of recognized professional and legal qualification elected by the Assembly Heads

¹²⁵ Taslim O Elias, *The Nature of African Customary Law* (1962) as quoted in Nsongurua J. Udombana, *An African Human Rights Court and An African Union Court: A Needful Duality or A Needless Duplication?*, 28 *Brook J. Int'l L* 811, 2002-03, p.318

¹²⁶ Nsongurua J. Udombana, *Toward the African Court of Human and Peoples' Rights: Better Later Than Never*, 3 *Yale Human Rights and Development L.J.* 45 2000, p.47

¹²⁷ *Ibid.*

¹²⁸ Udombana, above n125, p.818

¹²⁹ Gino Naldi, and Konstantinos Magliveras, *The Proposed African Court of Human and Peoples' Rights: Evaluation and Comparisons*, 8 *Afr. J. Int'l & Comp. L* 949 (1996), p.946

¹³⁰ Udombana, above in 126, p.74 [He states that the insufficient political will of the governments for a regional court was another argument pleaded against a judiciary]; see also, Udombana, above in 125, p.818

¹³¹ Protocol of the Commission of Mediation, Conciliation and Arbitration, 3 *I.L.M.* 1116 (1964) [herein after Protocol of the Commission of Mediation], Art.1; OAU Charter, Art.16

of States and Governments for a term of five years with eligibility to a re-election.¹³² Proceedings could be triggered by the parties jointly by one of the parties to a dispute, by the Council of Ministers and by the Assembly of Heads of states and Governments.¹³³ Once set in motion, the Bureau, which administers the daily work of the commission, would consult the parties as to the appropriate mode of settling out the dispute.¹³⁴ The Ultimate decision as to the medium of settlement lies on the parties to a dispute. As it can be easily understood from the designation of the commission, the available patterns of settlement are: Mediation Conciliation and Arbitration.¹³⁵ In each medium, the parties to dispute involve in one way or another.¹³⁶ In situations where a party to a dispute, referred to the commission, rejects the jurisdiction of the commission, the matter will be returned to the Council of Ministers and becomes political again.¹³⁷ All these speak that adjudication could hardly be said was resorted to by the African states.

The same reluctance of African states was also witnessed when the opportunity to establish the Africa Court of Human Rights was suggested. In a ministerial meeting of OAU majority of the delegates considered that then was 'untimely to discuss the possibility of a court.'¹³⁸ The prescription of judicial settlement in the African charter had worried the drafters that it will hamper and delay ratification of the charter.¹³⁹ Such frustrations commenced in the

¹³² Ibid., Art.2 (1) cum (3)

¹³³ Ibid., Art.8

¹³⁴ Ibid., Art.7

¹³⁵ See Ibid., Part III (Art.20-21) for Mediation; Part IV (Art.22-26) for Conciliation and part V (Art.27-31) arbitration.

¹³⁶ Basically, the Parties to a dispute have power on the process of appointment of the mediator(s), Conciliator(s) or Arbitrator(s) (Protocol of the Commission of Mediation, Art.20, Art .23 & Art.27 (1)). In some of the mediums, the parties retain the power to submit themselves to the outcome of the settlement. ((Ibid., Art.21 (2); Art.28).

¹³⁷ Ibid., Art.14(2)

¹³⁸ The 1981 Guinea proposal of an amendment to the Draft Charter, for the inclusion of a tribunal that adjudicates violations of crime against humanity and protection of human rights, which was an apparent attempt to hold South Africa accountable, was rejected without substantial reason and/or discussion.(Annex I CM/1149(XXXVII) Rapporteur's Report CAB/LEG/67/Draft Rap Rpt (II) Rev 4 at paragraph117) as quoted in Gina Bekker, The African Court on Human and Peoples' Rights: Safeguarding the Interest of Member States, 51 journal of African law 151, 2007, pp 154

¹³⁹ Ibid., pp.153-4

establishment of the African Commission on Human and peoples' Rights-another quasi-judicial body with recommendatory power only.¹⁴⁰

Nevertheless, this attitude of the African states was changed in unprecedented manner with the establishment of the African Economic Community (AEC). A novel idea of the AEC, regarding institution-building, is its incorporation of a Court of Justice.¹⁴¹ The court has been empowered to interpret and apply the Treaty established AEC and adjudication of disputes therein submitted to it.¹⁴² Due to the Washing away of African shyness to compulsory judicial settlement in this way, the OAU General Assembly, surprisingly, called for the consideration of the establishment of an African Court of Human rights and peoples' Rights.¹⁴³ While the turn of African states position to adjudication in relation to the AEC can be explained by the benefit that could accrue from the economic integration, there can barely be concrete justification, regarding the human rights court, other than public pressure of national and international level.

By hook or by crook, Africa observed the existence of two judicial institutions with permanent and compulsory jurisdiction. Though Africa crawled to reach it, the establishment of a judiciary has been a huge development to the continent. The traditional view of Africans towards judicial settlement of disputes converted optimistically. The used to be 'Sacred Sovereignty' of African states has begun to be subjected to non national judiciaries.

¹⁴⁰ Ibid., p.155

¹⁴¹ Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community, adopted 3 July 1991, entered into force 12 May 1994, 30 ILM 1241(1994), Art.7 (1) and Art. 18(1); Udombana, above in 126, p.76 [He states that the plan to establish AEC under the eye of an African Court of Justice avoided the argument that Africans are averse to judicial litigation].

¹⁴² Ibid., AEC Treaty, Art.18(2)

¹⁴³ Resolution on the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, Assembly of Heads of States and Governments, 30th ordinary Session Res. AHB/ Res 230 (XXX) p.212 4 as quoted in Udombana, above in 126, p.76

4.3.2 The Merger of the Two Courts: The African Court of Justice and Human Right

No matter how radical the establishment of two courts is, their coexistence posed some difficulties to the Union. Thus, it did not take long for the Assembly to decide for the integration of the two courts.¹⁴⁴ The prime premise of this decision is unavailability of sufficient recourses to maintain two courts.¹⁴⁵ In support of this position, Kindiki asserts that 'a single court would avoid splitting of resources, both human and financial, towards maintaining two courts.' The significance of this saving on financial and human resources will be appreciated if one takes into consideration the fact that existing institutions in Africa notably the African commission, face severe underfunding and understaffing problems, and this affects their effectiveness.¹⁴⁶

However, Juma views the funding limitation argument as being selective to the judicial arm as the same has not been applied to the duplicity of executive and legislative organs of the Union. But, this shortage of finance and resources was a clear problem of the OAU still suffering the AU.¹⁴⁷ Therefore, this resource related limitation is an inescapable reality of the Union than a manipulative ground. In the words of Udombano, 'Africa must act cautiously in light of the AU's present reality. Establishing two courts seems overly ambitious given the serious financial challenges of the AU.'¹⁴⁸

Moreover Udombana forecasted the simultaneous existence of the two courts might produce conflicting interpretations and result in departed legal norms.¹⁴⁹ Absence of hierarchy between the courts contributes to the fragmentation that may ensure from the dual existence of the courts.¹⁵⁰ Viljoen and Baimu, concurring with Udombano, also suggest that

¹⁴⁴ Decisions of the AU Assembly of Heads of state and government Doc. ASS/AU/ Dec 45 (III), Third Summit held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia 6-8 July 2004

¹⁴⁵ Ibid., Paragraph II

¹⁴⁶ Kithure Kindiki, The Proposed Integration of the African Court of Justice and the African Court of Human and People's Rights: Legal Difficulties and Merits, 15 Afr. J. Int'l & Comp. L. 138 2007, p.144

¹⁴⁷ Dan Juma, Lost (or) Found in transition? The Anatomy of the New African Court of Justice and Human Rights, 13 Max Planck UNYB 267 2009, p.267

¹⁴⁸ Udombana, above in 125, p.863

¹⁴⁹ Ibid., p.859

¹⁵⁰ Ibid.

a single court will offer a ground for development of a unified, integrated, cohesive and hopefully indigenous jurisprudence for Africa.¹⁵¹

However, Jamu is skeptical as to whether the courts' coexistence would amount to proliferation and prefers to consider it as 'a process of institutional growth to meet emerging needs.'¹⁵² He reaches this conclusion relying on the differences of mandate and philosophical basis of the courts.¹⁵³ But again, the interpretive mandate of the African Court of Justice includes treaties made within the ambit of the Union.¹⁵⁴ A number of these treaties¹⁵⁵ are of human rights. Therefore, the overlapping jurisdiction of the two courts is undeniable. Though the philosophical base the Human Rights Court differ from that of the court of Justice, this alone, would not avoid the resultant confusion from the judgments of the courts. Whatever care had been undertaken in the allocation of mandate, the two courts would have intruded in the territories of each other. This may occur, for example, in human rights and economic matters, fields which cannot be isolated successfully from one another.¹⁵⁶

The integration of the Courts is, therefore, persuasive for the above practical and theoretical factors. The decision has also been reached after the extensive scrutiny of other options of achieving the integration.¹⁵⁷ Ultimately, however, the General Assembly of the Union decided the merger of the two through the adoption of a single legal instrument designated

¹⁵¹ Frans Viljoen and Evarist Baimu, *Courts for Africa: Considering the Co-existence of the African Court on Human and Peoples' Right and the African Court of Justice*, 22 *Neth. Q. Hum. Rts.* 241 2004, p.253

¹⁵² Jamu, above n 147, p.277

¹⁵³ *Ibid.*

¹⁵⁴ Protocol of the New Court, Art.19 (1) (b)

¹⁵⁵ See below Section 3.5.1

¹⁵⁶ Viljoen and Baimu, above n 151, p.253

¹⁵⁷ Report of the PRC and Legal Experts on Various Legal Matters Ex-CL/195/VII adopted at 7th ordinary Session of the Executive Council of the AU 28 June-5 July, 2005, Sirte Libya, pp. 2-8. Three alternatives had been forwarded. Option one was the adoption of a single instrument to establish a new integrated court. This was appraised as allowing the taking into account of all legal requirements, though complex and time consuming. Interim arrangements were required. Option two was the adoption of a short and simple amending protocol that charts the way forward and accelerating the establishment of the merged court and avoiding problems that may follow the operationalization of the Human Right Court early. Option three was adoption a decision by the Assembly which would decide the operationalization of the Human Rights Court and provide that once both protocols have entered into force harmonization of both protocols would be conducted.

'The protocol on the Statue of the African Court of Justice and Human Rights.'¹⁵⁸ This protocol replaced the 1998 Protocol to the African Charter on Human and peoples' Right on the establishment of an African court of Human Rights and peoples' Right, which entered into force on 25 January 2004 and the Protocol of the Court of Justice of the African Union, entered in to force February 11, 2008.¹⁵⁹ This new protocol merged the two former courts to establish the 'African Court of Justice and Human Rights.'¹⁶⁰

The court shall have two sections: Human Rights Section dealing with cases concerning human and/or peoples' rights issues and General Affairs Section hearing all other matters outside the competence of the human rights Section.¹⁶¹ Each section has, again, the power to form one or several chambers.¹⁶² The decision of any section or chamber would be considered as rendered by the Full Court.¹⁶³ When members of either section deemed may engage in the jurisdiction of the other for one of the sections can refer a case before itself to the Full Court,¹⁶⁴ the quorum for the deliberation of which shall be nine judges.¹⁶⁵

4.4 Present Role and Status of the African Court of Justice and Human Rights

Art 5 of the CA names the African Court of Justice and Human Rights as one organ of the union.¹⁶⁶ In the Protocol [statute] of the new court, the status of the court is indicated more clearly as the 'main judicial organ' of the union.¹⁶⁷ In fact, this is a reiteration of the status of the African Court of Justice as principal judicial organ of the Union.¹⁶⁸ The change from the term 'principal' to 'main' does not show substantial difference of meaning.

¹⁵⁸ Protocol of the New Court, Art.2

¹⁵⁹ Ibid., Art.1

¹⁶⁰ Ibid., Art.2

¹⁶¹ Ibid., Art.16 cum 17 (1) and (2)

¹⁶² Ibid., Art.19 (1)

¹⁶³ Ibid., Art.19 (2)

¹⁶⁴ Ibid., Art.18

¹⁶⁵ Ibid., Art.21 (1)

¹⁶⁶ Constitutive Act, Art.5 (d); See also AEC Treaty, Art.7 (1) (c)

¹⁶⁷ Protocol to the New Court, Art.2 (2)

¹⁶⁸ Protocol of the Court of Justice of the African Union, adopted 11 July 2003, entered into force on 11 February 2008, AU Doc. Ass./AU/Dec. 25(II) (hereinafter protocol of the ACJ), Art.2

Incorporation of a judicial body, as a principal organ, into the system of international organizations has become indispensable to political organizations directed to achieve peace and Security. As mentioned by Rosenne, in his observation of the UN, '... the world political organization, already possessed of executive, deliberative and administrative organs, would be incomplete unless it possessed a fully integrated judicial organ of its own.'¹⁶⁹ Subsequent international organizations seem to follow this line of institution building.

Though the OAU had been created a decade and something later after the establishment of the UN, the time in which inclusion of judicial bodies into international organizations have begun to be propagated loudly, African states turned deaf ears to such system of organization. Let alone to include a principal judicial organ, adjudication as dispute settlement mechanism had been avoided deliberately from OAU's peace and security management.¹⁷⁰ Therefore, the grant of 'main judicial organ' status to the ACJHR is a radical jump. This at least testifies to the fact that African states endorsed adjudication as a pacific dispute resolution means.¹⁷¹

Again the recognition of the Court as main judicial organ shows the hierarchical equality of the court with other political, administrative and advisory organs of the union. The court can entertain a matter brought before its table regardless of the fact that it is pending before any organ of the Union. The Assembly, the supreme organ of the Union, itself cannot take or suspend matters being heard before the court, due to the sole reason that it is engaging on the same issue, so long as the court handles it in its judicial function.¹⁷² No power of deferral is given to the Assembly and conversely no prohibition has been stipulated on the

¹⁶⁹ Shabati Rosenne, *The World Court: What It Is and How It Works* (4th ed., 1999), pp.27-28

¹⁷⁰ See Section 3.3.1.

¹⁷¹ Even though peaceful resolution of conflicts among member states of the Union is a principle of the AU, the means for that is not indicated in the Constitutive Act. The appropriate means to be employed depends upon the decision of the Assembly (Constitutive Act, Art.4)

¹⁷² Nowhere in legal documents of the Union has the Assembly be given power to do so. See Art 9 of the CA and Rule 4 of the procedure of the assembly. More importantly also, no specific matter has been pre-determined as purely political, non-justiciable and unsuitable for judicial determination. In quite contrast, the ACJHR is granted jurisdiction 'over all cases and legal disputes.' (See Art. 28 of the Protocol of the New Court)

court, i.e. not to simultaneously handle issues with other organs in the AU system. Observation of the UN system appears also to suggest similar conclusion.¹⁷³

Moreover, the court is not subject to any control relating to its judicial function and is kept independent in the exercise of its substantive mandate.¹⁷⁴ The election of members of the court and approval of the court's budget by the Assembly do not constitute control and imply no hierarchical priority of the Assembly.¹⁷⁵ Quite rather, the court has been accorded power of review relating to the activities of all other organs either principal or subsidiary. And when the court finds the act invalid or illegal, unlike the Assembly, it has the power to rectify.¹⁷⁶ This may imply hierarchical superiority of the Court.

Furthermore, the impact of this status of the court has also a ripple effect on human rights matters. Firstly, it avoids the marginalization of human rights cases to the periphery of the AU.¹⁷⁷ Thus, therein forth issues of violations of human and peoples' rights would be dealt by the main judicial organ of the Union. This, in turn, creates the situation in which "human rights issues will now be mainstreamed into the conversation of other organs of the Union, through the provisions, for instance, on the enforcement of judgments."¹⁷⁸

Another repercussion of the mainstreaming of human rights issues to the Court relates to compliance as Jamu contends. His argument is that there could no more be selective non-compliance to human rights judgments.¹⁷⁹ For him, a state, accepting the interpretation of the General Affairs Section cannot reject the judgment of the human rights.¹⁸⁰ Therefore, the mainstreaming induces compliance to human rights judgments.

In general, the AU system has accorded the court a prominent position which allows it to play huge roles in relation to the adherence to rule of law. And, of course, this must be

¹⁷³ Rosenne, above in 169, p.33

¹⁷⁴ Art. 12(1) and (2) Protocol of the New Court

¹⁷⁵ Rosenne, above n 169, p.30

¹⁷⁶ Protocol to the New Court, Art.28 (e)

¹⁷⁷ Jamu, above in 147, p.280

¹⁷⁸ Ibid.

¹⁷⁹ Ibid., 281

¹⁸⁰ Ibid. [He states: "... if states comply with the decision of the court on the interpretation of general legal issues, their non-compliance with the court's human rights decisions would be seen to be selective.]

accompanied with the election of active personalities on the judgeship so that the court could prove itself effective and efficient. This largely depends on how creatively the mandate and jurisdiction of the court will be interpreted.

4.4.1 Composition of the court

The court consists of sixteen (16) judges whom shall be nationals of state parties to the court's Protocol.¹⁸¹ From among the sixteen judges, each regions of the continent will be represented by three judges except the western region that shall be represented by four judges.¹⁸² No more than one judge from a single country sits in the court.¹⁸³ The protocol thus, stresses on geographical representation than individual member states. One member, one judge approach is not the rule.¹⁸⁴ It is also explicitly stated that gender and principal legal traditions representation need to be ensured in the election process.¹⁸⁵

Members of the court are required to discharge their functions and duties impartially and independently.¹⁸⁶ They shall act in their personal capacity.¹⁸⁷ Meaning, the judges must not be subject to the direction or control of any person or body. Institutionally as well, the court is demanded to act impartially, fairly and justly.¹⁸⁸ The judges are also expected to be persons of high moral character who possess the qualifications required in their respective countries for the appointment of the highest judicial offices, or be juris consults of recognized competence and experience in international law and/or human rights law.¹⁸⁹ A judge will in principle, stay in office for six (6) years in the court once elected with the possibility of a re-election.¹⁹⁰ But, four judges from each section, whom will be determined by a lot drawn,

¹⁸¹ Protocol to the New Court, Art.3 (1)

¹⁸² Ibid., Art.3 (3). These regions are North Africa, South Africa, West Africa, East Africa and Central Africa. [Art. 1(d) of the AEC Treaty]

¹⁸³ Ibid., Art.3 (2)

¹⁸⁴ Konstantinos D. Magliveras & Gino J. Naldi, *The African Court of Justice*, 66 ZaoRV 187 2006, p.194

¹⁸⁵ Protocol to the New Court, Art.7 (4) and (5)

¹⁸⁶ Ibid., Art.13 (1) first paragraph

¹⁸⁷ Ibid., Art.12 (3)

¹⁸⁸ Ibid.

¹⁸⁹ Ibid., Art.4

¹⁹⁰ Ibid., Art.8 (1) first paragraph

shall terminate after four years of service.¹⁹¹ The president and vice president of the court, elected for three years, will be elected at the first ordinary session of the court.¹⁹² Except the president and the vice president, all remaining judges will perform on part-time basis.¹⁹³ Another permanent appointee of the court is the Registrar.¹⁹⁴ As required, other officers may also be appointed.¹⁹⁵ The judges will enjoy all the privileges and immunities accorded to diplomatic agents in international law.¹⁹⁶ In particular, they will be immune from legal proceedings for any act or omission committed in their official capacity and the immunity will extend after cessation of their term for acts performed in carrying their judicial functions.¹⁹⁷

4.4.2 Jurisdiction of the Court

The court constituted in the stated above manner shall assume jurisdiction over all cases and legal disputes regarding the interpretation and application of the CA, the interpretation, application and validity of Treaties and all other subsidiary legal instruments adopted within the (O)AU legal framework; interpretation and application of the African Charter, the Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the child, the protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on Rights of Women in Africa, or any other legal instrument relating to human rights, ratified by the state parties concerned; any question in international law; all acts, decisions regulations and directives of the organs of the Union; all matters specifically provided for in any other agreements that state parties may conclude among themselves, or with the Union and which confer jurisdiction on the court; the existence of any fact, which if established would constitute a breach of an obligation owed to a state party or to the Union; and the nature and extent of the reparation to be made for the breach of an international obligation.¹⁹⁸

¹⁹¹ Ibid., Art.8 (1) second paragraph and Art.8 (2)

¹⁹² Ibid., Art.22 (1) first paragraph

¹⁹³ Ibid., Art.8 (4)

¹⁹⁴ Ibid., Art.22 (4)

¹⁹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁹⁶ Ibid., Art.15 (1)

¹⁹⁷ Ibid., Art.15 (2)

¹⁹⁸ Ibid., Art.28

Basis of the new court's jurisdictions are the above instances only. One source of jurisdiction but lost in transition from ACJ to ACJHR is the referral of disputes by the General Assembly.¹⁹⁹ In the Protocol establishing ACJ, the Assembly had been empowered to confer power over any dispute not covered by the jurisdiction of the court as specified under Art 19(1) to the Court. This, however, was deleted in the protocol of the new court. A possible reason for the omission may be the broadened jurisdiction of the court with the transition of the ACJ.²⁰⁰ No matter how broad judicial power is given to the new court, unpredicted scenarios may still arise. Yet it would have created an opportune occasion of expansion of the court's jurisdiction without amending the protocol. It might have become helpful to address new developments, such as standing of persons before the court, on which African states have not reached an agreement today.

In resolving the dispute at its hand, the court shall have regard to the constitutive Act, general or particular international treaties ratified by contesting states, customary international law, general principles of law recognized universally or peculiar to African states, judicial decision, writing of publicists and regulations, directives and decisions of the Union to determine rule of law subsidiarily, and any other law relevant to determination of the case.²⁰¹ The court has also power to decide *ex aequo et bono* case but only when the parties consent so.²⁰²

4.5 Authoritative Interpretation in the AU System

4.5.1 The Legal Frame Work

To recall our discussion in the previous chapter, the task of interpretation is clarification of meanings and favouring one sense of the meaning from among many different possibilities of understanding.²⁰³ When such rendered clarification is meant to bind others, it will be

¹⁹⁹ Protocol to the ACJ, Art.19 (2)

²⁰⁰ Protocol of the New Court, Art.28 (1). The provision is a new addition to the court of Justice of the Union. And it is a consequence of the merger of the former African Human Rights Court.

²⁰¹ Ibid., Art.31 (1)

²⁰² Ibid., Art.31 (2)

²⁰³ See Section 2.3.1.

called authoritative interpretation.²⁰⁴ Usually, an organ would be invested with such power of interpretation as distinct from the routine activity of giving meaning of most organs of international organizations.²⁰⁵

The OAU Charter had given this mandate of interpretation to the General Assembly of the OAU.²⁰⁶ This plenary organ, where in all members of the Unity had seats, was given this task as states would be enabled to control any interpretation threatening their sovereignty. Hence, the interpretation scheme of the Unity may be characterized as political. Any pronouncement of interpretation was required to be sanctioned by the two-third majority of the states in the Assembly.²⁰⁷

With the succession of AU, this task of interpretation was depoliticized; the Court of Justice and Human Rights being endowed with power of interpretation.²⁰⁸ The major difference between the system of interpretation in the OAU and AU is that "... unlike the Assembly, the ACJ (now ACJHR) would have to give reasons for its findings, issuing considered judgments in a judicial setting.²⁰⁹ In the opinion of Viljoen and Baimu, a court's role is less political and could serve to depoliticize conflict.²¹⁰ Establishing the ACJHR will also ensure an element of independence from a more political body, the AU Assembly." In the present setting of the Union, interpretation is the most important activity of the court. It is this competence of the court only that is granted in verbatim in the Constitutive Act of the Union while the other mandates of the court are left to a protocol.²¹¹

This mandate of the court is to be exercised relating to three different legal instruments: the Constitutive Act, the Union Treaties and subsidiary legal instruments.²¹²

²⁰⁴ Ibid.

²⁰⁵ In the UN, for example, each organ of the UN is free itself to interpret the Charter as and when circumstances require.

²⁰⁶ OAU Charter, Art.27; Note that the Rules of Procedure of the OAU Assembly did not list 'interpretation of the Charter' as function of the Organ.

²⁰⁷ Ibid.

²⁰⁸ Constitutive Act, Art.26

²⁰⁹ Protocol of ACJ, Art.35 (1)

²¹⁰ Viljoen and Biamu, above in 151, p.256

²¹¹ Constitutive Act, Art.26

²¹² Protocol to the New Court, Art.28

i) The Constitutive Act of the Union: This is the constitutional instrument of the African Union. The Act is made up of thirty-three articles which can be roughly segmented into normative and institutional parts and the preamble. The normative portion includes the objectives and purposes of the Union, the governing principles and others substantive and procedural provisions. The remaining provisions relate to matters of institutions of the Union. Compared to constitutive instruments of other IOs, the CA is short.²¹³ All these magnify the importance of interpretation of the Act. Needless to say, interpretation of constitutions of IOs is at core of their well-functioning. So is to AU. In fact, it would be paramount in the case of AU whose members are very protective of their sovereignty in a manner that could incapacitate the adaptation of the Union to present and future contingencies in the continent. Hence, interpretation of the CA must be undertaken with the utmost care to balance the interest of the member states and proper functioning of the Union. With this regard Udombana suggests that the court should lean towards the teleological and functional approach of interpretation.²¹⁴ When the issue of interpretation relates to the AU Act, he adds, "...a flexible and effective approach will be justified."²¹⁵ The preamble and purposes and objectives part of the Act will, definitely, be consulted and serve as a guide.

Regarding the scope of interpretation, Naldi and Magliveras had noticed discrepancy between Art 19 of the ACJ Protocol and Art 28 of the Constitutive Act. The former refers to "interpretation and application of the Act" whereas the latter subject all "interpretation arising from the application and implementation" of the same to the jurisdiction of the court. This latter clause embraces wide situations than the former and has broader scope.²¹⁶ The same disparity has been repeated in the Protocol of the new Court.²¹⁷ The protocol, thus, has a restricting effect of the scenarios envisaged under the Constitutive Act.

²¹³ For example, the UN Charter has more than a hundred provisions. The EU Treaties has more than 200 provisions.

²¹⁴ Udombana above in 29, p.107

²¹⁵ Ibid.

²¹⁶ Magliveras and Naldi, above in 184, p.198

²¹⁷ Protocol to the New Court, Art.28 (2)

The important dimension of the Court's interpretation of the CA is its binding effect up on parties beyond disputants to the case and arguably up on subsequent cases.²¹⁸ Unlike other decisions of the court, the rendition of the court relating to the interpretation of the CA binds all organs of the Union. This is an exception to the rule that binding force of the decision of the court is limited to parties to the case.²¹⁹ The relevant provision Art 50(3) of the Protocol of the new court reads:

"The decision of the court concerning the interpretation and application of the CA shall be binding on Member States and organs of the Union, notwithstanding the provisions of paragraph 1, of Art 46 of this statute."

This provision marks the authoritative feature of the court's interpretive decisions. It is due to this extensive obligatory aspect of the decision of the Court that member states and organs of the Union are allowed to present their argument and position intervening in a case involving interpretation of the CA.²²⁰ This procedure aims at securing the say of states and organs of the Union on the constitutional document of the Union. This may be assimilated to the right to be heard. Before the court gives judgments that is final up on all states and organs, it is expected to listen the view of the latter. To intervene in a case, member states are required to express their interest following which the Registrar of the court will notify the remaining states and organs.²²¹ State Parties and organs notified in this manner have the right to intervene in the proceedings. It should be observed that Art 50 of the new Protocol envisages the possibility of expression of interest by Member States only.²²² Organs of the union, however, are not allowed to manifest their interest, which, pursuant to the protocol, appears to initiate the procedure

²¹⁸ Constitutive Act, Art.50 (3). The decision on subsequent cases will be binding arguably. Because, any section of the court is required to refer cases in which it wants to change its earlier positions. Otherwise, it may not change the interpretation it rendered once.

²¹⁹ Constitutive Act, Art.46 (1)

²²⁰ Protocol to the New Court, Art.50 (1)

²²¹ Ibid.

²²² Ibid. It reads: "Whenever the question of interpretation of the Constitutive Act arises, in a case in which Member states other than the parties to the dispute have expressed an interest, the Registrar shall notify all such states and organs of the Union forthwith.

of the intervention so that the Registrar will notify other organs and state parties.²²³ In the opinion of the present writer there is no convincing reason not to allow the same to organs of the Union and seems to be unsound distinction. It is not hard to imagine manipulative behaviour of Member states relating to the interpretation of the Act. The effect of this distinction is, thus, that organs of the Union will be denied standing where they observe interpretational concern in disputes they are not parties and no member state has expressed interest in the same dispute. One possible mechanism for the organs of the Union to escape this limitation would be to utilize Art 49 of the new protocol.²²⁴ Under this provision, any state member or organ is allowed to submit its request to be permitted to intervene in a case where it considers "it has an interest of a legal nature which may be affected by the decision of the case." But, in this provision the requesting organ is expected to prove their threatened interest of a legal nature, unlike the wide standard of 'interest' under Art 50(1) which includes other interests than those of legal nature. The outcome of the case has also to have huge impact on the decision of the court to permit the intervention. The utility of this provision as redress to the mentioned problem, thus, depends to a large extent on the judicial activism of the court.

Still, the organs may avail themselves of the provision which allows the court to invite member states, organs of the Union and any person concerned to take part in the case where effective administration of justice requires.²²⁵ In this instance as well, all things depend on the meaning the court gives to the phrase "effective administration of justice." This forces us to await the jurisprudence of the court yet to develop.

Though the Rules of procedure of the Court will indicate the various forms of the court's decisions, in the protocol of the new court, two common forms have been implied: decisions and opinions. One question, then pop-up to the scene: Are all interpretive pronouncements of the court given in the form of either decisions or opinions authoritative? In my opinion,

²²³ Pursuant to the provision, Expression of interest precedes the notification to be made by the Registrar. In other words, it is only when the states express their interest that the registrar contacts the concerned states and organs.

²²⁴ Protocol to the New Court, Art.49 (1)

²²⁵ Ibid., Art.49 (3)

No, they are not; because, the obligatory sense is limited to interpretations rendered in the form of decisions. The term 'decisions,' in Art 50(3) of the protocol, discerns that opinions of the court do not oblige extra-disputant parties. In fact, strictly speaking, advisory opinions are not even binding or decisive by their nature. This, however, should not be taken as suggesting that advisory opinions are not binding upon advice requesting parties.

The decision of the court in connection with interpretation of the Act need to be sanctioned by a qualified majority of at least two votes and the presence of at least two-thirds of the judges. This means at least 6 of the 9 judges must be present and interpretive decisions must be made by 9-7 vote at each Sections.

The last associated issue that needs to be addressed with regard to the CA interpretation is whether the court would be bound by its own decision. On the one hand, the articulation of Art 50 (3) of the Protocol states that organs of the Union are bound by interpretive pronouncement of the Court. This may suggest the inclusion of the court itself as being bound by the decision. On the other hand, judicial decisions are to be regarded by the court as subsidiary source of law, being subject to Art 46 (1) of the new protocol that limits the binding force of the court's judgment to parties to the dispute. Otherwise put, this provision declares that judicial decision can be consulted by the court albeit such decisions will not have obligatory force other than on those to that particular case concerning which the judgment is given. This far the status of the former decision of the court is clear, therefore, the decision of the court is short of precedential effect.

But still the court cannot easily disregard its former decision. They have strong persuasive force over subsequent cases. They ought to be changed by the rendition of the Full Court only.

ii) Treaties of the Union: The second category up on which the court will give its interpretive opinions and verdicts are the numerous treaties concluded under the Union or the organization of African Unity. In the protocol of the replaced ACJ, the court's treaty

interpretation mandate has been limited to the Union Treaties.²²⁶ It remained doubtful whether Art 19 (1) (b) of the ACJ protocol endowed power of interpretation over treaties entered in the aegis of the OAU. This thinking emanated from the clause “the interpretation, application and validity of Union Treaties.” Some had suggested that the treaties entered in to under the OAU are also included within the term Union Treaties since AU has succeeded the OAU.²²⁷

Nevertheless, this confusion has disappeared for good due to the new Protocol of the court. There in, it has been clearly stated that the court interprets treaties concluded before the transition to the AU. The respective provision reads:

“ The court shall have jurisdiction over all cases and all legal disputes submitted to it in accordance with the present statute which relate to ... (b) the interpretation application and validity of other Union Treaties ... adopted within the framework of the Union or the Organization of African Unity”

The treaties presently in force, *inter alia* are, Treaty Establishing the African Economic Community (1991), the African Charter on Human and peoples’ Rights (1981), the Convention on the Ban of the Import into Africa and the Control of Trans-boundary Movement and Management of Hazardous Wastes Within Africa (1991), the Convention on the Prevention and Combating of Terrorism (1999). Some of the treaties include stipulations that their interpretation may be brought before the court. The Non- Aggression and Common Defence pact of the African Union is an example of such treaties.²²⁸ The various protocols adopted by the Union also fall within the term ‘Union Treaties’. To name few, Protocol relating to the Pan-African Parliament, Protocol establishing the Peace and Security Council and the Protocol on the statute of the African Court of Justice and Human rights.²²⁹

Both sections of the court will be seized with interpretation of treaties and issues falling within their respective competencies. However, in contrast to interpretations involving the

²²⁶ Protocol of the ACJ, Art.19 (b). It states that the court would have jurisdiction over “the interpretation or Validity of the Union treaties...”

²²⁷ Magliveras and Naldi, above in 184, p.198

²²⁸ The African Union Non-Aggression and Common Defense Pact, adopted on July 1 2005 and entered into force on Dec 18 2009, Art. 16

²²⁹ Statute of the African Union Commission in International law is a recent addition to this category. It entered into force on Feb 04 2009.

AU constitution, decisions of the court on interpretation of other treaties do not end up binding state parties and organs of the Union.²³⁰ Rather, the parties to the case will only be obliged by the judgment.²³¹ But, if a state party or organ intervened in a case involving treaty interpretation after being notified by the Registrar, the outcome of the proceeding in which it took part will bind it.²³² The rationale for this approach is assurance of “collective enforcement” of resulting judgments in issues where state parties and AU organs have an interest.²³³ The power of the Registrar, under Art 51 is expanded than that of Art 50 of the new protocol. In the latter case, the notification to all state parties and organs, by the Registrar occurs after the expression of interest by at least one non-disputant state.²³⁴ But in Art 51, whenever a question of interpretation of other [than the Constitutive Act] treaties ratified by member states besides the parties to a dispute arises, the Registrar will send its notifications.²³⁵ Therefore, the Registrar initiates the intervention proceeding. Empowering the Registrar similarly in cases concerning the interpretation of the CA would have been justified more as the Registrar will also play key role in the facilitation of representation of all concerned states.

One point that must call a focus in this regard is the inapplicability of the intervention proceeding specified under Art.51 to cases presented to the court pursuant to Art.29 and 30 of the Protocol. The two provisions deal with alleged violation of human and peoples’ right. When read conjunctively, the three provisions imply that the intervention procedures enshrined under Art.51 apply in pure interpretation cases of human rights treaties.²³⁶ As Jamu contends, the exclusion of human rights, which impose obligation *erga omnes*, from matter to be intervened by state parties or organs of the Union is not clear for all states have

²³⁰ Protocol to the New Court, Art.51 (2)

²³¹ Ibid., Art.49 (1)

²³² Ibid., Art.51 (2)

²³³ Jamu, above in 147, p.296

²³⁴ Protocol to the New Court, Art.50

²³⁵ Ibid., Art.51

²³⁶ Ibid., Art.51 (1), Art.29 and Art.30 cum Art.51 (8)

legal interest in their protection.²³⁷ But still when read conjunctively what the three provisions imply is that Art.51 will apply in pure interpretation cases of human rights.

The vote of the court required in the interpretation of treaties is different from the qualified majority vote system applicable in case of interpretation of the CA.²³⁸ The decision of such issues must be made by the normal vote of the court, i.e. a majority of the judges present with a casting vote of the presiding judge in the event of equality of votes.²³⁹

iii) Subsidiary Legal Instruments: The definition of this term is not provided in the Protocol of the new court. But the meaning may be implied. Activities of the AU Organs are not specified on the CA, protocols and other treaties of the (O) AU only. Beyond these, legal documents such as Rules of procedures are utilized hugely.²⁴⁰ Almost every organ adopts or presents its rules of procedure for adoption to the ExC.²⁴¹ This legal instrument, thus, squarely falls within the notion subsidiary legal instrument of the statute. They are subordinate to protocols or statutes establishing Union Organs.²⁴²

In addition a number of internal bodies of the Union give binding decisions.²⁴³ In 2000, the decisions of AU Organs have been reported as reaching over two-thousand.²⁴⁴ The legal force of resolutions, now is agreed upon by scholars, depends on the subject matter of the resolution. Former Legal Counsellor of the OAU, Maluwa, agrees with Szasz's proposition that

"...for most part the legally effective decisions of IO's are those that relate to the organization itself; thus competent representative organs can establish regulations and rules of the organization, adopt programs and

²³⁷ Jamu, above n 147, p.296

²³⁸ Cf: Constitutive Act, Art.50 (4) and 42 (1)

²³⁹ Protocol to the New Court, Art.42 (1)

²⁴⁰ See Rules of Procedure of the General Assembly, the Executive Council the PSC, the Pan African Parliament.

²⁴¹ The Executive Council (Constitutive Act, Art.12) & The Pan African-Parliament (PAP Protocol, Art.12 (1) adopt their own procedures. The ECOSOCC (ECOSOCC statute, Art.17), the PRC (Procedure of PRC, Rule 29) and STCs (procedure of the council, rule 5 (1) (p)) are required to get the approval of the executive council to adopt their own Rules of Procedure.

²⁴² For example, Constitutive Act, Art.8 and Art.12; See also ECOSOCC Statute, Art.17

²⁴³ See Section for more Rule 33 of Procedure of the Assembly, Rule 34 of procedure of the Executive.

²⁴⁴ Tiyanjana Maluwa, International Law-Making in the Organization of African Unity: An Overview, 12 Afr. J. Int'l and Comp. L. 201 2000, p.214

*budgets etc. All such decisions are internally and legally binding effective and therefore 'law' within and for the organization.*²⁴⁵

One important Resolution of this kind of the OAU is Resolution AHG/Res.16(I) on Border Disputes Among African states.²⁴⁶

4.5.2 The *Ad Hoc* Interpretive Mandate of the General Assembly

The protocol of the new court and its annexed statute of the court have not entered into force yet.²⁴⁷ Consequently, no interpretation by the court has been rendered so far. However, the CA has entrusted the General Assembly with temporary interpretation mandate till the court stands on its own. Second statement of Art.26 states that "...Pending its establishment, such [interpretation of the CA] matters shall be submitted to the Assembly of the union, which shall decide by a two-third majority."²⁴⁸

As a matter of fact, the protocol of the ACJ had entered in to force in 2008 after the ratification of the 15th state.²⁴⁹ But, this event was followed by the decision of the Assembly to merge the courts. An issue that may arise here is thus whether the entry into force of the protocol of the ACJ ends the *ad hoc* interpretation power of the Assembly.

The mentioned provision empowers the Assembly with competence to interpret CA "pending the establishment of the court.' Therefore, the question will turn to whether the ratification amounts to the establishment of the Court. In my opinion, no it does not. Because, the establishment of the court requires further steps than the mere entry into force of the protocol. Such steps are presentation of candidates to the Assembly,²⁵⁰ the election of the qualified judges²⁵¹ and administrating oath and making a solemn declaration²⁵² on the

²⁴⁵ Ibid., p.214

²⁴⁶ Ibid., pp.214-216

²⁴⁷ Since the date of adoption, 1 July 2008, only 27 States have signed the Protocol. From among these signatories, Burkina Faso, Mali, and Kenya only have ratified the protocol and deposited their ratification with the Commission. [www.au.int/en/sites/default/files/protocol on statute of the African Court of Justice and HR_1.pdf.html](http://www.au.int/en/sites/default/files/protocol_on_statute_of_the_African_Court_of_Justice_and_HR_1.pdf.html)

²⁴⁸ Constitutive Act, Art.26

²⁴⁹ It entered into force on 11 February 2008.

²⁵⁰ Protocol to the New Court, Art.5

²⁵¹ Ibid., Art.7

one hand and the appointment of the Registrar and employment of other staff of the court,²⁵³ on the other hand. All these remaining, it cannot be said that the court has been established. The single effect of the protocol's entry into force is, thus, giving breath to the stipulations regarding the remaining steps and making them applicable. As a result, the General Assembly still retains the provisional mandate of interpreting the CA.

The Act's preference of the Assembly for this purpose emanates from its position at the apex of the organs of the union.²⁵⁴ All states are also represented in it so that any act threatening, when observed from the perspective of states, would be controlled. Realizing this, thus Udombana asks whether the member states of the Assembly would have the independence of thought and action to give an unbiased interpretation of matters arising from the application and implementation of the Act."²⁵⁵ The Rules of procedure of Assembly does not prescribe the procedure how the Assembly reaches at interpretive decision except stating it as power and function of the Assembly.²⁵⁶ It appears from here that the Rules of Procedure assumes that no different procedure is required and it will be undertaken in similar pattern of other mandates of the Assembly. And this, as Udombana has feared, might subject interpretation mandates to political consideration.

This *ad hoc* function of the Assembly, however relates to interpretation of the CA only. In other words, the Assembly is not given power of interpretation of treaties and other legal instruments.²⁵⁷ Pending the establishment of the new court, therefore, interpretation of human rights related treaties will be the jurisdiction of the African Human Right Court. All cases and disputes "concerning the application of the Charter [African Human and peoples'

²⁵² Ibid., Art.11

²⁵³ Ibid., Art.22 (4)

²⁵⁴ Constitutive Act, Art.6 (2); See also Procedure of the Assembly, Rule 2

²⁵⁵ Udombana, above in 29, p.108

²⁵⁶ The Procedure of the Assembly Stipulates various procedures for decision making of the Assembly, among these are sanctions for unconstitutional change of government (Rule 37); Elections of the members of the commission (Rule 38 (2), sanctions for Non-compliance with decisions and policies (Rule 36). However, no procedure of such sort is prescribes for the interpretation of the CA. It only list it as one function of the Assembly (Rule 4)

²⁵⁷ Art.26 of the constitutive Act deals with the *ad hoc* interpretation of the Assembly regarding the Act.

Right charter]...”are to be brought to the Human Rights court.²⁵⁸ Except such treaties, interpretation of other treaties and subsidiary legal instruments is not mandated to any organ of the Union. In default, thus, the interpretation of these instruments lies with in the domain of member states. The basis for this assertion is the *Jaworzina* advisory opinion of the PCIJ in which it is stated that “it is an established principle that the right of giving an authoritative interpretation of a legal rule belong solely to the person or body that has power to modify or suppress it.”²⁵⁹

4.5.3 The Practice of Interpretation of the Constitutive Act by the Union

Exactly ten years have passed since AU succeeded the OAU. In this journey of the organization, many activities have been undertaken. Since the Court has not been established now, the Assembly is still supposed to interpret the CA. Yet, not a single authoritative interpretation has been pronounced by the Assembly.²⁶⁰ To the surprise of many, no authoritative decision on interpretation has been given since the establishment of the OAU.

Rather, most interpretive concerns end at discussion level of the respective organs in which the issue has been raised.²⁶¹ In the present trend, points of disagreements on interpretation of the CA or any other legal document will be submitted to the legal department of AU Commission. The Department, then, will present its opinion and it will be finalized there.²⁶²

Perhaps, one problem leading to this trend of interpretation is the non-regulation of the matter within the organization clearly. Even though the OAU Charter stipulates it as function of the Assembly, the procedure was not specified surely being left to be specified by the Rules of Procedure. But the rules of procedure of the OAU Assembly as well failed to indicate any point with this regard.

²⁵⁸ Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the establishment African court on human and Peoples’ rights on the establishment of an African court on human and people’s right adopted June 26 1998, entered into force 25 January 2004, herein after Protocol to the African Court, Art.3

²⁵⁹ *Jaworzina* Advisory opinion of 6 Dec. 1923, PCIJ Rep. Series B, No. 8, p.37 as quoted in Efthymios Papastavridis, Interpretation of Security Council Resolutions under Chapter VII in the Aftermath of the Iraqi Crisi, 56 Int’l & Comp. L. Q. 83 2007, p.91

²⁶⁰ Interview with Mr. Bright Mando, Legal Counsel of AU Commission Legal Department, on Feb. 17, 2012

²⁶¹ Ibid.

²⁶² Ibid.

Similarly, the absence of a judicial body with advisory and contentions jurisdiction was another cause. As mentioned earlier, no judicial body existed in the aegis of the OAU from which states and organs of the organization could avail themselves on matters of interpretation. The attempt to establish the Commission on Mediation, Conciliation and Arbitration as a quasi-judicial body, regardless of its significance on points of interpretation, was never operational.²⁶³

Even if a judicial or quasi-judicial organ existed, one will hardly dare to assert that it would have been utilized. To date, no advisory opinion has been requested from the African court of Human and peoples' Rights despite its expanded advisory jurisdiction than any other international human rights organ.²⁶⁴

4.6 The Power The Court To Review Acts Of Political Organs Of The African Union

4.6.1 Introduction

Mention has been made that among the composing organs of the Union are policy organs in which political decisions will be taken. Organs of the Union with such characteristics are the General Assembly, the Executive Council, the Permanent Representatives' Committee and the Peace and Security Council. In these organs, delegates of states are not expected to act in their individual capacity. They are presumed to advance interests of their home states or at most as stated by Blokker, "the task of representatives of member states is broader than that of [being] simply champions of pure self-interest for the organ in which they sit has

²⁶³ The Commission of Mediation did not have any interpretation mandate as the OAU General Assembly had assumed that function. Therefore, except for its interpretation in settling disputes through the three means, it could not have given decision on pure interpretation matters. Whatever the case, the organ did not operationalize. (Udombana, above in 128, p.820

²⁶⁴ AP Van der Meij, The Advisory Jurisdiction of the African Court on Human and People's Rights, 5 Afr. Hum. Rts. L. J. 27 2005, p.31[asserting that the African Court has the widest advisory mandate than any other regional human rights court]

collective international responsibility.”²⁶⁵ Either way, however, the acts undertaken in such organs will barely be undiluted by political considerations.

In the present context of the Union, political organs have assumed crucial responsibilities that may affect the interest of member states. To cite some, the Assembly determines appropriate sanctions on member states for default of payment of their share of the budget of the Union.²⁶⁶ Similarly, the Assembly may subject any state that fails to comply with policies and decisions of organs of the Union, to sanction.²⁶⁷ Again governments that come to power through unconstitutional means are to be suspended.²⁶⁸ This power has been exercised repeatedly. The most innovative, yet controversial, concept of the Union i.e. the Union’s rights of intervention is also to be decided by the political organs of the union.²⁶⁹ Such and similar other acts of the Union are to bring the relationship of member states and the Union to sharp confrontation. Expressing the IOs and Member States relation, Blokker says “[t]hey [states] not only create it [an IO]; they are also its biggest fans at times. The paradox- and this field is full of paradoxes- is that at other times, the members are afraid of the organization and are its fiercest opponents.²⁷⁰ This is particularly true of African states which repeatedly consider their sovereignty as ‘Sacrosanct.’

At the present state of international law, unless a treaty provision exists, states themselves define that legality of acts of their own or those of other subjects of international law.²⁷¹ This means where a state consensually transfers this power to organization or specific organs there in, it will be done accordingly. The European Union and the African Union are the

²⁶⁵ Niels Blokker, *International Organizations and Their Members: International Organizations Belong to All Members and to None-Variations on a Theme*, 1 *Int’l Og. L. Rev.* 139 2004, pp.149-150

²⁶⁶ Constitutive Act, Art.23 (1)

²⁶⁷ *Ibid.*, Art.23 (2)

²⁶⁸ *Ibid.*, Art.30

²⁶⁹ Three organs may involve in this regard. The PSC to recommend intervention and approve mode of intervention of the Union (Art.7 of PSC Protocol); The General Assembly in deciding to intervene (Rule 4 of the procedure of the Assembly) and the Executive Council as may be delegated by the Assembly (Rule 3 (1) (d) of the Protocol.

²⁷⁰ Niels Blokker, *Exploring the Evolution of Purpose Methods and Legitimacy: Accountability of Intergovernmental Organizations*: 94 *Am. Soc’y Int’l L. Proc.* 204 2000, p.204

²⁷¹ David Schweigmann, *The Authority of the Security Council under Chapter VII of the UN Charter: Legal Limits and the Role of the International Court of Justice* (2001), p.207

latest instances of such system.²⁷² In fact, one among the function of the OAU's General Assembly was reviewing the structure, function and acts of all organs of the organization.²⁷³ But, likewise the interpretive mandate, the detailed procedures of the review system had not been indicated. Though constitutionally granted, the consequence of a reviewed act by the OAU's Assembly was not described. The absence of the procedure might seem to suggest that the Assembly follows its ordinary proceeding in reviewing acts. However, practically no decision has been given on matters of review of organs as far as the knowledge of the present author is concerned.

The African Union review system, as in the case of authoritative interpretation, has evinced two major developments: it brought the subject from political body to the hands judicial institution and regulated the matter in an in-depth manner. Accordingly, the court entertains all cases and legal disputes relating to acts, decisions, regulations and directives of the organs of the Union.²⁷⁴ As learnt from the jurisprudence of the ICJ, a dispute is a disagreement on a point of law or fact, a conflict of legal views or of interests between two persons.²⁷⁵ In its broadest sense, an international dispute can be said to exist whenever such a disagreement involves governments, institutions, juristic persons (corporations) or private individuals in different parts of the world.²⁷⁶ The basic elements of a dispute, thus, are specificity and existence of claims and assertions.²⁷⁷ And such a dispute will qualify as a legal dispute when "the claim is based on treaties, legislations and other sources of law and if remedies such as restitution for damages are sought."²⁷⁸

As it is comprehensible from the jurisdictional clause, any claim or assertion of legal nature brought in connection with acts of the Union's organ, are subject to the judicial function of

²⁷² Protocol of the New Court, Art.28 (1): Art.2

²⁷³ Procedure of the Assembly, Rule.3 (iii)

²⁷⁴ Protocol of the New Court, Art.29 (d)

²⁷⁵ *Mavrommatis Palestine Concessions (Greece V. Great Britain)*, Judgment of 30 August 1924 PCIJ (Ser. A) No.2, at 11 as quoted in Christopher Schreuner, 'What is a Legal Dispute?' in *International Law Between Universal and Fragmentation* (Isabelle B. et al eds., 2008), p.983

²⁷⁶ J.G. Merills, *International Dispute Settlement* (4th ed., 1984), p.1

²⁷⁷ Richard Bilder, *International Dispute Settlement and the Role of International Adjudication*, 1 *Emory J. Int'l Disp Resol.* 131 (1986-87), pp.45

²⁷⁸ Schreuner, above n 275, p.978

the court.²⁷⁹ This provision embraces whatever claim that may be brought including issues of legality or validity of acts of the organ. Otherwise stated, if a claim is made as to the fact that a certain decision is illegal or invalid, the court will have jurisdiction to render a verdict on it. When read in context, the phrase “all cases and legal disputes” in the jurisdictional clause shows the commitment African states are exerting to resolute any conflict through adjudication.²⁸⁰

In general the new court’s protocol enshrines that any [legal] dispute relating to acts of the Union’s organ are justiciable and the latter would be held accountable for their acts. The illegality or invalidity of their acts is one issue under the scrutiny of the court.²⁸¹ In addition to this, the Court also examines the validity of the treaties of the (O) AU.²⁸² Through this, the Court controls the conformity of treaties, one of the secondary legislations of the Union, to the Constitutive Act. This establishes a judicial review system within the AU though arguably. In the following section an attempt will be made to assess the judicial review system of the Union as it exists presently.

4.6.2 Reviewable Acts of the Union

International organizations express their activities in various ways. Some forms, for example of the UN, are Resolutions, Statements by the President, Note of the president, Letter from the President and Press Statements.²⁸³ Recommendations, Declarations and Opinions are among the most common modes employed by various IOs. Organs of the Union also utilize such means in discharging their responsibilities. Regulations, directives, decisions, resolutions, declarations, opinions and recommendations are some of the instruments being and to be used by AU organs.²⁸⁴ Elucidating these acts as subjects of review is the theme of this section.

²⁷⁹ Protocol of the New Court, Art.28 (e)

²⁸⁰ Protocol of the New Court, Art.28 (e)

²⁸¹ Ibid.

²⁸² Ibid.

²⁸³ _____, Handbook on the WorkingMmethods of the Security Council (2006), p.54 available at www.un.emb-japan.go.jp/p/handbook.pdf(last accessed on July 20 2012)

²⁸⁴ Procedure of the Assembly, Rule 33; Procedure of the Council, Rule 34

i) Regulations: - Regulations are legal acts of organs of the Union in which decisions of the Union are made.²⁸⁵ Regulations are not common in all international organizations. They are instruments of international integration organizations which “essentially are organizations that do not merely purport to establish cooperation between their member states, but aim to go beyond this cooperation by establishing integration in one or more policy areas.”²⁸⁶ They target at harmonization of legal systems of member states which transferred competence, to them, to set rules in accordance with the scheme of integration.²⁸⁷ Being established to this purpose, the African Union as well stretches to accelerate the political and socio-economic integration of the continent.²⁸⁸ In this direction, coordination and harmonization of the policies between the existing and future regional economic communities and also African states will be instilled by the Union’s organs.²⁸⁹

The principal organs mandated with this mission are the General Assembly and the Executive Council. The main reason behind granting the Assembly power to issue regulations is its mandate to determine the common policies of the Union.²⁹⁰ This organ has power comparable to the European Council with in EU.²⁹¹ Similarly, the Executive Council shares these responsibilities of the Assembly which refers tasks to the former, on the one hand, and itself is given large competences to take decisions on policies in wide areas of common interest to member states.²⁹² Therefore, these desires to tackle such matter at continental level demands typical tool: Regulations.

Regulations, under the Rules of procedures of the Assembly and the Council are defined as decisions “applicable in all member states which shall take all the necessary measures to

²⁸⁵ Ibid.

²⁸⁶ Ige F. Dekker and Ramses A. Wessel, *Governance by International Organizations: Rethinking the Normative Force of International Decisions*, in (Dekker I. F., and Werner W. G., eds.) *Governance and International Legal Theory* (2004), p.216

²⁸⁷ Ibid.

²⁸⁸ Constitutive Act, Art.3 (1); Rule 4 (1) (c)

²⁸⁹ Ibid., Art.3 (e)

²⁹⁰ Constitutive Act, Ibid., Art.9 (1) (a); Procedure of the Assembly, rule 4 (1) (a)

²⁹¹ Udombana, above in 29, p.88

²⁹² Constitutive Act, Art.13 (1)

implement them.”²⁹³ The fundamental element of this form of decisions is that its addressees are Members States only.²⁹⁴ They oblige and bind member states of the Union. They are also applicable, once rendered, in all member states equally.²⁹⁵ Decision concerning some states, thus, cannot be made in the form of Regulations. But, the manner of applicability is not indicated in the definition. In EC law, in contrast, regulations are envisaged as directly applicable in national legal systems.²⁹⁶ This direct applicability notion has been understood as regulations will take effect in all member states without national parliaments or governments having to re-enact them.²⁹⁷ Whether AU’s regulations have similar effect is not certain. The phrase “... shall take all the necessary measures to implement” seems to accommodate some variations in members states. Because what constitutes a necessary measure is to be decided by member states themselves. If so, AU regulations may not have identical applicability as solely desired and decided by the issuing organ and, in such instances, cannot be said that they do have direct applicability. One thing that is sure is, though, regulations do not leave discretion to member states as to their implementation and this cannot be taken as implied in the ‘necessary measure’ phrase.²⁹⁸ However, to tell definitively whether AU regulations have direct applicability or not, it must be waited to the practical meaning given to the clause.

Since the transformation to the AU, quite a bit decisions have been made by the Assembly and the Council. But neither the organs have classified their decision as Regulation nor have the member states considered a decision of the organs as in the form of Regulation.²⁹⁹

ii) Directives:- Another form of decision, peculiar to international integration organizations is directive. The provisions of the Rules of Procedures elaborating the term reads:

²⁹³ Rule 33 of the procedure of the assembly

²⁹⁴ Ibid., Rule 33 cum 34

²⁹⁵ Ibid., Rule 33

²⁹⁶ Art.189 EEC Treaty

²⁹⁷ Gordon Slynn, *Judicial Review of Community Administrative Acts*, 18 B.L.J 38 1986, p.40

²⁹⁸ The Rule of Procedure of the Council and the Assembly has expressly stated that directives leaves discretion to members states (Rules 33 (1) (b), Rule 34 (1) (b). But this is not stated in relation to Regulations.

²⁹⁹Interview with Mr. Bright Mando, Legal Officer(Inter African Matters), Office of the Legal Counsel, AU Commission on February 13, 2012

“... these are addressed to any or all member states, to undertakings or to individuals. They bind member states to the objectives to be achieved while leaving national authorities with power to determine the form and the means to be used for their implementation.”³⁰⁰

The subjects encompassed, here, includes States, undertakings and individuals. The implication is that the positions of these entities may be affected by the organs of the Union. Directives, thus, reach wide than regulations.

Directives may also be issued regarding one or more members of the Union.³⁰¹ They are not to be applied necessarily at continental level. The addressed states are also bound by the ‘objectives the directive pursues’ only.³⁰² It is specifically stated that member states have the freedom to choose the form and method of implementation.³⁰³ Even though in both the EU and AU, member states determine the implementation mechanism, the obligations of the states seems to be dissimilar.³⁰⁴ In the EU, states are imposed with ‘obligation of result’ in implementing directives whereas those of AU are only bound with respect to the objectives of the directives. In my opinion, objectives are ultimate ends or results and are designed generally, thus, grant wider room to member states than in the case of ‘obligation of result’ which may indicate an immediate outcome. In short, what I meant is the discretion of member states of AU appear to be leniently regulated, relative to the case in EU. The ECJ can also restrict the discretion of EU member states in this regard.³⁰⁵

Plainly, AU directives cannot be directly applicable in domestic jurisdiction. Unlike, regulations, directives request the promulgation of internal law or informal incorporation to national legal systems in specific legislation or a general legal context in a sufficiently and

³⁰⁰ Rule 33 (1) (a) of the Procedure of the Assembly; Rule 34 (1) (a) of Procedure of the Council

³⁰¹ *Cf.* The definition of Regulation, Rule 33 (1)(a) of the Procedure of the Assembly and Rule 34(1)(a) of the Procedure of the ExC.

³⁰² Procedure of the Assembly, Rules 33 (1) (a); Procedure of the Council, Rule 34 (1) (2)

³⁰³ *Ibid.*

³⁰⁴ *Cf.*, Art.189 of EEC Treaty and Rule 33 (1) (b)& Rules 34 (1) (b) of the Procedures

³⁰⁵ Ellen F. McCauley, Member State Implementation of European Economic Community legislation and Judgments, 11 B. C. Int’l & Comp. L R. 161 1988, P.164

clear manner.³⁰⁶ The non-implementation of directives will be followed by sanctions as indicated in Art.23 of the Constitutive Act.³⁰⁷

The General Assembly and the Executive Council only have the competence to issue directives.³⁰⁸ But again, no decision of this form has been made so far.³⁰⁹

iii) Decisions: - Decisions are the common mode of expression of Union's Organs acts. Although the General Assembly and the Executive Council have powers to give decisions in the form of regulations and directives, it is not envisaged as to their capability to render their respective collective will in the form of 'bare' decisions. However, in practice, the organs have only communicated their determination of any kind in the form of decision.³¹⁰ Other organs, however, are allowed to make decisions. One such organ is the Peace and Security Council.³¹¹ The crucial powers of this organ include authorization of mounting and deployment of peace support missions, recommending intervention in a member state, approving the modalities of intervention, instituting sanctions whenever an unconstitutional change of government occurs and inviting or prohibiting any member state to take part in discussions relating to matters affecting the interests of the member states.³¹² On these and other similar issues the council may take decisions.³¹³

The term decision is not defined in the AU legal framework. In EC law, in contrast, decisions are made binding in their entirety unless they specify the entities they address in which case their effect will be limited to the named addressees.³¹⁴ Regardless of the absence of definitions, AU organs' decisions will also create obligations- hence bindings-on their

³⁰⁶ Kurt Riechenberg, Local Administration and the Binding Nature of Community Directives: A Lesser Known Side of European Legal Integration, 22 Fordham Int'l L. J. 696 1998-9, p.705

³⁰⁷ Constitutive Act., Art..23

³⁰⁸ Rule 33 (1) (b) of Procedure of the Assembly; Rules of Procedures of the Council, Rule 34 (1) (b)

³⁰⁹ Interview with Mr. Bright Mando, Legal Officer(Inter African Matters), Office of the Legal Counsel, AU Commission, in February 13, 2012

³¹⁰ Rule 33 (1) (b)

³¹¹ PSC Protocol, Art. 5(1)

³¹² Ibid., Art. 7

³¹³ Ibid., Art. 8

³¹⁴ EEC Treaty, Art.189

addresses.³¹⁵ The obligatory scope will depend on the content of the decision. The consequence of non-implementation of a decision is not stated in the Rules of Procedure unlike regulations and directives; obviously for the Rules do not display decisions as legal act of the organs. However, Art 23 of the CA allows the Assembly to sanction member states that fail to comply with the decisions and policies of the Union. This can be utilized for decisions made by the GA and the ExC in the form of regulations and directives or decisions of other organs.

These three categories of legal acts are, thus made, in the new court's protocol, subjects of review.³¹⁶ No more point on the former two. One issue remains worth of clarification regarding decisions though. This is whether interim decisions i.e. non- substantive decisions, are susceptible to review by the court. Instances at which such decisions may be taken are, for example, in times of applications to hold opened or closed meetings,³¹⁷ on issues of point of order,³¹⁸ on motion for suspension and adjournment of a meeting³¹⁹ etc. If one understands the term "all acts" in Art. 29 of the Protocol as it is, he or she may arrive at the conclusion that interim decisions as well are reviewable. This may be inferred from the fact that reviewability is determined, as per the approach of the protocol, based on the nature of the act rather than the point of time it is taken.

However, categorizing all decisions as reviewable appears, in my view, unwise for two major reasons. First, it will jeopardize the well-functioning of the organization. Permeating any decision to be challenged will severely hamper the proper functioning of the institutions. Secondly, the court will be over loaded with unnecessary application if all significant and insignificant complaints are to be received. Strict approach must, therefore, be structured in this regard. Such serious standards must, in my opinion, relate to the effect of the decision on the concerned party. Accordingly, only those decisions with substantial effect on the party should be allowed to be challenged. The remaining with effects that do not amount

³¹⁵ This is to be deduced from the fact that non-compliance to them results in sanctions. See Constitutive Act, Art 23 (2)

³¹⁶ Art.28 (e)

³¹⁷ Rule 13 of the Procedure of the Assembly, Rule 14 of the procedure of ExC

³¹⁸ Rule 21 of the Procedure of ExC; Rule 21 of the Procedure of Assembly

³¹⁹ Rule 24-25 of the Procedure of the Assembly; Rule 25-26 of the procedure of the ExC

substantial such as decisions on point of order need not be reviewed. In fact, the substantiality of an ensuing effect should be left to the determination of the court which decides on the basis each particular case on its hand.

iv) Non-Binding Acts? The Rules of Procedure of the GA and the ExC enlists other forms of decisions.³²⁰ These are Recommendations, Declarations, Resolutions and Opinions. This enumeration is not exhaustive and the legal effect of these acts is expressly mentioned as non-obligatory.³²¹ But regarding their significance the Rules state that they are intended to guide and harmonize the view-points of member states.³²² The practical need of such acts or instruments has become more essential to African states and third world countries in general.³²³ Third world countries have been credited to the emergence, recognition and acceptance of resolutions as a new source of law within the UN.³²⁴ In their regional organizations as well, particularly of African states, a quite number of matters have been handled via these acts.³²⁵ Maluwa even notes that almost all OAU treaties have resulted from a chain of resolutions of OAU's political organs.³²⁶ It is also a recent fact that that recently non-binding acts are being transformed in to hard laws. Mentioning the incorporation of parts of the Declaration on the Framework for an OAU Responses to Unconstitutional change of Government into the Rules of procedure of the Assembly suffices.³²⁷

³²⁰ Rules 33 (1) (c) & Rule 34 (1) (c) of the Procedures of the Assembly and the Council; Rule 14 (1) of the Procedures of the PRC and Art.7 of the Statutes ECOSOCC

³²¹ Rule 33 (1) (c) & rule 34 (1) (c) of the Procedures of the Assembly and the Council

³²² Ibid.

³²³ Mark E Ellis, *The New International Economic Order and General Assembly Resolution: The Debate over the Legal Effects of the General Assembly Resolutions Revised: Comment*, 15 Cal. W. Int'l L. J. 647 1985, pp.656-657

³²⁴ M. Bedjaoui, "Un point du vue vu Tiers monde sur l'Organisation internationale," in G. Abi-Saab, *Le concept d'organisation internationale*, (Paris: UNESCO, 1980), p.268 as quoted in Maluwa, above n 252, p.212

³²⁵ See note 9 above.

³²⁶ Maluwa, above n 244, p.218

³²⁷ Procedure of the Assembly, Rule 37

The Permanent Representatives' Committee and the Pan Africana Parliament are other political organs with capacity to issue such non-binding acts.³²⁸ Are non-binding acts reviewable? This is the proper question to be posed here.

As implied in the term 'all acts' not a single act appears to have been dropped from the jurisdiction of the court. Irrespective of their obligatory forces, all acts are categorized reviewable. So neither express nor implied distinction is made between binding and non-binding acts as subjects of review and, thus, all are reviewable.

Nevertheless, there are reasons to argue in the reverse. Firstly, non-binding acts by their very nature do not create legal obligations. They do not directly affect the interests of any concerned party. Secondly, allowing non-binding acts to be contested will undermine their only subsequent effect: harmonizing view-points.³²⁹ Thirdly, as a primary means of activity of IOs, their unfolding to contestation reduces the impact of IOs highly. Fourthly, from practical point of view also as they usually get adopted by consensus, or at least great majority, naming them as reviewable act would have minimal relevance.³³⁰ And finally, it would create an unnecessary case load on the court without adding value. Therefore, it is commendable to undertake the term 'all acts' as referring to binding acts only.

4.6.3 Grounds of Review

The acts discussed above are the types that can be put before the table of the court in contestation of legality or validity. After settling which acts, the basis of such as challenge has to be addressed and the wonder will be why to be challenged. The conclusion we reach to these queries will constitute grounds of review. This means the grounds are factors that vitiate the legality or validity of an act.

In the Protocol of the new court or other legal instruments adopted following the CA, no vitiating element of a legal act is stipulated. It is left to the court itself, I suppose, to

³²⁸ Procedure of the Permanent Committee, Rule 26. It reads: "Decisions of the PRC shall be recommendations until adopted by the Executive Council." See also in general Art 11 of the PAP Protocol.

³²⁹ Rule 33 (1)(c) of the Procedure of the Assembly; Rules 31(1)(c) of Procedure of the Council

³³⁰ Tadeusz Gruchala-Wesierski, A Framework for Understanding "Soft Law," 30 McGill L.J. 37 1984-85. p.53

determine what vitiates an act. This indicates that grounds of review are specified, in the AU system, in broad manner. This style of the AU is even expanded than the EU system, which has been described as embracing almost all possible situations as it is discussed in the last chapter.³³¹

Some guidelines, however, are also found in the AU system. The important provision in this regard is Art.18 of the AEC Treaty. This provision which established a court of Justice of the Community empowers the court to "decide on actions brought by a member state and the Assembly on grounds of violations of the provisions or of a decision or a regulation or on the grounds of lack of competence or abuse of powers by an organ, an authority, or a member state."³³² Here are the implications of the provision.

Firstly, any violation of the AEC Treaty is contestable. The substantive or procedural dimension of the provision makes no difference in this respect. Violations depicting either aspect are infringements. Even though it is not pointed out in the Treaty, legislations which are subsidiary but enacted in relation to the applicability of the Treaty as well cannot be violated.³³³ Prohibition of infringement of secondary acts should be considered as speculated by the above provision. Thus, any infringement in this regard forms a point of review. This approach has also been followed by the practice of the EU.³³⁴ The AEC Treaty, in fact, goes beyond this and renders acts that contradict decisions or regulations reviewable.³³⁵ The new court will not also be limited to these acts and should ascertain the illegality of infringement of any legal instrument.

Lack of competence also spoils legality of an action. For internal institutions are designed in a form to act in conformity to each other to achieve the objective of the organization, in their activities, accordingly, organs of the AU/AEC need to be limited to their own

³³¹ See section 2.4.2.1.

³³² AEC Treaty, Art.18 (3) (a)

³³³ It is logical to assert that if there is an intention to keep the integrity of a treaty intact, besides violations of the treaty, infringement of subsidiary legislations enacted to facilitate the implementation and enforcement of the treaty must be looked at attentively.

³³⁴ TFEU, Art. 263 Second Paragraph

³³⁵ AEC Treaty, Art.18 (3) (a)

sphere.³³⁶ Otherwise, an act will be out of one's mandate and will be challenges for lack of competence.

Thirdly comes abuse of power. Any act that features such defect will be declared illegal or invalid. Misuse of power is also included within this ground of review.

The ACJHR can drag these grounds in examining and assessing acts of the Union. Despite its establishment with in the AU Constitutive Act, the court is at liberty to use these factors to check the illegality of an act for the Treaty of AEC is not impaired unless it contradicts the former.³³⁷ Besides, since the court is not also restricted to any ground in this regard, it can review the legality of the Union's organs act on the basis of other standards such as infringement of an essential procedural rule.

The court can also consult the jurisdictional clauses of some sub-regional organizations courts to develop its own jurisprudence. In these regional organizations, the courts are provided with review powers.³³⁸ Along with this mandate, the basis of review has been stipulated within the instruments establishing the courts. The Treaty establishing COMESA is one such instrument. It provides that the court decides on matters involving "the legality of any act, regulation, directive or decision of the council on the grounds that such act, regulation, directive or decision is *ultra vires* or unlawful or an infringement of the provisions of this Treaty or any rule of law relating to its application or amounts to a misuse or abuse of power."³³⁹ The East African Community Treaty on its part enshrines that its Court of Justice may adjudicate "the legality of any act, regulation, directive, decision or action on the ground that it is ultra vive or unlawful or an infringement of the provisions of this Treaty or any rule of law relating to its application or amount to a misuse or abuse of power."³⁴⁰ Albeit the

³³⁶ AEC Treaty, Art 7 (2)

³³⁷ Constitutive Act, Art 33 (2)

³³⁸ Treaty establishing the Common Market for eastern and Southern Africa reprinted in 33 I. L. M. 1067 1994 [hereinafter Treaty of COMESA],. Art 26; The Treaty for establishment of the Economic Community of East African States, signed on 30 Nov 1999 and entered in to force 7 July 2000 [hereinafter treaty of EAC], Art 30; Revised Treaty of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), 24 July 1993 available at: <http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/492182d92.html> accessed 15 Nov 2012 [hereinafter ECOWAS Treaty], Art 10(c)-(d)

³³⁹ Treaty of COMESA, *ibid.*

³⁴⁰ EAC Treaty, Art 30.

insignificant disparities between the articulations of the provisions, essentially, both rules are similar. This highlights the fact that member states of such communities are familiar with such principles of law and the court may derive some points of review from such regional courts.

4.6.4 *Locus Standi* of Contestants

Entities that present cases to the court are, under the Protocol, divided into two. The members of the first group can submit any dispute to the court, thus, they sort of have general eligibility.³⁴¹The remaining ones are given specific entitlement i.e. in cases of any violation of a right guaranteed by human rights instruments of the region and in certain cases, beyond that.³⁴²But, for the purpose of review of acts those which have standing are the following:

i) States: The principal and non-controversial entities are African states as the court is an organ of a regional organization. The court is open only to states which are members of the Union.³⁴³ This protocol by stating the obvious limits litigations before the court to African States only. A state that does not belong to the land of Africa, thus, cannot submit disputes of review of acts or any other kind. Beyond characterizing the court as 'regional' one, the provision displays repulsion of any non-African activity in this regard. For example, if a European state challenged an act of a member state or an organ of the Union, it cannot use the court directly due to the African state requirement. The verbatim stipulation of this also prohibits any such interpretation by implication.

This, however, does not mean that all the 54 African states are entitled to submit cases or requests of review. They are, in addition to being an African state, demanded to ratify the protocol. Otherwise as stated expressly, the court shall have no jurisdiction to deal with a dispute involving a member state that has not ratified the protocol.³⁴⁴Consequently, upon

³⁴¹ Constitutive Act, Art.29(1)(b)&(c)

³⁴² Ibid., Art.30

³⁴³ Contra: Constitutive Act, Art.29(2) first paragraph

³⁴⁴ Ibid., Constitutive Act, Art 29(2)

the entry into force of the protocol, the term state parties to the protocol will mean the fifteen states only. Of course, this is expected to increase with time.

In the protocol, nothing is said about the interest member states are required to prove when claiming illegality. This means all applications of member states contesting an unlawful act are acceptable regardless of the fact that their claim proves their personal affected interest. This may be justified by the fact that review systems are formulated not only to remedy losses but also to ensure the prevalence of rule of law.³⁴⁵ Every state is supposed to have an immense interest in the lawful activity of the organization. In other words, unlawfulness in one way or another affects all members of an organization. The same is true in the AU. Therefore, member states of the Union do not have to be required to prove direct effect ensuing on them in review proceedings. The mentioned earlier intervention mechanism in authoritative interpretation matters is also based on similar grounds that any matters concerning the CA is in the interest of all AU members. This is also equally valid in infringement matters of the CA and similarly applicable to review cases. Besides, even outside the CA, some issues are common concern to all African states such as environment and human rights.³⁴⁶ Then proof of direct interest would not be sound in such matters. In this regard, the protocol's silence on the matter is correct.

ii) Organs of the Union: the internal bodies of the Union are the second most concerned parties in the legal functioning of the Union. An organ's mandate might be trespassed by another. A mandatory procedure may be discarded. Therefore, organs of the Union are accorded right to request review.³⁴⁷ However all organs of the Union do not have

³⁴⁵ Art. 4(m), Constitutive Act. One of the principles of the Union, on the basis of which the Union discharges its function, is 'respect for democratic principles, human rights, the rule of law and good governance.' In the preamble of the CA like African states have expressed their determination to promote and protect human and peoples' rights, consolidate democratic institutions and culture and ensure good governance and the rule of law. The ACJHR is also designed to assist the achievements of the goals pursued by the African Union. Protocol of the new court, Preamble Paragraph 5

³⁴⁶ Constitutive Act, Art 3(d)

³⁴⁷ Ibid., Art.29(1)(b)

equal status in this regard. Two of the organs of the Union are capable to contest acts as of right while the remaining requires the approval of the general assembly to do so.³⁴⁸

The General Assembly and the Pan African Parliament are the two bodies which can go direct to the court to challenge the vitiated act. As the Summit the Union, the General Assembly is entrusted with tasks which necessitate this ancillary review power. It follows up the implementation of policies³⁴⁹and decisions of any form, by states and, without the need to say it, organs of the Union. This and similar duties of the assembly put it in a typical position to ensure the healthy activity of the Union. Over all control of the business of the Union is one of its mandates. And review request power is a corollary of such powers. In doing so the Assembly acts in the interest of both the member states and the Union.

The Pan African Parliament is also another important body of the Union for such functions. It has power to discuss and make recommendations on issues relating to human rights, democracy, and good governance.³⁵⁰ As an accountability body as well, the Parliament can question AU or AEC officials.³⁵¹Not being limited to this, the Parliament performs other functions as it deems necessary to achieve its objectives.³⁵²An organ endowed with such broad powers and more particularly that of challenging officials of AU cannot be denied the competence to question acts of the Union's organ. This will be done in representation of the African peoples.³⁵³

The rest of the organs of the Union are, however, expected to secure the prior authorization of the Assembly to access the court in applications of review. ³⁵⁴The reason for this approach is not outlined clearly. Nevertheless, whatever reasons are premised upon, the objectives of review, the main being ascertainment of rule of law, does not warrant this stance. It may be said that the protocol did not prohibit organs of the Union to contest but only lengthened the short track they could have taken. Yes I agree, the problem rather in my

³⁴⁸ Ibid.

³⁴⁹ Ibid., Art. 9(1)

³⁵⁰ PAP protocol, Art.11 (1)

³⁵¹ Ibid., Art. 11(5)

³⁵² Ibid., Art 11 (9)

³⁵³ Ibid.,Art.2(3)

³⁵⁴ Protocol of the New Court Art.30 (b)&(c)

perspective, is that such inclinations subject advocates of legality in the Union to the detriment of the Assembly, a political organ.³⁵⁵ Suppose, for example, the ECOSOCC believes there is an illegal aspect in an act of the Union and wishes to contest it. For it is denied direct access, the ECOSOCC is required to satisfy the Assembly, which basically decides upon political considerations, in order to be authorized to reach the Court. Thus authorizations requirements may be manipulated and undermine the rule of law. This may diminish the impact of some organs of the Union such as the ECOSOCC.

A narrow contesting, power of the African Commission on Human Rights and the Africa Committee of experts may be inferred from their mandate to submit any application on violations of human rights.³⁵⁶ They are allowed in matters of human rights only. Although the provisions seem to be applicable in situation of violations of human rights by states, there is no valid reason why the provision will not be extended and be utilized to transgressions by Union Organs regardless of the fact that the violations pertains to actual injuries or mere disregard of human rights provisions. More importantly, nothing in the provision precludes such use.

iii) Others: African Intergovernmental Organization and National Human Rights Institutions are also allowed to submit applications challenging an act of any Union Organ.³⁵⁷ Yet, their application needs to be related with human rights.³⁵⁸ This is to mean that since they have standing in connection with human rights issues only³⁵⁹ but on any violation of a right guaranteed by the Union, including those committed by Union's organs, they can seek the review of such acts they consider infringes human rights.

Any African intergovernmental organization needs to be accreted to the Union or are of its organs to do so, though³⁶⁰ The protocol to the statute defines these entities as organizations establishes with the aim of ensuring socio-economic integrations or have been ceded, by

³⁵⁵ Udombana, above n 29 , p .87

³⁵⁶ Protocol of the New Court, Art.30 (b)&(c)

³⁵⁷ Ibid.

³⁵⁸ Ibid.

³⁵⁹ Ibid.

³⁶⁰ Ibid.

states, certain competences to act on their behalf.³⁶¹ Any sub-regional, regional, inter-African organization which falls out of these definitions is also considered African intergovernmental organization.³⁶² They are also expected to be accredited to the Union³⁶³

Human rights institutions of each member states have also similar “inferred’ power on challenging Union’s acts so long as it relates to human rights. By national human rights institutions, the protocol meant, any public institutions established by state to promote and protect human rights.

iv) Individuals: international integration organizations deepen the scope of their regulatory mandate to the extent it reaches the individual. The direct effect and direct applicability doctrines of EU are examples of such features. In the African Union System as well there are decisions of the Assembly, in the form of directives that may be employed to address individuals.³⁶⁴ This may affect interests concerned by such directives. This is a clear and significant departure from the OAU frame work.

In front of the new Court, individuals do not have capacities to challenge acts of the Union. Let alone in applications for review of acts, in human rights matters the standing of the individual is very limited. Only individuals accredited to the Union or one of its organs are allowed to instigate proceedings of review.³⁶⁵ Put in context, individuals do not have power to lodge applications in which Unions acts are contested. Sadly, this is done despite the fact that the Union’s organs directives alter the position of individuals. This means the individual is left outside the protection of the judiciary. Apart from this Oppong notes that the absence of locus standi of the individual would push ‘the most important players in the integration process including consumers, traders, corporate bodies and investors’ to the periphery.³⁶⁶ Plus, to him this would mean abandonment of the principal medium through which the

³⁶¹ Ibid., Art.1

³⁶² Ibid.

³⁶³ Ibid., Art.30(d)

³⁶⁴ Procedure of the Assembly, Rule 33(1)(c)

³⁶⁵ Protocol to the New Court, Art.30(f)

³⁶⁶ Richard F. Oppong, *The African Union, The African Economic Community and Africa’s Regional Economic Communities: Untangling A Complex Web*, 18 Afr. J. Int’l and Comp. L. 92 2010, P. 101

community-state relationship is strengthened in economic integration.³⁶⁷ As Udombana points out if the AU is to protect the 'state of law', as the principal organ of the Union-with its all ambitious goals, the assurance of direct action by individuals against an act of one of the institutions of the Union that infringes their basic right is indispensable.³⁶⁸

Perhaps, this approach is opted to attract member states of the Union to ratify the protocol. But, this has relegated the development of judicial settlement of the disputes in the continent. Many of the sub-regional organizations have ensured individual's protection from acts of the organization to varying degrees. The COMESA Treaty entitles any person who is resident in a member state to question and institute applications contesting the legality of any act, regulation, directives, decision of the council or a member state "on grounds of unlawfulness or infringement of treaty provisions.³⁶⁹ Similarly Art.30 of the ECA Treaty accords any person who resides in a partner state, power to apply for determination of the legality of any act, regulation directives, decision or action of a partner state or an institution of the community on ground of unlawfulness or infringement of treaty provisions.³⁷⁰ The ECOWAS protocol also granted access to the court to individuals and corporate bodies for the determination of an act or in action of a community official which violates their rights.³⁷¹ The SADC Tribunal again has exclusive jurisdiction over all disputes between persons and the community referred to the tribunal by either side.³⁷² These important sub-regional organizations assure locus standi to individuals to challenge acts the respective communities within the time between 1991 and 2005. Despite these crucial developments, the protocol to the statute of the ACJHR which is adopted in 2008 failed to follow the approaches of the sob-regional organizations and disturbed the development.

³⁶⁷ Ibid.

³⁶⁸ Udombana, above n 29, P.110

³⁶⁹ COMESA Treaty, Art 26

³⁷⁰ EAC Treaty, Art 30

³⁷¹ The ECOWAS Treaty, Art 10(c)-(d)

³⁷² The Treaty of the Southern African Development Community, signed on 17 August 1992, entered in to force on September 1993 as Last amended in August 2001, Art 14 and Art 15

In fact, the new protocol basically follows the protocol of the ACJ.³⁷³ But the latter protocol had some compromissory provisions. The first of such mechanisms was the power of referral of the Assembly.³⁷⁴ The Assembly had been granted competence to confer any dispute other than those referred in Art.19 of the protocol. The view that through this provision individuals and any other non-state parties would be allowed standing before the Court was shared by many.³⁷⁵ Another one is Art.18 (1) (d) of the protocol which made third parties, under conditions to be determined by the Assembly and with the consent of the state party concerned, eligible to submit cases to the court.³⁷⁶ As there was no restriction as to the matter in which third parties are applying before the court, review of acts is believed to be included. Magliveras and Naldi, whose view I share, analyze the provision and suggested that natural or legal persons were intended to be covered with in the term.³⁷⁷ Regrettably, even these limited circumstances in which standing of the individual might have been accommodated were lost in the transition of ACJ to ACJHR.

As it exists now, on individual's basis only staff members of the Union can submit to the new court-pursuant to the Rules and procedures of the Union.³⁷⁸ Whether political appointees are included within this is dubious. However some political appointees namely the chairperson, deputy chair-person and commissioners may appeal to the court on the decision of termination by the Assembly on grounds of incompetence, gross misbehavior or inability to function permanently due to incapacity.

Some possible medium can be suggested to accommodate the individual to lodge review applications. The court may allow individuals to litigate before the African Court of Justice and Human Rights with the special leave of the court.³⁷⁹ Granting of national courts with

³⁷³ Protocol of ACJ, Art 18(1)(a)-(c); Cf: Art 28 of the new Protocol

³⁷⁴ Ibid., Art 19(2)

³⁷⁵ Viljoen and Baimu, above n151, P.251 ;Naldi & Malgivera, above n184, P. 198; and Udombana, above n 29, 110

³⁷⁶ Protocol of the ACJ, Art 18(1)(d)

³⁷⁷ Maglivera & Naldi, above n 184, p 198

³⁷⁸ Protocol to the New Court, Art. 29(1)(c)

³⁷⁹ Oppong, above n 367, P.101

power to refer cases to the court is also one way to establish standing of the individual even though indirectly.³⁸⁰

v) NGO's: non-governmental organizations are also dealt with by the protocol in association with their standing. In identical manner to individuals, NGOs are provided with power to instigate proceedings in human rights matters.³⁸¹ Even here, the NGOs must be accredited to the Union.³⁸² The Union, on its part, requires to accredit NGOs that they be registered in a member state, being restricted to act at regional and continental level, for three or more years; that they should have headquarters with executive body; a constitution; a representative structure and mechanism of accountability to its members; a management with a majority African citizens or African diasporas; and a non-discriminatory policy.³⁸³ But no organization has been granted accreditation by the Union through this system³⁸⁴

For review of acts purpose, such NGOs will only have an inferred power to submit review issues like individuals. They are excluded from any proceedings before the court in non-human right affairs, including review of acts of the Union.

To sum up, the triggerers of review proceedings range from those with automatic application rights to entities with inferred powers. African states individually and collectively dominates the initiation state. Non state actors, albeit subject to strict conditions, are not left without any role in the review of acts of political organs of the Union.

4.6.5 Power of Annulment: Does the Court Possess it?

There is no express stipulation as to the fate of an impugned act. It is not provided in the protocol or any other legal instrument of the Union whether the court has the power to annul an illegal or invalid act. This has forced Magliveras and Naldi not to confidently speak

³⁸⁰ Ibid.

³⁸¹ Protocol to the New Court, Art.30(d)

³⁸² Ibid.

³⁸³ Criteria for Granting Observer status and for A system of Accreditation within the African Union Ex.CL(VII) Annex IV, Art.5&6

³⁸⁴ Interview with Mr. Adewale E Lyanda, Legal Officer, Codification Office of the Legal Counsel, AU Commission, on June 2, 2012.

of AU's judicial review system. In their opinion, two possibilities are there for the court to do: to annul the act or pronounce illegality of the same.³⁸⁵

It is admitted that annulment power is not granted to the court. But, the important point is that it is not prohibited either. More essentially, the court is positioned in a manner where it can check the legality of acts of political organs. Being established with this aim, denying or considering that the court lacks, competence to annul community [AEC, and also AU] legislations would undermine the rule of law and marginalize the court to point of irrelevancy.³⁸⁶ Such a power therefore must be implied.³⁸⁷ However, all these require active personalities on the judgeship position.

Even where it is assumed that the court only has power of declaring illegality, it should not be deemed that such pronouncements have no review aspect. To the minimum, it binds the parties to the case. Besides, the declaration of illegality may be accompanied by order to the original author of the act to remedy its impugned act. This has been suggested by Lauterpacht in the Genocide case:

“ It would seem sufficient that the relevance here of jus cogens should be drawn to the attention of the Security Council, as it will be, by the required communication to it of the court's order, so that the Security Council may give due weight to it in the future reconsideration of the embargo.”³⁸⁸

In the practice of the EU preliminary rulings as well, the concerned organs have been required to take the necessary measures.³⁸⁹

Therefore, though the court cannot remedy the contested act by itself, it might bring the matter to the attention of the authors of the act to redress the problems they created themselves.

³⁸⁵ Magliveras and Naldi, above n 184, p.200

³⁸⁶ Gino J.Naldi and Konstantinos D. Magliveras, The African Economic Community: Emancipation for African States or Yet Another Glorious Failure? 24 N.C.J. Int'l & Comm. Reg. 601 1998-99, p.611

³⁸⁷ Ibid.

³⁸⁸ Application of the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide (Bosnia and Herzegovina v. Yugo. (Serbia and Montenegro)), (separate opinion of Judge Lauterpacht)1993 ICJ Rep, pp. 437-38

³⁸⁹ See section 2.4.2.2.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the four chapters long survey we just conducted, many points have been discussed. It has been established that the Orthodox conception of international personality of entities has given away the path to new thoughts. States have ceased to be the only international persons. International organizations and individuals have penetrated the international area. The former, particularly, following the Reparation for Injuries Suffered Case, have been recognized as bearers of rights and responsibilities, correlative to their powers competences, in the international plane. But again, the various attempts to develop theoretical approach to international legal personality of IOs have not proved fruitful. The prevailing trend, to determine IOs international legal personality, is to check whether the concerned IO fulfills the following points:

- (i) Establishment of a permanent association of states or IOs or both, for the attainment of lawful objects, with administrative organs.
- (ii) A distinction in terms of legal powers and purposes between the organization and its members
- (iii) Existence of powers which would enable the organization to act in the international plane.

It should be remembered, however, those IOs that satisfy the above conditions are not equated to states. Unlike the latter, IOs sphere of activity is quite limited to those prescribed in their founding instruments. IOs have usually been provided with specific competences and general powers to conduct their business. This limited plane of activity is highly relaxed by the implied powers theory, which has proved itself to be the heart of international organizations. From the two divergent views as to the scope of implied powers, this study has favored the more expanded one that upholds only acts ruled out expressly from the mandate of an organization, acts incompatible with aims and purpose of IOs, existence of a proper organ to act and actions which are beyond the jurisdictions of IOs are prohibited from being implied. The rejection of the other view, i.e. the one which limits implication of

power to those that are necessary for the exercise of powers granted expressly, has been justified by the necessity of the well-functioning of IOs.

Nevertheless, the need for relaxed space of activity of IOs does not mean they are not to be controlled. Any transgression of the limits would automatically be governed by the doctrine of *ultra vires*. Member states of IOs, organs of international organizations, individuals and other legal persons may challenge *ultra vires* acts for various reasons as discussed in the study.

Ultra vires acts are sub-divided into substantive, acts that affect policies of an organization, and procedural, acts that emanate from the non-observance of specified procedures. It has been asserted that till the moment a complaint is lodged, *ultra vires* decisions are to be considered as done within power. As indicated in the study, however, the fate of those acts complained upon is not certain. Some suggest they should be considered null and void while others argue that they should be voidable. This study has supported voidability as a preferable remedy due to the fact that nullity jeopardizes the functioning of IOs highly.

But now, such doctrine based control mechanisms are being supplemented with institutional means. As a means of control, review powers and interpretation mandates, and dispute settlement systems in general, have been granted to either political organs or judicial organs of international organizations. The debate whether political bodies or judicial bodies should lead dispute settlement or perform review of acts of IOs is unsettled. In the opinion of the present authors, however, the final say should be left to judicial bodies. This position of the author takes the fact that politics should not be delineated from the law in international relations into consideration. And also propound that all efforts must be exerted to produce the best possible outcome from the integration of the two. He only suggests that when result cannot be achieved from the consolidation of the two, judicial bodies must be resorted to as ultimate solution providers.

Review of acts may be accomplished in two ways: by employing authoritative interpretation systems and/or by conducting direct reviews of legality or validity of acts. The prime difference between the two lies on the existence of power of annulment in the latter. However, in the belief of the present author, the existence of power of annulment is not a

requirement in review cases as evinced in the practice. Declaration of invalidity results in effects that have equal status with annulment as discussed in the study.

While investigating the experience of the UN with regard to review of acts, it has been described that each organ of the UN is empowered to interpret the UN Charter in its day to day activity. There is no centralized or authoritative interpretation system. In direct review of acts of political organs, the role of the ICJ to date is limited to incidental reviews occurring amidst performing its judicial function. Regarding the issue whether the SC is bound by any factor that can serve as a ground of review, the study has asserted that:

- i) Purposes and principles of the UN charter,
- ii) Norms of *jus cogens*
- iii) All non-derogable rights and the core contents of derogable rights as recognized by international law and
- iv) Rules of general international law unless the UN Charter allows the SC to disregard

can serve as a standard of review. Organs of the UN and member states of the UN are the only possible actors that may involve in review case.

On the other hand, the Court of Justice of the European Union is endowed with interpretation power. Acts of organs of the union are also susceptible to review by the Court of Justice of the Union. The two major systems of review are proceedings of annulment and preliminary rulings. In the former, the actors or applicants vary from organs of the Union and Member States, which have the broadest power, to natural and legal persons in cases they show 'direct and individual concern'. All acts are reviewable except for non-privileged applicants, which are allowed to contest decisions or regulations and all regulatory acts that do not entail implementing measures. The grounds of review are lack of competence, infringement of procedural requirement, contradictions to the EC Treaties and any rule relating to its application and misuses of power. In preliminary rulings, courts of member states refer cases to the Court of Justice of the Union. The Court of Justice has the

mandate of pronouncing the invalidity of community acts. In preliminary rulings the court of justice does not have annulment power unlike in actions of annulment.

With the transition of OAU to AU, the role of law showed increment. The principle of pacific dispute settlement of the AU is made open to include judicial means. The quasi-judicial organ of dispute settlement turned to pure judicial organ. Authoritative interpretation by judicial organ is established. And judicial review of acts of political and other organs of the AU is incorporated.

The ACJHR is given the ultimate interpretation powers of the constitutive act. The interpretational decision of the court rendered in this respect binds all organs of the Union. Due to this character of the decision, states that are not original parties to the dispute are allowed to intervene in a case wherein concern of constitutional interpretation is viewed. This procedure aims at consulting member states in matters involving interpretation of the CA. The Registrar of the court notifies member states and organs of the union when a state expresses its interest to intervene in cases depicting matter of interpretation of the CA. However, organs of the Union are excluded from expressing their interest in similar vein. This has been opposed by the present author as being an unsound distinction. The decision must be sanctioned with majority of at least two votes. It has also been asserted that only decisions, and not opinions, of the court have authoritative nature.

All treaties concluded under the auspices of both OAU and AU are also subject to interpretation power of the court. Moreover, rules of procedure of various organs, protocols and decisions of organs of the Union, as implied in the term 'subsidiary legal instruments' are also included under the court's interpretation mandate.

The General Assembly of the Union has the interim interpretation power, though relating to the CA only, till the court is established. So far no such decision is rendered by the Assembly. Except human rights related treaties which will be brought to the African Human Rights Court for interpretation, other treaties and subsidiary legal instruments lies within the interpretation domain of Member States. And, presently the legal department of the AU

Commission presents its opinion where the situation arises in which disagreements on interpretation occur.

The ACJHR also has judicial review power. The court is empowered to entertain all cases and legal disputes relating to acts, decisions, regulations and directives of organs of the Union. The phrase "all cases and legal disputes" include contestation of validity and legality of acts of the Union. Therefore, when a certain decision is claimed as illegal or invalid, the court is entitled to review it. Moreover, the court examines the validity of treaties of the (O)AU. It controls the conformity of treaties to the constitutive act.

The reviewable acts, as per the protocol of the new court, are all acts. This seems to imply that reviewable acts are based on the nature of the act than other considerations. Plainly, regulations directives and decisions are reviewable. But the present author has suggested that all decisions should not be taken as reviewable. Interim decision such as those on point of order, decisions to hold opened and closed meetings, on motion for adjournment of meetings should not as a rule be reviewable. Only those decisions with substantial effect on the rights of the applicant should be reviewed. The author has also argued against the reviewability of non-binding acts.

Although the protocol of the new court does not list any ground of review, the AU system has already got some guidelines as discovered by the study. Art 18 of the AEC Treaty is very crucial in this regard. Violation of the CA or any subsidiary legislations relating to the implementation of the CA, lack of competence, misuse and abuse of power are standards of review. These have also become principles of law of a number of sub-regional organizations. As the protocol is silent on this matter, other factors such as infringement of essential procedural rules and more others may be employed as a ground of review.

With regard to standing of contestants, Member States of the Union are given absolute right to challenge of acts. Any application of review, thus, may be brought. There is no need of proof of individual or direct interest of applicant Member States. Organs of the union are sub-divided, in connection with their footing as contestants, in to two. One the one hand, the General Assembly of the Union and the PAP have been positioned equal to states and

granted full right to challenge. On the other hand, the remaining organs of the Union are required to get prior authorization of the Assembly to lodge applications of review before the court. This subjection of the organs to political institution is a drawback observed by the author. In matters of human rights however, the African Commission on Human Rights and the Committee of Experts have competence to submit applications relating to violations of human rights by states. But it is believed that violations of human and peoples' rights by Union organs are also contestable before the ACJHR. African intergovernmental organizations accredited to the Union and national human rights institutions are given rights to challenges, but limited to matters of human rights, of Union's acts. As an applicant looking for judicial review, individuals accredited to the Union or one of its organs are allowed access. Despite incorporating directives that can alter the position of the individual, the individual such as consumers traders and investors- significant actors of the integration process- are kept out side the category of applicants. Some possibilities that could have granted persons access to the Court are lost in the transition from ACJ to ACJHR. NGOs are also victimized to the same problems faced by natural and legal persons.

Even though nothing is stated as to the effect of impugned acts, the court is not prohibited from annulling illegal and invalid acts of the Union. Apart from the non-prohibition, the Court is expected to ascertain the lawfulness of any Union act by both declaring their invalidity/ illegality and/or revoking the same.

With the findings outlined in the study, the author recommends the following points as redress to the problems:

- i. The protocol of the Union need to be amended so that it will allow organs of the Union to express their inters to intervene even where no member state has called for intervention .
- ii. Amendment of the protocol of the new court should grant the Registrar of the court power to notify states and organs of the Union, at its own initiation, that concern of interpretation has been witnessed in a dispute

- iii. Any amendment of the protocol should must cloth organs of the Union full right to contest acts of the Union, without any requirement to prove direct interest in the act to be challenged
- iv. African intergovernmental organizations, particularly those engaged in trade mattes, must be accorded standing to contest vitiated acts
- v. In the amendment of the protocol actors of the African integration process persons must be given right to bring application of review of acts of the Union when the act affects their interest substantially
- vi. The role of NGO's accredited to the Union need to be increased and be given power to contest acts of the Union where an amendment is to be made
- vii. Till the amendment is effectuated, the General Assembly of the Union, which is to authorize organs of the Union to reach the ACJHR, should formulate objective criteria and adopt a lenient policy towards its authorization scheme
- viii. Again till the protocol is amended, the ACJHR need to define the phrase interest of justice in a manner it will enable organs of the Union to intervene in cases displaying interpretation of the CA
- ix. Above all, the personality to be appointed on the position of the judgeship must act proactively

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