

JULY 2017

CPIA

AFRICA

ASSESSING AFRICA'S
POLICIES AND INSTITUTIONS



Acknowledgments

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2016 CPIA RESULTS FOR AFRICA



2016 CPIA AFRICA REPORT

Summary

- ▶ Policy and institutional quality weakened in Sub-Saharan Africa amid a difficult global economic landscape and challenging domestic conditions. The average Country Policy and Institutional Assessment score for the region's IDA-eligible countries edged lower to 3.1 in 2016.
- ▶ Forty percent of the countries saw a deterioration in their overall quality of policies and institutions in 2016, more than in 2015, and the number of countries with a decline in CPIA score outpaced improvers by a margin of two to one. Weaker performance was evident across a range of countries, especially among commodity exporters and fragile countries.
- ▶ The dispersion in policy and institutional quality among the region's IDA countries increased in 2016. With a CPIA score of 4.0, Rwanda again led all countries in the region; Senegal and Kenya were among the top scoring countries, each posting a score of 3.8. The number of countries with relatively weak performance (scores of 3.2 or less) ticked up, and now accounts for more than half the countries in the region.
- ▶ Eroded macroeconomic policy buffers constrained the scope for countries to formulate policies to mitigate the effects of less favorable terms of trade, slowdown in global growth, and difficult domestic conditions on economic activity. The quality of economic management deteriorated in many Sub-Saharan African countries, extending the downward trend of this policy cluster of the CPIA. The slippage in performance was evident across all three policy areas: monetary and exchange rate policy, fiscal policy, and debt policy. Among the structural policies cluster, improvements in financial inclusion, especially digital financial inclusion, continued to be observed across the continent, but rising risks in the financial sector in several countries pulled down the performance of this sector.
- ▶ On the upside, there were positive developments in policies for social inclusion and equity. Namely, the human development policy area improved slightly, reflecting gains in health sector performance in a few countries, and the quality of social protection and labor edged up due to a strengthening of safety net programs in some countries. Reversing the trend observed in 2015, there was a modest net gain in the number of countries registering an improvement in performance of the public sector management and institutions cluster: 10 countries experienced an increase, while six recorded a decline. Within this cluster, there was an uptick in the quality of public administration.
- ▶ There is considerable variation in performance across country groups in Sub-Saharan Africa. Countries exhibiting economic resilience lead other countries on strength of macroeconomic policy frameworks, quality of policies that help bolster and sustain growth over the longer term and make it more inclusive, and accountability and effectiveness of public institutions.
- ▶ The latest CPIA results show that performance on policy and institutional quality in Sub-Saharan Africa's non-fragile IDA countries remains comparable to that of similar countries elsewhere. The reverse pattern is seen for the region's fragile countries, which generally continue to lag fragile countries outside the region. Overall, the average CPIA score for the region's IDA countries is weaker than the average of other IDA countries.

Recent Trends and Analysis

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) Africa is an annual report that describes the progress Sub-Saharan African countries are making on strengthening the quality of their policies and institutions. The report presents CPIA scores for the 38 African countries that are eligible for support from the International Development Association (IDA), the concessional financing arm of the World Bank Group.¹ CPIA scores reflect the quality of a country's policy and institutional framework across 16 dimensions, grouped into four clusters: economic management (cluster A), structural policies (cluster B), policies for social inclusion and equity (cluster C), and public sector management and institutions (cluster D, also referred to as the governance cluster). The scores, which are on a scale of 1 to 6, with 6 being the highest, are computed by World Bank staff and based on quantitative and qualitative information. The assessment also relies on the judgments of World Bank staff.

CPIA scores are used mainly to inform IDA's allocation of resources to poor countries. Yet the information contained in the CPIA is potentially valuable to governments, the private sector, civil society, researchers, and the media as a tool to monitor their country's progress and benchmark it against progress in other countries. By presenting the CPIA scores for African countries, this report aims to provide stakeholders with information that can support evidence-based debate that can, in turn, lead to better development outcomes.

This year's report assesses developments in policy and institutional quality in 2016 as measured by the CPIA score.

Sub-Saharan Africa faced another challenging year in 2016. Economic activity continued to weaken, amid less favorable terms of trade, slowdown in global growth, and difficult domestic conditions. Output growth decelerated sharply to 1.3 percent, the slowest pace in over two decades and not as stellar as the average annual growth of around 5 percent in the pre-global financial crisis period of 1995–2008. Regional growth in 2016 was insufficient to raise gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, which contracted by 1.3 percent. At the same time, Sub-Saharan Africa's poverty rate remains high: 41 percent of the region's population—nearly 390 million people—were living in extreme poverty in 2013. Weak economic performance threatens gains in poverty reduction, and the region urgently needs to regain momentum on growth and make it more inclusive.

Some countries have shown signs of economic resilience, growing at much faster rates than others (figure 1). Recent analysis undertaken in *Africa's Pulse* identifies countries that have experienced strong growth, and examines the links between the quality of policies and institutions and better economic performance. Countries with a strong GDP growth rate—above the top tercile of the Sub-Saharan African distribution (5.4 percent) between 1995 and 2008—in recent years and over a longer period are classified as “established.” “Improved” countries are those with a growth rate below the top tercile in 1995–2008, but with a recent rate of growth higher than that of the top tercile. Established and improved performers are viewed as being resilient.² The latest data show that only seven of 45 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa exhibit resilience: Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Kenya, Mali, Rwanda, Senegal, and Tanzania. Overall, the analysis finds that the difficult economic conditions facing the region in 2015 and 2016 have taken a toll on countries' economic resilience.

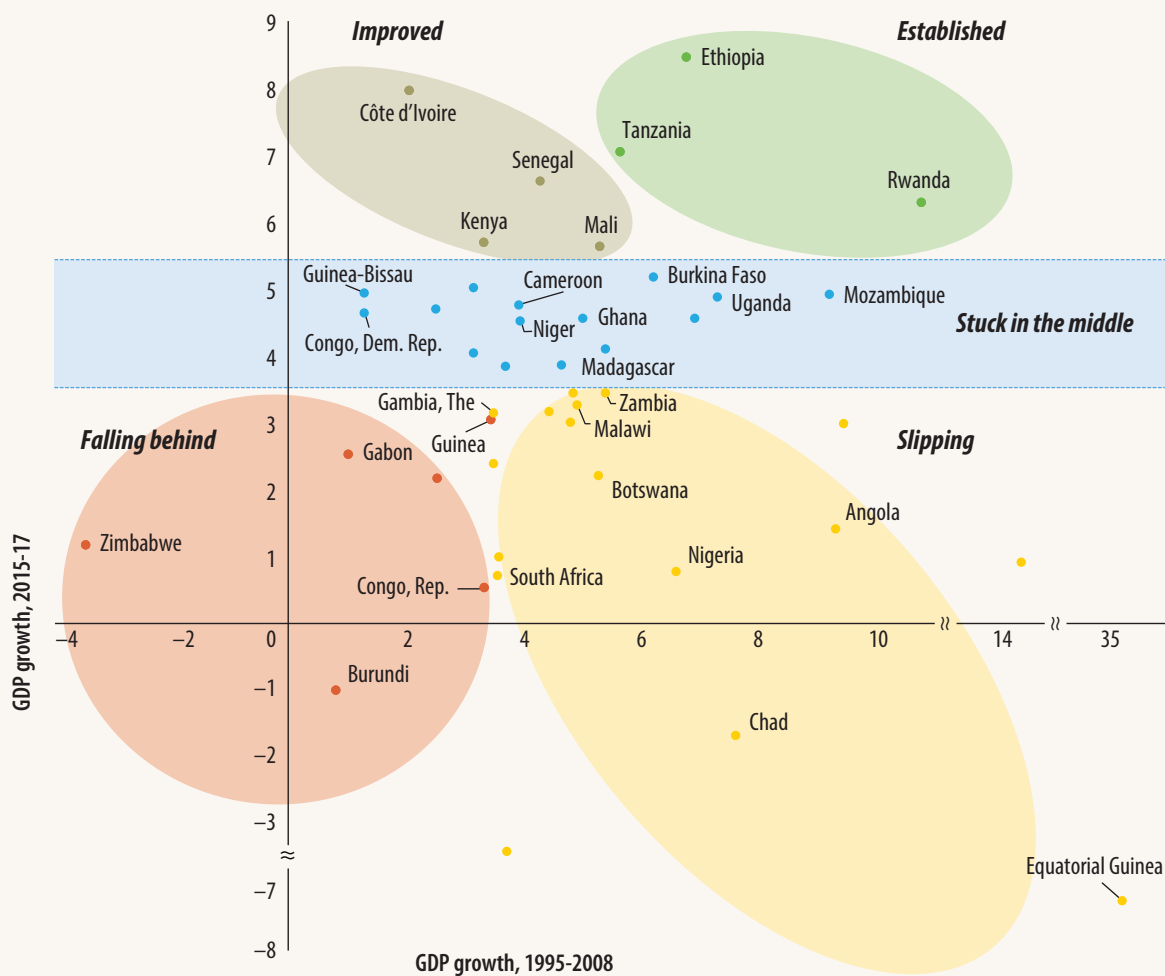
¹ The report covers the 38 IDA-eligible countries in Sub-Saharan Africa that had a CPIA score in 2016. See appendix B.

² Other countries are not viewed as having economic resilience. Countries with recent growth performance between the bottom and top tercile are classified as “stuck in the middle”; those with persistently weak performance are classified as “falling behind”; and those with a growth rate below the bottom tercile in recent years, but not over a longer period, are classified as “slipping.”

FIGURE 1

Taxonomy of Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa: Growth in 2015–17 versus 1995–2008

Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Kenya, Mali, Rwanda, Senegal, and Tanzania are the countries in the region showing resilience.



Source: Africa's Pulse, April 2017.

Resilient countries have better policy and institutional quality than other countries. Although macroeconomic policy vulnerabilities, especially fiscal vulnerabilities, have increased across the region, the quality of the monetary framework and fiscal policies remains generally stronger in established and improved performers compared with other countries. Public debt-to-GDP ratios are also lower in these countries (figure 2). Relatively stronger macroeconomic policy frameworks mean that these countries

have more flexibility to formulate a policy response to economic shocks. In tandem, resilient countries perform better on policies that help bolster and sustain growth over the longer term and make it more inclusive. For example, on structural policies that boost competitiveness, foster private sector development, and promote diversification, these countries perform better, as evidenced by higher scores on the quality of the business regulatory environment (figure 3) and greater level of financial depth. Finally, the countries categorized as established and improved exhibit greater quality of government effectiveness (figure 4), respect for the rule of law, and transparency and accountability of the public sector. Nevertheless, there is considerable scope across all countries in the region to accelerate and deepen structural and institutional reforms that will boost productivity and provide the basis for sustainable and inclusive growth.

Policy Performance in Resilient and Other Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa

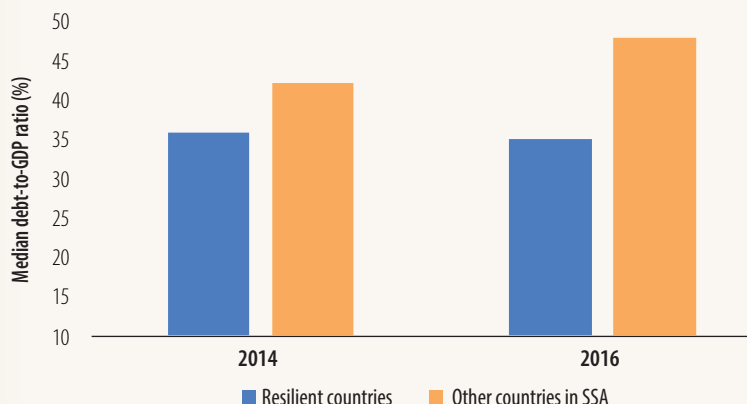


FIGURE 2

Resilient countries have lower public debt-to-GDP ratios than other countries in the region.

Source: World Economic Outlook, 2017.

Quality of the Business Regulatory Framework in Sub-Saharan Africa, by Country Group

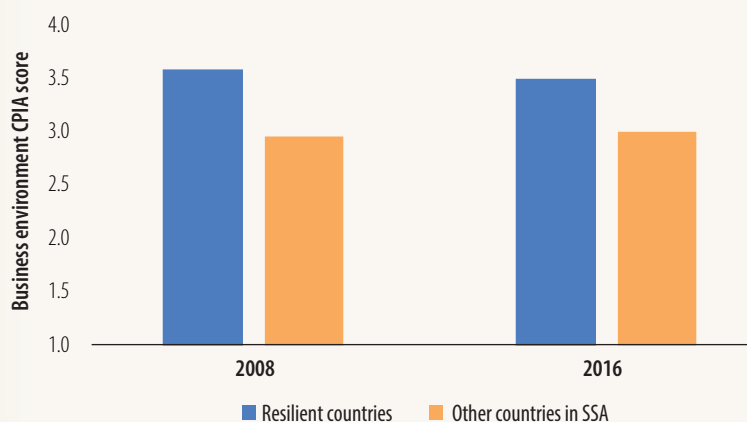


FIGURE 3

The quality of the business regulatory environment is relatively stronger in resilient countries.

Source: CPIA database.

Government Effectiveness in Sub-Saharan Africa, by Country Group

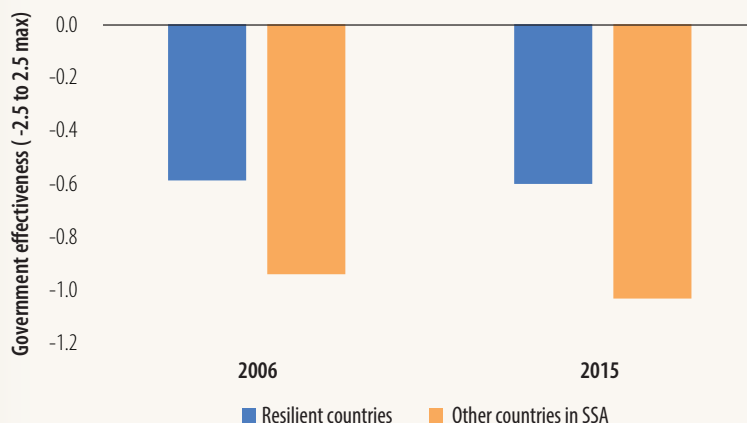


FIGURE 4

Resilient countries continue to outperform other countries in the quality of government effectiveness.

Source: World Governance Indicators database, World Bank.

2016 CPIA Results

Policy and institutional quality weakened in Sub-Saharan Africa amid challenging global and domestic conditions. The average CPIA score for the region's IDA-eligible countries edged lower to 3.1 in 2016. Rwanda again led all countries in the region with a score of 4.0 (figure 5). Other countries at the high end of the score range were Senegal and Kenya, each with a score of 3.8. The number of countries with relatively weak performance—that is, with scores of 3.2 or less—ticked up and account for more than half

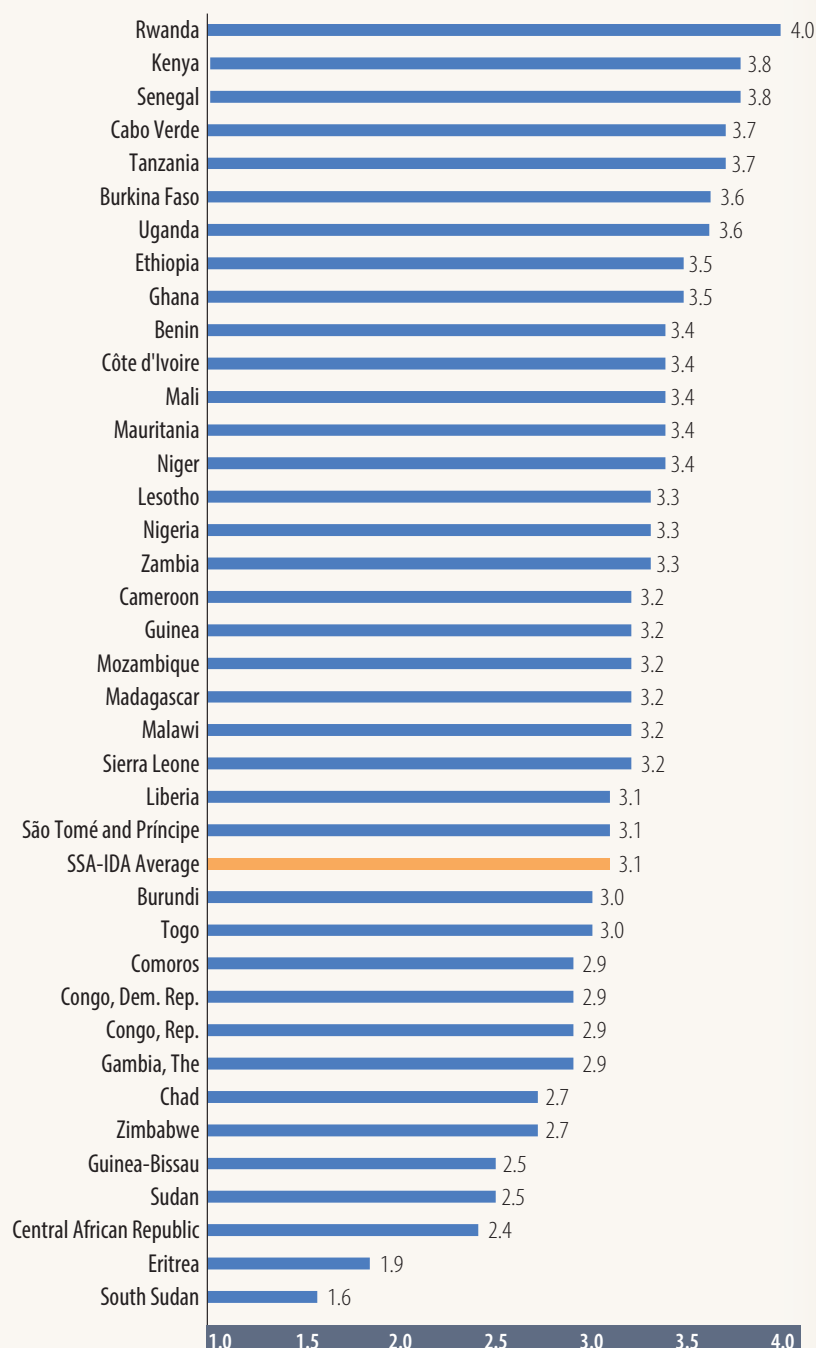
the countries in the region. The regional dispersion in policy and institutional quality increased, as a deterioration in all four clusters of the CPIA in South Sudan pulled down the low end of the score range.

Nearly 60 percent of the IDA countries in the region saw a measurable change in overall policy and institutional quality in 2016, mostly on the downside. Weaker performance was especially evident among commodity exporters and fragile countries, but also in other countries (figure 6). Forty percent of the countries (15), more than in 2015, experienced a deterioration in their CPIA score. Far fewer countries (7) saw improvements, similarly to the outcome in 2015. Broadly, the number of countries with weaker overall scores outpaced improvers by a margin of two to one.

There were some common patterns across countries that experienced a weakening in their overall policy and institutional quality. All but two of these countries posted a decline in the economic management cluster. The deterioration in other

FIGURE 5

Overall CPIA Scores of Sub-Saharan African Countries (IDA), 2016



Source: CPIA database.

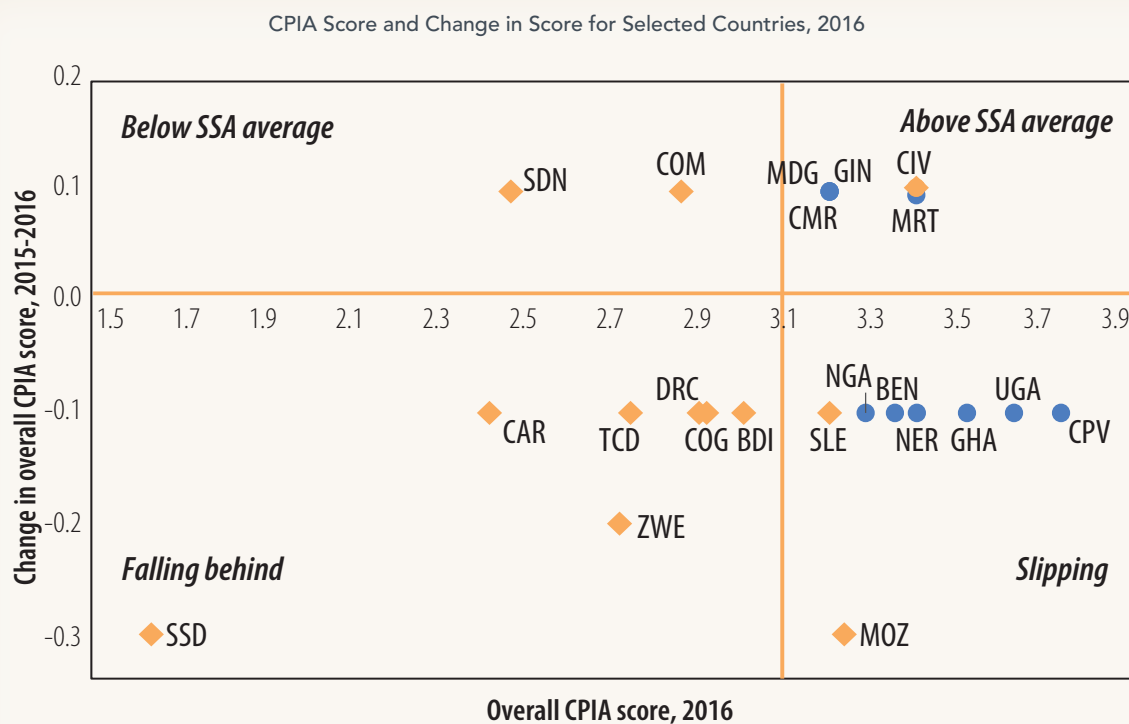


FIGURE 6
The number of countries with weaker CPIA scores outpaced the number of improvers by a margin of two to one.

Source: CPIA database.

Note: The orange dots indicate fragile countries.

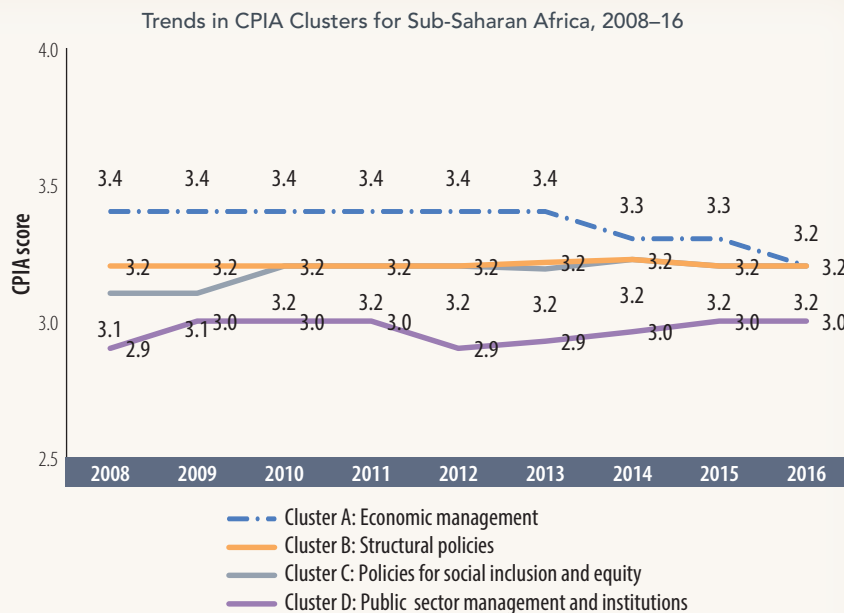
clusters was less widespread, at six countries apiece for the structural policies, policies for social inclusion and equity, and governance clusters. The sharpest fall in the aggregate CPIA score was witnessed in Mozambique and South Sudan, a decrease of 0.3 point. For Mozambique, the decline reflects the economic crisis in the country following the discovery of hidden debts in 2016. For South Sudan, the deterioration in the score indicates the broad-based erosion of policy and institutional quality amid conflict and political instability. Both countries have seen a cumulative decline of 0.5 point in their score since 2012. Zimbabwe's 0.2-point decline, which reversed the 0.2-point gain in the CPIA in 2015, was largely due to lack of fiscal prudence and central bank financing of the fiscal shortfall. Other countries experienced a less sharp slippage in policy and institutional quality: Benin, Burundi, the Central African Republic, Chad, Cabo Verde, the Democratic Republic of Congo, the Republic of Congo, Ghana, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, and Uganda all saw a 0.1-point drop in the CPIA. In some cases, the slippage reflects a continuing weakening of the policy framework (Burundi, Cabo Verde, and Nigeria).

Countries with improvement in policy and institutional quality experienced modest gains in the aggregate CPIA. Gains were capped at 0.1 point in all seven countries in this category: Côte d'Ivoire, the Comoros, Cameroon, Guinea, Madagascar, Mauritania, and Sudan. All but one of these countries experienced stronger performance in the quality of governance, especially in the quality of budgetary and financial management. In a few countries, the quality of policies for social inclusion and equity also improved. The higher score in the Comoros and Guinea represents the second consecutive year of gains. A few countries saw tangible improvements in one or more policy areas of the CPIA that did not translate into a lift in the aggregate country score (Burkina Faso, Tanzania, and Togo). Elsewhere, improvement in one policy area was offset by weakness in another (Senegal and Ethiopia).

There were notable divergent trends in the regional performance of the components of the CPIA. Unfavorable economic conditions continued to take a toll on countries across the region, deepening

FIGURE 7

Divergent trends across the components of the CPIA narrowed the gap between the four policy clusters.



macroeconomic vulnerabilities. With macroeconomic policy buffers continuing to erode, the scope for fiscal and monetary policy to mitigate shocks to economic activity was constrained. A more challenging policy environment pulled down the quality of economic management to an average score of 3.2 (figure 7). This movement reflects a continuing weakening trend in the quality of economic management in recent

years (2014–16). The slippage in performance was evident across all three policy areas: monetary and exchange rate, fiscal, and debt. The most affected was fiscal policy, with nearly one-fourth of the region's countries experiencing a worsening of this component. In some cases, weakness in the macroeconomic framework was evident across all policy areas of economic management (the Republic of Congo and Mozambique). Among the structural policies cluster, rising risks in the financial sector in several countries pulled down the performance of this sector (and the CPIA score of this component), but the cluster score was unchanged. Improvements in financial inclusion were observed across the region, and financial infrastructure is being strengthened as well.

There were positive developments in policies for social inclusion and equity. Namely, the human development policy area improved slightly, reflecting gains in health sector performance in a few countries, and the quality of social protection and labor edged up due to a strengthening of safety net programs in some countries. Yet, these favorable trends did not translate into measurable improvements in the policies for social inclusion and labor cluster score. Reversing the trend observed in 2015, there was a modest net gain in the number of countries registering an improvement in performance of the public sector management and institutions cluster: 10 countries experienced an increase, while six recorded a decline. Within this cluster, there was an uptick in the quality of public administration, but not in the cluster score.

The divergent trends across the components of the CPIA narrowed the gap between the four policy clusters. A deterioration in the quality of economic management in recent years has pulled down the score for this cluster to that of structural policies and policies for social inclusion and equity. At the same time, the governance cluster continues to lag all other clusters, with a score of 3.0. The pattern of a weaker macroeconomic framework marks a departure from the generally sound macroeconomic policies that countries had adopted in the period preceding the global financial crisis and in the wake of the crisis. This worsening trend, along with limited improvement in other policy areas, constrains countries' efforts to regain the momentum on growth.

Not surprisingly, there is considerable variation in performance across country groups in Sub-Saharan Africa. Resilient countries lead other countries in the region on strength of policy and institutional quality (figure 8). The performance gap between these two groups is especially large in the quality of economic management (0.9-point difference in CPIA score), but also in other policy areas. The gap between non-fragile and fragile countries is likewise large across all policy areas. The latest CPIA results show that performance on policy and institutional quality in Sub-Saharan Africa's non-fragile IDA countries remains comparable to that of similar countries elsewhere (figure 9). The reverse pattern is seen for the region's fragile countries, which generally continue to lag fragile countries outside the region. Overall, the average CPIA score for the region's IDA countries is weaker than the average for other IDA countries. Countries with resilient growth performance tend to have better quality of policies and institutions than non-fragile countries outside the region.

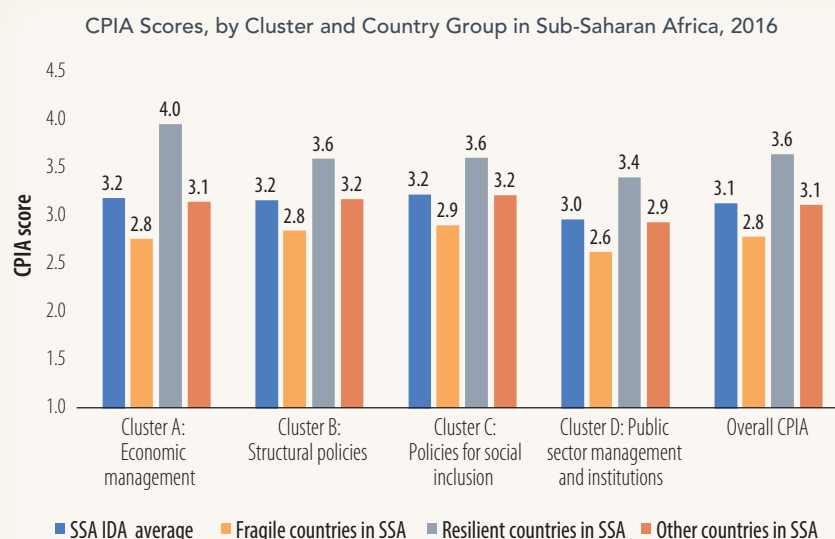


FIGURE 8
Resilient countries lead all other country groups on strength of policy and institutional quality.

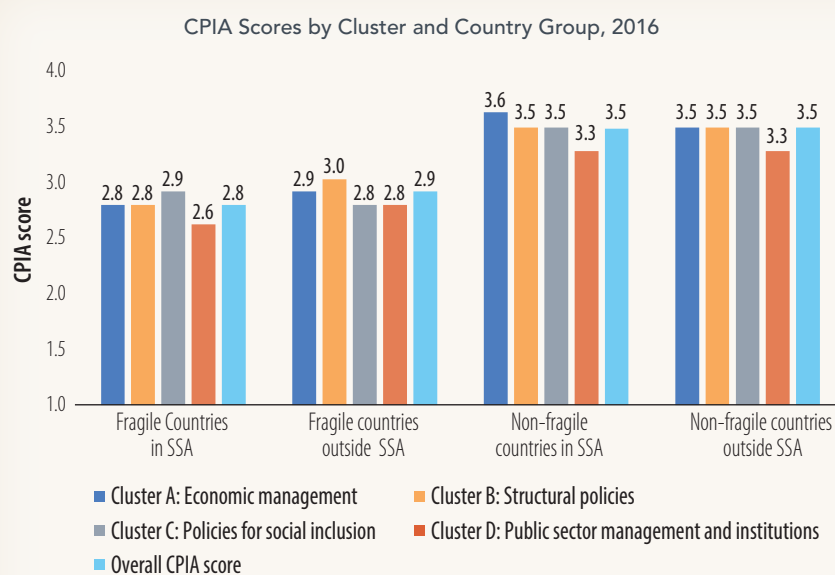


FIGURE 9
The CPIA scores of Sub-Saharan Africa's non-fragile countries are comparable to those of other non-fragile countries, but the performance of the region's fragile countries generally lags that of fragile countries elsewhere.

Analysis of CPIA Components

CLUSTER A: ECONOMIC MANAGEMENT

The quality of monetary and exchange rate, fiscal, and debt policies is covered under this cluster.

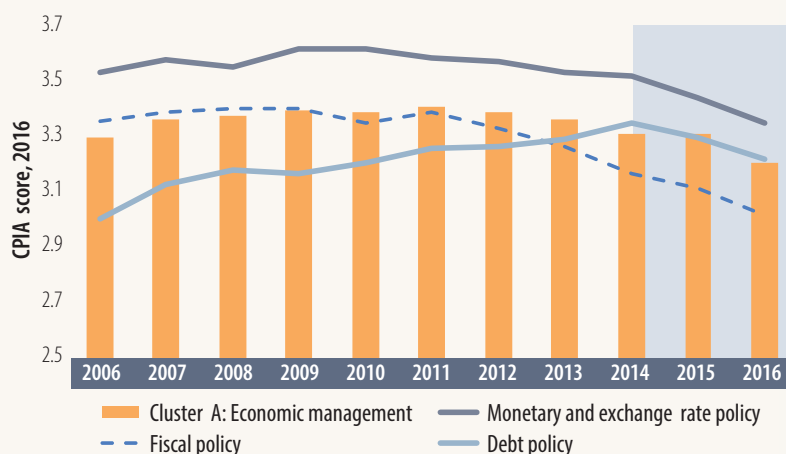
The quality of economic management deteriorated to a CPIA score of 3.2, extending the downward trend in this policy cluster.

Continued low commodity prices and a slowdown in global economic growth made 2016 another difficult year for many African economies. Unfavorable external developments, in conjunction with often difficult domestic conditions, put pressure on already weakened fiscal and external buffers. The scope for pursuing counter-cyclical policies to mitigate shocks to economic activity was constrained, complicating economic management in many Sub-Saharan African countries. The score for cluster A fell to 3.2 in 2016, as the quality of economic management continued the downward trend that began in 2014. The weaker performance was experienced across the three policy areas of economic management: monetary and exchange rate policy, fiscal policy, and debt policy (figure A.1).

FIGURE A.1

Trend in Quality of Economic Management in Sub-Saharan Africa, 2006–16

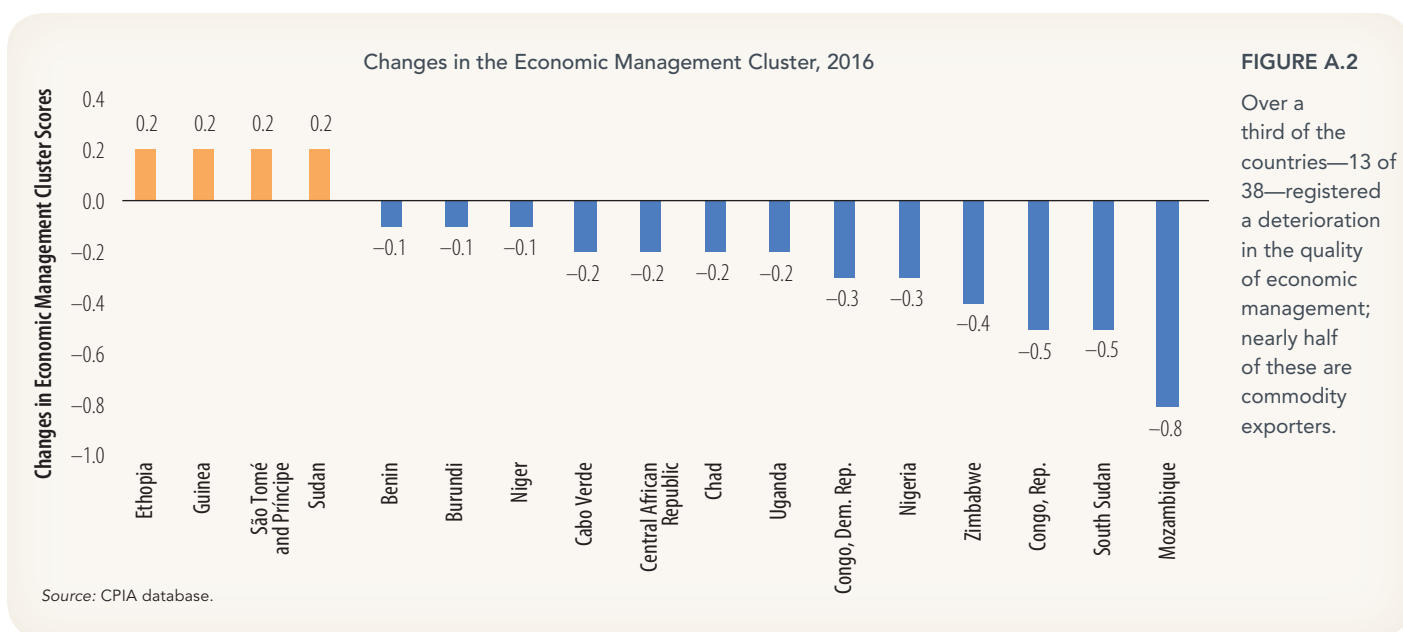
All three policy areas of economic management—monetary and exchange rate, fiscal, and debt—weakens in 2016.



Source: CPIA database.

Over a third of the countries—13 countries of the 38 IDA countries in the region—registered a deterioration in the quality of economic management (figure A.2). Nearly half (six) of these are commodity exporters. Slow adjustment to a large terms-of-trade shock or implementation of inappropriate policies has hampered macroeconomic stabilization in these countries. Several of the countries with a deterioration in this policy cluster are

fragile, reflecting that conflict and fragility can heighten macroeconomic vulnerability. The sharpest decline in the quality of economic management was seen in Mozambique, where the discovery of previously undisclosed external debts compounded the problems of low commodity prices, droughts, and conflict, and dented confidence in the economy and management of public finances and derailed economic stability. Often, countries experienced a decline in more than one policy area in 2016, reflecting the interconnected nature of economic management (table A.1). Bucking the weakening trend, four countries saw an improvement in the quality of economic management—in some cases on the back of efforts aimed at restoring macroeconomic stabilization.



Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy

This component covers the quality of monetary and exchange rate policies in a coherent macroeconomic policy framework. Following a 0.1-point decline in 2015, the regional score for this policy fell a further 0.1 point to 3.3 in 2016, the lowest level in over 10 years. Eight countries saw a reduction in their score (Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo, the Republic of Congo, Mauritania, Mozambique, Nigeria, South Sudan, and Zimbabwe) and one country posted an increase (Guinea).

Erosion of external buffers meant that countries had reduced flexibility to use policies to absorb external shocks. In this challenging policy environment, the monetary and exchange rate policy response in some countries was not consistent with economic stability and sustained medium-term growth. Current account deficits stabilized across the region in 2016, but remained elevated. At the same time, cross-border flows to the region fell, especially foreign direct investment and bond issuance. High current account deficits across much of the region and declining capital flows put downward pressure on exchange rates and international reserves. The number of countries with a decline in reserves of over 20 percent was sharply higher (figure A.3A). Overall, liquidity buffers have been eroding in recent years, indicating the need to rebuild these buffers. Regional inflation ticked up, as several commodity exporters saw large currency depreciations and food prices rose in countries affected by drought (figure A.3B). Although rising inflation often prompted

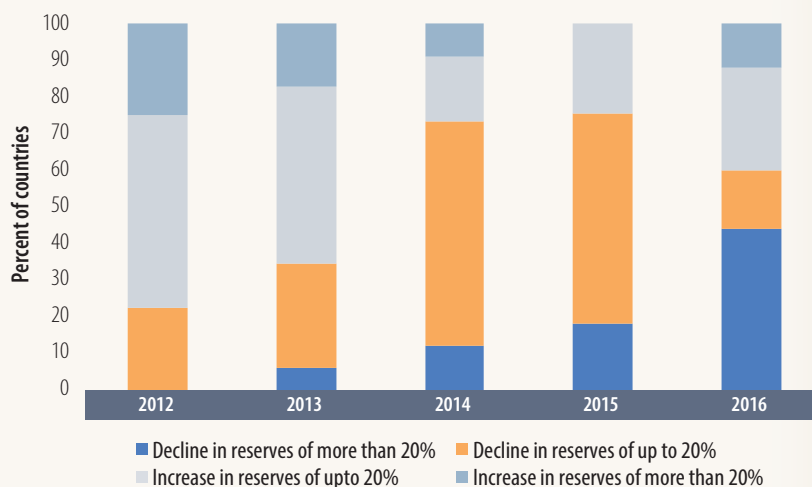
Table A.1. Changes in the Economic Management Cluster Scores, 2016

Change in scores	Monetary and exchange rate policies	Fiscal policy	Debt policy and management
Increases	Guinea	Ethiopia, Mauritania, and Sudan	Ghana and São Tomé and Príncipe
Decreases	Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Republic of Congo, Mauritania, Mozambique, Nigeria, South Sudan, and Zimbabwe	Benin, Democratic Republic of Congo, Republic of Congo, Ghana, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, South Sudan, and Zimbabwe	Cabo Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Republic of Congo, Mozambique, South Sudan, and Uganda

Source: CPIA database.

FIGURE A.3A**Variation in International Reserves in Sub-Saharan Africa, 2012-16**

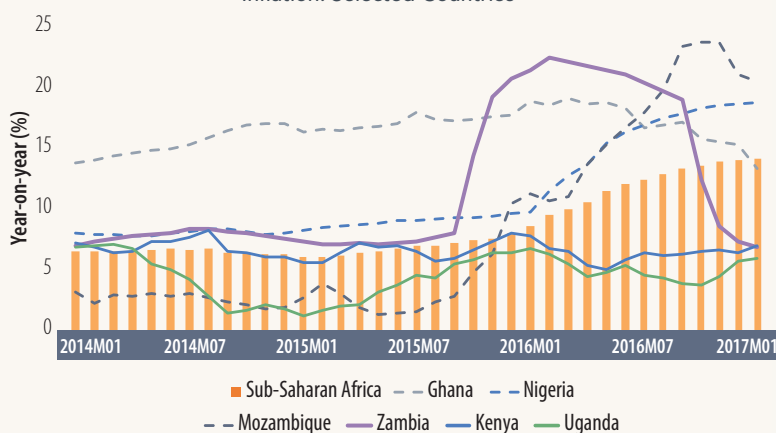
The number of countries with a decline in reserves of over 20 percent was sharply higher in 2016.



Source: World Development Indicators, 2017

FIGURE A.3B

Regional inflation ticked up, as several commodity exporters saw large currency depreciations and food prices rose in countries affected by drought.

Inflation: Selected Countries

Source: Bloomberg, Haver Analytics, World Bank.

a tightening of monetary policy, interest rates remained negative in real terms.

In Nigeria, the currency was partially liberalized in June 2016 amid a widening spread between the official and parallel market rates and declining reserves. Abandoning the peg lowered the value of the naira from 197 to the U.S. dollar to 282. The Central Bank subsequently fixed the interbank exchange rate at 305 in September, and imposed multiple forex allocation/utilization rules. Although the restrictive foreign exchange policy reduced imports, it continued to create shortages and segmentation in the forex exchange market and distortions in the real economy. Uncertainties in the policy environment dampened investor confidence, and gross investment inflows declined by 47 percent in 2016, reaching an all-time low since records

began. Monetary policy remained accommodative, with reserve money rising by one-third, driven by Central Bank financing of the budget deficit. Inflation rose to nearly 19 percent by January 2017, fueled by a combination of factors, including a depreciated currency, accommodative monetary policy, increase in fuel price, and higher power tariffs.

Deep currency depreciation contributed to rising inflation in Mozambique. The 37 percent decline in the value of the metical against the U.S. dollar in 2016 was underpinned by declining exports, lower investment, and decreasing confidence. Investment inflows, which had slowed on the back of low commodity prices, contracted further following the revelation of previously undisclosed debt. Debt developments generated uncertainty about the state of the country's public finances, prompting foreign investors to hold off investment and external credit lines to the private sector and donors to halt budget support. Year-over-year inflation averaged 25 percent in October 2016, with food inflation rising to 40 percent. Regional droughts and internal political conflict also contributed to the spike in prices. To stabilize the currency and rein in inflationary pressures, the Central Bank tightened monetary policy, raising the policy interest rate by 600 basis points in October.

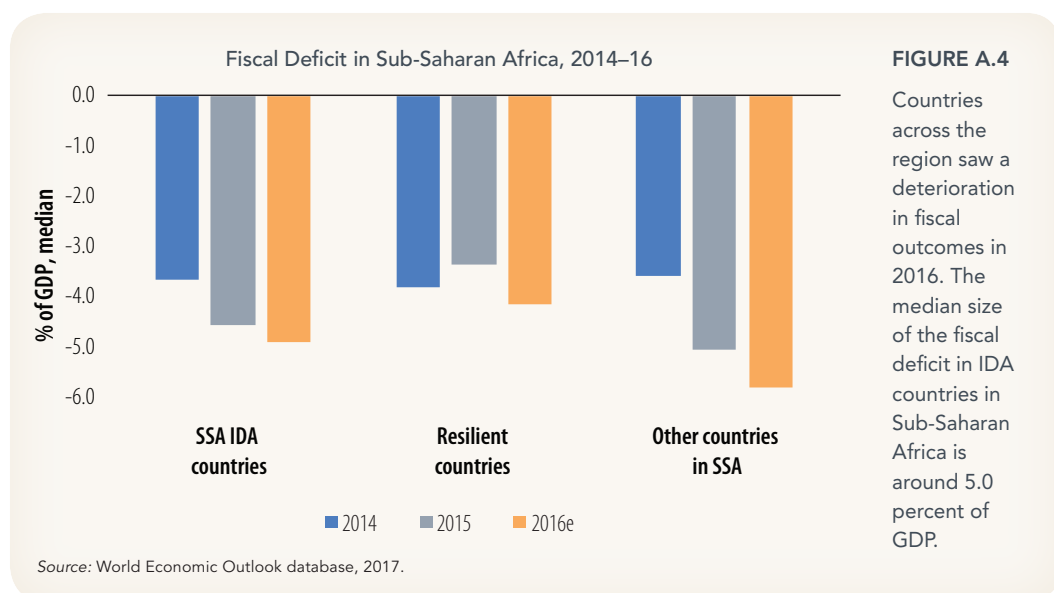
Elsewhere, South Sudan's economic woes deepened amid conflict and political instability, greatly complicating macroeconomic management. The currency depreciated sharply in the parallel market—from 18.5 South Sudanese pounds (SSP) to the U.S. dollar in December 2015 to 90 SSP per dollar in December 2016 and 150 SSP per dollar by mid-June 2017—and inflation accelerated by 334 percent from May 2016 to May 2017. In Burundi, restrictions on foreign exchange transactions limited the depreciation of the official exchange rate (to about 5 percent) and inflation remained moderate. But the wedge between the official and parallel market rates jumped to 60 percent in 2016, compared with 25 percent in 2015. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, the current account deficit deteriorated sharply, reducing foreign currency reserves to less than one month of imports of goods and services, from nearly six weeks at end-2015. The currency depreciated by nearly 10 percent in 2016, and inflation climbed to an average of 5.7 percent, well above the 1.3 percent level in 2015. After remaining at 2 percent for four years, the Central Bank raised the policy interest rate to 7 percent in September, and further tightened monetary policy in early 2017.

Among positive developments, Guinea successfully completed an International Monetary Fund (IMF) Extended Credit Facility Program, for the first time in the country's history. The completion of the program marks an important achievement for the country, which is recovering from the Ebola crisis, and has contributed to better macroeconomic management and economic performance..

Fiscal Policy

This component assesses the stabilization and resource allocation aspects of fiscal policy. Fiscal policy adjustment to a less favorable economic landscape has been inadequate, especially in commodity exporters, but also in nonresource-rich countries. Fiscal buffers continued to erode in 2016 amid mounting fiscal pressures and weak implementation of policies. Low commodity prices and weak economic growth translated into revenue shortfalls in several countries. In some cases, a slowdown in fiscal consolidation efforts contributed to expenditure overruns, deepening budgetary challenges. Sizable exchange rate depreciations raised debt service costs, heightening fiscal pressures in a few countries. Strong public investment spending, especially in non-resource-abundant countries, added to fiscal imbalances. Fiscal outcomes in 2016 were weaker than in recent years, and less favorable compared with the pre-global financial crisis period (figure A.4). The median size of the fiscal deficit in IDA countries in Sub-Saharan Africa is around 5.0 percent of GDP. Although the resilient group of countries and other countries have seen a deterioration in fiscal balances, the gap in performance between resilient and other countries is substantial, with the deficit being larger by more than 1.5 percent of GDP in the latter group.

Continued slippage in the quality of fiscal policy in 2016 pulled down the regional score for this component of the CPIA to 3.0. The region has seen a 0.4-point cumulative erosion in the fiscal policy score since 2011. Nine countries, or nearly one-fourth of IDA borrowers, experienced weaker performance in



this policy area: Benin, the Democratic Republic of Congo, the Republic of Congo, Ghana, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, South Sudan, and Zimbabwe. A good many of these countries are fragile or resource-rich. Notwithstanding the downward trend, a smaller number of countries (Ethiopia, Mauritania, and Sudan) posted gains in the quality of fiscal policy. For example, Ethiopia strengthened revenue mobilization and kept deficits low despite large spending for drought-related relief; Mauritania successfully lowered the budget deficit through tighter fiscal policy; and Sudan undertook fiscal reforms, including phasing out subsidies on petroleum products and electricity.

Fiscal policy challenges deepened in several countries. In South Sudan, conflict, weak implementation capacity, and poor performance of the oil sector severely affected the fiscal policy stance. Fiscal revenues remained depressed amid low prices and declining production of oil, and underperformance of non-oil revenues due to challenges with tax collection. This combined with increased operational and capital expenditures and subsidies to the national oil company, along with spending on salaries, widened the fiscal deficit. The fiscal deficit is estimated at around 14 percent of GDP in FY16/17 and 13 percent in 2015/16, well above the 3.3 percent in FY13/14, financed mainly by the Central Bank of South Sudan. Elsewhere, Zimbabwe's fiscal position deteriorated in 2016, as fiscal austerity measures were reversed. The general decline in economic activity in the country led to underperformance of revenues, by about 10 percent of what was initially budgeted. At the same time, actual expenditures increased beyond budget allocations. The fiscal deficit widened to nearly 10 percent of GDP, and the government borrowed heavily in the domestic market using treasury bills.

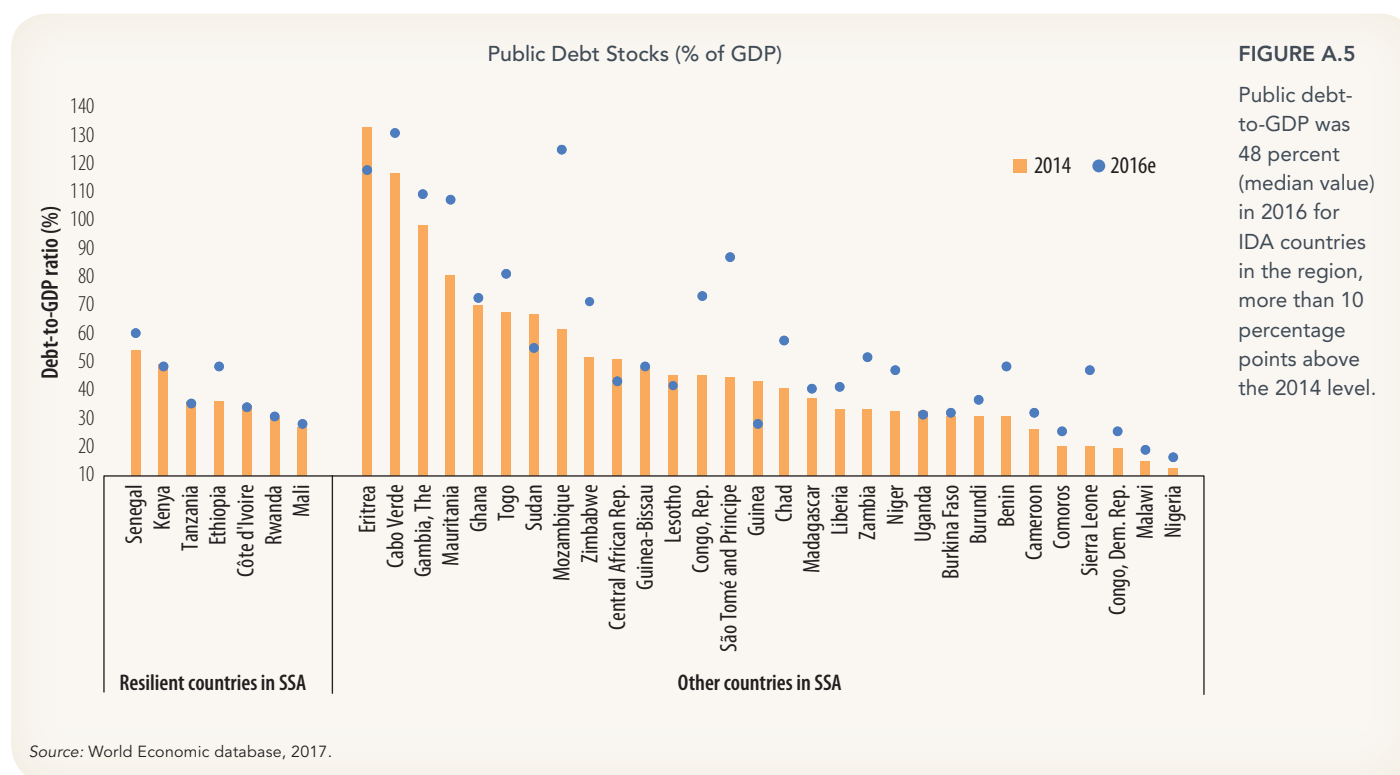
The fiscal imbalance continued to deteriorate in the Republic of Congo, as weak oil prices sharply lowered revenues. Lack of funding affected ongoing public investments, and resulted in a sizable buildup of domestic arrears. But the wage bill continued to grow, and its size relative to GDP was double that in 2013. Despite a substantial scaling back of capital spending, the fiscal deficit reached an estimated 17 percent of GDP in 2016. Fiscal adjustment is needed to help restore macroeconomic stabilization and promote sustainable growth. Revenues were also pulled down by low commodity prices and declining mining and oil production in the Democratic Republic of Congo. With the contribution of the mining sector to domestic revenue remaining below potential, the contribution from the value-added tax yet to reach the anticipated level, and a relatively high share of recurrent spending in total expenditures, fiscal consolidation efforts focused on reducing spending on infrastructure, to around 2 percent of GDP. The low share of capital spending on infrastructure raises concerns for growth in the medium term, and reflects limited policy space to absorb aggregate demand shocks.

Ghana saw substantial fiscal slippage in 2016, and the country missed fiscal targets on its IMF-supported program by a large margin. Expenditure overruns ahead of elections, coupled with revenue shortfalls, widened the fiscal deficit (on a cash basis) by more than 3 percent of GDP above the programmed level of 5.3 percent of GDP. The accumulation of new arrears and financial deficits of state-owned enterprises in the energy sector further compounded the fiscal difficulties facing the country. Given the relatively large size of public debt, the higher fiscal deficit increases the vulnerability to exchange rate, rollover, and liquidity risks. In Mozambique, the revelation of previously undisclosed borrowing by state-owned enterprises heightened fiscal risks. The contingent liabilities stemming from this borrowing deteriorated the country's debt position. The disclosure of \$1.4 billion in external debt led to a suspension of the country's IMF program and budget support by donors; these sources financed about 6 percent of the budget over the past three years. The depreciation of the currency and a larger stock of debt increased debt service obligations. In October 2016, the country announced that it would seek debt restructuring from its private creditors, as it lacked the capacity to pay (in January 2017 it defaulted on a coupon payment on its sovereign bond).

Debt Policy

This component assesses whether the country's debt management strategy is conducive to ensure medium-term debt sustainability and minimize budgetary risks. It covers (i) the extent to which external and domestic debt is contracted with a view to achieving/maintaining debt sustainability; and (ii) the effectiveness of debt management functions.

Debt conditions have become more challenging, as public debt in Sub-Saharan Africa has continued to rise amid large and widening fiscal deficits and weak economic growth. Public debt-to-GDP was 48 percent (median value) in 2016 for IDA countries in the region, more than 10 percentage points above the 2014 level (figure A.5). There is considerable variation in performance across countries. For example, the bottom quartile of countries had public debt-to-GDP ratios below 32 percent, and this ratio exceeded 70 percent for countries in the top quartile. Resilient countries typically have lower public debt-to-GDP ratios than other countries. Some countries have seen a more rapid rise in debt ratios. For example, 14 countries saw a 10-percentage point rise in this ratio during 2014–16, and six of these countries saw increases of 20 percentage points or more.

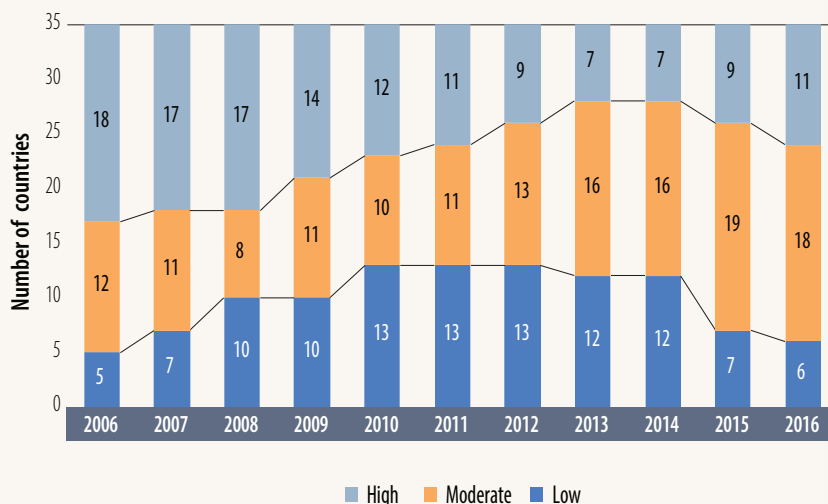


The results of the latest IMF-World Bank Debt Sustainability Analysis (DSA) suggest that several countries in Sub-Saharan Africa are caught in an environment of low growth prospects, widened fiscal deficits, weaker currencies, and lower export revenues, and could face problems in repaying their debt. Figure A.6 shows that of the 35 low- and middle-income countries in the region with a DSA, the number of countries at low risk of debt distress halved to six, or less than 20 percent, during 2014–16. In tandem, there has been an uptick in the number of countries that are considered at “moderate” and “high” risk of debt distress. A few countries with deteriorating debt dynamics, such as Mozambique and the Republic of Congo, have received credit rating downgrades, which signal higher borrowing costs for these countries.

FIGURE A.6

Evolution of the Risk of Debt Stress: Low-Income Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa

The number of low- and middle-income countries at low risk of debt distress fell from 12 to 6 during 2014–16.



Source: IMF/World Bank DSA database, June 2017.

In an environment with tightening global financial conditions, many countries in the region face the challenge of undertaking their much-needed development spending without jeopardizing debt sustainability. This will require pursuing sound monetary and fiscal policies to ensure macroeconomic stability, as well as developing local currency bond markets to reduce dependence on external funding and exposure to exchange rate

risk. As these markets deepen, longer maturities and fixed rates for public debt issuance will reduce the exposure to interest rate fluctuations. The capacity of debt management organizations across countries requires upgrading as well.

The regional average score for debt policy and management declined to 3.2, a level last seen in 2010. The weaker score reflects rising vulnerabilities to export, growth, and foreign exchange shocks. The quality of debt policy and management deteriorated in seven countries: Cabo Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Republic of Congo, Mozambique, South Sudan, and Uganda. In many of the countries, rising domestic public debt combined with a very low export base continued to weigh on debt vulnerability. Signs of significant accumulation of domestic arrears and growing delays in the payment of current expenditures, including salary payments, contributed to the weakening of the debt policy score in some countries.

Two countries (Ghana and São Tomé and Príncipe) registered an improvement in the overall score, on an upgrading of debt management. As part of its stabilization program, Ghana began preparing a Medium-Term Debt Strategy, concurrently with the budget in 2016, and debt indicators have been incorporated in determining fiscal rules going forward. Debt management has now become an integral part of the macroeconomic framework, and not a residual policy. The increase in the score for São Tomé and Príncipe reflects progress in key areas of debt management practices. Although the country remains at high risk of debt distress, a recent evaluation of its debt management practices finds that debt management and fiscal and monetary policies are coordinated most of the time. The Debt Management Office (DMO) provides timely debt service projections to the Budget Office, and a common set of official economic projections underpins budget and debt projections. The Central Bank informs market participants of debt that is issued for fiscal purposes and that for monetary policy purposes. The DMO has been in place for more than five years. It keeps adequate records (physical and electronic) of all loan and guarantee contracts, although backup arrangements could be improved. Reliable, comprehensive debt data are available in a timely manner. Quarterly debt reports, including all loans and some arrears to suppliers, are made available online and included in the budget and state general account documents.

CLUSTER B: STRUCTURAL POLICIES

Cluster B of the CPIA covers policies affecting trade, the financial sector, and the business environment.

The regional average score for cluster B was unchanged at 3.2 in 2016, although weaker financial sector performance in several countries pulled down the score of this component of structural policies.

Trade

The trade component score, which assesses a country's trade policy regime and trade facilitation, edged slightly lower. Except for one country, Zimbabwe, for which the score declined, there were no changes in the overall CPIA trade score for other IDA countries in Sub-Saharan Africa between 2015 and 2016. Looking at the two categories that comprise the overall score, only three of the 38 countries registered a small increase in the score for trade facilitation. This suggests that the pace of trade reform in Africa has stagnated.

One of the key elements that affects the score for trade policy is the external tariff. The average external tariff across countries in Sub-Saharan Africa barely changed, from 12.46 percent in 2005 to 11.54 percent in 2015 (weighted by the total imports of each country, the average was 8.29 percent in 2005 and 8.11 percent in 2015). The average tariff in Sub-Saharan Africa remains considerably higher than the average tariff of 7.9 percent in East Asia, the region that has developed fastest over the past two decades. There has been more of a change in the applied external tariff, which accounts for the preferences that countries grant to trade partners in free trade areas and customs unions. The average applied tariff in Africa declined from 12.26 percent in 2005 to 10.14 percent in 2015. The decline reflects the increasing number of countries (more fully) participating in free trade areas, such as the Southern African Development Community.

Many countries in Africa are members of a customs union, so the scope for individual countries, especially small countries, to determine their external tariff is limited. Nevertheless, for many customs unions in Africa, it may be opportune to review the level of the external tariff to enhance integration into the global economy, and as efforts intensify to enhance regional free trade through the Tripartite Free Trade Area and Continental Free Trade Area. From an economic perspective, there is risk that removing tariffs against some trading partners while maintaining relatively high tariffs against others increases distortions in the economy and may reduce welfare. A first step would be careful analysis of the implications of reducing external tariffs for domestic producers that compete with imports, producers that use imported inputs and capital goods, and companies seeking to integrate into global value chains, as well as for consumers and government revenues.

Another key element of the CPIA score for trade policy relates to nontariff barriers, such as those arising from the application of regulatory measures that impose heavier costs on traded goods than on those sold domestically. Here the information is much more difficult to obtain than that on tariffs. However, the available evidence suggests that nontariff barriers are often more restrictive than tariffs, and are typically significant barriers to trade and value chain development. Many countries in Africa

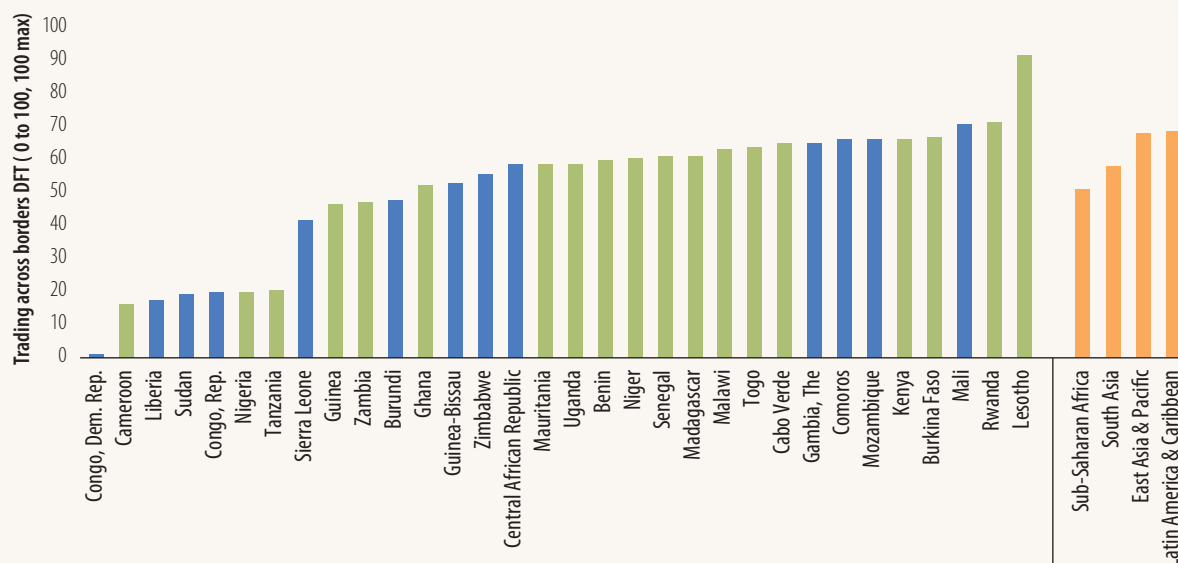
are working to reduce nontariff barriers, individually and through their regional communities. Unlike tariff reform, removing nontariff barriers often requires regulatory reform and building the capacity of regulatory agencies.³

A key indicator used to define the subscore for trade facilitation is the Logistics Performance Index (LPI). Here again, there has only been limited improvement in Sub-Saharan Africa over the past 10 years, with the overall score increasing from 2.25 in 2007 to 2.47 in 2016. In contrast, the East Asia region has seen substantial improvement in the LPI, from 2.66 in 2007 to 3.14 in 2016. The quality of trade logistics is a key determinant of the costs and timeliness of trade, which in turn affect the competitiveness of traded goods and the attractiveness to investments in trade-related activities, such as those related to global value chains. Africa has clearly fallen back in logistics performance relative to a key competitor region.

FIGURE B.1

Trading across Borders: Distance to the Frontier for Selected Countries and Regions, 2016

Among Sub-Saharan Africa's IDA countries, only three are ranked in the top half of the global distribution of the trading across borders indicator, with 18 countries in the bottom quintile.



Source: Doing Business Indicators, 2017.

Note: Blue bars indicate fragile countries. DTF= distance to the frontier.

The Trading Across Borders indicator of Doing Business shows that African countries lag the best global performers (as measured by distance to the frontier) (figure B.1). Moreover, only three of the 38 IDA countries in the region are ranked in the top half of the global distribution of this indicator across 190 countries, with 18 countries in the bottom quintile, that is, with a rank of 152 or lower. There have been a few successes, such as Lesotho and Rwanda, which are ranked 39 and 89, respectively, in the 2017 Doing Business exercise for Trading Across Borders. The region's weak performance reflects the cost of domestic logistical procedures, such as on border and documentary compliance of exporting and importing (figure B.2), as well as high domestic transportation costs. For most of the African countries, there is still enormous scope and need for improvements in the time and cost to import and export.

³ These are issues that can be discussed with the World Bank as part of the dialogue on trade, and addressed through the available World Bank instruments for analysis, technical assistance, and lending operations.

Countries in Africa are actively pursuing strategies to industrialize and diversify their economies to provide a broader base for job creation and poverty reduction. Deeper regional and global integration will be important aspects of the implementation of these strategies and a key element in defining the incentives for domestic and foreign investment in tradable activities. The CPIA scores suggest that there has been very little progress on trade policy and trade facilitation in Africa in recent years, and there is a need to push ahead with reforms in these areas to avoid falling further behind other developing and competitor regions.

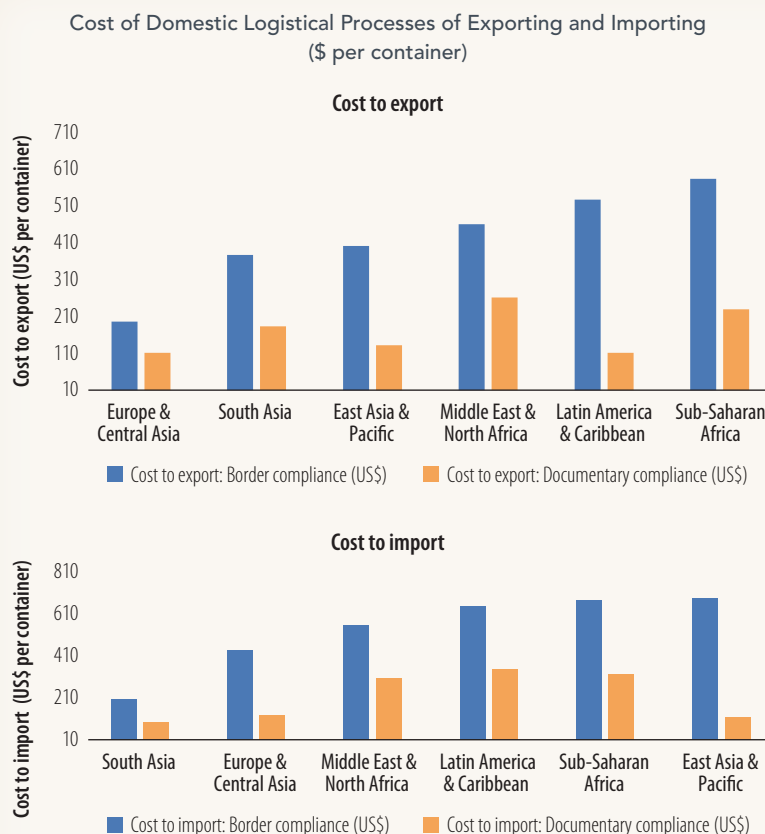


FIGURE B.2
The region exhibits weak performance on the cost of domestic logistical procedures.

Source: Doing Business Indicators, 2017.

Financial Sector

The financial sector component measures policies and regulations that affect financial stability, efficiency, and access. The region's average score for this component slipped to 2.8 in 2016. Eight of the region's 38 IDA countries saw deterioration in policy and regulatory quality of the financial sector. The decline largely reflected weaker performance around financial stability. The pullback in the overall regional score is not mirrored in other IDA countries (figure B.3).

Most countries have preserved financial stability, but risks have significantly increased. Credit risks started to deteriorate in 2015 across banking systems, following the worsening of the macroeconomic environment, poor policy response in several countries, and excesses in the previous period of rapid growth. Nonperforming loans increased by 50 percent and sometimes doubled in many countries (in 2016), often starting from

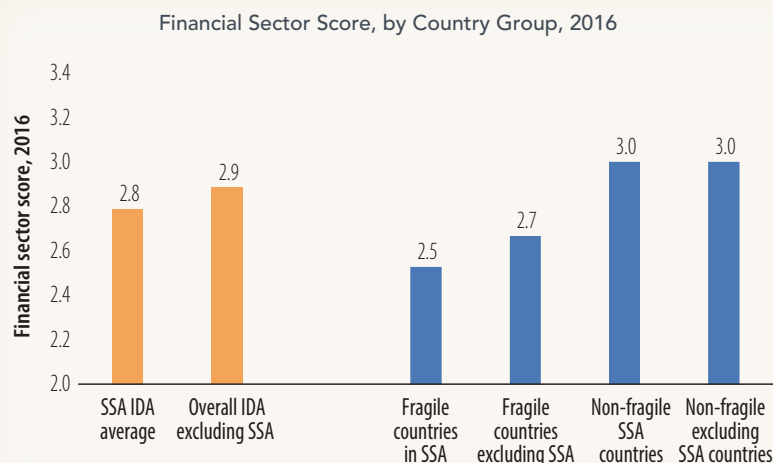


FIGURE B.3
Eight countries saw a deterioration in the policy and regulatory quality of the financial sector, pulling down the regional score to 2.8.

Source: CPIA database.

fairly high levels. Significant delays were sometimes observed, particularly in 2016, on payments to government contractors (with small and medium-size enterprises (SMEs) being particularly affected) and, in a few cases, to civil servants. Capital buffers have generally been allowed to absorb the shock so far, but individual bank failures were observed (often reflecting poor governance practices and inadequate supervision in the earlier boom period). In several small and fragile countries, banking systems are distressed, affecting future recovery prospects.

Countries continue to implement efforts to strengthen prudential regimes, introduce risk-based supervision, and improve enforcement of prudential standards. Recent episodes of individual bank failures highlighted remaining weaknesses (and difficulties in minimizing bank resolution costs). Increased attention is being paid to strengthening cross-border banking supervision to address pan-African banking groups, which are dominant and systemic actors across the continent. Resolution regimes are being strengthened in the largest countries, but most jurisdictions do not yet have an adequate framework to respond flexibly to banking crises. An increasing number of African regulators are including mobile money in their supervisory approach and deposit insurance schemes.

There was an apparent acceleration of financial deepening in 2015, which was later reversed in several jurisdictions in 2016 (the median ratio of banking assets to GDP increased from 38 percent in 2014 to 45 percent in 2015, and declined to 43 percent in 2016). Banks' exposure to the sovereign increased significantly, primarily through the acquisition of government securities, but also through direct lending to governments, their agencies, as well as state-owned enterprises. Crowding out of the private sector is observed in multiple countries. Many financial systems started experiencing significant liquidity pressures, particularly in access to foreign currency liquidity. Profitability generally remained robust in 2015, with some declines observed in 2016 as the cost of risk started to increase significantly and activity slowed (for example, international transactions). In an often-adverse macroeconomic environment, efforts to develop local capital markets are increasing (in a context of rapidly increasing issuance of domestic government bills and bonds and reduced access to international capital markets).

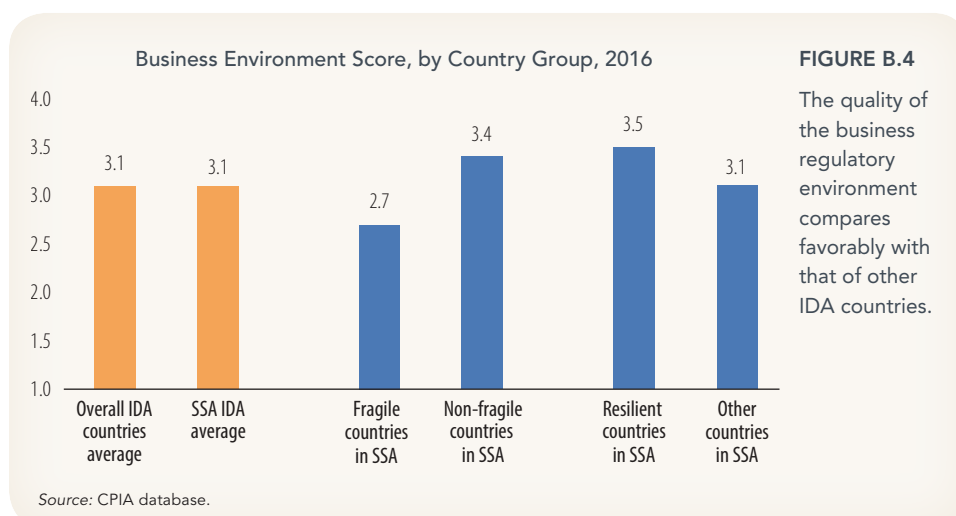
Improvements in financial inclusion, especially digital financial inclusion, continue to be observed across the continent. Innovations are particularly vibrant in the mobile money space, with a growing number of services offered (including credit and insurance). Recent studies on fintech innovations paint a glowing picture of potential growth in digital financial services, due to rapidly growing mobile penetration and smartphone ownership, a lack of constraints from traditional legacy banking systems, and a growing population with a strong entrepreneurial spirit. Financial infrastructure is being strengthened across the region (particularly in credit information and movable collateral).

Business Regulatory Framework

The business regulatory environment component of the CPIA assesses the extent to which the legal, regulatory, and policy environment helps or hinders private businesses in investing, creating jobs, and becoming more productive. The three subcomponents measured are (i) regulations affecting entry, exit, and competition; (ii) regulations of ongoing business operations; and (iii) regulations of factor markets (labor and land).

The regional average score for the business regulatory environment in 2016 remained unchanged at 3.1, and compares favorably with that of other IDA countries (figure B.4). The region's resilient countries have a better business environment than other countries in the region, and non-fragile countries maintain a

sizable gap over fragile countries. Fourteen of the 38 IDA countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have a score of 3.5 or higher. Top regional performers, such as Rwanda, Ghana, and Uganda, have scores of 4.0 or higher in 2016. Several fragile countries, including the Central African Republic, Chad, Eritrea, the Republic of Congo, Guinea Bissau, South Sudan, and Zimbabwe, continued to experience a weak business regulatory environment, which kept scores low (below 2.5).



Two countries (Lesotho and Madagascar) recorded a gain in their overall score for the business regulatory environment in 2016, but twice as many countries registered a decline (Benin, Eritrea, Ethiopia, and Senegal). The higher score for Lesotho is underpinned by improvements in dealing with construction permits and protecting minority investors. The country's global ranking in the 2017 Doing Business indicator improved 12 points, from 112 to 100, and its distance to the frontier score rose from 57 to 61. Similarly, Madagascar saw increases in its overall ranking and distance to the frontier score. The country made it easier to start a business by reducing the number of procedures and hours (from 13 to 11) needed to register a company, much lower than the Sub-Saharan Africa average of 27 hours.

According to the 2017 Doing Business report, over one-quarter of all reforms (28 percent of 280 total reforms) in the review period were in Sub-Saharan Africa. Eighty reforms were adopted, across 37 countries in the region, representing a pickup in the pace of reforms. Over half of the reforms were implemented by the 17 members of the Organization for the Harmonization of Business Law in Africa (OHADA).⁴ The region's economies reformed most in the areas of resolving insolvency (with 18 reforms) and starting a business (15). For example, Nigeria and Rwanda made starting a business easier by introducing or improving online portals. Elsewhere, as part of the OHADA reform agenda, Cameroon introduced a new conciliation procedure for companies in financial difficulties, making it easier to resolve insolvency by allowing additional outlets to settle debts.

For the second time in a row, Kenya was among the top 10 improvers in the world. The country implemented reforms in five Doing Business areas. For example, starting a business was made easier by removing the stamp duty fees required for nominal capital, memorandums, and articles of association, and eliminating the requirement to sign the compliance declaration before a commissioner of oaths; and in the area of resolving insolvency, a reorganization procedure and regulations for insolvency practitioners were introduced. The country also streamlined the process for getting electricity, reducing the time for grid connection by almost two weeks.

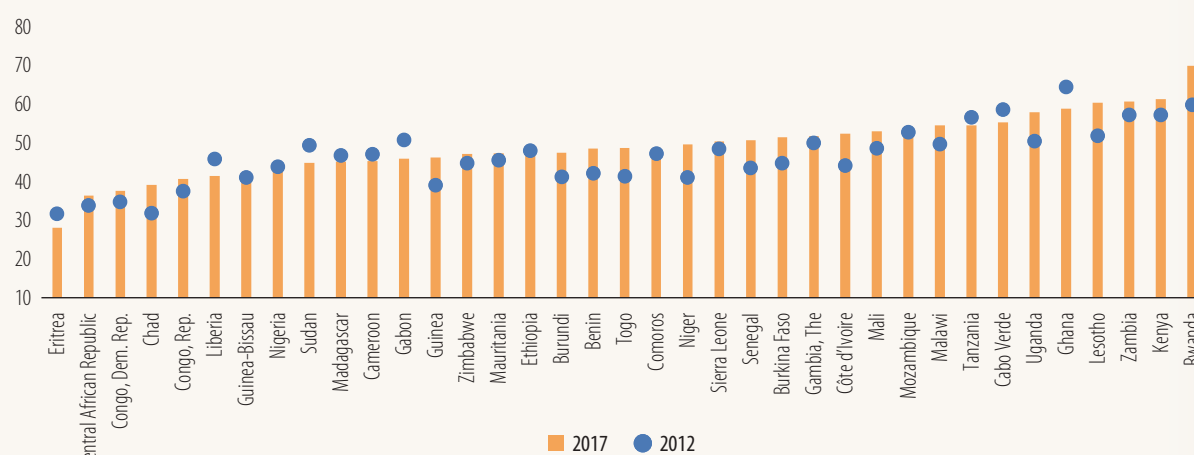
⁴ The 17 OHADA countries are Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Niger, the Republic of Congo, Senegal, and Togo.

Although several of the region's countries have made notable progress in reforming their business environment, improvements in distance to the frontier are slow (figure B.5). More than half of all IDA countries in the region have a distance to the frontier score of 50 or less, and fewer than one-third have seen a five-point or larger gain in this score between 2012 and 2017.

FIGURE B.5

Overall Doing Business: Distance to the Frontier Score in Sub-Saharan Africa, 2017 Compared with 2012

More than half of all IDA countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have a distance to the frontier score of 50 or less, and fewer than one-third have seen a five-point or larger gain in this score between 2012 and 2017.



Source: Doing Business indicators, 2017.

CLUSTER C: POLICIES FOR SOCIAL INCLUSION AND EQUITY

A wide range of policy areas, such as gender equality, equity of public resource use, human development, social protection, and environmental sustainability, are covered under this cluster.

The regional score for cluster C was 3.2 in 2016, continuing the flat trend observed since 2010.

Gender Equality

The gender equality component assesses the extent to which a country has enacted and put in place institutions and programs to enforce laws and policies that promote equal access for men and women to human capital development and productive and economic resources, and which give men and women equal status and protection under the law. At 3.2, the average score for this category has remained unchanged since 2005. This trend reflects not only the large gender inequalities in Sub-Saharan Africa, but also the difficulty of changing norms about gender.

The CPIA score for Sub-Saharan Africa is lower than the global average for IDA countries. This may partly be explained by the higher level of fragility in the region. For example, of 30 IDA and IDA/International Bank for Reconstruction and Development blend countries that the World Bank listed as being fragile situations in FY17, 19 are in Sub-Saharan Africa. These fragile countries perform poorly across all the subsections of the gender equality component of the CPIA: seven of the 10 countries in the region with the lowest overall scores for this component are classified as being fragile situations, compared with only three of the 10 best performing countries. This is not surprising, as fragility negatively affects every aspect of women's lives, including access to services that are essential for basic human development, economic opportunities,

and protection from violence and other legal violations. There is a particularly high level of fragility in West and Central Africa, which is also reflected in the CPIA scores on gender. Eight of the 10 worst performing countries are in West or Central Africa: Guinea-Bissau, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Mali, Niger, and Guinea. The 10 best performing countries include three countries in East Africa (Burundi, Rwanda, and Uganda), three in West Africa (Senegal, Ghana, and Cabo Verde), and four in Southern Africa (Namibia, Zimbabwe, Lesotho, and Madagascar).

The average performance on the human development aspects of gender equality continues to be lower than performance on the economic opportunity and legal protection aspects. This indicates that there is still an urgent need for countries in the region to make more progress improving access to basic services for women and girls, including services that support reproductive health, family planning, and equal access to education for boys and girls. While these human development gaps have tended to be the focus of most research on gender, there is a growing evidence base on the factors underlying gaps in economic empowerment and the types of interventions that can close these gaps. The economic empowerment gaps are especially important in Sub-Saharan Africa, given the small size of formal wage markets and the predominance of self-employment, including in agriculture. Box C.1 summarizes some of the emerging evidence in this area.

Research from the World Bank's Africa Gender Innovation Lab (GIL) suggests that occupational sex segregation is an important factor behind earnings gaps between women and men. Studies in Uganda and Ethiopia indicate that access to information and having a male mentor may play important roles in allowing women to cross into the more profitable and more highly remunerated sectors that tend to be dominated by men.

It has long been recognized that legal discrimination in property and inheritance rights negatively affects women's ability to find the collateral required for business loans. Innovative approaches to easing this constraint are being tested by researchers. For example, in the Women Entrepreneurship Development Project in Ethiopia, GIL is testing the impact of using a short psychometric test that predicts the likelihood that an entrepreneur will repay a loan. If the loan applicant achieves a high enough score on the test, she gets the loan, with no need for any collateral. So far, the repayment rate is over 99 percent.

In the agriculture sector, joint GIL and Development Research Group research across six countries in the region revealed large gaps in productivity between women and men farmers, ranging from 24 percent in Ethiopia to 66 percent in Niger (figure BC.1.1). These gaps are explained by women's lower access to a variety of productive inputs and lower returns to the use of those inputs, with farm labor being an especially significant constraint. This evidence suggests that providing women with financing to hire farm labor, adopt labor-saving technology, and use community-based childcare could help close the productivity gap, increasing rural incomes and food security.

Across agriculture and nonagricultural self-employment, emerging evidence from World Bank researchers and outside academics, including Michael Frese, suggests that noncognitive skills, such as personal initiative, may be particularly important for closing gender gaps in performance. In Malawi, analysis of household survey data suggests that women's noncognitive skills are associated with their adoption of a key export crop. Future impact evaluation work will test whether low-cost psychological interventions can equip women farmers with these skills. In Togo, the preliminary results of a randomized control trial indicate that personal initiative training is more effective than traditional managerial training in increasing firm profits, especially for women entrepreneurs.

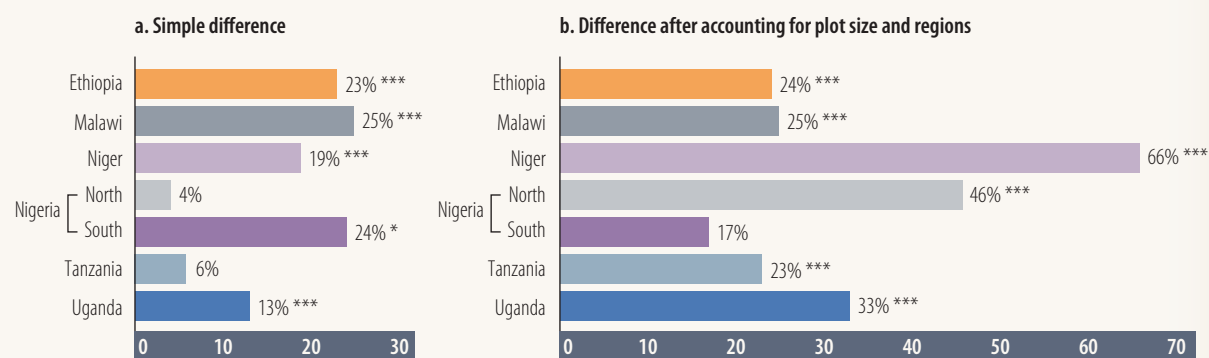
BOX C.1

Emerging
Evidence on
Gender Gaps
in Economic
Opportunity

BOX C.1

Continued

FIGURE BC.1.1 Gender Gaps in Agriculture Productivity, by Country



Note: The symbols * / ** / *** denote statistical significance at the 10%, 5% and 1% levels respectively.

Sources:

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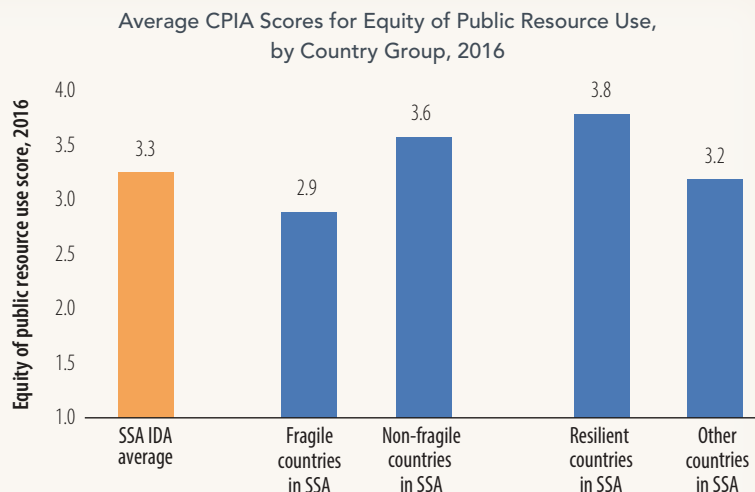
Francisco Campos, Michael Frese, Markus Goldstein, Leonardo Iacovone, Hillary Johnson, David McKenzie, and Mona Mensmann (forthcoming). "Teaching Personal Initiative Beats Traditional Business Training in Boosting Small Business Growth," World Bank, forthcoming.

Equity of Public Resource Use

The equity of public resource use component of the CPIA assesses the extent to which the pattern of public expenditures and revenue collection affects the poor and is consistent with national poverty reduction priorities. Organized into three subcomponents, equity of public resource use gives snapshots of (i) available poverty measurement tools and monitoring systems, covering the extent to which poverty measurement, monitoring, and evaluation instruments exist, and the degree to which poverty-related information is made publicly available; (ii) government priorities and strategies, particularly those related to poor and vulnerable groups; and (iii) revenue collection, covering the incidence of major taxes, for example, whether they are progressive or regressive.

FIGURE C.1

The gap in scores between fragile and non-fragile country groups remains large for equity of public resource use.

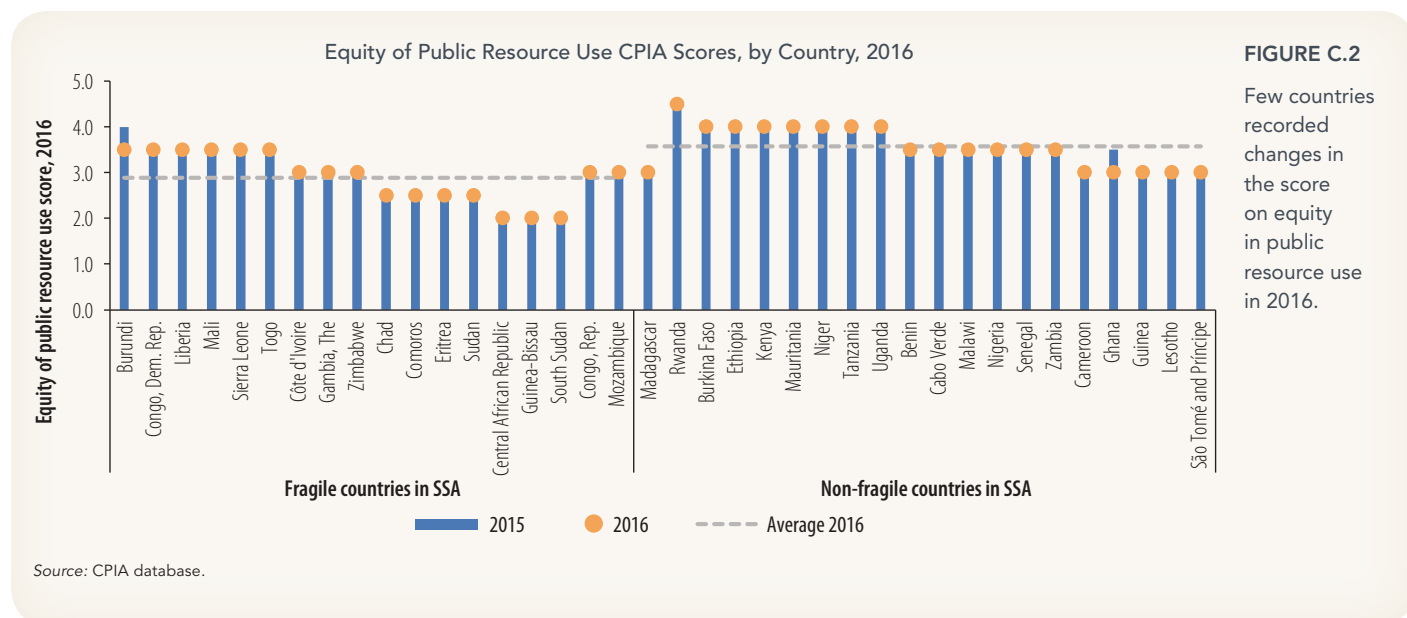


Source: CPIA database.

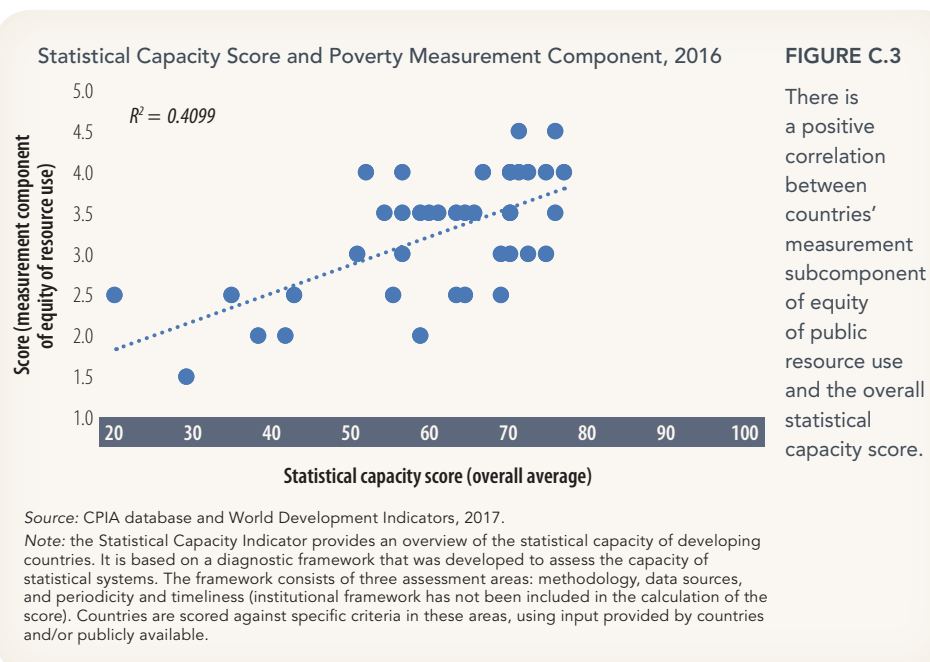
The regional average score for the overall category is relatively unchanged, at 3.3 in 2016; the average for fragile countries is 2.9, and that for non-fragile countries is 3.6. As illustrated in figure C.1, the gap in scores between country groups is large, including between resilient and other countries.

With few countries recording changes, the regional average score for the overall category remained relatively unchanged between 2015 and 2016

(figure C.2). The average score weakened in Burundi and Ghana. The slippage in the score for Burundi reflects lags in data production and analysis. The paucity of robust data hampers the measurement of poverty in Burundi. The slippage in Ghana is attributable to the introduction of several regressive taxes in 2015 that continued in 2016.



Statistical capacity describes a country's ability to collect, analyze, and disseminate high-quality data about its population and economy. Good quality statistics are essential for evidence-based decision making and achieving better development results. The CPIA criteria for equity of public resource use include measurement tools and availability of poverty data. Empirical analysis shows that there is a positive correlation between the measurement subcomponent and the overall statistical capacity score for the country (figure C.3).



Building Human Resources

The human development component of the CPIA assesses the quality of national policies and public and private sector delivery in health and education. The human development CPIA score for Sub-Saharan Africa increased in 2016 to a score of 3.6, from 3.5 in 2015, continuing the upward trend that has been evident since 2010. There continues to be a sizable gap in this score between resource-rich countries (score 3.5) and non-resource-rich countries (score 3.7), and between fragile countries (score 3.3) and non-fragile countries (score 3.8).

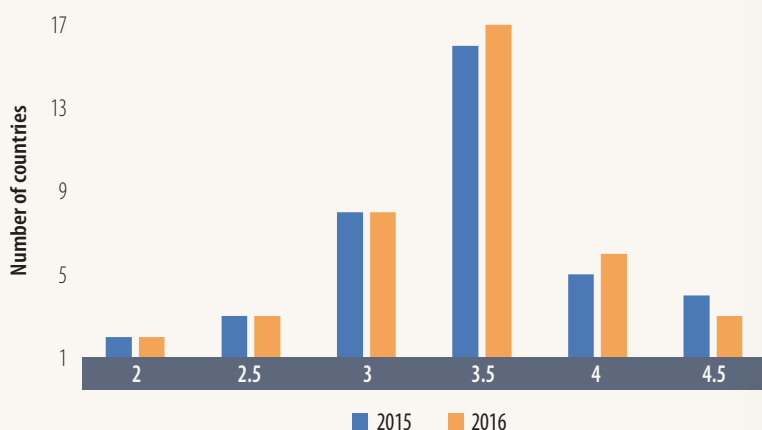
Health

The evolution of the average score for the health component exhibits a flat trend between 2015 and 2016. The average CPIA score for the health component among the 38 IDA countries in Sub-Saharan Africa is 3.4. Of these countries, 30 (79 percent) have the same score in 2016 as in 2015, five (13 percent) have higher scores, and three (8 percent) have lower scores.

FIGURE C.4

Distribution of the CPIA Score for Health, 2015 and 2016

For health, more than half the countries have a CPIA score of 3.5 or higher.



Source: CPIA database.

The distribution of the health CPIA score shows that about a third of countries have scores of 3 or less, roughly a quarter have scores of 4 or more, and the remaining have a score at the median value of 3.5. There were no changes in the number of countries scoring at the lower end, but fewer countries achieved the highest score in 2016, compared with 2015, and more countries obtained scores of 3.5 and 4.0.

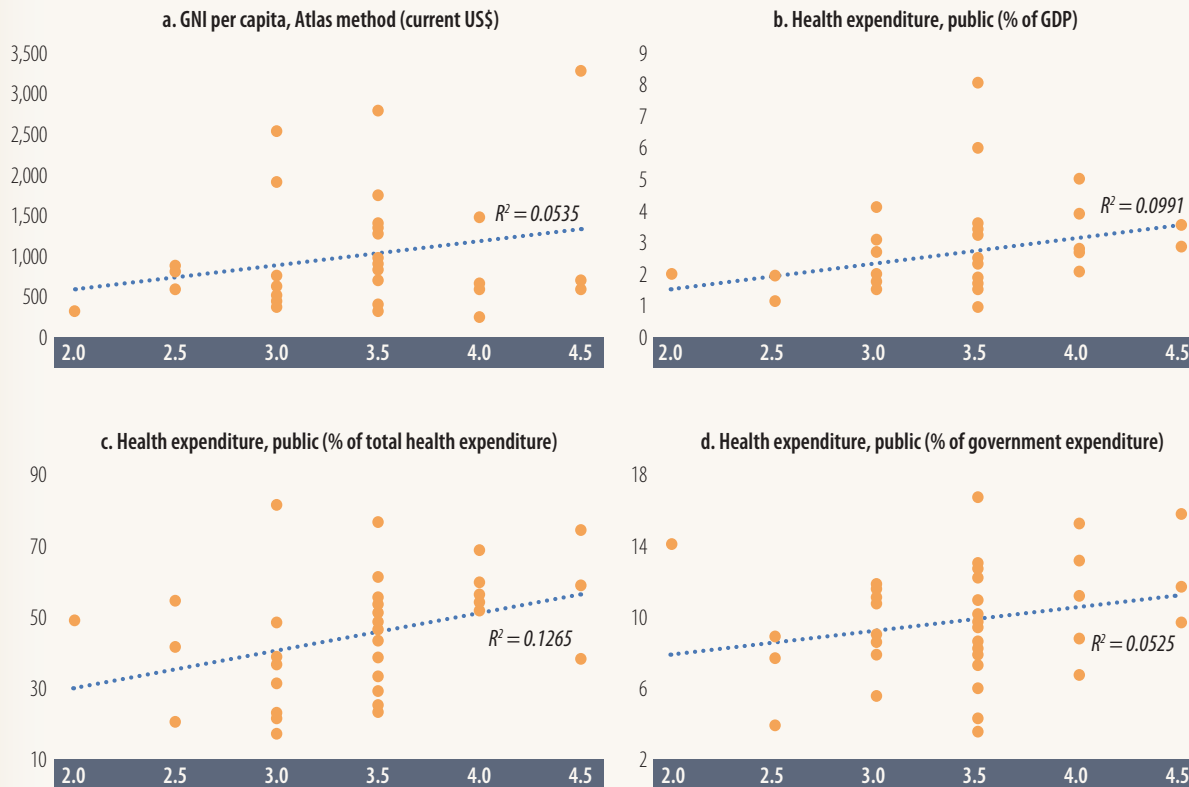
Among the countries with improving scores for health in 2016 were Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, and Mauritania. The three countries where the scores for health weakened in 2016 were the Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, and Eritrea.

Figure C.5 shows a positive, albeit weak, correlation between the CPIA ratings and various measures of national income and health financing. The correlation is especially weak for gross national income per capita and health spending as a percentage of government spending, where the R-squared is around 5 percent. The relationship seems to be a bit stronger for public spending on health as a percentage of GDP (R-squared of almost 10) and public spending on health as a percentage of total health spending (R-squared of 13). Within each CPIA rating level, there is a significant amount of variation, despite the overall upward trend.

Correlation between the CPIA Score for Health and GNI and Health Expenditure, 2015

FIGURE C.5

The correlation between the health CPIA score and income per capita is weak.



Source: CPIA database and World Development Indicators, 2017.

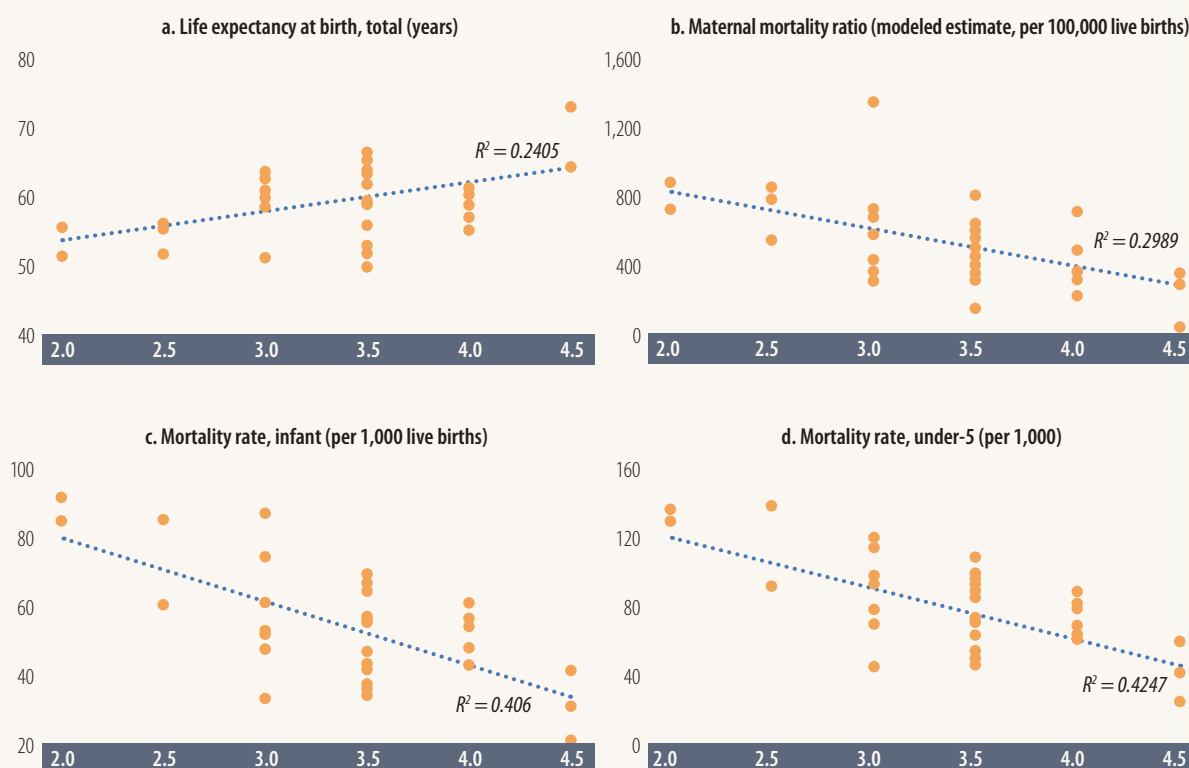
Note: GDP = gross domestic product; GNI = gross national income.

By contrast, the correlations for the health outcome–related indicators seem to be much stronger, as depicted in figure C.6. The R-squared values run from 24 percent for life expectancy to 42 percent for under-five mortality. Countries that scored higher on the CPIA appear to have higher life expectancy and lower maternal, infant, and child mortality. Except for infant mortality, the range of values in each CPIA level is much smaller than it is for the economic indicators.

FIGURE C.6

Correlation between the CPIA Score for Health and Health Outcomes, 2015

Countries with higher CPIA scores seem to have better health outcomes—higher life expectancy and lower maternal, infant, and child mortality.



Source: CPIA database and World Development Indicators, 2017.

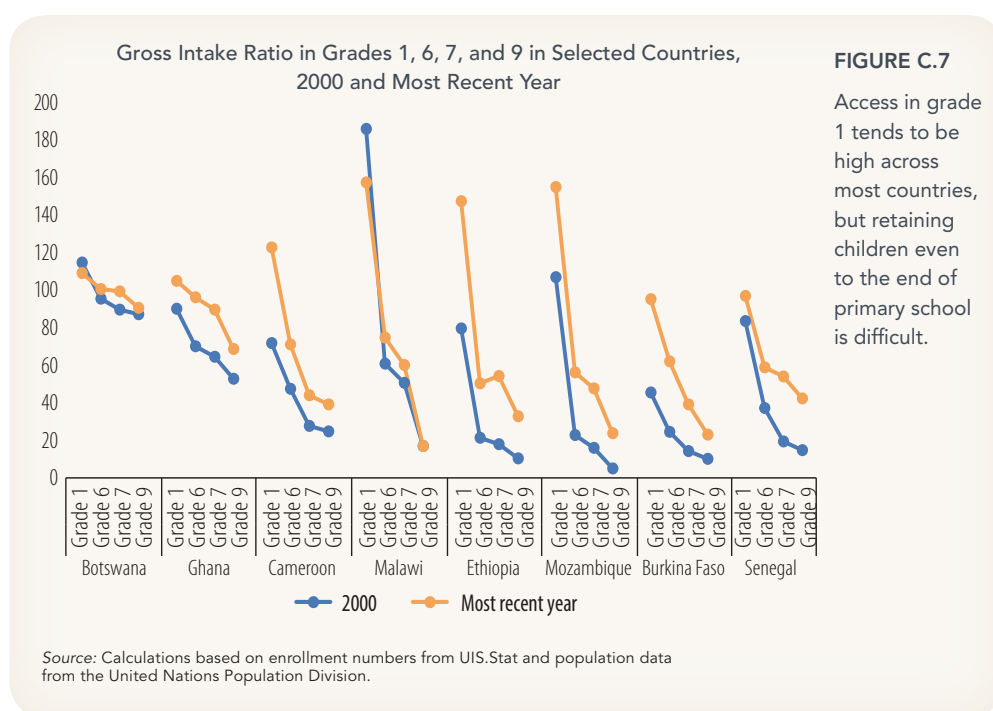
Education

The score for education remained at 3.5, unchanged since 2014. Bucking this stable trend, a few countries (Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, and Kenya) saw an improvement in scores, underpinned by improving access and the quality of learning outcomes, and efforts to improve teacher quality that have been part of the governments' education strategy and agenda in the past years. The focus has been to improve learning outcomes. For example, in recent years, the Government of Côte d'Ivoire has implemented several initiatives to improve teacher training, including the development of a new curriculum, as well as the reorganization of the governance structure on teacher training centers. An equal number of countries experienced a slippage in this component of the CPIA (Eritrea, South Sudan, and Uganda).

The unfinished agenda of ensuring universal completion of primary and lower secondary education. Improving learning levels, especially in the foundational years, is one of the top priorities of Sub-Saharan African countries. However, this must be done at the same time as ensuring universal access to and completion of primary and lower secondary education, the latter being one of the Sustainable Development Goals.

The access rates at the beginning and end of the primary cycle (grades 1 and 6) and lower secondary cycle (grades 7 and 9), as measured by the gross intake ratio (GIR), indicate that although access in grade 1 tends to be high across the vast majority of countries, the access rates throughout the rest of the cycle

are significantly lower.⁵ Figure C.7 shows the GIR at grades 1, 6, 7, and 9 in 2000 and the most recent year for eight countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. These countries are drawn from four groups of countries that are categorized according to their current primary gross enrollment ratio and out-of-school population, with group 1 representing the most advanced and group 4 representing countries with delayed progression (World Bank, 2017, *Better Basic Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Implementing What Works*).



Access in grade 1 is very high, even in countries that had relatively low grade 1 GIRs in 2000, such as Burkina Faso and Ethiopia. In many countries, it is above 100 percent, reflecting the enrollment of under-age and over-age children as well as “hidden repetition,” where children who have previously attended school return to grade 1.

Nevertheless, retaining children even to the end of primary school (as reflected by the GIR in grade 6) is proving difficult for most countries. Apart from countries in group 1 (of which Botswana and Ghana are examples), where the grade 6 GIR is relatively high, in all other countries, there is a sharp drop in the grade 6 GIR. Further, in most countries shown in figure C.7, the drop in the GIR between grades 1 and 6 is steeper than the drop between grades 6, 7, and 9.

The cumulative effect of this loss in coverage is that, apart from the countries in group 1, the GIR in grade 9 is less than 20 percent. This means that the vast majority of young people do not complete the education level that is required to become fully engaged and active citizens and for productive participation in the labor market.

Addressing gender and wealth disparities. Over two-thirds of the countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have a Gender Parity Index (GPI) of 0.95 or above in primary school enrollment; Niger has the lowest GPI at 0.82. However, only about half of the countries have a similar GPI at the lower secondary level. In general, apart from the group 1 countries, which have attained gender parity at the lower secondary level, most of the others have a GPI of less than 0.8. Chad and Benin have among the lowest GPIs, at 0.64 and 0.65, respectively. Girls’ participation in and completion of lower secondary education contributes to lowering fertility and increasing women’s empowerment.

Many children in the primary and lower secondary age groups are currently out of school. Figure C.8 illustrates the stark wealth disparities in the out-of-school incidence in these age groups, comparing the rates for the poorest and wealthiest households. In Mali, the out-of-school rate among the poorest

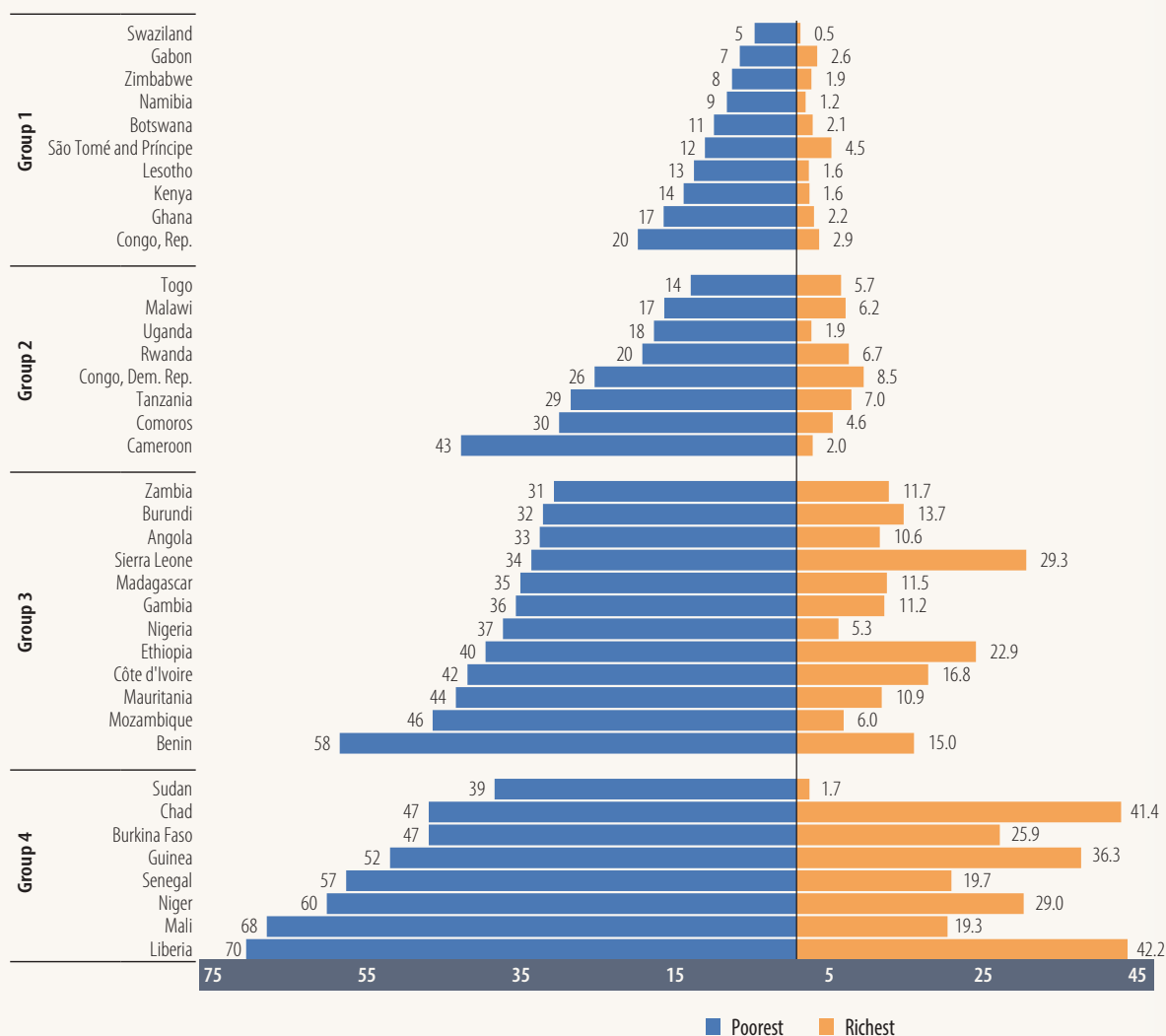
⁵ To ensure comparisons across countries, the ratios are calculated using the primary level to mean grades 1–6, and the lower secondary level to mean grades 7–9. In practice, some countries have slightly different cycles for primary and lower secondary.

households was 68 percent, compared with 19 percent among the wealthiest; in Senegal, the percentages are 57 and 20, respectively. The gap between the out-of-school incidence for the poorest and wealthiest households tends to be highest among Francophone and Lusophone countries, such as Mozambique, Angola, Benin, Mali, Niger, Senegal, and Chad.

FIGURE C.8

Out-of-School Rate for the Poorest and Richest Quintiles for Children Ages 6–14 and 7–15

There are stark wealth disparities in the out-of-school incidence for children in the primary and secondary age groups.

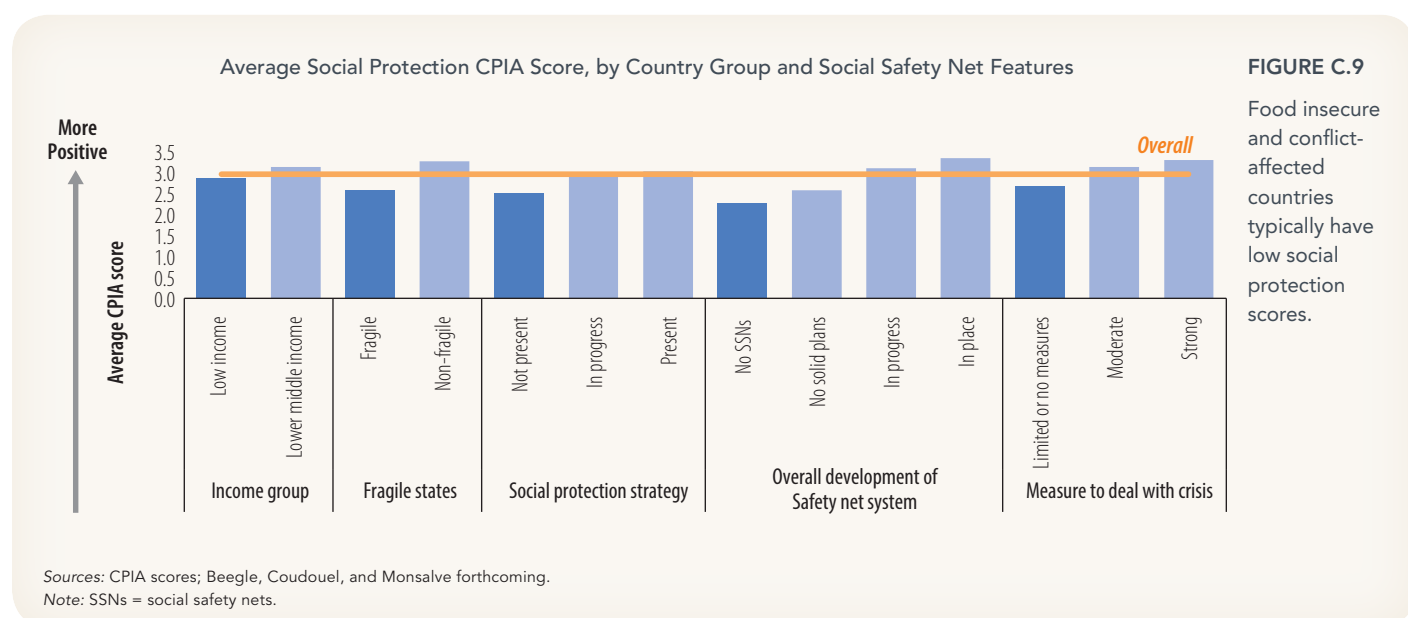


Source: The figure is based on analysis done for the forthcoming World Bank regional study on the Quality of Basic Education (World Bank, 2017, *Better Basic Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: Implementing What Works*).

Social Protection and Labor

Social protection and labor systems help build resilience to shocks, improve equity, and build opportunities, by helping people and families find jobs, improve productivity, and invest in the health and education of their children.

Pension systems and labor market insurance generally cover only a small share of the population—civil servants and those employed in the small formal sector—while often consuming a large share of the national social protection budget. There is vast need—and often limited national budget—for social assistance measures to protect the very poorest. Social safety nets or social assistance are noncontributory schemes, which aim to provide protection for the poorest and most vulnerable and incentivize them to improve their livelihoods and participate productively in society. In Sub-Saharan Africa, the number of countries implementing at least one social safety net program increased from six in 2000 to 20 by 2008 at the onset of the economic crisis, to 46 in 2017 (Beegle, Coudouel, and Monsalve forthcoming).⁶ There is a wide variety of experience with social safety nets, and this is reflected in the heterogeneity in CPIA scores. Food insecure and conflict-affected countries typically have low scores; more stable countries with stronger social protection systems have higher scores (figure C.9).



Despite the heterogeneity across the continent, social protection is becoming a core instrument in the effort to reduce poverty. More and more African countries are preparing social protection strategies to serve as the foundation on which to build effective and efficient social protection systems. A recent study (Beegle, Coudouel, and Monsalve forthcoming) finds that by 2016, 30 African countries had established social protection as one of the pillars of their stand-alone national social protection strategies. Following a series of devastating climatic shocks in recent years, adaptive safety nets have been placed high on the governments' agendas. The shocks demonstrate the need for a national, scalable social safety net. For example, the study finds that in the Sahel, Burkina Faso, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, and Senegal are testing mechanisms with temporary transfers to reach households affected by shocks, and the Productive Safety Net in Ethiopia incorporates several features to respond to climate change. The study also finds that the development of a safety net system is in progress in 27 African countries; several countries already have in place safety net systems with adequate policies and delivery capacity (Botswana, Cabo Verde, Mauritius, Namibia, the Seychelles, South Africa, and Tanzania).

⁶ Kathleen Beegle, Aline Coudouel, and Emma Monsalve, editors, forthcoming, *Realizing the Full Potential of Social Safety Nets in Africa*, Washington, DC: World Bank.

In countries that experience repeated crises, it can be challenging to transition between immediate humanitarian response and a longer-term safety net that strengthens resilience. Only a few years ago, the most common social safety net programs were school feeding programs, public work programs, emergency and categorical transfer programs, and general subsidies with low coverage of the poor. Now, there is increasing representation of national poverty-targeted cash transfers (including in Ghana, Kenya, Rwanda, Senegal, and Tanzania), and increasingly these are being designed such that their targeting and distribution tools can be used in times of crisis to channel additional resources to the needy (box C.2).

BOX C.2

Characteristics
of Selected
National
Poverty-
Targeted Cash
Transfers

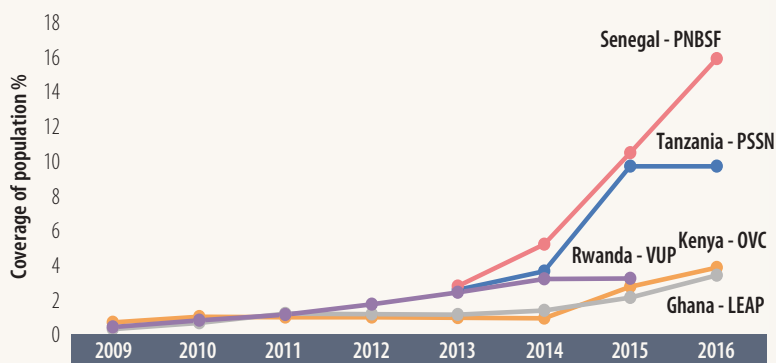
Cash transfer programs targeted at households based on their welfare levels are the most rapidly growing type of social safety net programs (Beegle, Coudouel, and Monsalve forthcoming). The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty program in Ghana, Cash Transfer for Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Kenya, Vision 2020 Umurenge Direct Support in Rwanda, National Cash Transfer Program in Senegal, and Productive Social Safety Net Conditional Cash Transfer in Tanzania were scaled up rapidly in a short time (figure BC.2.1).

These programs combine different targeting mechanisms, such as community-based, means/income, and proxy means tests (table BC.2.1). The safety net programs in Ghana, Senegal, and Kenya use mechanisms to promote human capital investments in health and/or education, but do not apply penalties for noncompliance. In Tanzania, health and education conditionalities are monitored and penalties enforced. Direct support in Rwanda provides cash transfers to extremely poor households with no labor, and does not require beneficiaries to comply with any conditions.

The Productive Social Safety Net (PSSN) in Tanzania is among the largest cash transfer programs in the region, benefiting 9.7 percent of the total population (1,098,856 households in 2016). The cash program in Senegal covered 15.9 percent of the total population in 2016 (197,751 households). Coverage in Ghana (213,414 households), Kenya (1,765,000 individuals), and Rwanda (86,772 households) is around 3.5 percent of the total population. Spending on these programs is on average 0.23 percent of gross domestic product (GDP), with Rwanda spending the most as a percentage of GDP (0.48 percent of GDP in 2015).

In 2014, around 50 percent of the cash transfer beneficiaries in Rwanda were poor; in Ghana, 70 percent of the beneficiaries were in the bottom 60 percent of the consumption distribution in 2012^a; and the majority of PSSN beneficiaries in Tanzania (83 percent) were in the bottom 40 percent of the consumption distribution.^b In Kenya, there is no robust evidence on the effectiveness of targeting. However, some evidence shows that safety net programs are mostly succeeding in targeting resources to poor counties.^c

Figure BC.2.1. Social Safety Net Coverage: Selected Cash Transfer Programs



Source: Beegle, Coudouel, and Monsalve forthcoming.

Note: LEAP = Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty; OVC = Orphans and Vulnerable Children; PNBSF = Programme National de Bourses de Sécurité Familiale; PSSN = Productive Social Safety Net; VUP = Vision 2020 Umurenge.

Table BC.2.1. Main Features of Selected Cash Transfer Programs

BOX C.2

Continued

Country	Program name	Start year	Targeting	Coverage		Spending		Generosity	
				% population	Year	% GDP	Year	% GDP per capita	Year
Ghana	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty	2008	Geographic, categorical community-based, means/income, and proxy-means tests	3.4	2016	0.06	2015	9	2015
Kenya	Cash transfer for OVC	2004	Geographic, categorical, community-based, and proxy-means tests	3.8	2016	0.13	2016	18	2016
Rwanda	Vision 2020 Umurenge	2008	Community-based	3.2	2015	0.48	2015	48	2012
Senegal	National cash transfer program	2013	Geographic, community-based, means/income, and proxy-means tests	15.9	2016	0.2	2015	19	2015
Tanzania	Productive Social Safety Net—Conditional Cash Transfer	2012	Community-based and proxy-means tests	9.7	2016	0.28	2016	10	2012

Source: Beegle, Coudouel, and Monsalve forthcoming.

Note: GDP = gross domestic product; OVC = Orphans and Vulnerable Children.

- a. Using Rwanda's Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey EICV4, 2014, and the Ghana Living Standards Survey IV, 2012.
- b. World Bank, 2016, Evaluating Tanzania's Productive Social Safety Net: Targeting Performance, Beneficiary Profile, and Other Baseline Findings, Washington, DC: World Bank Group. <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/273011479390056768/Evaluating-Tanzanias-productive-social-safety-net-targeting-performance-beneficiary-profile-and-other-baseline-findings>.
- c. World Bank and Republic of Kenya Ministry of State for Planning, 2012, Kenya Social Protection Sector Review: Executive Report, Nairobi, World Bank. <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/16974> License: CC BY 3.0 IGO.

More and more impact evaluations are being undertaken, contributing to a growing body of evidence on safety net programs in Africa. Ralston, Andrews, and Hsiao (2017)⁷ conducted a meta-analysis of 55 impact evaluations since 2005, covering 25 safety net programs in 13 African countries. Overall, the impacts on consumption and food security make a strong case for investment in safety net programs as vehicles to reduce poverty. Safety net programs also show strong potential for building risk management capacity and promoting resilience. They also have transformative potential to boost education and health outcomes, and can promote productive inclusion of the poor.

In general, the CPIA ratings for labor markets (2.6) and pensions (2.5) are lower than those for safety nets (3.1). The demographic "youth bulge" is increasingly recognized as a key adverse factor in risk of political instability. Youth employment opportunities and skills training for appropriate and available jobs are sorely needed.

The overall CPIA score for social protection and labor increased from 2.9 in 2015 to 3.0 in 2016. The results show that there were no downgrades, even for countries experiencing conflict. Three countries—Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea-Bissau, and Madagascar—increased their ratings following a renewed priority by the government on safety nets and support to a scaled-up social assistance program from the World Bank.

7 Laura Ralston, Colin Andrews, and Allan Hsiao, 2017, "A Meta-Analysis of Safety Net Programs in Africa," Working Paper, World Bank, Washington, DC.

In Côte d'Ivoire, the set of overall social safety net programs remains limited, but efforts to reduce fragmentation started in 2016. As of late 2016, Côte d'Ivoire has started implementing community mobilization, proxy-means testing, and community validation for targeting and identification under its national social safety net system, having previously relied mainly on limited donor-financed vertical programs. A national cash transfer program, household registry, reliable and efficient payment system, and accompanying measures to support human capital and household productivity were launched. The government began implementing the cash transfer program in 2016: 5,000 beneficiaries received identification cards for receiving cash transfers following proxy-means testing and community validation during August to October 2016.

In Guinea-Bissau, the government has prepared a Social Protection Strategy and the development of a social registry. The social registry contributes to two goals: the first is to identify households in poverty and provide basic social services coverage for them; the second is to gather information, which could be used for the diagnosis, conception, and implementation of future social protection programs. The government is currently implementing a pilot cash transfer program (financed by IDA) to provide incremental income to 2,000 vulnerable households.

In Madagascar, safety net programs are well targeted and cover the main vulnerable groups (particularly the extreme poor); the programs are built to be responsive to shifting needs (for example, disaster response); and they are increasingly coordinated across government ministries and entities as well as development partners (the United Nations Children's Fund, European Union, World Food Programme, and others). The pilot conditional cash transfer program, launched in 2015 to cover 5,000 households, was scaled up to cover about 39,000 households by the end of 2016. In addition, the government launched the Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP) through cash for work, covering more than 30,000 households over a three-year period in six regions of the country. In response to the severe drought in the south of the country, Development Intervention Fund (Fonds d'Intervention pour le Développement, or FID, as it is called locally) (with financing from the World Bank) has prepared an emergency cash transfer program for up to 68,000 households in five affected districts. The emergency program combines cash transfers with livelihood recovery grants and nutrition services (provided through the National Nutrition Program). As of December 2016, it was already covering 15,000 households.

The proxy-means test-based targeting instrument has been scaled up in Madagascar and is being used for the conditional cash transfer program as well as the Productive Safety Net Program. The ministry is envisaging its use for its own programs, beyond those financed by the World Bank, and is discussing with some development partners the joint application of the instrument. This development should not only provide the country with an objective and transferrable targeting instrument, but also contribute to greater equity by ensuring that the poorest population is included in social programs.

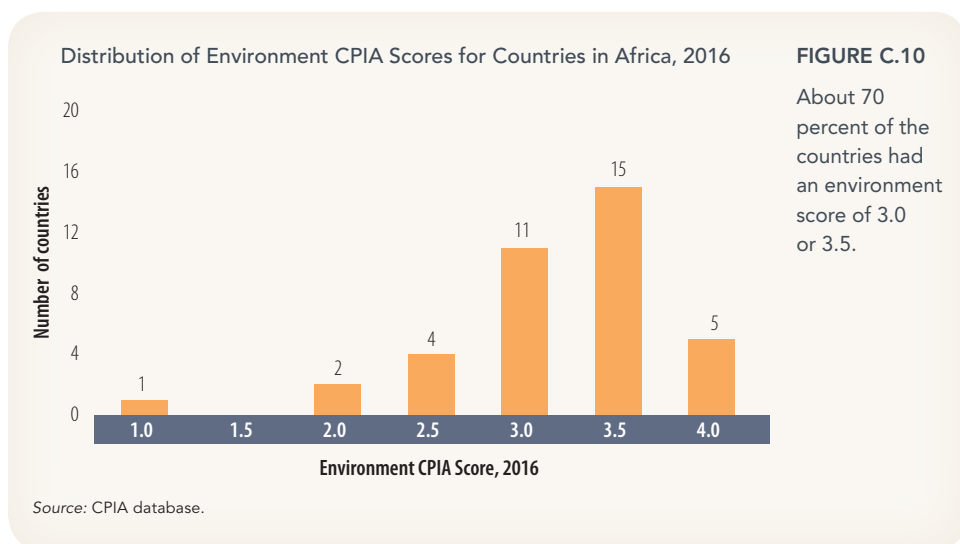
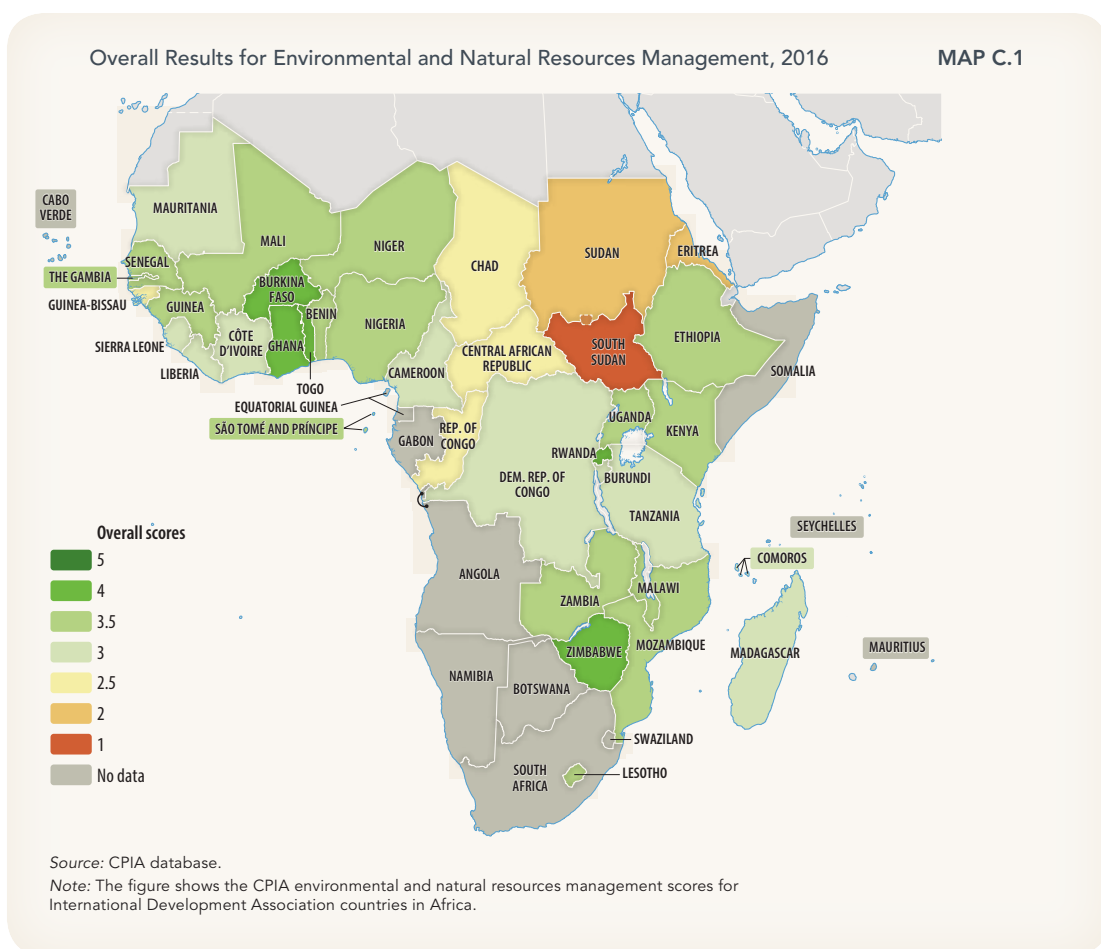
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability

The environmental and natural resources management (ENRM) component of the CPIA relies on a standard scoring tool measuring (i) the appropriateness and implementation of policies across a range of environmental topics: air pollution, water pollution, solid and hazardous waste, freshwater resources, marine and coastal resources, biodiversity, commercial renewable resources (mainly forests and fish), commercial nonrenewable resources (mainly minerals), and climate change; and (ii) the strength of cross-cutting institutional systems, including the quality of the environmental impact assessment

system, and a range of environmental governance factors, including access to information, participation, coordination, and accountability.

The CPIA score for the region's IDA countries averaged 3.2, virtually unchanged from the previous year. Country-level scores ranged from 1.0 to 4.0, with around 70 percent of the countries (26 of 38) scoring 3.0 or 3.5 (map C.1 and figure C.10). Overall, most countries have relatively comprehensive environmental policies, but there are gaps between policy and implementation. ENRM scores tend to be higher for African countries that are categorized as being more resilient. The gap in performance is substantial compared with other countries in the region.

Across the region, four countries saw a deterioration in the score and two countries an improvement in 2016. The Republic of Congo made modest improvements in environmental accountability, but its air and water pollution management and commercial renewable resources management worsened, pulling the country's ENRM score down to 2.5. Mali's ENRM score fell from 4.0 to 3.5, as access to information and accountability declined and water pollution, solid and hazardous waste management, and climate change metrics worsened. In Sierra Leone, public participation in environmental matters



worsened, as has the country's management of marine and coastal resources, ecosystem and biodiversity, commercial renewable resources, and climate change. The score for South Sudan dropped from 2.0 to 1.0, reflecting worsening across most parameters.

Togo and Zimbabwe saw an increase in their ENRM score to 4.0, thanks to gains in several dimensions of the ENRM category. Togo made improvements in several areas, including public participation, cross-sector coordination, and accountability. Solid and hazardous waste, freshwater resources management, and commercial nonrenewable resources management also improved. Zimbabwe registered improvements in cross-sector coordination, access to information, solid and hazardous waste management, and commercial nonrenewable resources.

Across the 14 performance metrics of institutional and subsector performance that contribute to the ENRM assessment, nine registered a net improvement. *Solid and hazardous waste management* showed the strongest improvement (eight countries improving their rating and six decreasing). *Public participation* and *water pollution* showed the worst ratio (one country improving and four decreasing in both cases), despite that on average public participation has one of the highest scores for the region. *Ecosystem and biodiversity* was the metric with the highest score for the region on average; *air pollution* scored the lowest. The only metric that did not change since 2015 was the one for *climate change*; two countries improved their score, while six declined.

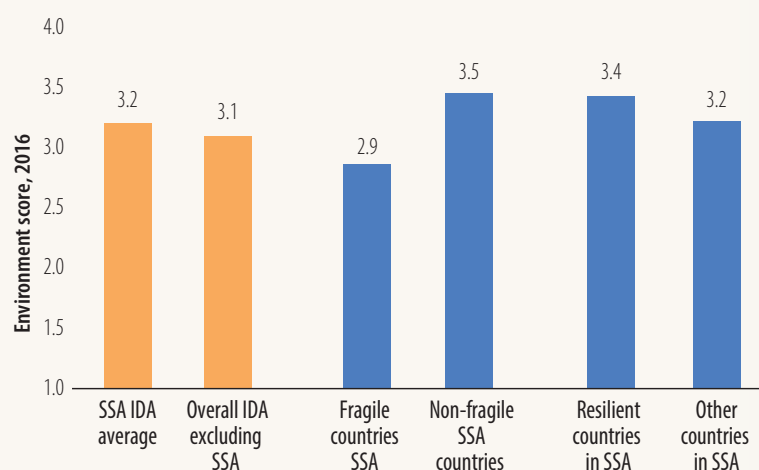
The relative performance across the 14 metrics was similar to previous years:

- *Accountability* (public access to information, participation, environmental assessment, and coordination) remained the 12th lowest metric and a long way behind the other institutional measures.
- The *ecosystem and biodiversity* metric was the best performing sector-specific measure.
- Pollution-related measures continued to perform poorly, and showed a declining trend compared with 2015. *Solid waste* was the only pollution-related metric with an average score above 3, and improving since 2015.

FIGURE C.11

Environment CPIA Score, by Country Group, 2016

For the environment CPIA, Sub-Saharan African countries have a small edge in performance over other countries.



Source: CPIA database.

Overall, the IDA countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have a small edge in performance over those in the rest of the world. The average CPIA score for ENRM in Sub-Saharan Africa is around 0.1 point higher (figure C.11). The region outperforms other IDA countries in most individual performance metrics, with the biggest leads in biodiversity, commercial renewable resources, access to information, and accountability. But the region lags other IDA countries in air pollution and climate change.

CLUSTER D: PUBLIC SECTOR MANAGEMENT AND INSTITUTIONS

Cluster D covers governance and public sector capacity issues: property rights and rule-based governance; quality of budgetary and financial management; efficiency of revenue mobilization; quality of public administration; and transparency, accountability, and corruption in the public sector.

Inclusive governance and public institutions that can deliver quality services are critical to improving people's well-being. Not surprisingly, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which represent the aspirations of people across the continent, call for strong institutions.⁸ IDA 18, which offers a strong policy and financial package for Africa to undertake catalytic investments that can shift the development trajectory to deliver results by 2030, has a special focus on governance and institutions as well.⁹

Governance and public institutions serve as a foundation for investments in growth, resilience, and opportunities. These institutions span, facilitate, and underpin all development sectors, and are relevant for quality education and health care, fair economic policies, and inclusive environmental protection, among others. Building these institutions requires strengthening the core systems at the center of government, which are necessary for channeling resources to the bottom 40 percent in the country. It also requires the development of public sector entities grounded in transparency, coupled with fiscal transparency, technological innovation, and citizen participation, among other measures, to increase trust between government and citizens.¹⁰ According to survey results from the Afrobarometer Round 6 (2016), only 44 percent of citizens trust tax authorities (figure D.1). Only 53 percent have confidence in the formal courts, compared with 72 percent having confidence in religious leaders.

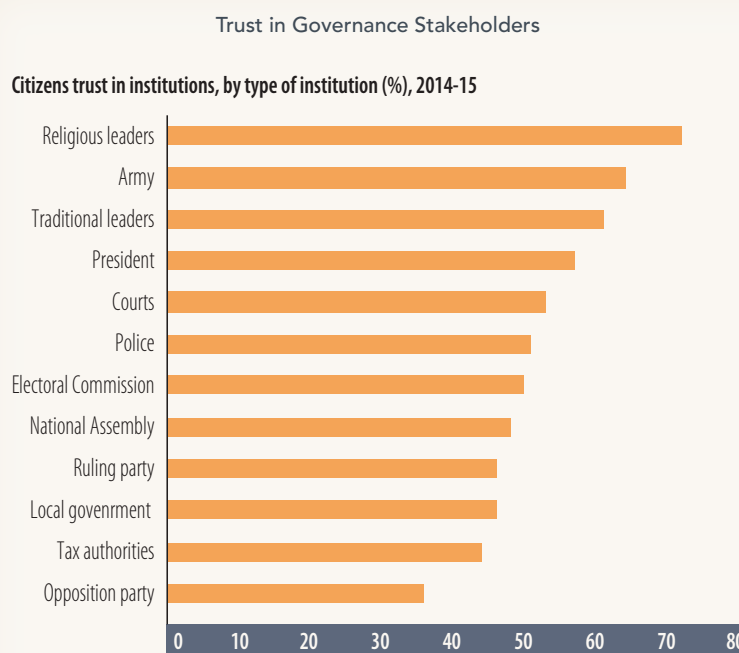


FIGURE D.1

Results from Afrobarometer show that only 44 percent of citizens trust tax authorities and 53 percent have confidence in the formal courts.

Source: M. Bratton and E. Gyimah-Boadi, Do Trustworthy Institutions Matter for Development? Corruption, Trust, and Government Performance in Africa, Afrobarometer Dispatch No. 112, 2016.
Note: Survey results for the percentage of respondents who say "somewhat" or "a lot." N = 53,935.

⁸ The SDGs are officially known as Transforming Our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. There are 17 aspirational goals and 169 targets. Goal 16 calls to "Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all, and build effective, accountable, and inclusive institutions at all levels."

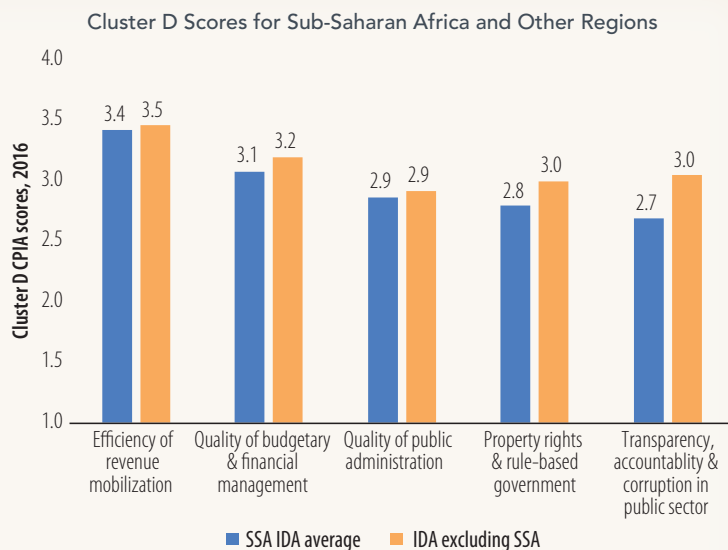
⁹ Governance and Institutions is one of the special themes of IDA 18; other themes include Jobs and Economic Transformation; Gender; Climate; and Fragility, Conflict, and Violence. The emphasis on governance seeks to facilitate an integrated, multisectoral approach to public sector reform that builds on lessons learned and promotes results-driven delivery of IDA. The approach also recognizes that progress in governance and institutional capacity development often requires longer-term investments spanning more than a three-year IDA replenishment cycle.

¹⁰ IDA 18 - Towards 2030: Investing in Growth, Resilience and Opportunity, World Bank, 2017.

Open and accountable governance institutions ensure responsive, inclusive, and participatory decision making; strengthen the rule of law; promote transparency; enforce property rights; and ensure equal access to justice for all. These institutions also help reduce illicit financial flows, fight crime, and promote peace in society. Effective revenue collection, coupled with sound budgetary and financial management, enhances predictability in public investment. A sound revenue base underpins countries' ability to deliver the services required to sustain the social contract between citizens and the state, while offering other benefits of reduced dependence on development assistance, and serving as a catalyst for broader improvements in government responsiveness, resilience, and capacity.

FIGURE D.2

Sub-Saharan African countries continue to lag other countries in most dimensions of governance, especially on corruption and property rights.



Source: CPIA database.

Sub-Saharan African countries have experienced a modest net gain in the number of countries registering strengthening in cluster D scores in 2016—that is, 10 countries experienced an increase while six recorded a decline. Nonetheless, the average score for the IDA countries in Sub-Saharan Africa continues to lag that of other IDA countries. This pattern is evident across most of the dimensions of governance that make up cluster D, with the largest gaps in corruption (0.3) and property rights (0.2) (figure D.2). These gaps signal the need to expedite

reforms and capacity development, as is highlighted by the Afrobarometer ratings.

Sub-Saharan African countries are diverse, with mixed governance performance. The regional average score for cluster D in 2016 is 3.0. The average score for fragile countries is 2.8; non-fragile countries, 3.3; non-resource-rich countries, 3.1; and resource-rich countries, 3.0. These variations in average scores indicate a multiplicity in policy motivation for pursuing public sector reforms to underpin development efforts, and the effects of institutional context on governance performance.

Across the board, resilient countries are associated with higher than average CPIA scores (figure D.3). Public sector scores in resilient countries, such as Rwanda, Senegal, and Tanzania, are better compared with countries that are falling behind, such as Nigeria and the Republic of Congo, and those that are stuck in the middle, such as Ghana and Benin. The average score for efficiency of revenue mobilization for resilient countries is 3.8, compared with around 3.4 for other countries. The average score for quality of budget and financial management is likewise higher for resilient countries (3.6) compared with other countries (3.1). For the quality of public administration, the average score is 3.3 for resilient countries, compared with 2.8 for other countries.

Furthermore, the score for property rights and rule-based governance for resilient countries is 3.2, compared with 2.7 for other countries. And the score for transparency, accountability, and corruption in the public sector for resilient countries is 3.1, compared with 2.6 for other countries. These institutional

attributes, whether in better or lower performing countries, indicate that governance reforms should focus on reducing risks associated with economic and sectoral policies that can help better manage commodity price volatility, natural hazards, terrorism threats, and other drivers of a country's resilience.

A positive trend in quality of governance is noticeable in 2016, largely across public financial management. Cluster D scores strengthened across a range of 10 fragile and non-fragile countries: Cameroon, the Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritania, São Tomé and Príncipe, Tanzania, and Togo (figure D.4). At the same time, several countries saw a slippage in the quality of governance and institutions: Burundi, Ghana, Niger, Uganda, South Sudan, and Cabo Verde. Significant improvements in the quality of budget and financial management have been recorded in Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Madagascar, and Mauritania. An upgrade in the quality of revenue mobilization has been experienced in Guinea (table D.1).

Quality of Public Financial Management

Public financial management plays a central role in the implementation of development policies that lead to poverty alleviation and inclusive growth, by promoting fiscal stability, sustainability, and efficient delivery of public services, and ensuring the transparency and accountability of public resource management.¹¹ Public financial systems, institutions, and stakeholders aim to achieve these outcomes by strengthening governments' budgeting; treasury; accounting; controls; audit; and cash, public investment, asset,

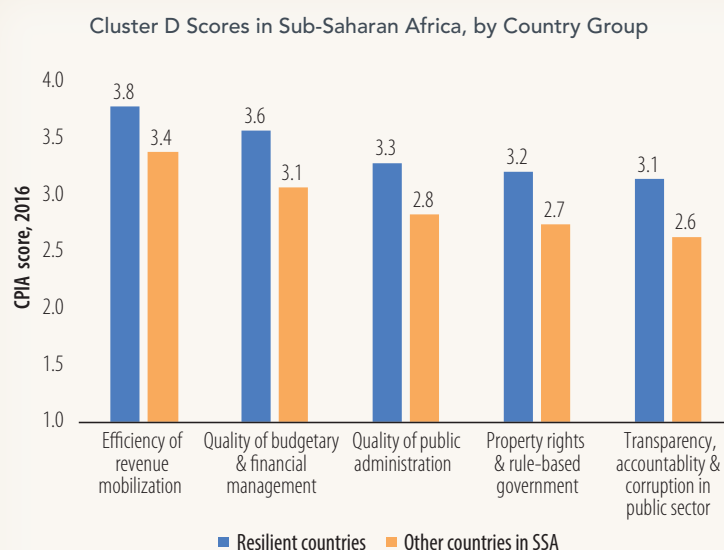


FIGURE D.3

Resilient countries outperform other countries on all elements of cluster D.

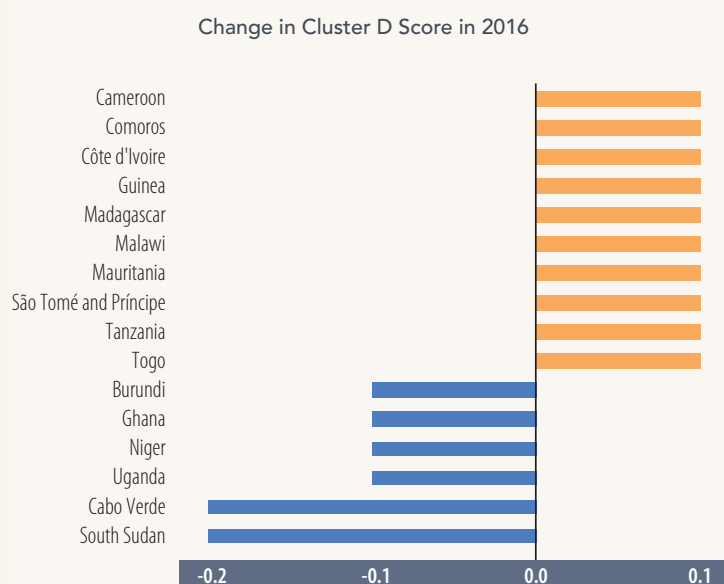


FIGURE D.4

Cluster D scores strengthened across a range of 10 fragile and non-fragile countries: Cameroon, the Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritania, São Tomé and Príncipe, Tanzania, and Togo.

Source: CPIA database.

¹¹ Public financial management addresses several objectives. It can be implemented in response to a particular fiscal problem or crisis, typically a growing deficit and the need to raise revenues, curb expenditures, or use existing resources more efficiently. It can be implemented as part of a social and political agenda to ensure better service delivery in health, education, or other sectors. For more details, see, for example, Public Financial Management Reform in the Middle East and North Africa: An Overview of Regional Experience, PFM Reform as Means and Not Ends, World Bank, 2010.

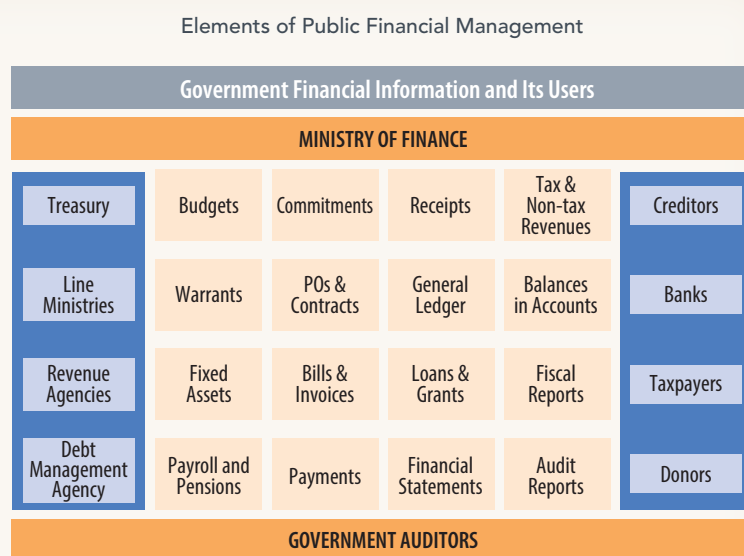
Table D.1. Changes in Cluster D Scores, by Indicator

Indicators	Number of increases	Number of decreases	Countries with increases	Countries with decreases
Property Rights and Rule-based Governance	2	0	São Tomé and Príncipe, Senegal	
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	6	6	Cameroon, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritania	Burundi, Cabo Verde, Central African Republic, Niger, South Sudan, Uganda
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	1	1	Guinea	Senegal
Quality of Public Administration	3	1	Central African Republic, Tanzania, Togo	South Sudan
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in Public Sector	0	2		Cabo Verde, Ghana

Source: CPIA database

debt, and revenue management. In addition, integrated financial management systems have been developed to improve the information base for policy decision making and controls. These information technology (IT) systems have several functional modules, including for macroeconomic forecasting, budget preparation, budget execution (including cash management, accounting, and fiscal reporting), managing the size of the civil service establishment and its payroll and pensions, debt management, tax administration, and auditing. (See figure D.5.)

FIGURE D.5



Source: A Handbook on Financial Management Information Systems for Government: A Practitioners Guide for Setting Reform Priorities, Systems Design and Implementation, World Bank, 2014.

Note: POs = purchase orders.

In Cameroon, upgrades to the public financial management systems have focused on the follow-up, timeliness, and public accessibility of budget reports and audits, and on budget management improvements. The annual reports are publicly available on the Audit Bench website (www.chambresdescomptes.net). Efforts are being made to refine policy priorities to rationalize and scale down public investment to contain the fiscal deficit.

Furthermore, an integrated financial management system

(TOM2 PRO) was operationalized in Cameroon. The system facilitates the processing of donor-funded project transactions and serves as a platform to gather, in a comprehensive manner, information related to commitments, undisbursed amounts, and disbursements facilitating government planning and programming activities. In addition, Audit Bench has registered ongoing progress and can ensure the timely audit of government accounts and submit them to the Parliament, and carry out controls and due diligence functions.

In Côte d'Ivoire, improvement in budget policy links has been observed. The government is making headway in the development of sector and global Medium-Term Expenditure Frameworks and program budgets in all ministries, as per the West African Economic Monetary Union's financial management guidelines. Budget classification allows the identification of pro-poor spending with the use of a budget information system (SIGFIP). The preparation of budget investment is done through an investment planning platform that interfaces with the expenditure chain (SIGFIP). The expenditure chain, which covers the budget execution and control cycles, is fully computerized and interfaces well with the procurement (SIGMAP) and treasury system. SIGMAP, after an upgrade, is now web-enabled.

The authorities have also deployed a local public financial management system in 12 localities, for better resource utilization and transparency at the deconcentrated level. Furthermore, resource management for budget planning is improving. The interface between the human resource system and the budget system (SIGFIP) has been created, which allows for smooth transmission of human resource data to the payroll system. All these automated systems have helped with the budget preparation process and its timely approval by the Parliament, including prior consultation with concerned ministries and preparation of reports.

In addition, the Ivorian government continues to work on improving the transparency, accountability, and performance of public enterprises through the centralization and close monitoring of operations. About 78 national public enterprises operate stand-alone accounting systems, which are not connected to the central government's budgeting system. Connection would allow for rapid exchange of data, reporting, and monitoring. To address this accountability and control challenge, on a phased basis, the authorities have set up a central system in the Ministry of Budget and established an interconnection with some important national public enterprises.

Furthermore, fiscal reporting and transparency, in line with the commitments to the Open Government Partnership, have improved. To this end, an Open Data Portal was launched, although the content and coverage are still limited. More financial and fiscal data are online for public use. Budget execution statements are published quarterly, and the Ivorian government's financial statement is being produced in a timely manner.

In Madagascar, the budget and financial management system has seen several upgrades. Budget quality and its links to policy are now better. The improvements are reflected in increased allocation for priority sectors, the successful preparation of fiscal aggregates on a rolling basis for the past few years, and the timely preparation of budget documents.

In addition, policy decision making has benefitted from a robust normative framework, which meets international standards. The government's budget classification comprises five sub-classifications: administrative, economic, functional, geographic, and programmatic, and by source of funding. The functional classification complies with the public administration classification/classification of public administration functions, included in the IMF's Government Finance Statistics Manual 2011. The Malagasy Chart of Account is now compliant with International Accounting Standards/International Financial Reporting Standards. In view of these factors, the Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability (PEFA) rating for Madagascar is A, under the PEFA PI-5 Indicator for Comprehensiveness and Transparency – Classification of the Budget.¹²

12 PEFA Secretariat, World Bank.

Furthermore, monthly budget execution reports are available online. The government reduced the delay in the production of the annual public account. It is now compliant with existing legislation regarding the timeliness of the presentation of the audited account to the Parliament. The Court of Account held a public presentation of its report for the first time in more than 30 years.

In Mauritania, public financial management was strengthened by reforms to increase budget integration, introduction of information systems, and fiscal reporting to improve citizens' access to information. The implementation of the Public Investment Program—the Council of Ministers Decree No. 2016-179 of 2016 that defines steps for the evaluation, selection, and implementation of the public investment program¹³—was successfully initiated. Operation manuals and supporting regulatory texts defining monitoring and evaluation arrangements for this framework were developed. Furthermore, investment budget monitoring was improved through the drafting of a Finance Law, which was submitted to the Parliament in November 2016. This law, once promulgated, seeks to unify for the first time the national and external financing of public investment, adopting a common budget nomenclature. In addition, a new medium-term development plan was advanced to address inadequacies in the effectiveness of investment spending, in line with the priorities of the development plan and to reduce the risk of over-indebtedness.

Notable progress has been made in consolidating and introducing new information systems for effective financial management in customs administration and debt management in Mauritania. Customs operations have been computerized using a modern IT system (SYDONIA World version) in customs administration offices in Nouakchott, Nonaudio, and Rosso. The system permits automated management of key customs procedures, including processing declarations; releasing goods for consumption, transit, suspension of duties, and taxes; handling authorizations for vehicles imported temporarily by nonresidents; and processing the clearance of vehicle parts and components. For improved treasury operations, a new Debt Management and Analysis System to replace the Excel-based tool was implemented. The new system helps to facilitate data exchange between debt management, payment systems, and other treasury solutions. In addition, a budget preparation software was tested to support budget planning.

The major focus of the Mauritanian authorities has been to improve the fiscal reporting of the parastatal sector, to increase information to citizens and boost economic debate. For this purpose, the Ministry of Finance has published the audited financial statements of the five largest state-owned enterprises, namely, the state-owned iron-ore company, SNIM; the Port Authority of the Port of Nouakchott; the national oil company, SMHPM; the national gas company, SOMAGAZ; and the government-owned electric utility, SOMELEC. Moreover, monthly fiscal reports have been introduced on the Treasury website, which covers budget execution reports, mining and petroleum operators' reports (including the audit report of the petroleum fund), a series of tables on the Financial Operations of the State, the monthly situation of the Treasury, and other bulletins.

Revenue Mobilization

Although it is a development priority under Vision 2030, there were few gains in the quality of revenue mobilization in 2016. According to the Doing Business report, Sub-Saharan Africa needs to improve its tax payment systems to fund development programs. For example, it takes 304 hours per year to complete the paperwork and other formalities for paying taxes in the region, compared with 198 hours per year in East Asia and the

¹³ This new framework consolidates capital expenditure and enforces the integration of all public investment, including by state-owned enterprises, in the Public Investment Program. The new regulation also introduced various types of filters, including those aligned with (i) the evaluation of investment projects, (ii) the presence of a stable regulatory framework, (iii) coordination of investment plans with the country's development strategy, and (iv) integration of investment budgeting into the government's overall medium-term fiscal plan.

Pacific and 208 hours per year in the Middle East and North Africa. The number of tax payments per year is also high in Sub-Saharan Africa, at 39, compared with 23 in East Asia and the Pacific and 18 in the Middle East and North Africa (table D.2). The level of revenue to GDP remains modest in Sub-Saharan Africa (tax revenue to GDP was nearly 16 percent in 2013), suggesting the potential to increase these revenues.

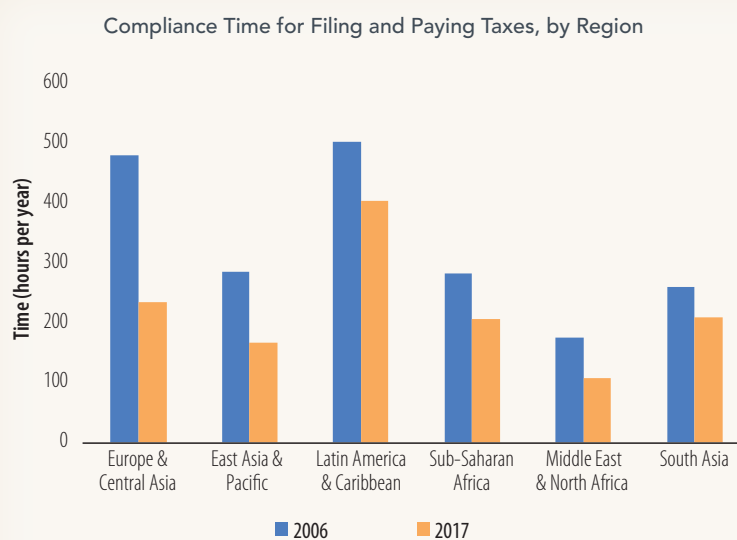
Table D.2. Regional Comparison of Tax Payment Systems

Region	Paying taxes distance to frontier	Payments (number per year)	Time (hours per year)
Sub-Saharan Africa	56	39	304
South Asia	58	32	284
Latin America and Caribbean	59	29	343
East Asia and Pacific	72	23	198
Europe and Central Asia	77	18	222
Middle East and North Africa	77	18	208

Source: World Bank Doing Business Indicators, 2017.

Guinea is the only country in the region to record an upgrade in the quality of revenue mobilization in 2016. This improvement has been mainly due to tax administration measures coupled with steady policy measures, despite the post-Ebola shock and the negative impact of the fall in prices of metals and minerals. The country has accelerated its efforts to strengthen tax administration with development partner assistance (for example, the European Union and France). The key objectives include developing a strategic approach, improving user-oriented service, building capacity, establishing and implementing a multi-annual training plan, carrying out a taxpayers' survey in the field, and implementing a modern information system. The authorities have made progress in the development of a real estate database and carrying out a survey to populate a database of professionals.

In the region, resource-rich and fragile countries need to redouble their governance reform efforts, to improve revenue mobilization to meet the development priorities of poverty alleviation, jobs, infrastructure, and service delivery. Domestic resource mobilization and local and foreign investment can be encouraged through international good practices, such as introducing value-added tax (VAT) reforms, setting up revenue administration authorities, introducing electronic filing systems (figure D.6), deploying a bookkeeping system to track VAT, and promoting nontax reforms.¹⁴



Source: World Bank Doing Business Indicators, 2017.

FIGURE D.6

Electronic tax filing and paying systems have reduced compliance time across the world, including in Sub-Saharan Africa.

¹⁴ As a result of tax policy and administration reforms, in recent years, Sub-Saharan Africa has recorded about 15 percent higher actual tax revenues relative to predicted values (that is, the tax revenue index). For lessons and good practices, see "Tax Revenue and Tax Efforts across the World," Tuan Minh Le, Blanca Moreno-Dodson, and Nihal Bayraktar, World Bank, 2014.

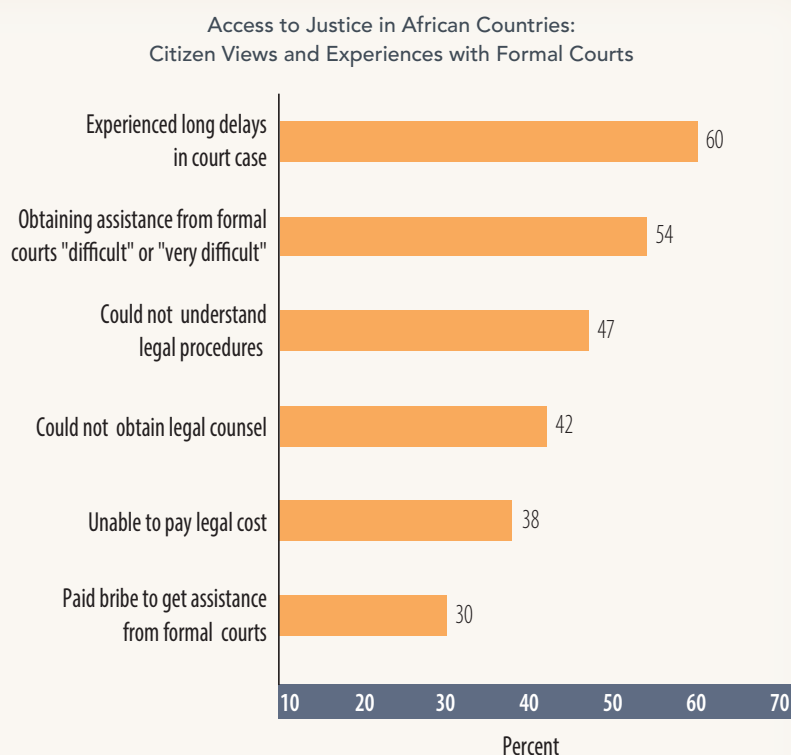
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance and Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector

Sub-Saharan Africa is lagging in property rights protection and the fight against corruption, weighing down on overall performance of Cluster D. For example, justice sector performance in the region's IDA countries is weaker than that in other IDA countries (for the property rights and rule-based governance indicator, the average score in Sub-Saharan Africa is 2.8, compared with 3.0 in other IDA countries). Similarly, Sub-Saharan Africa's IDA countries' score for transparency, accountability, and fight against corruption (2.7) is lower than that for other IDA countries (3.0). These low scores imply a loss of public resources that could be effectively channeled toward development programs. The World Governance Indicators also suggest that transparency and effective judicial enforcement (which are closely associated key elements of the cluster D indicator) need to be radically improved to put a dent in corruption and build trust in public institutions.¹⁵

Furthermore, the CPIA scores for both governance dimensions remained unchanged in 2016 compared with 2015. The cause may have been lack of attention by the authorities to justice sector capacity building, and the difficulty of policy decision making due to a dearth of data on justice performance. Another potential explanation would be the continuation of violence, corrupt practices, and political and ethnic conflict in many countries, which are keeping institutions opaque and unaccountable, and citizens vulnerable and at risk.

FIGURE D.7

Afrobarometer results show that citizens who have had contact with formal courts identify high costs, delays, and the weak quality of service provision as problems.



Source: Data are from highlights of the of Round 6 survey findings from 36 African countries, Afrobarometer, 2017.

Note: Percent of survey respondent who said they had contact with formal courts (13 percent of total). The survey interviewed 54,000 citizens from 36 countries.

The recently completed regional Access to Justice Survey 2016, by Afrobarometer with World Bank support, partially fills the gap in information on justice performance. The survey offers actionable data on user perceptions and priorities for reform (figure D.7).¹⁶ Among all respondents, 43 percent of Africans trust the courts "not at all" or just a little". Furthermore, respondents who reported having contact with formal courts indicated that high costs, delays, and the weak quality of service provision are challenges that require attention for the improvement of access to justice.

¹⁵ At the Global Anti-Corruption Summit in 2016, the President of the World Bank Group outlined the notion of "radical transparency" to address the challenge of corruption. <http://www.gov.uk/government/topical-event/anti-corruption-summit-london-2016>.

¹⁶ Access to Justice Policy Paper 39, Afrobarometer. <http://www.afrobarometer.org/press/access-justice-still-elusive-many-africans-afrobarometer-survey-finds>.

For strengthening property rights, fighting corruption, and promoting governance accountability, international experience suggests: reforms that alleviate delays and reduce backlogs in courts; promote alternative dispute resolution mechanisms; provide free legal assistance and reduce court fees; build the skills of justice sector officials and judges and their disciplinary systems; and bring services closer to the people, especially vulnerable groups.

Conclusion

In moving forward, implementation of ongoing governance and public-sector reforms (such as financial management system upgrades) need to be expanded, and new dimensions added (such as rights protection, transparency, and fighting against corruption) to achieve a more integrated approach to addressing governance challenges. The findings of the 2017 World Development Report on Governance and the Law also stress the need to reduce policy implementation gaps by improving the interaction among stakeholders and the processes by which they interact as power brokers.¹⁷

Given that governance underpins all sectors of development, promotion of capacity, systems upgrade, and reforms across all sectors could significantly enhance accountability and effectiveness. This integrated governance approach, in line with the aspirations of the SDGs and Vision 2030, could help Sub-Saharan Africa take advantage of the historic opportunity to leverage IDA18 resources and radically improve development outcomes.

¹⁷ In confronting development challenges, the World Development Report stresses a rethinking of “the processes by which state and non-state actors interact to design and implement policies”, within a given set of formal and informal rules that shape and are shaped by “power”, which is defined as “the ability of one actor to make others undertake an action that is in the actor’s interest, and that the others would not otherwise take.”

CPIA Africa: Compare Your Country



CPIA
AFRICA

COMPARE YOUR COUNTRY



*2012 is the first year that CPIA scores for South Sudan are available.

COUNTRY TABLES



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.4

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▼ **0.1**

Highest performing cluster

3.7

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

3.2

(Structural Policies)

Population (millions)	10.9
GDP (current US\$, billions)	8.6
GDP per capita (current US\$)	789
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	52

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Benin	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.7	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	4.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.2	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.4	3.2
Gender Equality	3.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.3	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.4	3.1

Definitions:

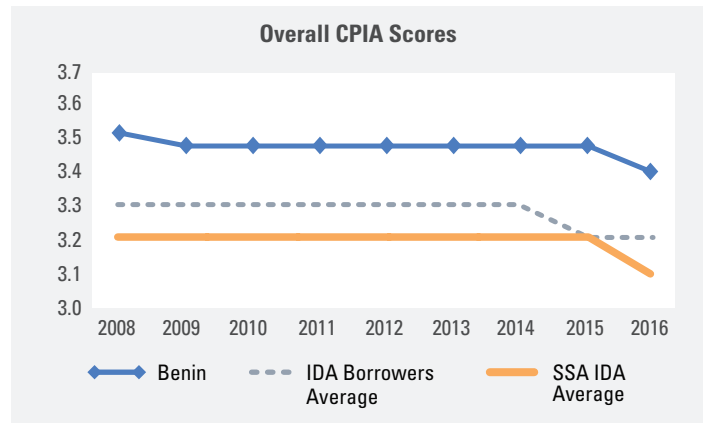
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- Poverty is based on PovcalNet poverty data as of June 2017
- The cutoff date for the World Development Indicators database is July 2017

Average scores for comparisons refer to country groupings as follows:

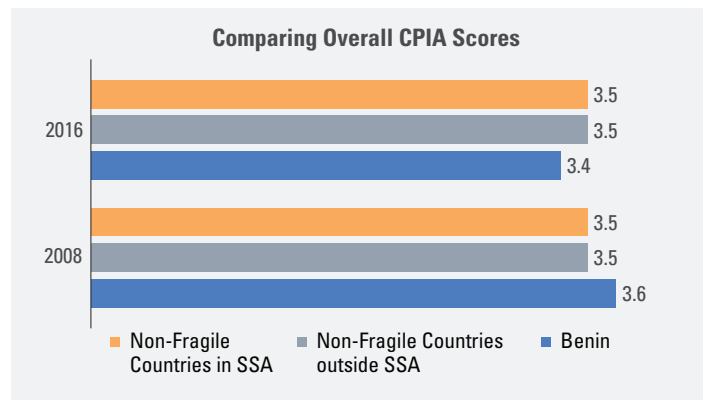
- **IDA Borrowing Countries:** 73 countries eligible for IDA credits and with CPIA scores in 2016
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NOTES: The CPIA consists of 16 criteria grouped in four equally weighted clusters: Economic Management, Structural Policies, Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity, and Public Sector Management and Institutions. For each of the 16 criteria, countries are rated on a scale of 1 (low) to 6 (high). The scores depend on the level of performance in a given year assessed against the criteria, rather than on changes in performance compared with the previous year. The ratings depend on actual policies and performance, rather than on promises or intentions. The ratings reflect a variety of indicators, observations, and judgments originated in the World Bank or elsewhere. For details, see: www.worldbank.org/africa/CPIA.

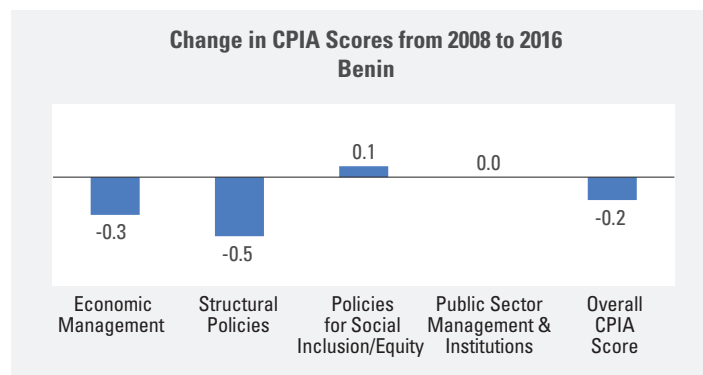
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.6

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

—

No change

Highest performing cluster

3.8

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

3.5

(Structural Policies and Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	18.6
GDP (current US\$, billions)	12.1
GDP per capita (current US\$)	650
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	47

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Burkina Faso	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.8	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.5	3.0
Debt Policy	4.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.5	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.7	3.2
Gender Equality	3.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	4.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	4.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.5	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	4.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.6	3.1

Definitions:

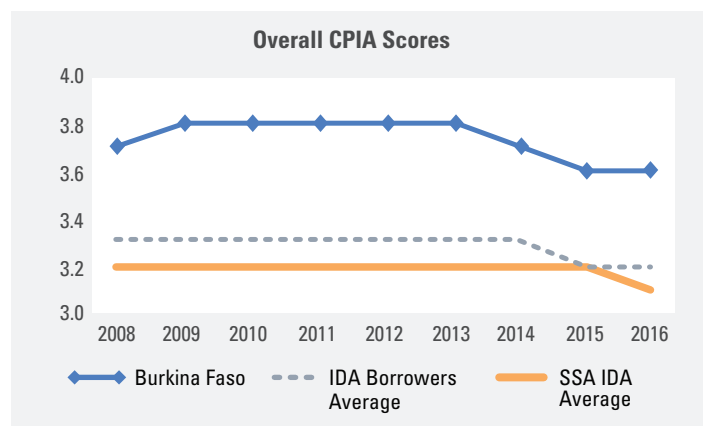
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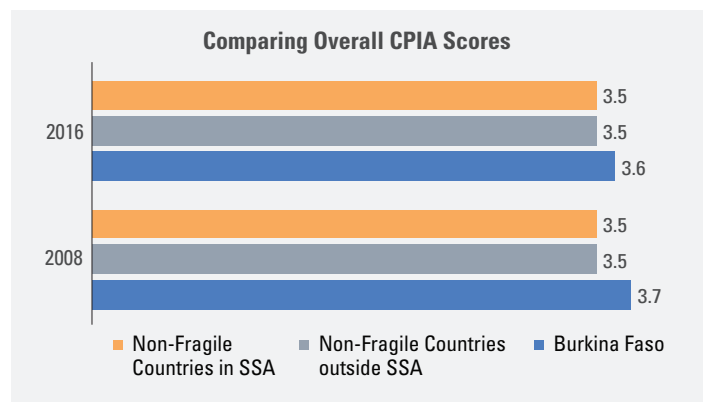
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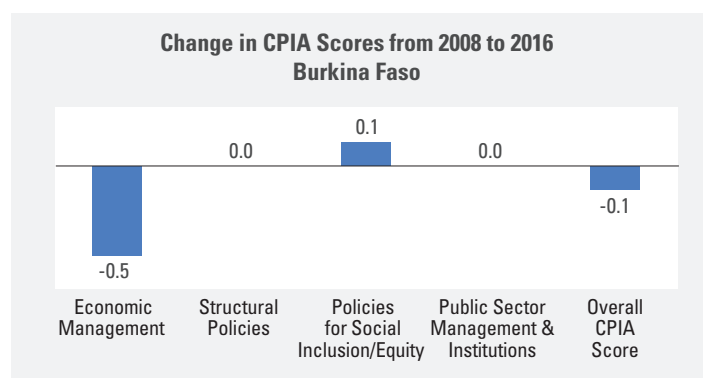
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.0

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

▼ 0.1

Highest
performing cluster

3.5

(Policies for Social
Inclusion and Equity)Lowest
performing cluster

2.4

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)

Population (millions)	10.5
GDP (current US\$, billions)	3.0
GDP per capita (current US\$)	286
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	77

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Burundi	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	2.7	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	2.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	2.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.3	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.5	3.2
Gender Equality	4.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.4	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	2.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.0	3.1

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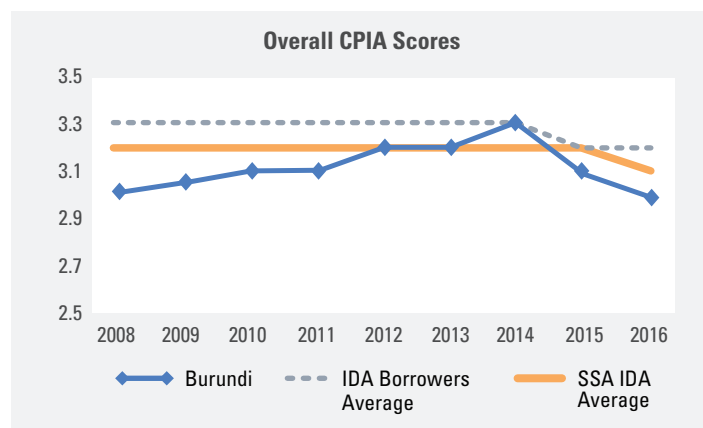
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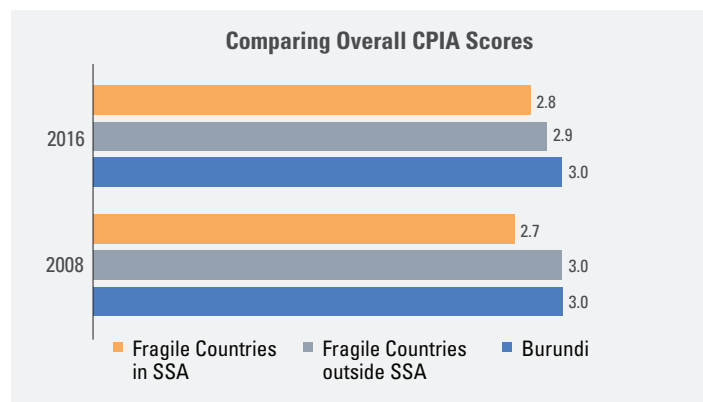
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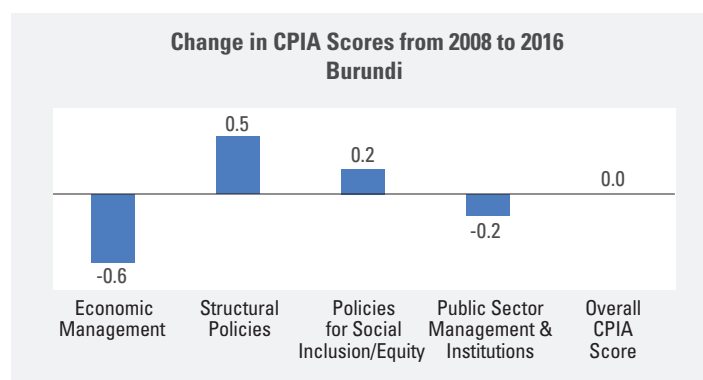
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.7

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

▼ 0.1

Highest
performing cluster

3.8

(Structural Policies, Policies for Social
Inclusion and Equity, and Public Sector
Management and Institutions)Lowest
performing cluster

3.5

(Economic Management)

Population (millions)	0.5
GDP (current US\$, billions)	1.6
GDP per capita (current US\$)	2,998
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	7

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Cabo Verde	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.5	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.5	3.0
Debt Policy	3.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.8	3.2
Trade	4.5	3.6
Financial Sector	3.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.8	3.2
Gender Equality	4.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	4.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.8	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	4.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	4.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	4.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.7	3.1

Definitions:

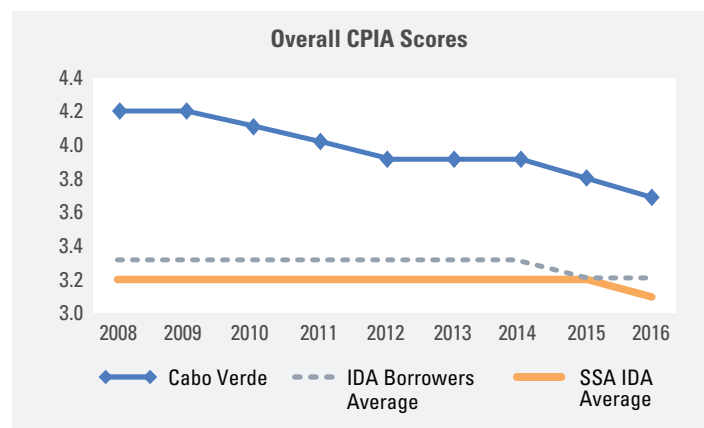
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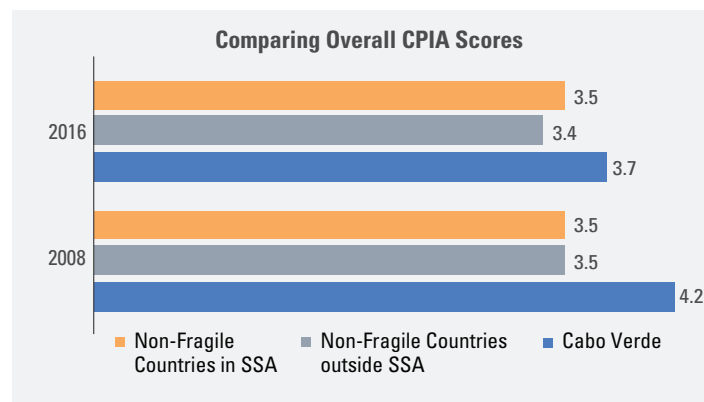
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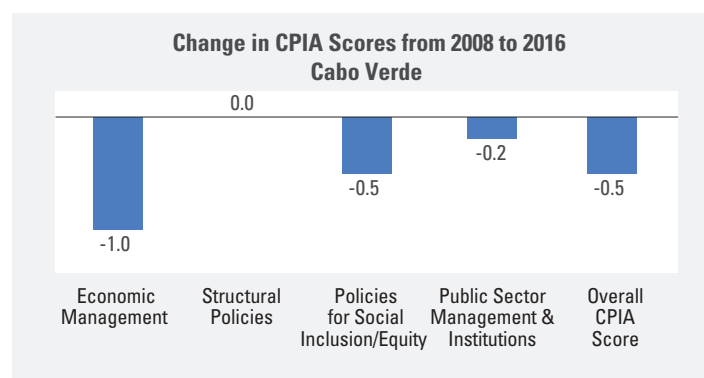
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.2

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

▲ 0.1

Highest
performing cluster

3.5

(Economic Management)

Lowest
performing cluster

3.0

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)

Population (millions)	23.4
GDP (current US\$, billions)	24.2
GDP per capita (current US\$)	1,033
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	27

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Cameroon	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.5	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	3.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.2	3.2
Trade	3.5	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.1	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.0	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.2	3.1

Definitions:

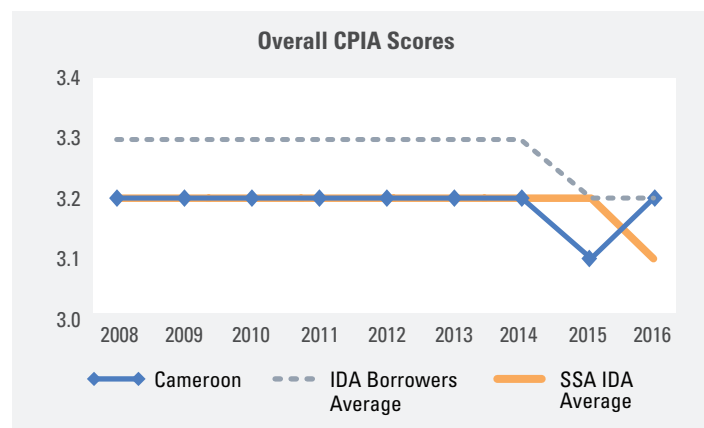
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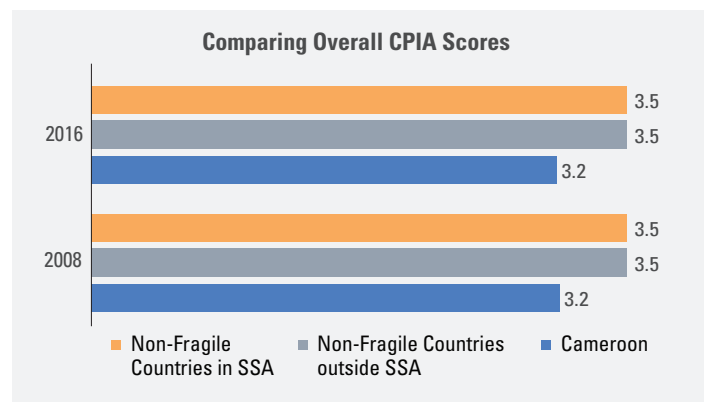
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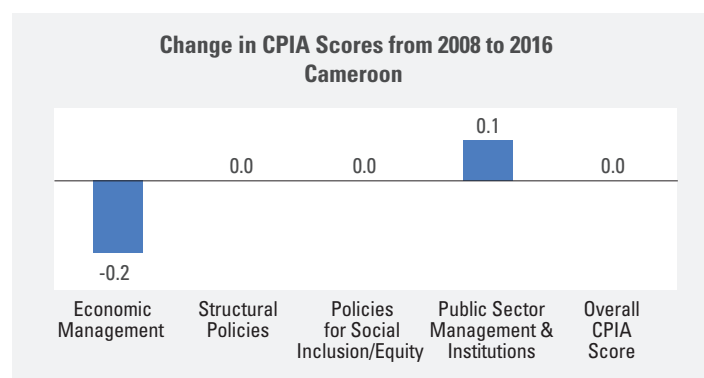
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

2.4

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

▼ 0.1

Highest
performing cluster

2.8

(Economic Management)

Lowest
performing cluster

2.2

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)

Population (millions)	4.6
GDP (current US\$, billions)	1.8
GDP per capita (current US\$)	382
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	81

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Central African Republic	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	2.8	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	2.5	3.2
Structural Policies	2.3	3.2
Trade	2.5	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	2.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	2.3	3.2
Gender Equality	2.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	2.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	2.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	2.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.2	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	1.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	2.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	2.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	2.4	3.1

Definitions:

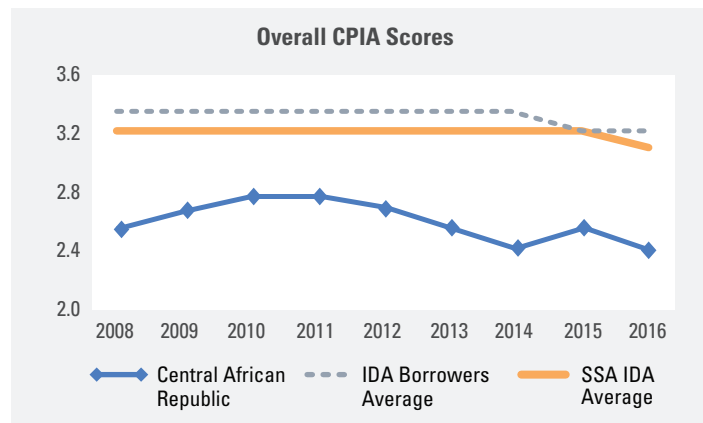
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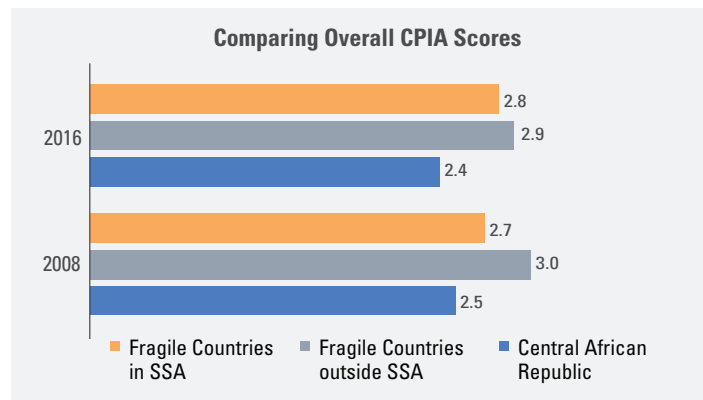
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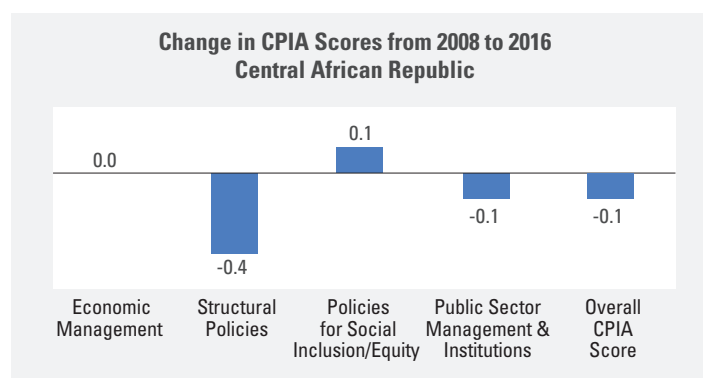
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score
2.7

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year
▼ **0.1**Highest
performing cluster
3.0

(Economic Management)

Lowest
performing cluster
2.6(Policies for Social
Inclusion and Equity)

Population (millions)	14.5
GDP (current US\$, billions)	9.6
GDP per capita (current US\$)	664
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	35

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Chad	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.0	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	3.0	3.2
Structural Policies	2.7	3.2
Trade	3.0	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	2.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	2.6	3.2
Gender Equality	2.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	2.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	2.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	2.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.7	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	2.7	3.1

Definitions:

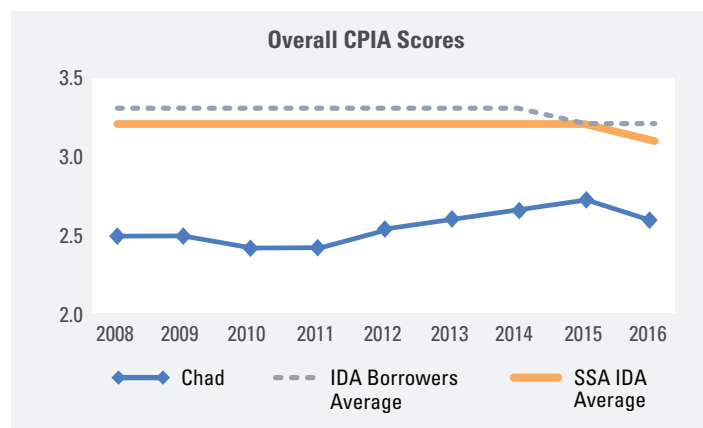
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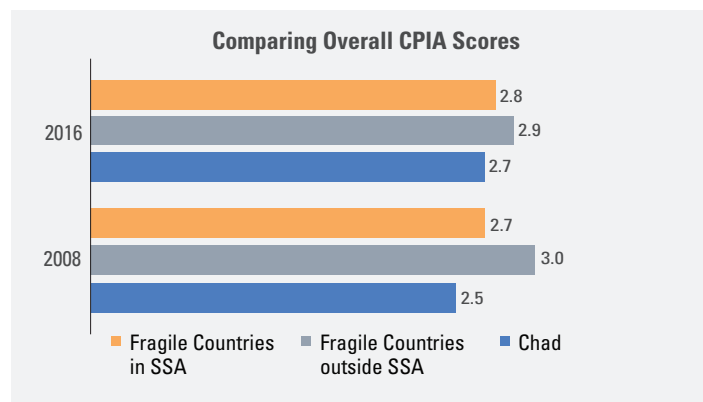
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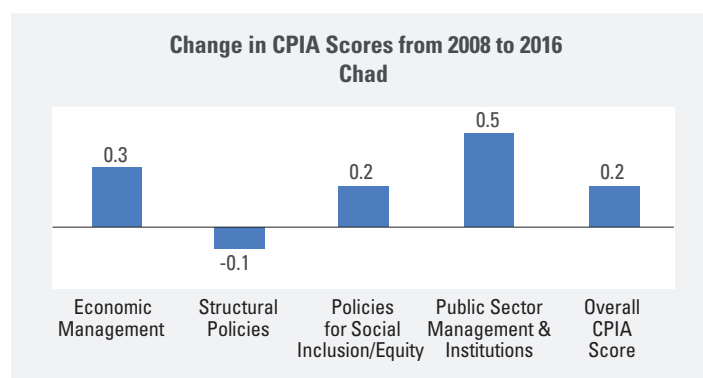
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

2.9

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▲ **0.1**

Highest performing cluster

3.0

(Structural Policies)

Lowest performing cluster

2.7

(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	0.8
GDP (current US\$, billions)	0.6
GDP per capita (current US\$)	775
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	15

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Comoros	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	2.8	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	2.5	3.0
Debt Policy	3.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.0	3.2
Trade	3.5	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	2.9	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	2.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.7	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	2.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	2.9	3.1

Definitions:

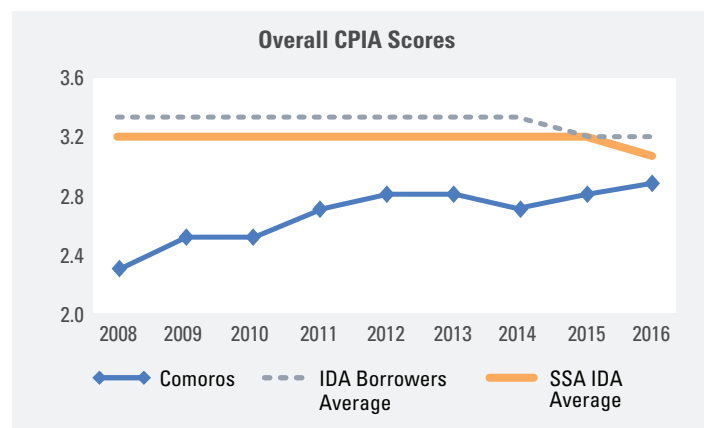
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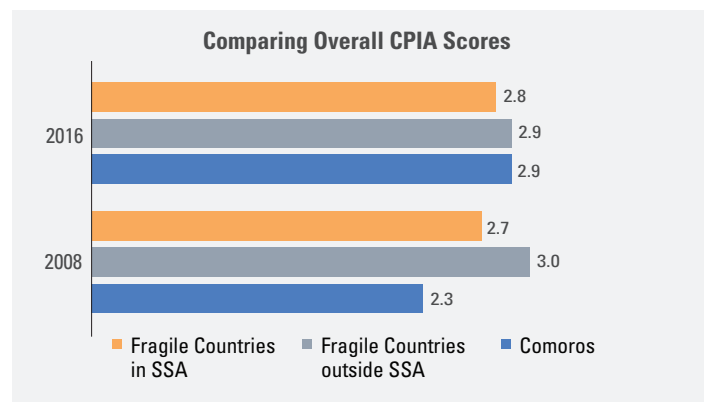
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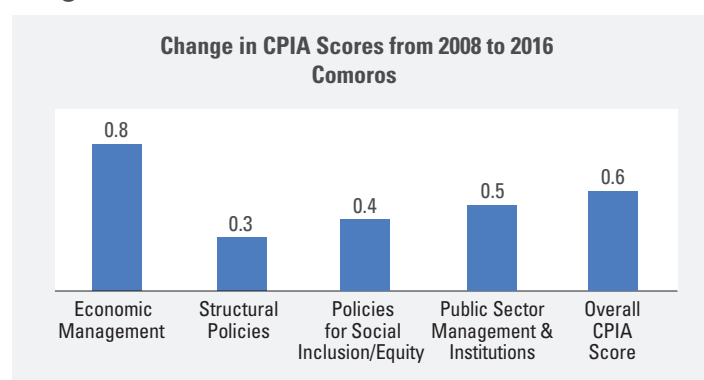
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

2.9

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▼ **0.1**

Highest performing cluster

3.2

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

2.5

(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	78.7
GDP (current US\$, billions)	35.0
GDP per capita (current US\$)	445
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	77

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Congo, Dem. Rep.	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.2	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	3.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.0	3.2
Trade	3.5	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.0	3.2
Gender Equality	2.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.5	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	2.9	3.1

Definitions:

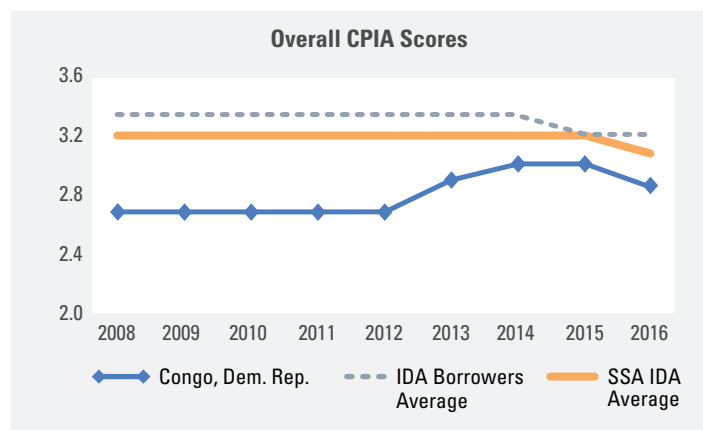
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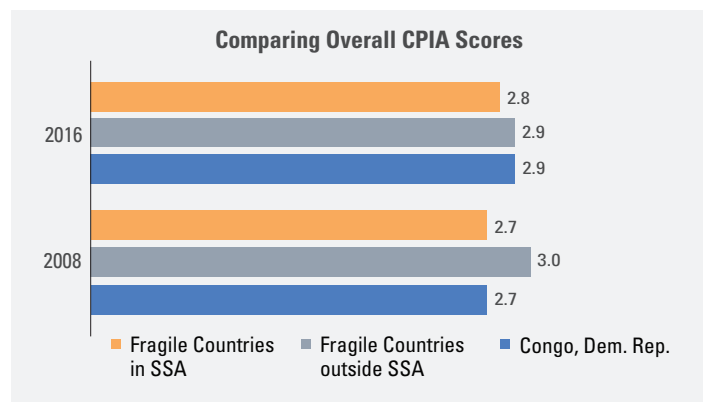
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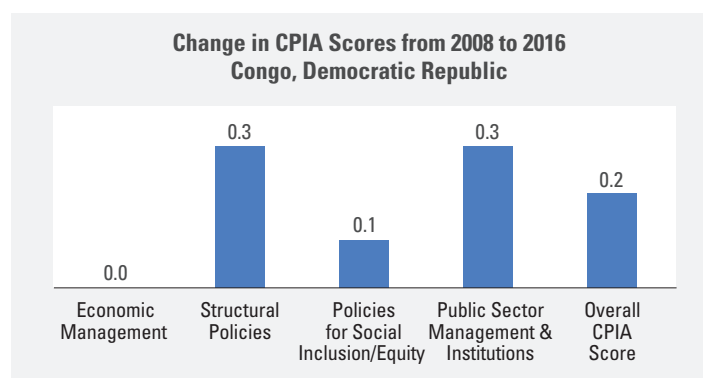
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

2.9

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▼ 0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.0

(Economic Management and Structural Policies)

Lowest performing cluster

2.5

(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	5.1
GDP (current US\$, billions)	7.8
GDP per capita (current US\$)	1,528
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	28

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Congo Republic	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.0	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	3.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.0	3.2
Trade	3.5	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	2.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	2.9	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	2.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.5	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	2.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	2.9	3.1

Definitions:

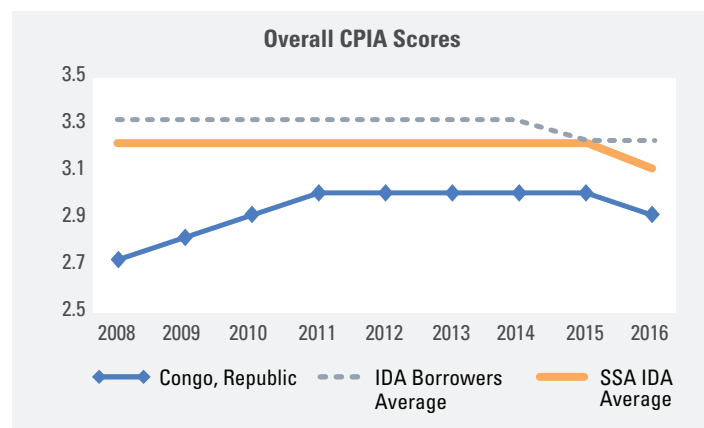
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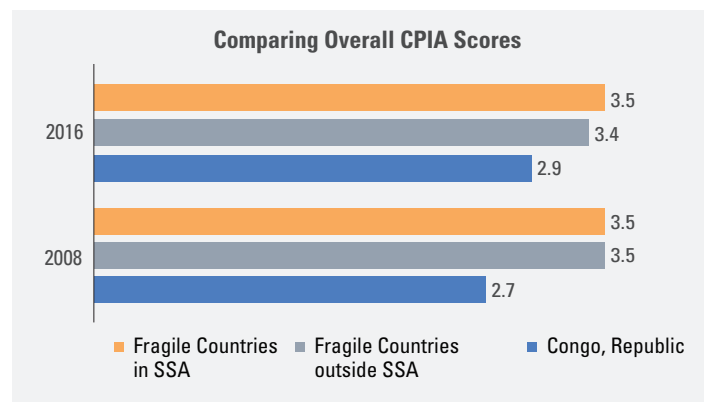
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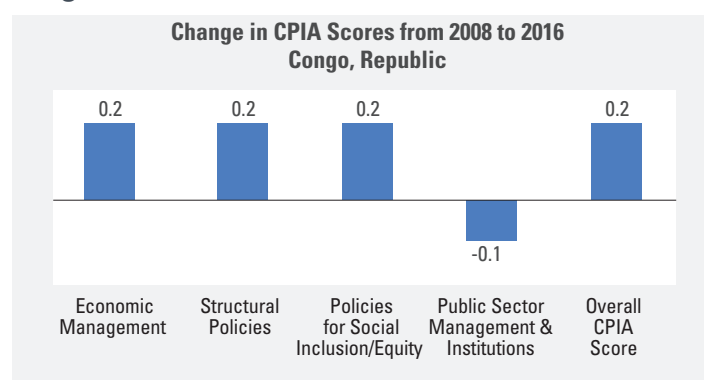
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.4

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

▲ 0.1

Highest
performing cluster

3.7

(Economic Management)

Lowest
performing cluster

3.2

(Policies for Social Inclusion
and Equity and Public Sector
Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	23.7
GDP (current US\$, billions)	36.2
GDP per capita (current US\$)	1,526
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	23

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Côte d'Ivoire	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.7	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.5	3.0
Debt Policy	3.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.3	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.2	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.2	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.4	3.1

Definitions:

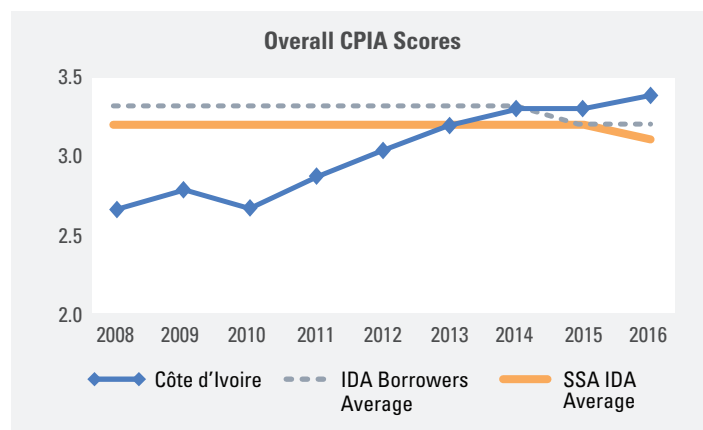
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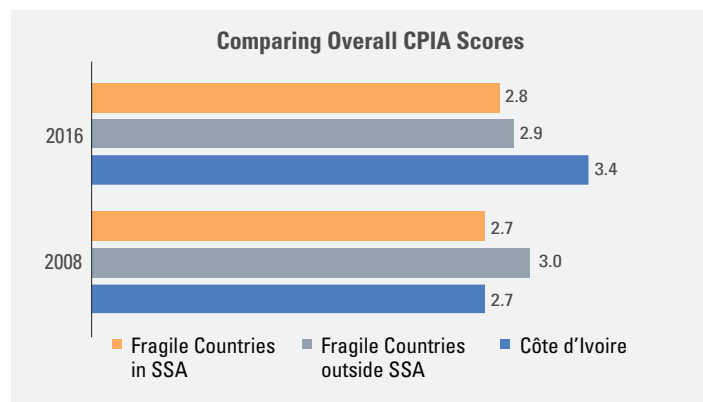
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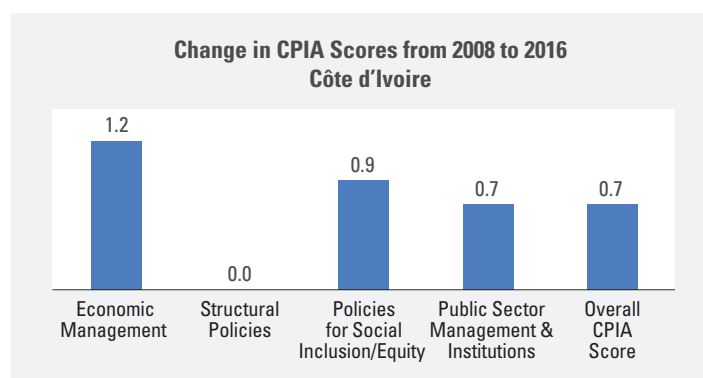
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

1.9

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

—

No change

Highest
performing cluster

2.5

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)Lowest
performing cluster

1.2

(Structural Policies)

Population (millions)	NA
GDP (current US\$, billions)	NA
GDP per capita (current US\$)	NA
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	NA

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Eritrea	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	1.3	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	1.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	1.5	3.0
Debt Policy	1.0	3.2
Structural Policies	1.2	3.2
Trade	1.5	3.6
Financial Sector	1.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	1.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	2.4	3.2
Gender Equality	2.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	2.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	2.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.5	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	2.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	1.9	3.1

Definitions:

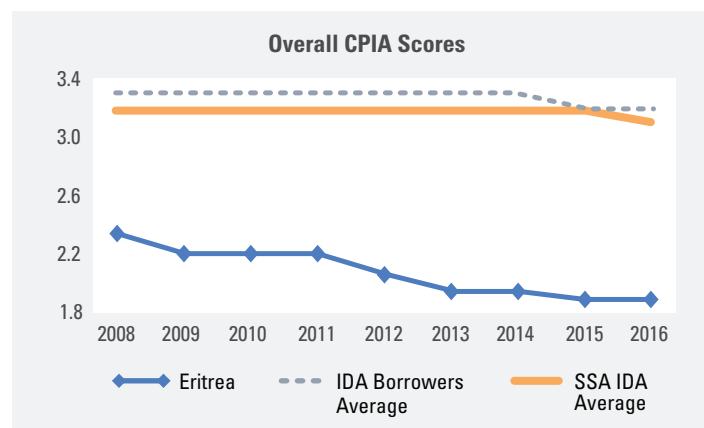
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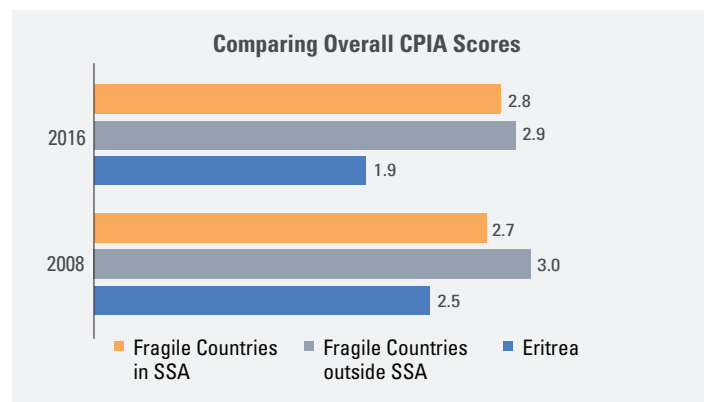
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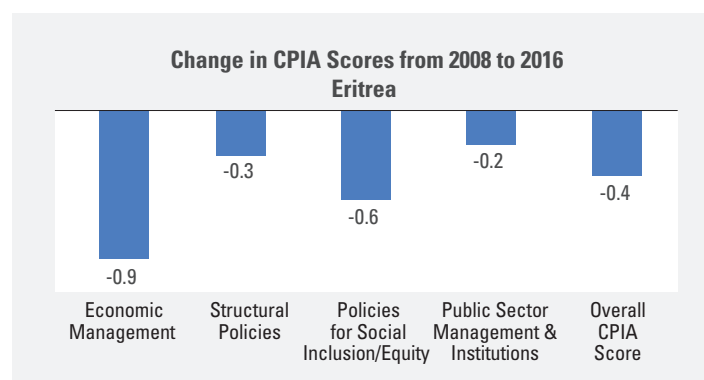
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.5

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

—

No change

Highest
performing cluster

3.7

(Economic Management and Policies
for Social Inclusion and Equity)Lowest
performing cluster

3.0

(Structural Policies)

Population (millions)	102.4
GDP (current US\$, billions)	72.4
GDP per capita (current US\$)	707
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	31

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Ethiopia	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.7	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.5	3.0
Debt Policy	4.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.0	3.2
Trade	3.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.7	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	4.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.5	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	4.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.5	3.1

Definitions:

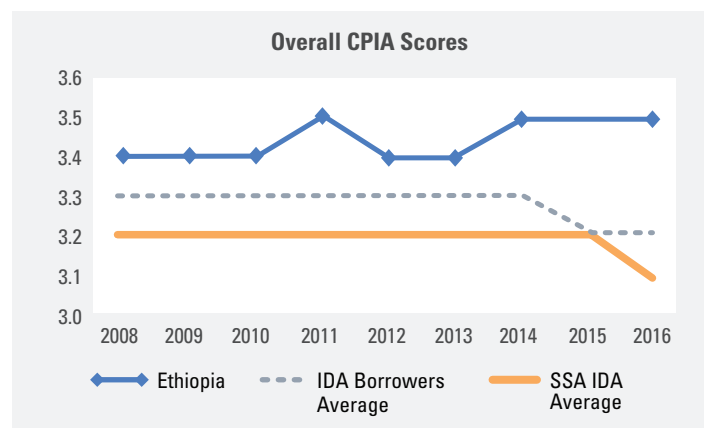
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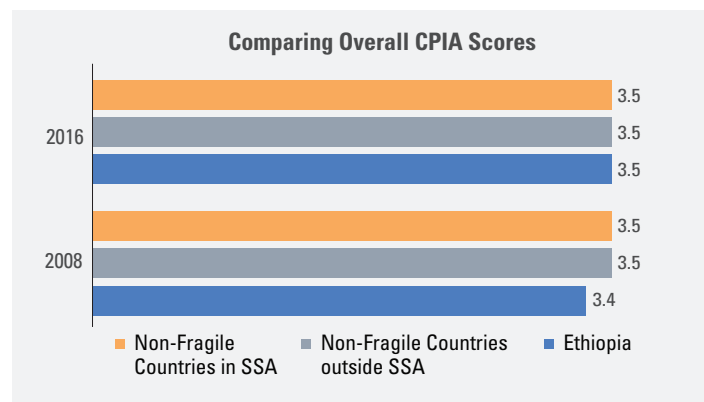
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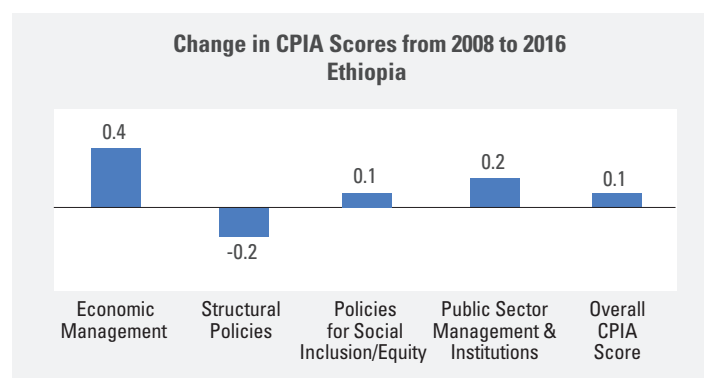
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

2.9

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

—

No change

Highest performing cluster

3.3

(Structural Policies and Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

2.2

(Economic Management)

Population (millions)	2.0
GDP (current US\$, billions)	1.0
GDP per capita (current US\$)	473
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	30

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Gambia, The	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	2.2	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	2.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	2.0	3.0
Debt Policy	2.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.3	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.3	3.2
Gender Equality	3.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.9	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	2.9	3.1

Definitions:

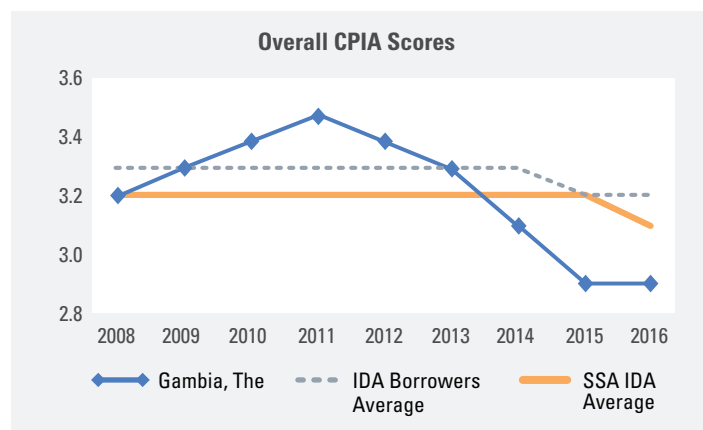
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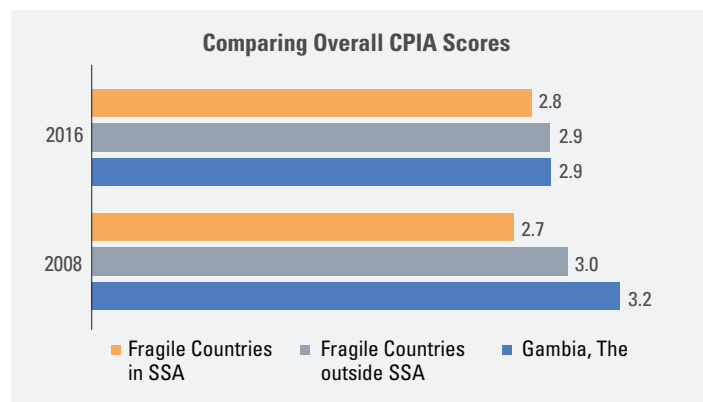
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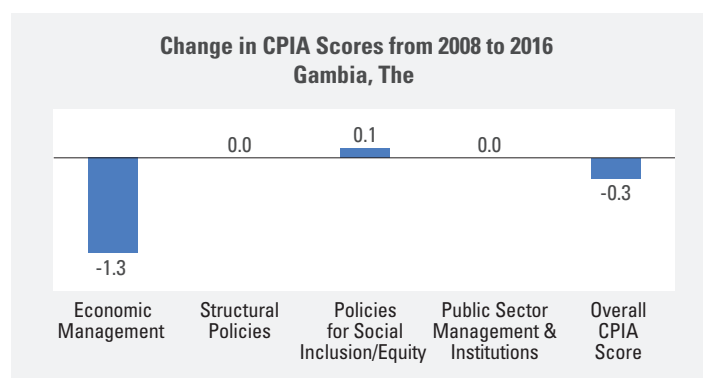
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.5

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

▼ 0.1

Highest
performing cluster

3.8

(Policies for Social Inclusion
and Equity)Lowest
performing cluster

3.0

(Economic Management)

Population (millions)	28.2
GDP (current US\$, billions)	42.7
GDP per capita (current US\$)	1,514
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	12

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Ghana	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.0	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	2.5	3.0
Debt Policy	3.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.7	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	4.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.8	3.2
Gender Equality	4.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	4.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	4.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.6	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	4.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.5	3.1

Definitions:

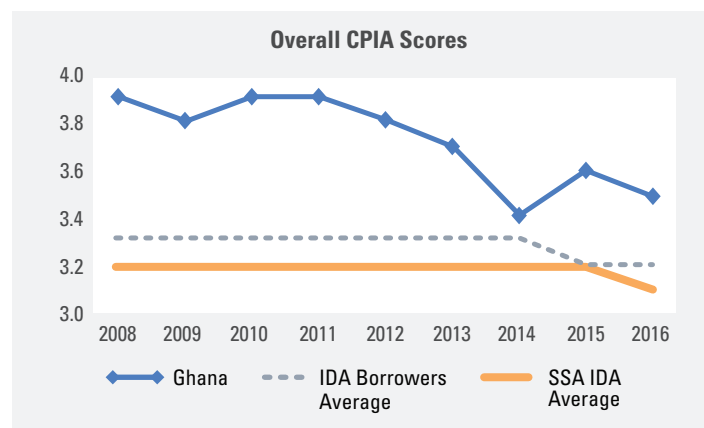
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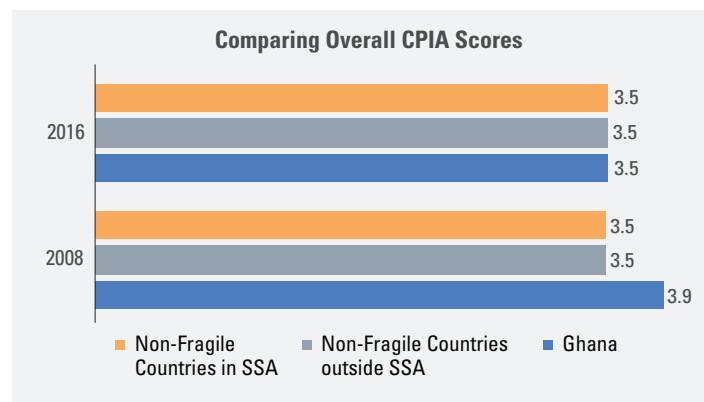
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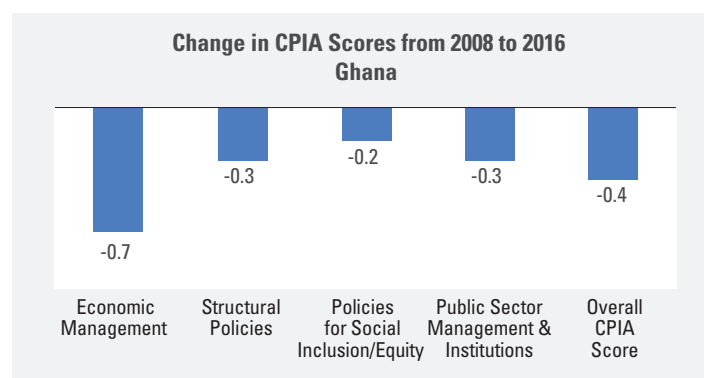
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.2

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▲ 0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.5

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

2.9

(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	12.4
GDP (current US\$, billions)	6.3
GDP per capita (current US\$)	508
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	35

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Guinea	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.5	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.5	3.0
Debt Policy	3.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.0	3.2
Trade	3.5	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.2	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.9	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.2	3.1

Definitions:

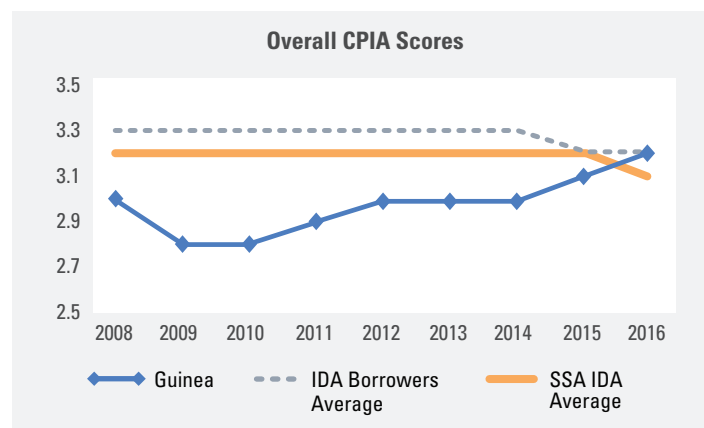
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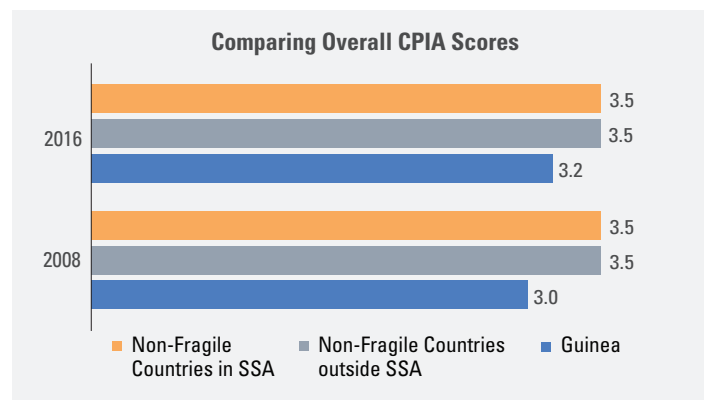
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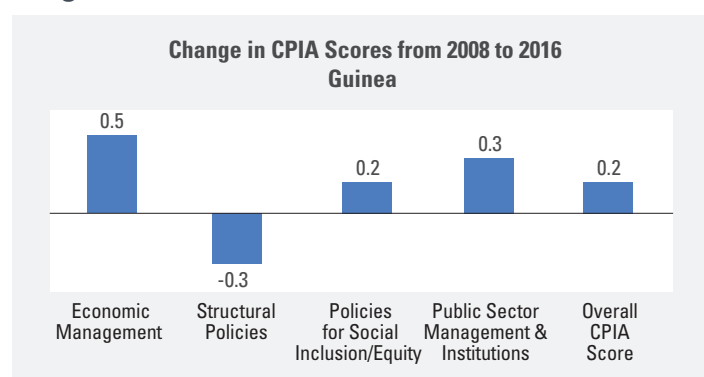
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score
2.5

Below SSA IDA Avg.

**Change from
previous year**

—

No change

**Highest
performing cluster**

2.8

(Structural Policies)

**Lowest
performing cluster**

2.2

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)

Population (millions)	1.8
GDP (current US\$, billions)	1.1
GDP per capita (current US\$)	620
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	67

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Guinea-Bissau	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	2.5	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	2.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	2.5	3.0
Debt Policy	2.5	3.2
Structural Policies	2.8	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	2.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	2.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	2.3	3.2
Gender Equality	2.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	2.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	2.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	2.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.2	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	2.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	2.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	2.5	3.1

Definitions:

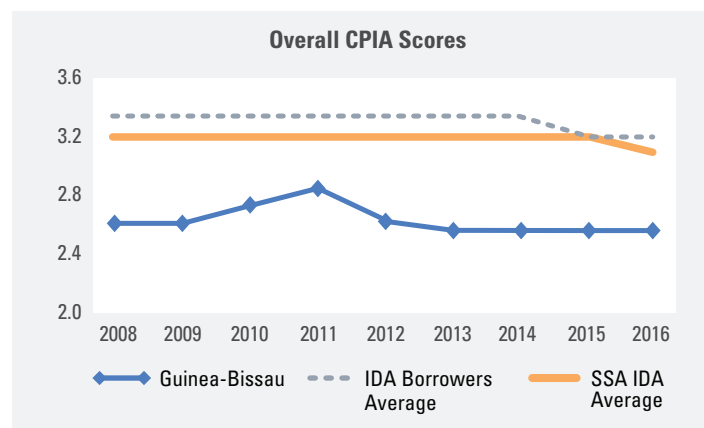
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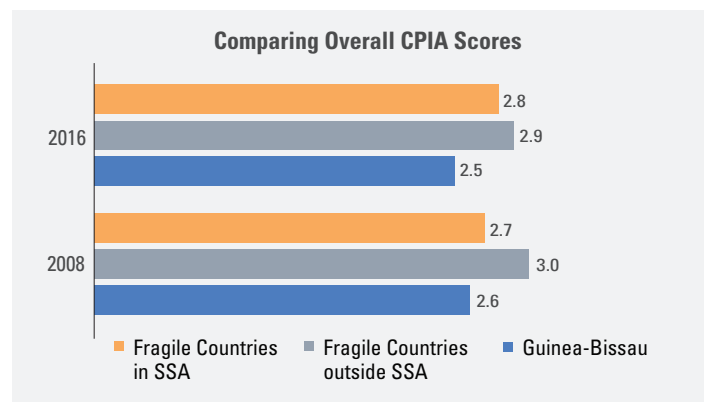
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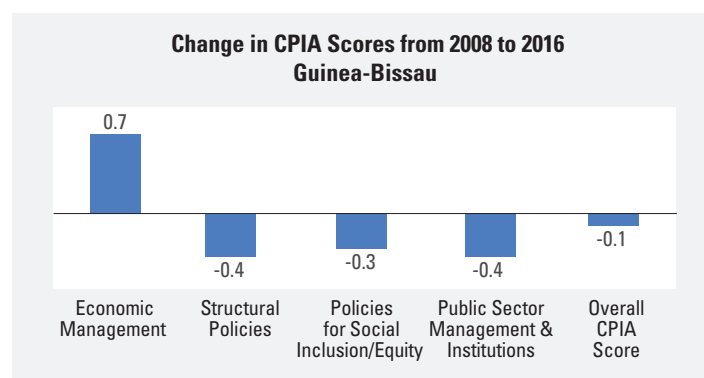
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.8

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

—

No change

Highest
performing cluster

4.3

(Economic Management)

Lowest
performing cluster

3.4

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)

Population (millions)	48.5
GDP (current US\$, billions)	70.5
GDP per capita (current US\$)	1,455
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	26

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Kenya	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	4.3	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	4.0	3.0
Debt Policy	4.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.7	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.7	3.2
Gender Equality	3.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	4.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.4	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.8	3.1

Definitions:

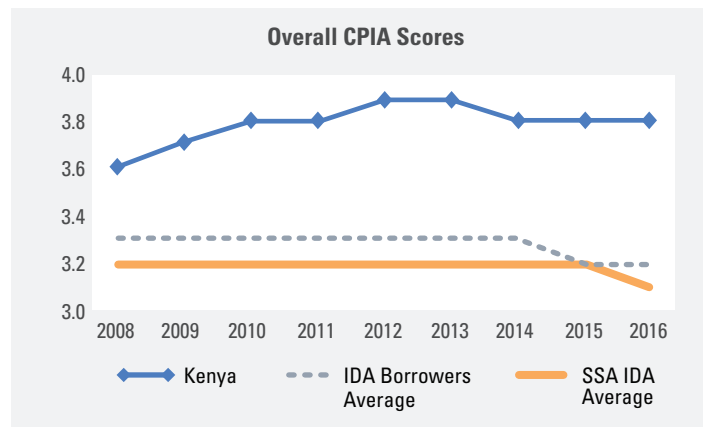
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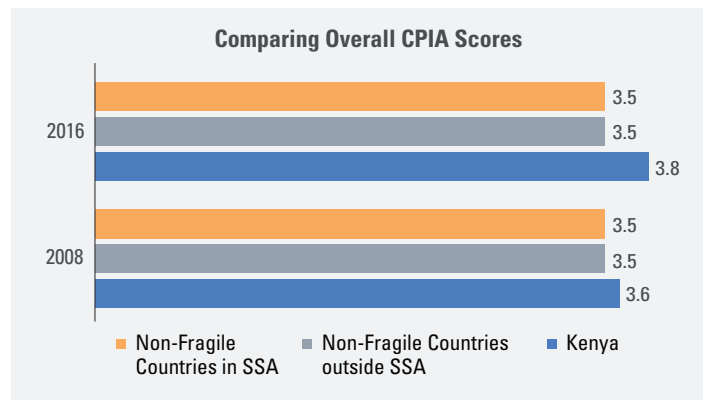
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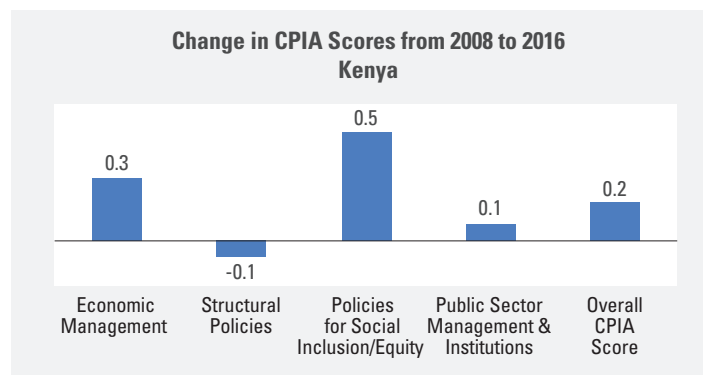
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.3

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

—

No change

Highest performing cluster

3.5

(Structural Policies)

Lowest performing cluster

3.2

(Economic Management)

Population (millions)	2.2
GDP (current US\$, billions)	2.2
GDP per capita (current US\$)	998
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	56

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Lesotho	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.2	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	2.5	3.0
Debt Policy	3.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.5	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.4	3.2
Gender Equality	4.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.3	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.3	3.1

Definitions:

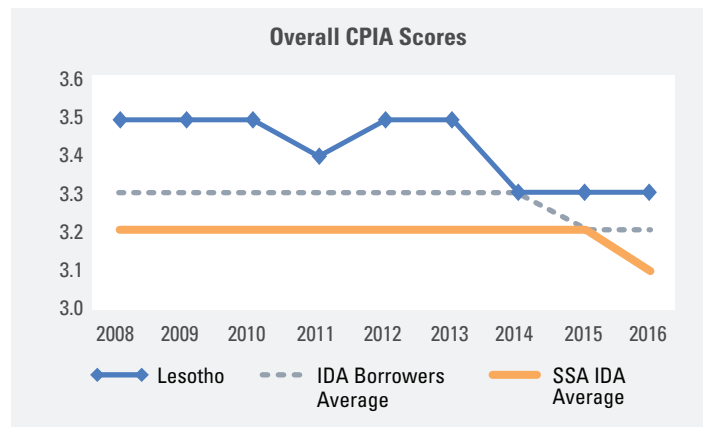
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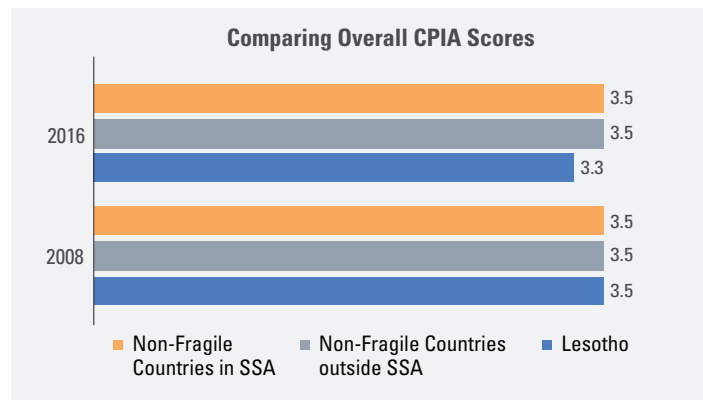
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Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.1

At the SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

—

No change

Highest
performing cluster

3.5

(Economic Management)

Lowest
performing cluster

2.9

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)

Population (millions)	4.6
GDP (current US\$, billions)	2.1
GDP per capita (current US\$)	455
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	45

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Liberia	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.5	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.5	3.0
Debt Policy	3.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.0	3.2
Trade	3.5	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.0	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.9	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.1	3.1

Definitions:

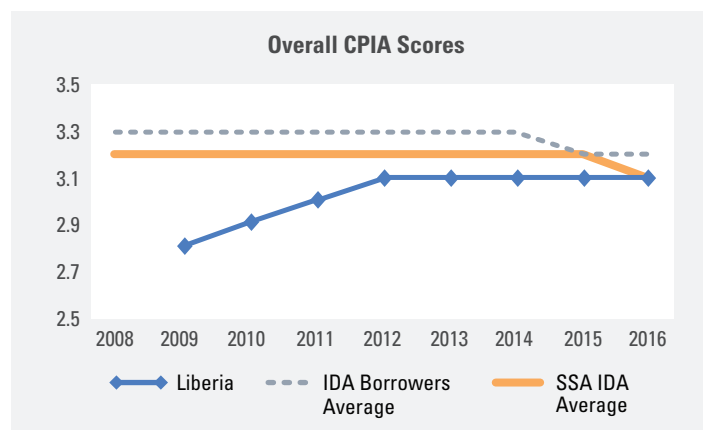
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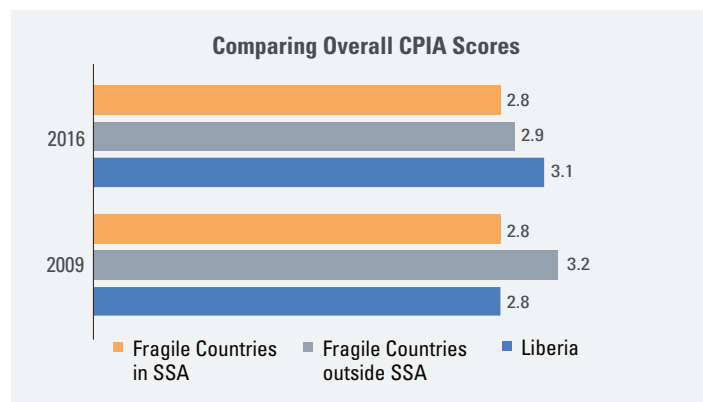
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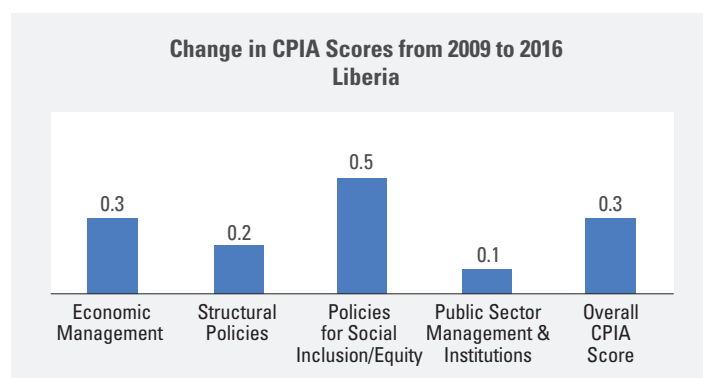
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.2

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▲ **0.1**

Highest performing cluster

3.7

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

2.8

(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	24.9
GDP (current US\$, billions)	10.0
GDP per capita (current US\$)	401
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	78

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Madagascar	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.7	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	4.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.2	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.3	3.2
Gender Equality	4.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.8	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.2	3.1

Definitions:

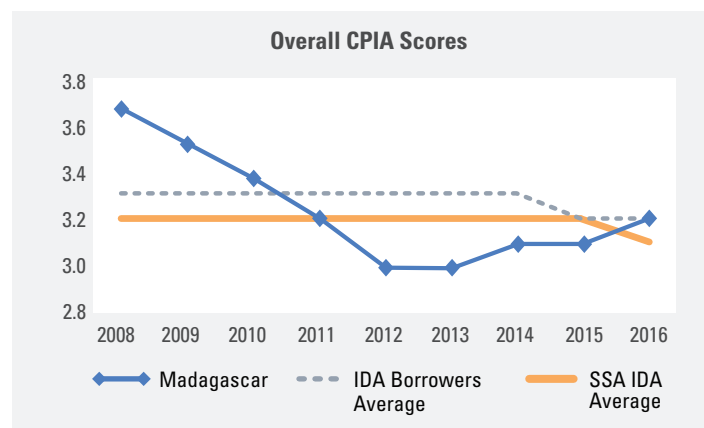
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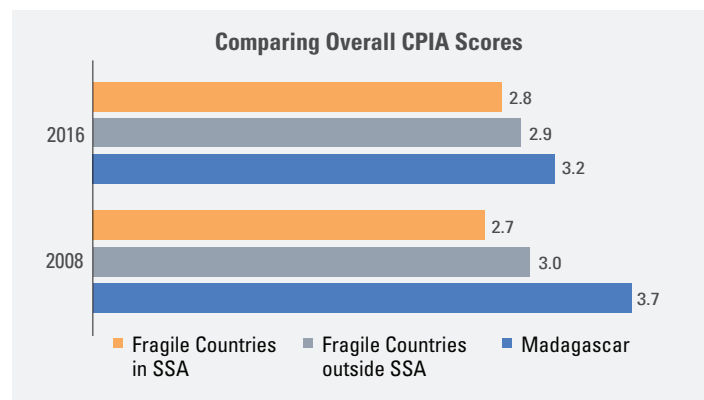
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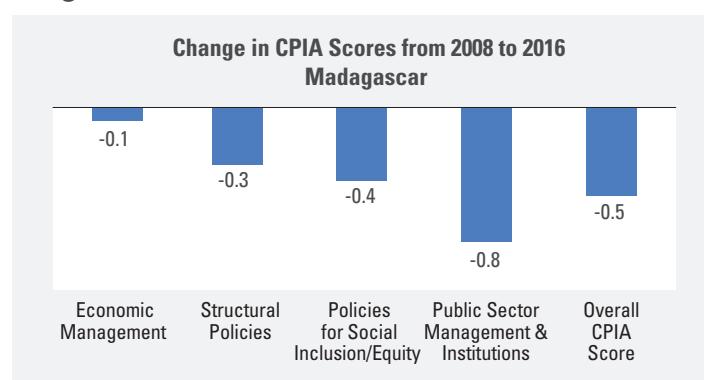
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.2

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

—

No change

Highest
performing cluster

3.5

(Policies for Social
Inclusion and Equity)Lowest
performing cluster

2.8

(Economic Management)

Population (millions)	18.1
GDP (current US\$, billions)	5.4
GDP per capita (current US\$)	301
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	71

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Malawi	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	2.8	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	2.5	3.0
Debt Policy	3.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.2	3.2
Trade	3.5	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.5	3.2
Gender Equality	3.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.2	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.2	3.1

Definitions:

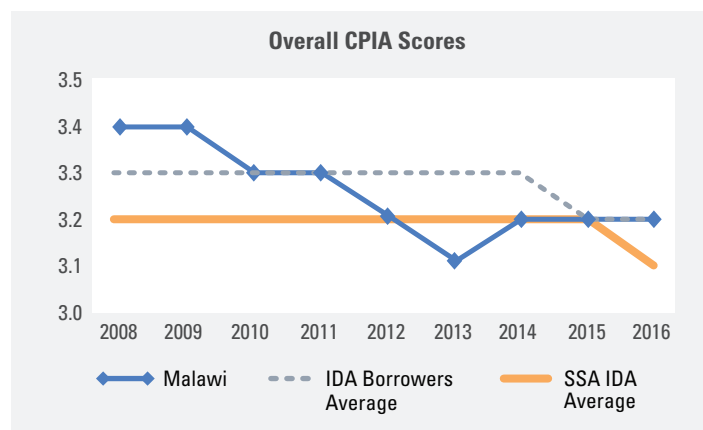
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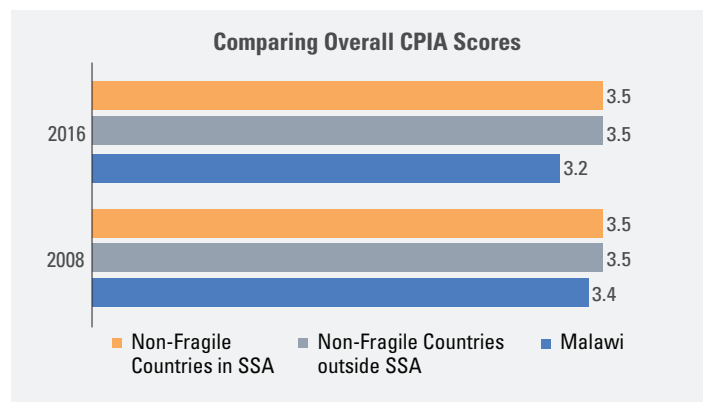
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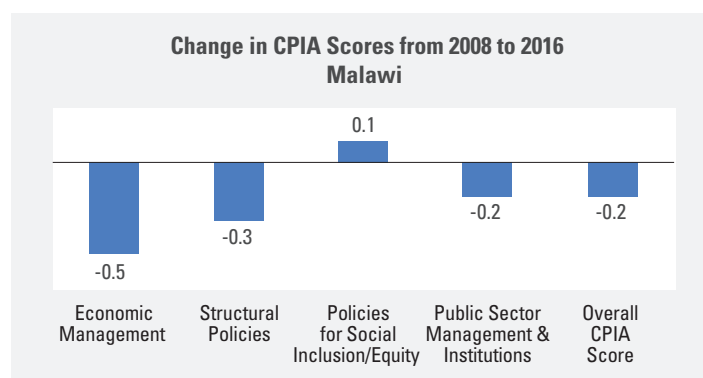
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.4

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

—

No change

Highest
performing cluster

3.8

(Economic Management)

Lowest
performing cluster

3.0

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)

Population (millions)	18.0
GDP (current US\$, billions)	14.0
GDP per capita (current US\$)	781
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	51

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Mali	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.8	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.5	3.0
Debt Policy	4.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.5	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.1	3.2
Gender Equality	2.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.0	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.4	3.1

Definitions:

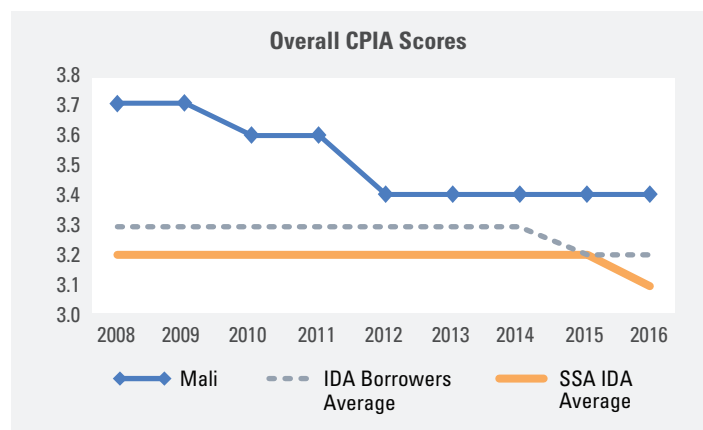
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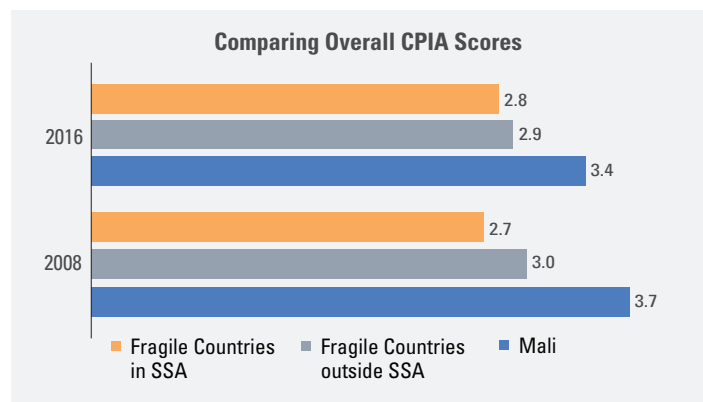
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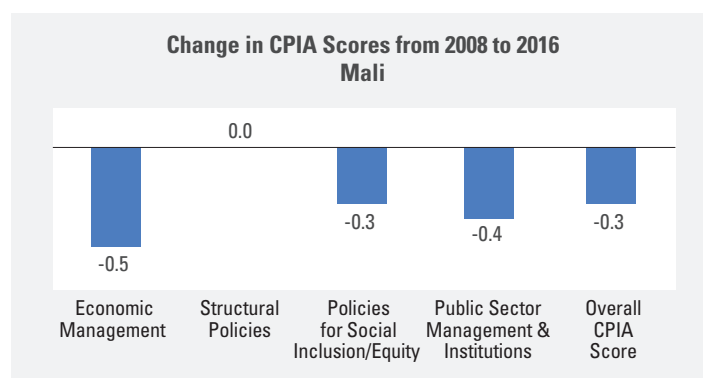
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.4

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▲ 0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.5

(Economic Management and Policies for Social Inclusion)

Lowest performing cluster

3.2

(Structural Policies)

Population (millions)	4.3
GDP (current US\$, billions)	4.6
GDP per capita (current US\$)	1.078
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	10

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Mauritania	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.5	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	4.0	3.0
Debt Policy	3.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.2	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.5	3.2
Gender Equality	3.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	4.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.3	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.4	3.1

Definitions:

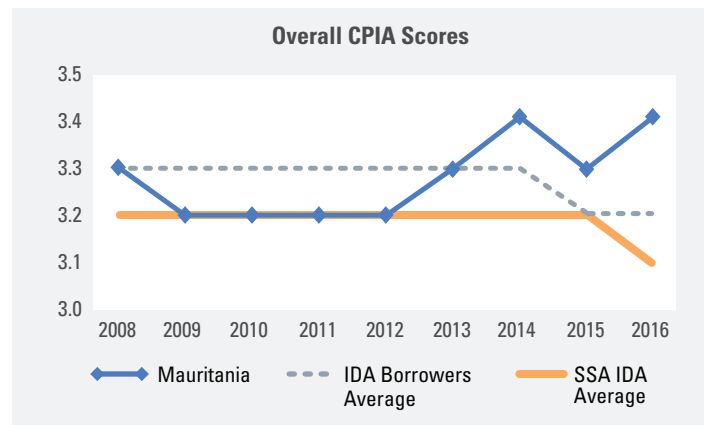
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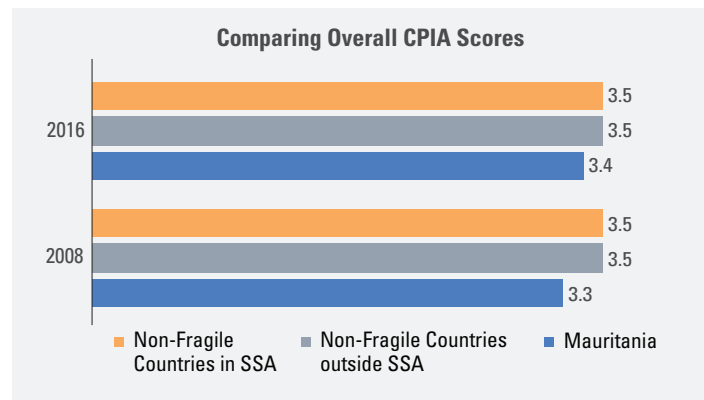
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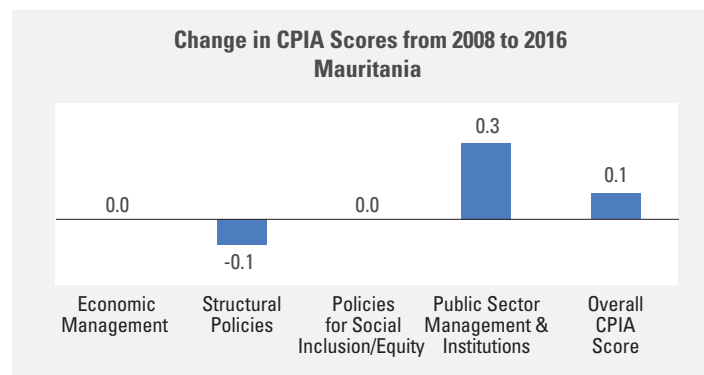
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.2

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▼ **0.3**

Highest performing cluster

3.4

(Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

3.0

(Economic Management)

Population (millions)	28.8
GDP (current US\$, billions)	11.0
GDP per capita (current US\$)	382
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	62

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Mozambique	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.0	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	2.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.3	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.4	3.2
Gender Equality	3.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.2	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	4.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.2	3.1

Definitions:

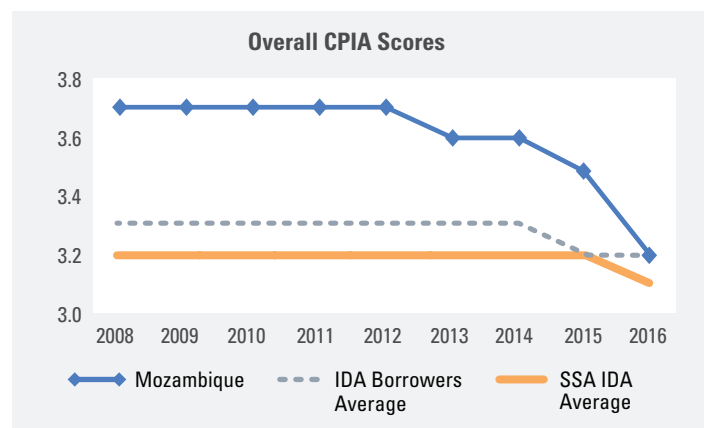
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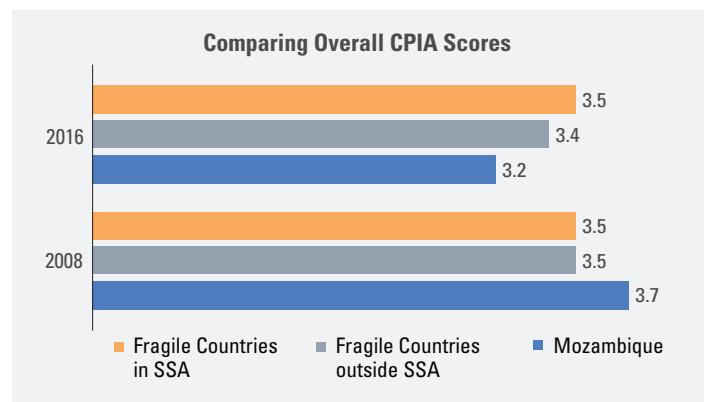
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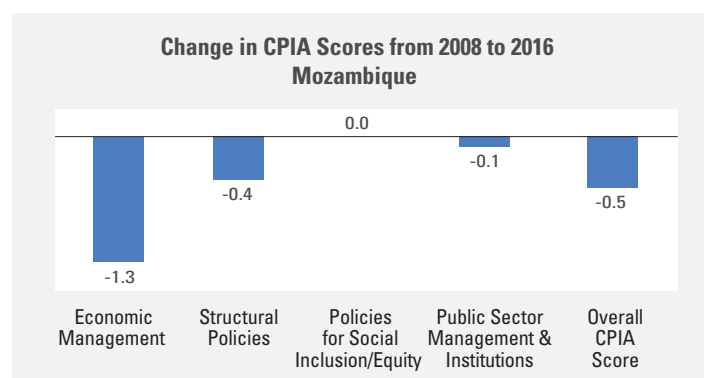
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.4

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▼ 0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.7

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

3.1

(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	20.7
GDP (current US\$, billions)	7.5
GDP per capita (current US\$)	363
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	45

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Niger	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.7	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	4.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.3	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.3	3.2
Gender Equality	2.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	4.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.1	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.4	3.1

Definitions:

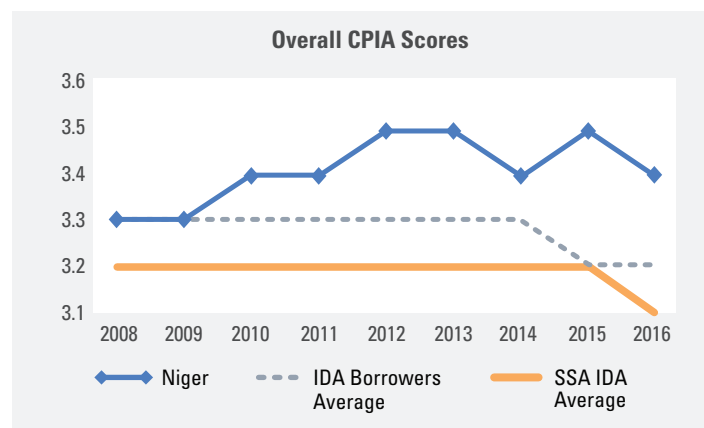
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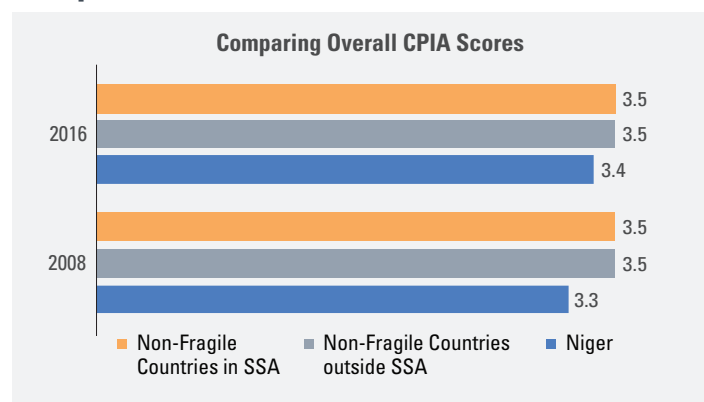
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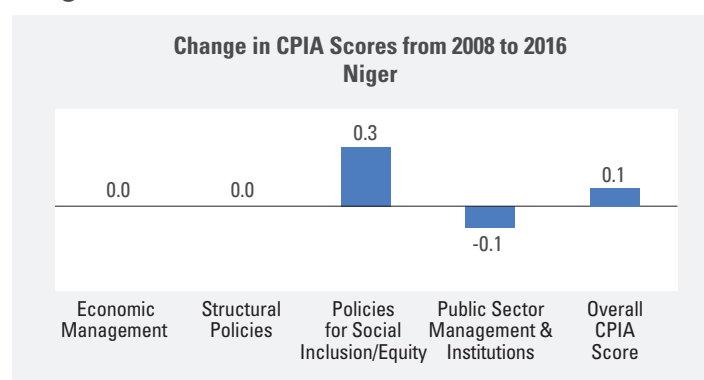
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.3

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▼ 0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.5

(Economic Management and Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

2.8

(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	186.0
GDP (current US\$, billions)	405.1
GDP per capita (current US\$)	2,178
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	52

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Nigeria	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.5	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	4.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.3	3.2
Trade	3.5	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.5	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	4.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.8	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.3	3.1

Definitions:

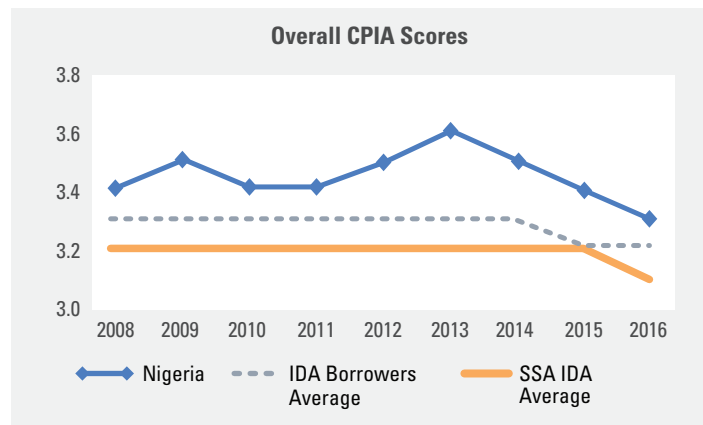
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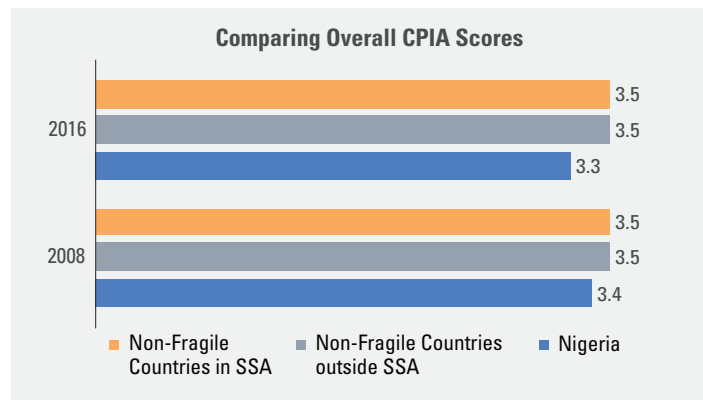
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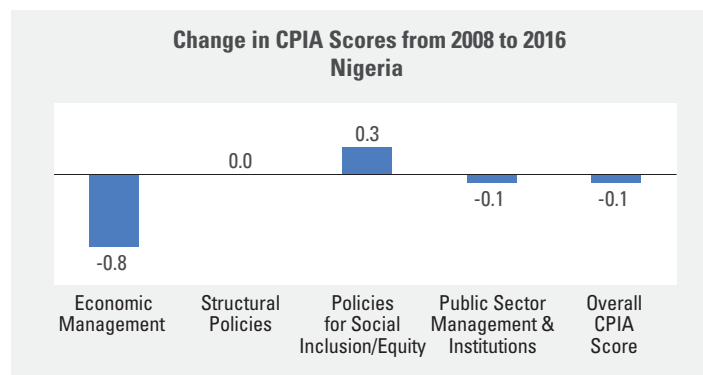
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

4.0

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

—

No change

Highest
performing cluster

4.3

(Policies for Social Inclusion
and Equity)Lowest
performing cluster

3.7

(Public Sector
Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	11.9
GDP (current US\$, billions)	8.4
GDP per capita (current US\$)	703
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	57

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Rwanda	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	4.0	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	4.0	3.0
Debt Policy	4.0	3.2
Structural Policies	4.2	3.2
Trade	4.5	3.6
Financial Sector	3.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	4.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	4.3	3.2
Gender Equality	4.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	4.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	4.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	4.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.7	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	4.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	4.0	3.1

Definitions:

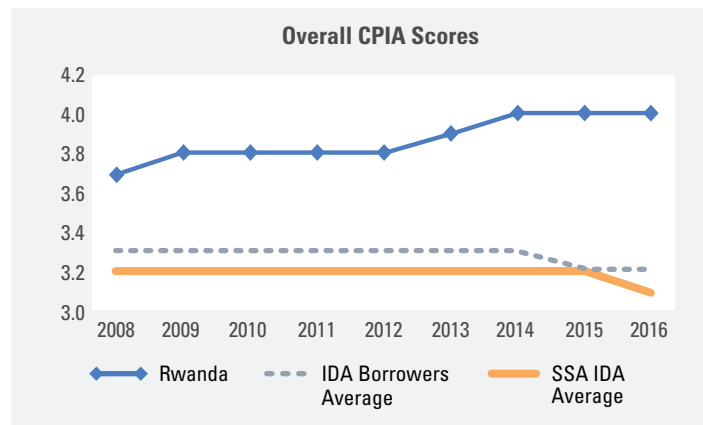
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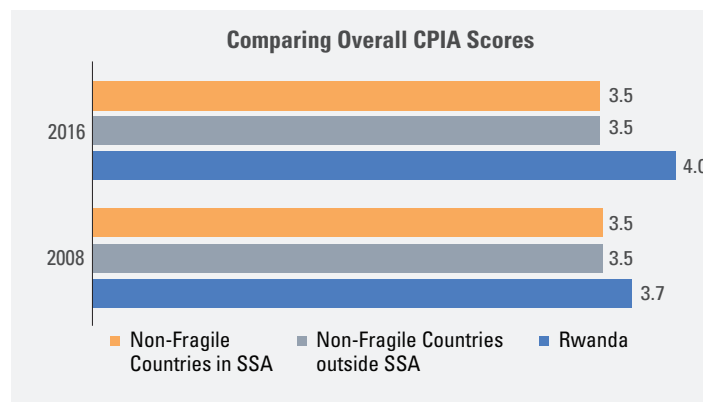
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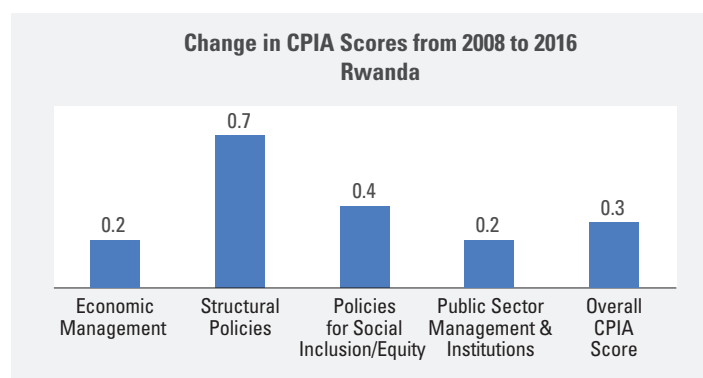
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.1

At the SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

—

No change

Highest performing cluster

3.2

(Structural Policies and Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Lowest performing cluster

3.0

(Economic Management)

Population (millions)	0.2
GDP (current US\$, billions)	0.4
GDP per capita (current US\$)	1,756
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	32

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	São Tomé and Príncipe	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.0	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	3.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.2	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.1	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.2	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.1	3.1

Definitions:

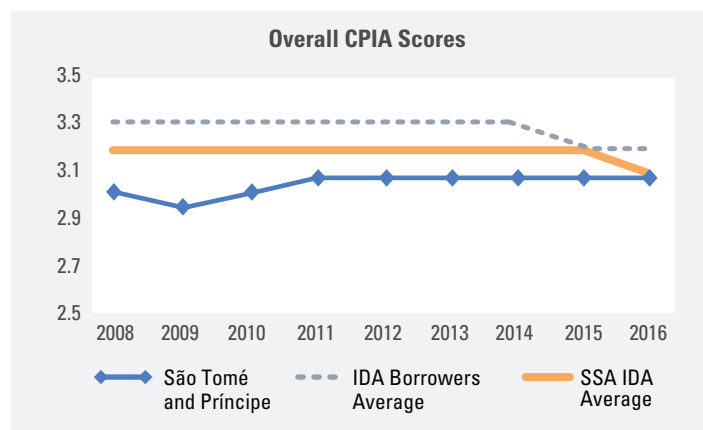
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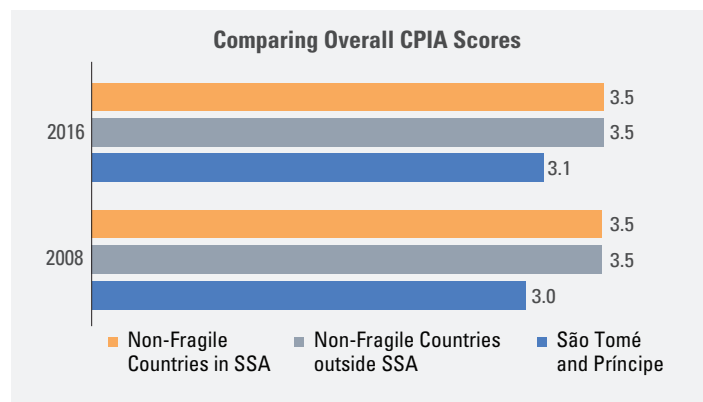
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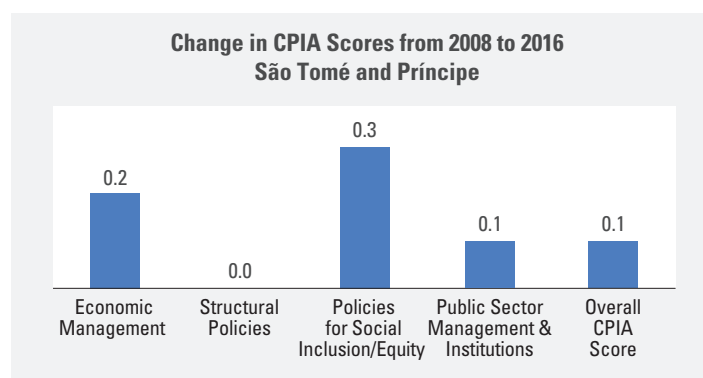
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.8

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

—

No change

Highest performing cluster

4.2

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

3.5

(Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Population (millions)	15.4
GDP (current US\$, billions)	14.8
GDP per capita (current US\$)	958
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	38

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Senegal	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	4.2	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	4.0	3.0
Debt Policy	4.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.8	3.2
Trade	4.5	3.6
Financial Sector	3.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.5	3.2
Gender Equality	3.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.6	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	4.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.8	3.1

Definitions:

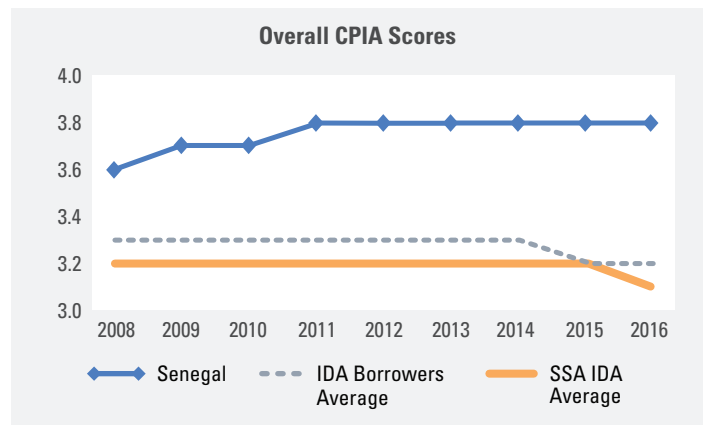
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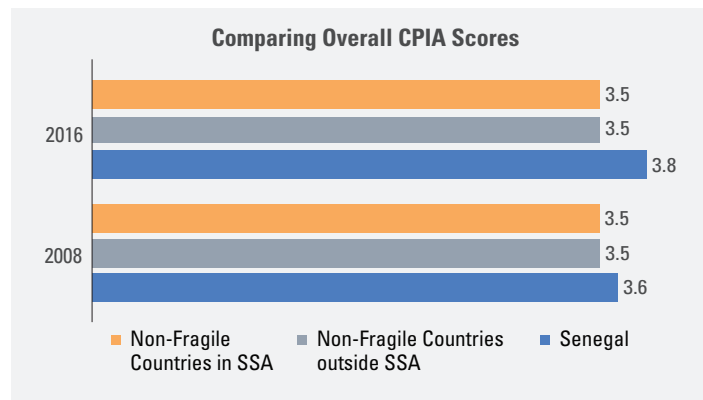
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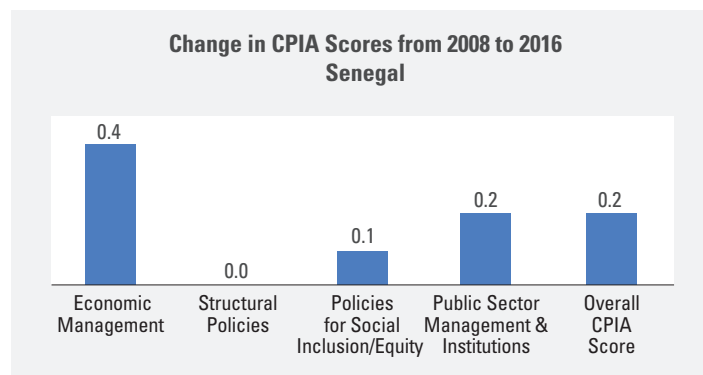
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.2

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

▼ 0.1

Highest
performing cluster

3.5

(Economic Management)

Lowest
performing cluster

3.1

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)

Population (millions)	7.4
GDP (current US\$, billions)	3.7
GDP per capita (current US\$)	496
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	50

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Sierra Leone	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.5	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	3.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.2	3.2
Trade	3.5	3.6
Financial Sector	3.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.2	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.1	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.2	3.1

Definitions:

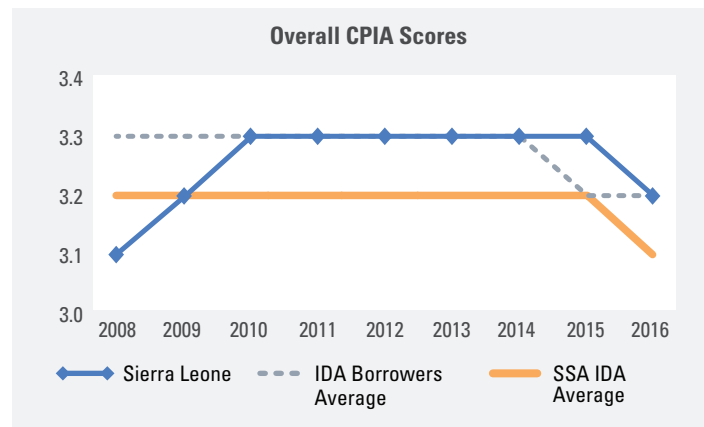
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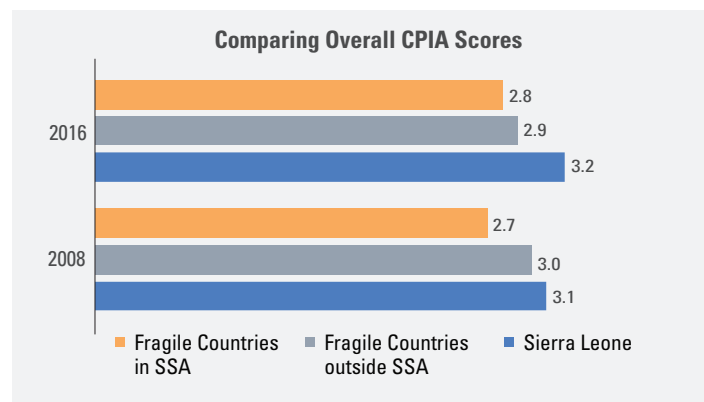
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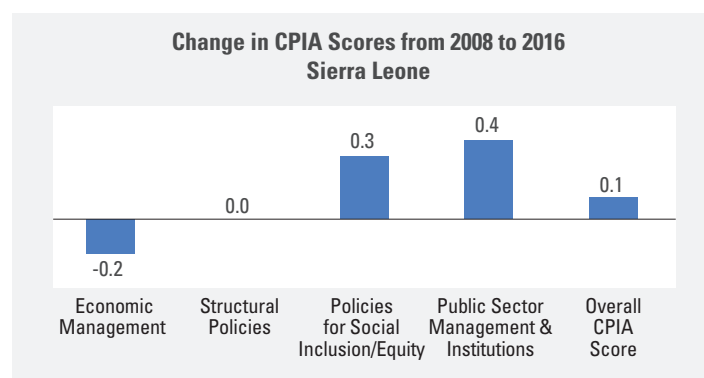
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

1.6

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

▼ 0.3

Highest
performing cluster

2.0

(Structural Policies)

Lowest
performing cluster

1.0

(Economic Management)

Population (millions)	12.2
GDP (current US\$, billions)	9.0
GDP per capita (current US\$)	759
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	71

(2015)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	South Sudan	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	1.0	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	1.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	1.0	3.0
Debt Policy	1.0	3.2
Structural Policies	2.0	3.2
Trade	2.0	3.6
Financial Sector	2.0	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	2.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	1.8	3.2
Gender Equality	2.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	2.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	2.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	1.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	1.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	1.5	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	1.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	1.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	2.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	1.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	1.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	1.6	3.1

Definitions:

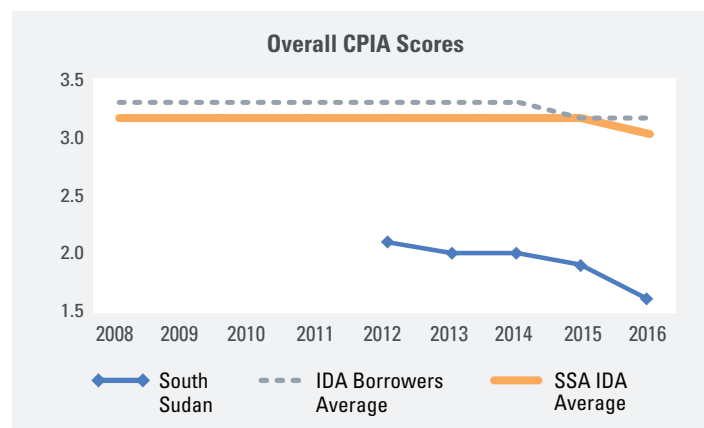
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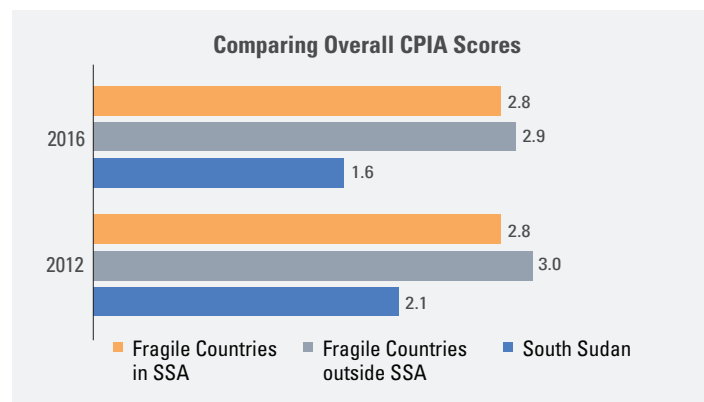
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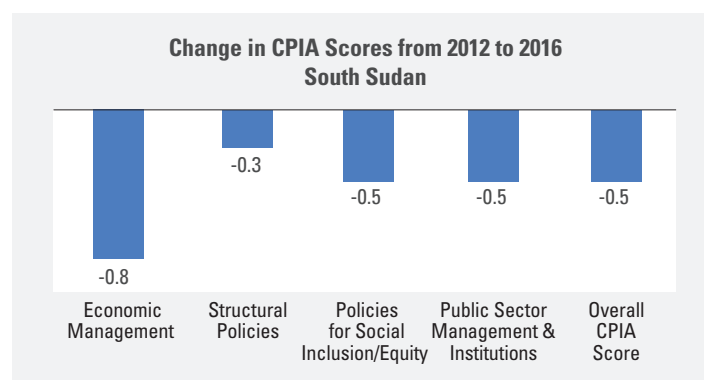
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

2.5

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▲ 0.1

Highest performing cluster

2.7

(Structural Policies)

Lowest performing cluster

2.2

(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	39.6
GDP (current US\$, billions)	95.6
GDP per capita (current US\$)	2,415
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	12

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Sudan	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	2.5	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.0	3.0
Debt Policy	1.5	3.2
Structural Policies	2.7	3.2
Trade	2.5	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	2.5	3.2
Gender Equality	2.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	2.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	2.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.2	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	2.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	1.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	2.5	3.1

Definitions:

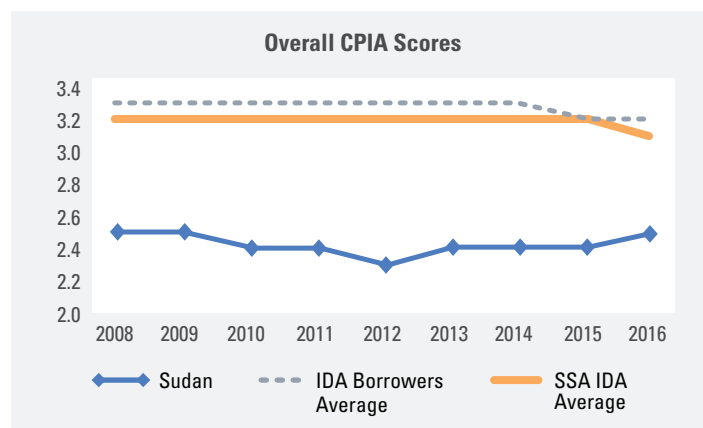
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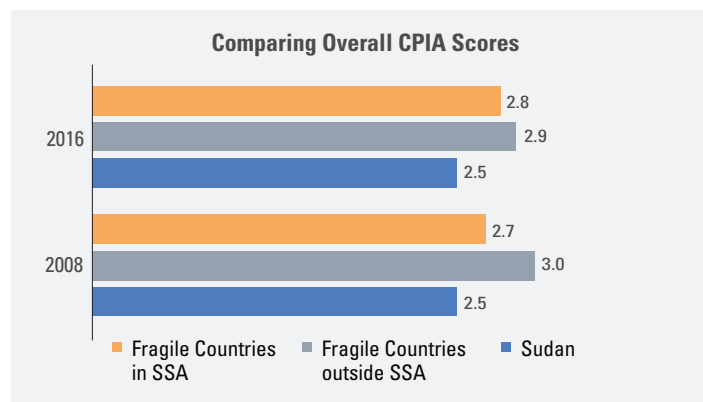
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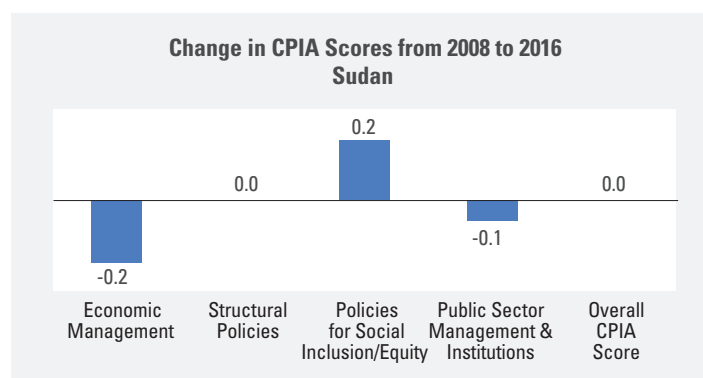
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.7

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

—

No change

Highest
performing cluster

4.0

(Economic Management)

Lowest
performing cluster

3.4

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)

Population (millions)	55.6
GDP (current US\$, billions)	47.4
GDP per capita (current US\$)	879
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	47

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Tanzania	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	4.0	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	3.5	3.0
Debt Policy	4.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.7	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.7	3.2
Gender Equality	3.5	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	4.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	4.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.4	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.7	3.1

Definitions:

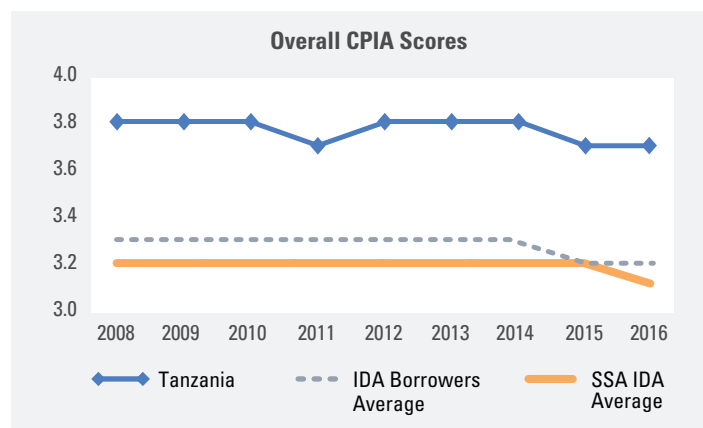
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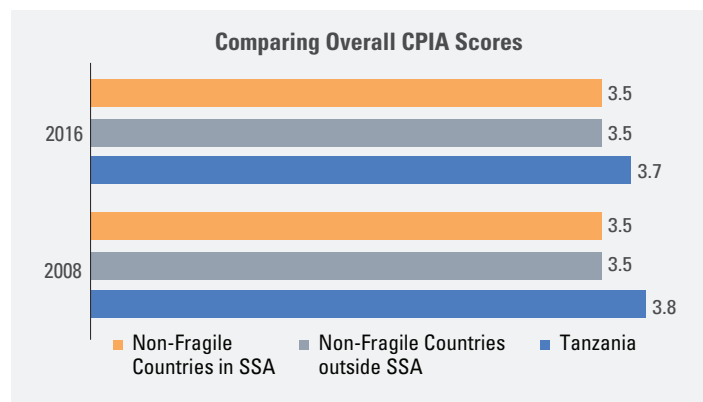
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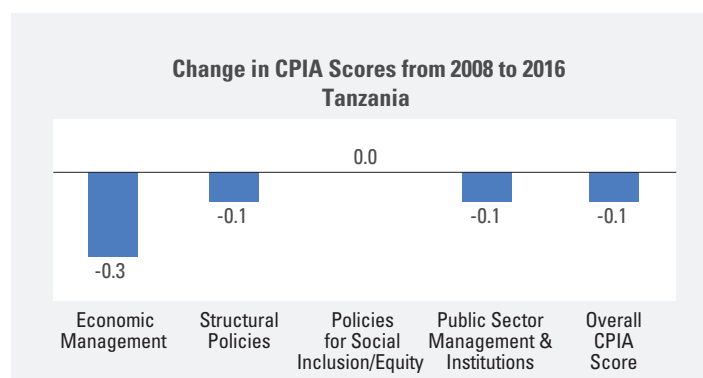
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.0

Below IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

—

No change

Highest
performing cluster

3.4

(Policies for Social
Inclusion and Equity)Lowest
performing cluster

2.7

(Public Sector Management
and Institutions)

Population (millions)	7.6
GDP (current US\$, billions)	4.4
GDP per capita (current US\$)	579
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	53

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Togo	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	2.8	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	2.5	3.0
Debt Policy	2.0	3.2
Structural Policies	3.2	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.4	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.0	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	4.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.7	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	2.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.5	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.0	3.1

Definitions:

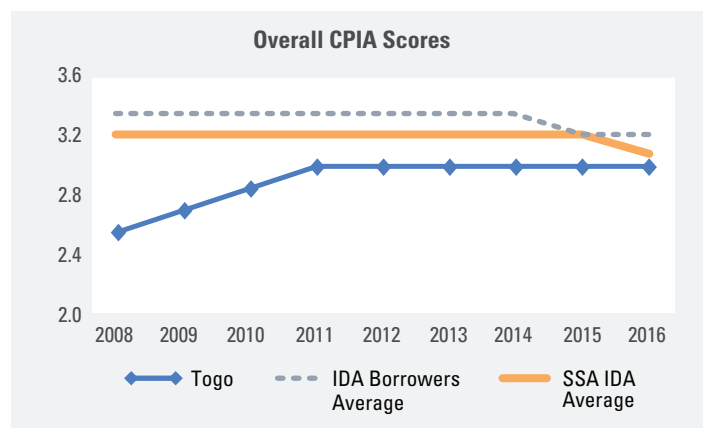
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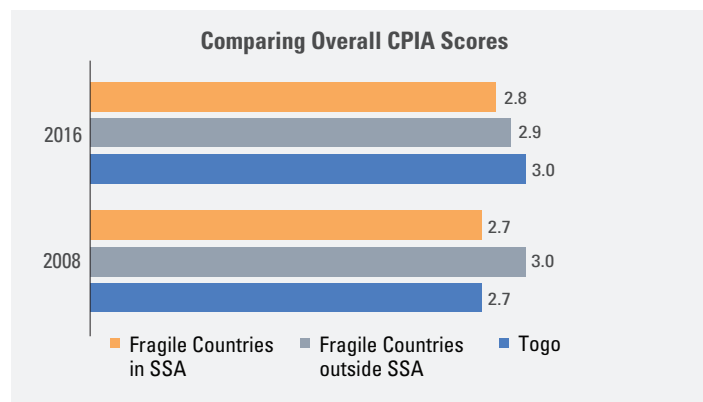
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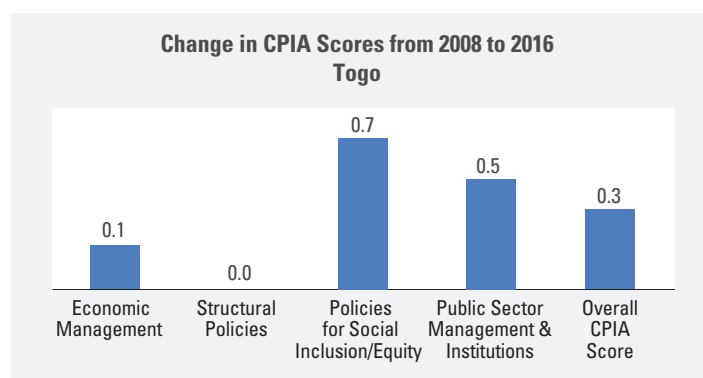
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.6

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▼ **0.1**

Highest performing cluster

4.0

(Economic Management and Structural Policies)

Lowest performing cluster

3.0

(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Population (millions)	41.5
GDP (current US\$, billions)	25.5
GDP per capita (current US\$)	615
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	33

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Uganda	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	4.0	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	4.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	4.0	3.0
Debt Policy	4.0	3.2
Structural Policies	4.0	3.2
Trade	4.5	3.6
Financial Sector	3.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	4.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.5	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	4.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	3.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.0	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.5	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.0	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.6	3.1

Definitions:

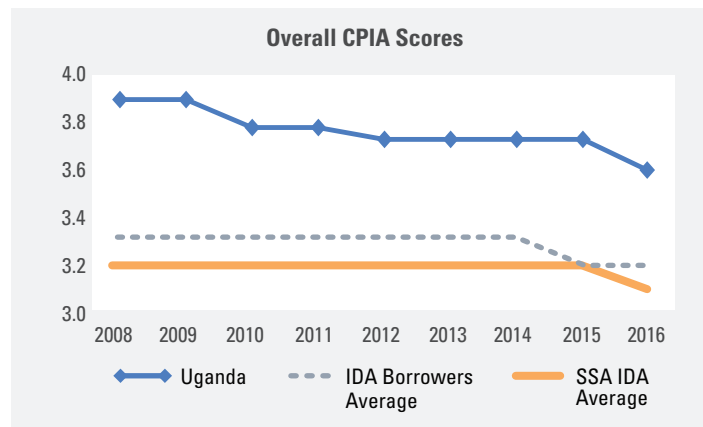
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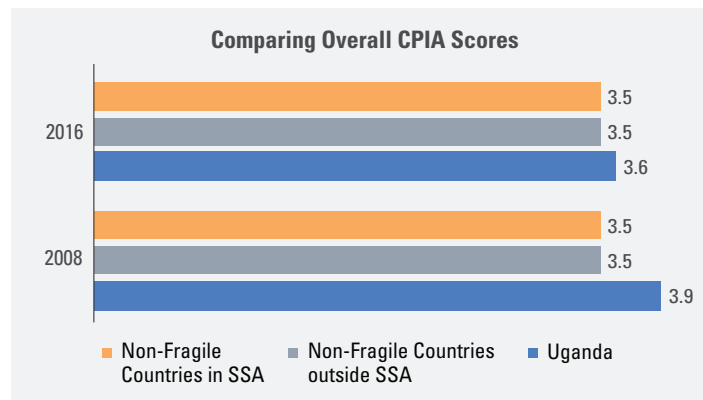
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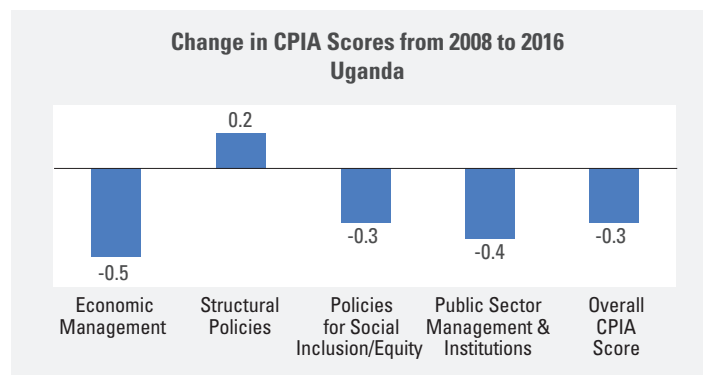
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

3.3

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

—

No change

Highest
performing cluster

3.7

(Structural Policies)

Lowest
performing cluster

3.0

(Economic Management)

Population (millions)	16.6
GDP (current US\$, billions)	19.6
GDP per capita (current US\$)	1,178
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	62

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Zambia	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	3.0	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	3.0	3.3
Fiscal Policy	2.5	3.0
Debt Policy	3.5	3.2
Structural Policies	3.7	3.2
Trade	4.0	3.6
Financial Sector	3.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	3.5	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.3	3.2
Gender Equality	3.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.5	3.3
Building Human Resources	4.0	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	3.5	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	3.2	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	3.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	3.5	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	3.0	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	3.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	3.3	3.1

Definitions:

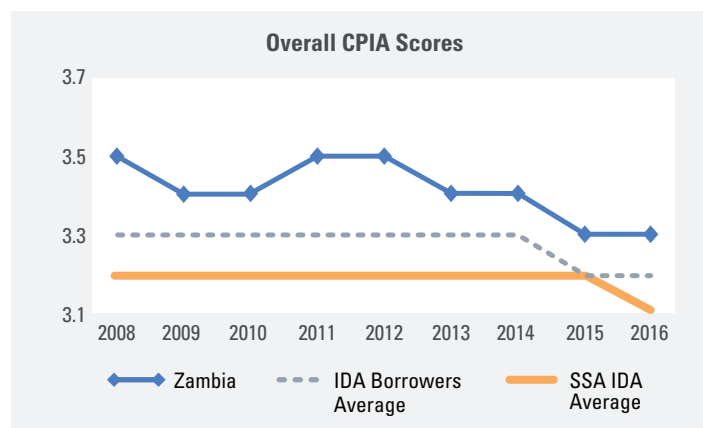
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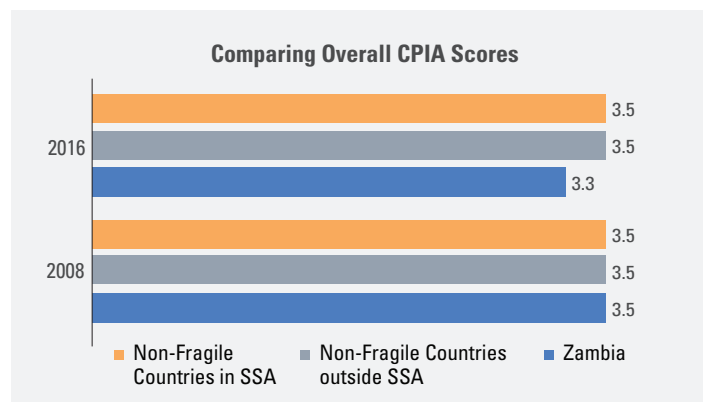
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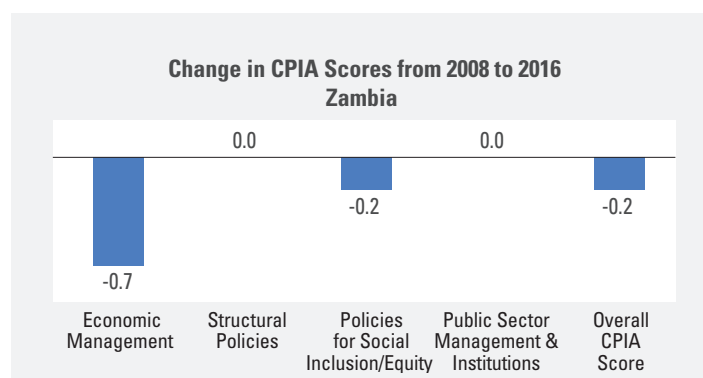
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Quick Facts

CPIA Score

2.7

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from
previous year

▼ 0.2

Highest
performing cluster

3.4

(Policies for Social
Inclusion and Equity)Lowest
performing cluster

2.3

(Economic Management and
Structural Policies)

Population (millions)	16.2
GDP (current US\$, billions)	16.3
GDP per capita (current US\$)	1,009
Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2013, est)	18

(2016)

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2016

Indicator	Zimbabwe	SSA IDA Average
Economic Management	2.3	3.2
Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy	2.5	3.3
Fiscal Policy	2.5	3.0
Debt Policy	2.0	3.2
Structural Policies	2.3	3.2
Trade	2.5	3.6
Financial Sector	2.5	2.8
Business Regulatory Environment	2.0	3.1
Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity	3.4	3.2
Gender Equality	4.0	3.2
Equity of Public Resource Use	3.0	3.3
Building Human Resources	3.5	3.6
Social Protection and Labor	2.5	3.0
Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability	4.0	3.2
Public Sector Management and Institutions	2.8	3.0
Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance	2.0	2.8
Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management	3.5	3.1
Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization	4.0	3.4
Quality of Public Administration	2.5	2.9
Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector	2.0	2.7
Overall CPIA Score	2.7	3.1

Definitions:

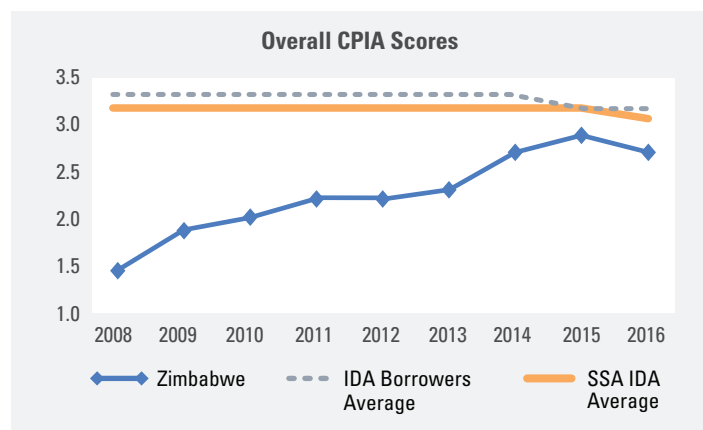
- CPIA: Country Policy and Institutional Assessment
- IDA: International Development Association, the arm of the World Bank Group that provides credits to the poorest countries
- SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa
- Poverty is based on PovcalNet poverty data as of June 2017
- The cutoff date for the World Development Indicators database is July 2017

Average scores for comparisons refer to country groupings as follows:

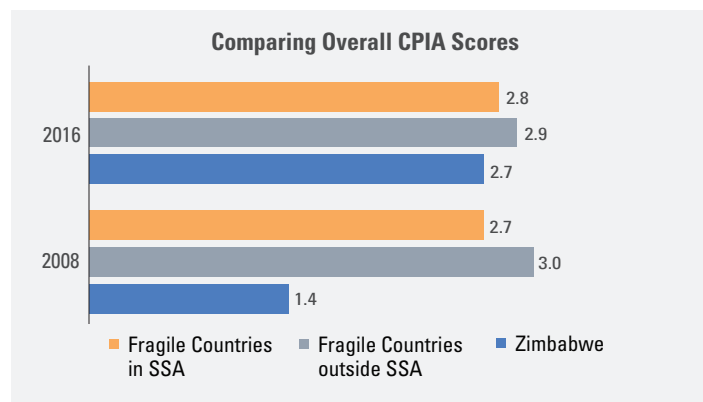
- **IDA Borrowing Countries:** 73 countries eligible for IDA credits and with CPIA scores in 2016
- **SSA IDA Countries:** 38 SSA IDA countries that had CPIA scores in 2016
- **Fragile Countries in SSA:** 18 countries with CPIA scores included in the World Bank's Harmonized Fragile List for fiscal year 2018
- **Non-Fragile Countries in SSA:** 20 IDA-eligible countries (excluding fragile countries)
- **Fragile Countries outside SSA:** 12 countries with CPIA scores included in the World Bank's Harmonized Fragile List for fiscal year 2018
- **Non-Fragile Countries outside SSA:** 23 IDA-eligible countries outside Sub-Saharan Africa (excluding fragile countries)

NOTES: The CPIA consists of 16 criteria grouped in four equally weighted clusters: Economic Management, Structural Policies, Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity, and Public Sector Management and Institutions. For each of the 16 criteria, countries are rated on a scale of 1 (low) to 6 (high). The scores depend on the level of performance in a given year assessed against the criteria, rather than on changes in performance compared with the previous year. The ratings depend on actual policies and performance, rather than on promises or intentions. The ratings reflect a variety of indicators, observations, and judgments originated in the World Bank or elsewhere. For details, see: www.worldbank.org/africa/CPIA.

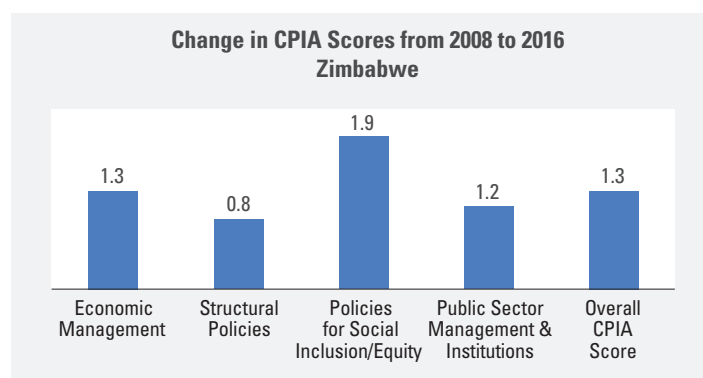
Trend



Comparison



Progress



Appendix A: CPIA Components

A. Economic Management

1. **Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy:** *The quality of monetary/exchange rate policies in a coherent macroeconomic policy framework.*
2. **Fiscal Policy:** *The quality of fiscal policy as regards stabilization (achieving macroeconomic policy objectives in conjunction with coherent monetary and exchange rate policies, smoothing business cycle fluctuations, accommodating shocks) and resource allocation (appropriate provisioning of public goods).*
3. **Debt Policy:** *Degree of appropriateness of the country's debt management strategy for ensuring medium-term debt sustainability and minimizing budgetary risks.*

B. Structural Policies

4. **Trade:** *Extent to which the policy framework fosters regional and global integration in goods and services, focusing on the trade policy regime (tariffs, nontariff barriers, and barriers to trade in services) and trade facilitation.*
5. **Financial Sector:** *Quality of policies and regulations that affect financial sector development on three dimensions: (a) financial stability; (b) the sector's efficiency, depth, and resource mobilization strength; and (c) access to financial services.*
6. **Business Regulatory Environment:** *The extent to which the legal, regulatory, and policy environment helps or hinders private business in investing, creating jobs, and becoming more productive.*

C. Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity

7. **Gender Equality:** *The extent to which policies, laws, and institutions (a) promote equal access for men and women to human capital development; (b) promote equal access for men and women to productive and economic resources; and (c) give men and women equal status and protection under the law.*
8. **Equity of Public Resource Use:** *The extent to which the pattern of public expenditures and revenue collection affects the poor and is consistent with national poverty reduction priorities.*
9. **Building Human Resources:** *The quality of national policies and public and private sector delivery in health and education.*
10. **Social Protection and Labor:** *Policies promoting risk prevention by supporting savings and risk pooling through social insurance, protection against destitution through redistributive safety net programs, and promotion of human capital development and income generation, including labor market programs.*
11. **Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability:** *The extent to which environmental policies and institutions foster the protection and sustainable use of natural resources and the management of pollution.*

D. Public Sector Management and Institutions

12. **Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance:** *The extent to which economic activity is facilitated by an effective legal system and rule-based governance structure in which property and contract rights are reliably respected and enforced.*
13. **Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management:** *The extent to which there is (a) a comprehensive and credible budget, linked to policy priorities; (b) effective financial management systems to ensure that the budget is implemented as intended in a controlled and predictable way; and (c) timely and accurate accounting and fiscal reporting, including timely audit of public accounts and effective arrangements for follow-up.*
14. **Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization:** *Assesses the overall pattern of revenue mobilization, not only the tax structure as it exists on paper, but revenues from all sources as they are actually collected.*
15. **Quality of Public Administration:** *The core administration defined as the civilian central government (and subnational governments, to the extent that their size or policy responsibilities are significant), excluding health and education personnel and police.*
16. **Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector:** *The extent to which the executive, legislators, and other high-level officials can be held accountable for their use of funds, administrative decisions, and results obtained.*

Appendix B: Country Groups and Classification

I. Country Groups

Sub-Saharan Africa IDA countries		Non-Sub-Saharan Africa IDA countries	
Fragile	Non-Fragile	Fragile	Non-Fragile
Burundi	Benin	Afghanistan	Bangladesh
Central African Republic	Burkina Faso	Djibouti	Bhutan
Chad	Cameroon	Haiti	Cambodia
Comoros	Cabo Verde	Kiribati	Dominica
Congo, Dem. Rep.	Ethiopia	Kosovo	Grenada
Congo, Rep.	Ghana	Marshall Islands	Guyana
Côte d'Ivoire	Guinea	Micronesia, Fed. Sts.	Honduras
Eritrea	Kenya	Myanmar	Kyrgyz Republic
Gambia, The	Lesotho	Papua New Guinea	Lao PDR
Guinea-Bissau	Madagascar	Solomon Islands	Maldives
Liberia	Malawi	Tuvalu	Moldova
Mali	Mauritania	Yemen, Rep.	Mongolia
Mozambique	Niger		Nepal
Sierra Leone	Nigeria		Nicaragua
South Sudan	Rwanda		Pakistan
Sudan	São Tomé and Príncipe		Samoa
Togo	Senegal		St. Lucia
Zimbabwe	Tanzania		St. Vincent
	Uganda		Tajikistan
	Zambia		Timor-Leste
			Tonga
			Uzbekistan
			Vanuatu

Note: "Fragile situations" have either (a) a harmonized average CPIA country rating of 3.2 or less, or (b) the presence of a United Nations and/or regional peace-keeping or peace-building mission during the past three years. This list includes only IDA-eligible countries and non-member or inactive territories/countries without CPIA data. It excludes IBRD-only countries for which the CPIA scores are not currently disclosed. The analysis does not include the following fragile countries since they do not have CPIA data or are not IBRD countries: Iraq, Lebanon, Libya, Somalia, Syrian Arab Republic, and West Bank and Gaza.

II. Country Classification in SSA by Resilience

Resilient group of countries in SSA	Other countries in SSA		
Côte d'Ivoire	Burundi	Ghana	Nigeria
Ethiopia	Cameroon	Guinea	Rwanda
Kenya	Cabo Verde	Guinea-Bissau	São Tomé and Príncipe
Mali	Central African Republic	Kenya	Senegal
Rwanda	Chad	Lesotho	Sierra Leone
Senegal	Comoros	Liberia	South Sudan
Tanzania	Congo, Dem. Rep.	Madagascar	Sudan
	Congo, Rep.	Malawi	Tanzania
	Côte d'Ivoire	Mali	Togo
	Eritrea	Mauritania	Uganda
	Ethiopia	Mozambique	Zambia
	Gambia, The	Niger	Zimbabwe

Source: World Bank staff calculations based on the World Development Indicators database, Africa's Pulse, April 2017.

Appendix C: Guide to CPIA

The Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) is a diagnostic tool that is intended to capture the quality of a country's policies and institutional arrangements—that is, its focus is on the key elements that are within a country's control, rather than on outcomes (such as growth rates) that are influenced by elements outside the country's control. More specifically, the CPIA measures the extent to which a country's policy and institutional framework supports sustainable growth and poverty reduction, and consequently the effective use of development assistance. The outcome of the exercise yields an overall score and scores for all of the 16 criteria that compose the CPIA. The CPIA tool was developed and first employed in the mid-1970s. Over the years, the World Bank has periodically updated and improved it to reflect the lessons of experience and the evolution of thinking about development.

In June 2006, the World Bank publicly disclosed for the first time the numerical scores of its 2005 CPIA. The CPIA exercise covers country performance during a given calendar year with the results for the IDA eligible countries disclosed in June of the following year.

The CPIA has undergone periodic reviews to update and refine the content of the criteria. The most recent revision of the criteria took place last year and was applied to the 2016 CPIA exercise. The revisions were guided by the conclusions of an Independent Evaluation Group evaluation, relevant findings in the literature, and lessons learned in carrying out the annual CPIA exercise in the past few years. In undertaking the revisions, special attention was given to ensuring that the content of the revisions was commensurate with the availability of information and the ability to assess country performance, and that some degree of continuity was preserved in the criteria. The revisions have not resulted in significant changes in country scores. Among the revisions are the following:

- In criterion 4 (Q4, Trade), trade policy and trade facilitation are now equally weighted; more emphasis is placed on the trade regime, not just imports; services are explicitly introduced; and the trade facilitation subcomponent is elaborated.
- The coverage of social assistance programs, including coordination, reach, and targeting issues in Q10 (Social Protection and Labor), was strengthened.
- Q15 (Quality of Public Administration) was revised to include a stronger focus on the core public administration and, when relevant, a more explicit treatment of subnational governments.
- Q16 (Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector) was revised to include a new dimension to cover aspects of financial corruption that had not been treated consistently. Coverage of fiscal information is now more explicit, and capture and conflicts of interest as distinct forms of corruption are treated more consistently.

CPIA scores help to determine International Development Association allocations—concessional lending and grants—to low-income countries.

Details are available at: www.worldbank.org/africa/CPIA.

