



United Nations
Economic Commission for Africa



African Union



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mdg²⁰¹⁴ report

Assessing progress in Africa toward the Millennium Development Goals

Analysis of the Common African Position
on the post-2015 Development Agenda

Summary





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Introduction

Progress despite daunting initial conditions

Performance on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) has varied by country and region; some regions are close to meeting the targets, while others such as Africa are not. But Africa has accelerated progress on the MDGs despite unfavourable initial conditions. Thirty-four out of the 54 countries classified as Least Developed Countries (LDCs) are in the African region, representing a disproportionate share of low-income countries (LICs). It is therefore inappropriate to assess the continent's performance on the same basis as the more advanced regions. When assessments take into account the initial conditions of the continent, it emerges that the pace of progress on the MDGs in Africa has accelerated since 2003. Indeed, an assessment of performance based on effort reveals that eight of the top ten best performers, i.e. those experiencing the most rapid acceleration, are in Southern, East, Central and West Africa.

Africa's recent MDG performance

Although the continent is on target to achieve only two of the goals, MDGs 2 and 3, the rate of progress attests to the remarkable effort made by policy-makers. Although poverty rates are declining in the context of rapid growth, there are not enough jobs being created. The quality of jobs remains a challenge as evidenced by the high prevalence of vulnerable jobs and working poor. This, in spite of the decrease in the working poor as a proportion of total workers from 55.8 to 39.2 percent during the period 2000-2013 (for Africa excluding North Africa). In 2013, vulnerable employment remains at 35 percent for North Africa and 77.6 percent for the Africa excluding North Africa.

In Africa, the level of income inequality is also high but declining. These high levels of inequality, however, undermine the pace of poverty reduction thus requiring focused policy interventions. Efforts to reduce hunger and malnutrition are yielding mixed results across the continent. The proportion of underweight children has declined by only 14.3 percent between 1990 and 2012, most countries are performing poorly on the Global Hunger Index and more effort is

required to reduce the prevalence of undernourished people.

Progress on health indicators has been robust, but the likelihood of achieving the health MDGs is very low. Maternal and child mortality rates in the continent remain unacceptably high. Moreover, while the continent appears to have reversed the rising prevalence of HIV/AIDS, the level remains high. Africa accounts for the bulk of HIV/AIDS cases and related deaths, which further complicates attempts to address TB prevalence rates.

Access to improved sanitation and water sources is relatively low in Africa, which increases the risk of waterborne diseases. Environmental threats in Africa largely stem from the loss of forest cover. In addition, rising CO₂ emissions in a number of countries is cause for concern, particularly given the continent's structural transformation aspirations. Official Development Assistance (ODA) flows to Africa from the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) donors have declined in recent years ostensibly due to the global economic crisis. At the same time, donors continue to fall short of their aid commitments. Raising revenues through trade and domestic resource mobilization will therefore become increasingly important to offset shortfalls in ODA. The evidence suggests that agricultural subsidies in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries have declined; however, concerted efforts are required to ensure a more fair global trade architecture that addresses non-tariff barriers and facilitates access of processed goods to developed country markets.

The Common African Position (CAP): a unified voice on the post-2015 Development Agenda

In January 2014, Heads of State and Government of the African Union adopted the Common African Position (CAP) to inform Africa's negotiations on the post-2015 Development Agenda. The CAP's overarching goal is to eradicate poverty by making growth inclusive and people-centred, enhancing Africans productive capacities to sustainably manage and leverage their natural resources in an environment of peace and security. The CAP underlines Africa's development priorities for the

global development agenda. To this end, the CAP is anchored by the following six pillars: Structural Economic Transformation and Inclusive Growth; Science, Technology and Innovation; People-centred Development; Environmental Sustainability, Natural Resource Management and Disaster Risk Management; Peace and Security; and Finance and Partnerships.

MDG 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger

Poverty in Africa continues to decline, but the pace is not sufficient for the continent to achieve the target of halving poverty by 2015

Over the past decade, the number of Africans living in extreme poverty (less than US\$1.25 per day) has continued to decline in spite of the financial and Eurozone crises. The proportion of people living on less than US\$1.25 a day in Southern, East, Central and West Africa as a category decreased from 56.5 percent in 1990 to 48.5 percent in 2010, an 8 percentage point reduction. However, based on the traditional measurement methodology, the reduction in poverty is still around 20.25 percentage points shy of the target of halving poverty by 2015. On an annual average basis, poverty declined faster over the 2005–08 period than over the 1990–2005 period, reflecting accelerated progress. This achievement has been linked to higher growth

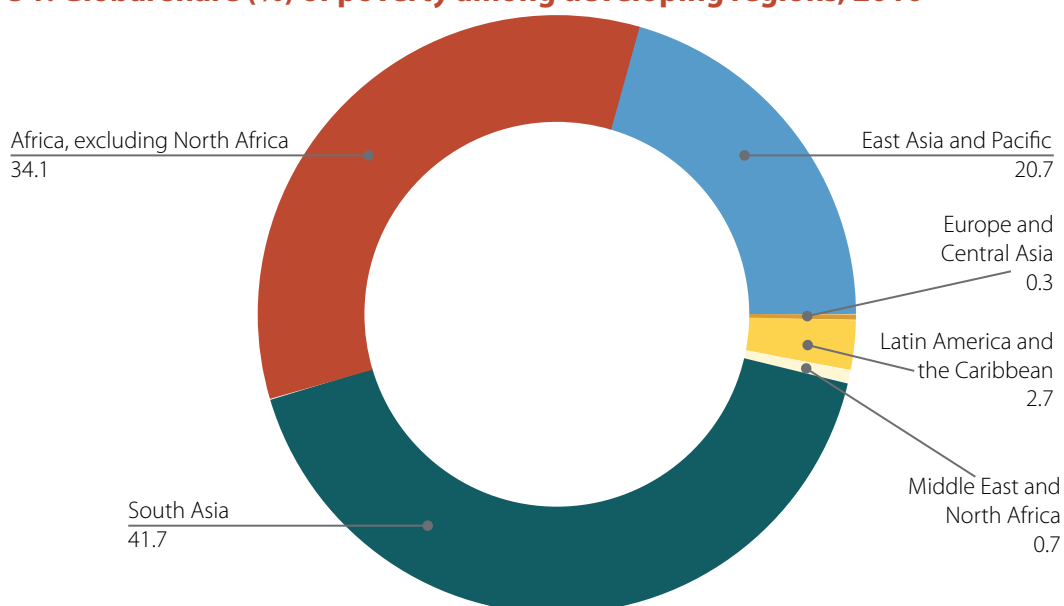
rates, improved governance and the implementation of social protection mechanisms across many countries.

Within Africa, performance varies by country and subregion. This disparity in the pace of poverty reduction is explained in part by the differences in the economic growth elasticity of poverty among the regions and the level of political commitment to the implementation of social protections across countries.

The poverty rate in Africa has dropped, but the total number of Africans living below the poverty line (\$1.25 per day) has increased

The number of Africans (excluding North Africans) living below the poverty line rose from 290 million in 1990 to 376 million in 1999 and 414 million in 2010. Four countries accounted for around 52.0 percent of the poor in the continent: Nigeria (25.9%), Democratic Republic of the Congo (13.6%), Tanzania (6.8%) and Ethiopia (5.2%). The continent’s share of global poverty (figure 1) also rose from 15 percent in 1990 to 34.1 percent in 2010, which an indication that rapid economic growth has not been inclusive enough to improve the living conditions for many Africans. This suggests that the sources of growth matters.

Figure 1: Global share (%) of poverty among developing regions, 2010



Source: Authors’ calculations based on Chandy and Homi, 2014.

Unequal progress on poverty reduction across African countries

Six countries – Tunisia, Egypt, Cameroon, The Gambia, Senegal and Guinea – have achieved the target on poverty reduction. Ethiopia, Swaziland, Uganda and Mauritania are less than 5 percentage points away from reaching the target, while Ghana, South Africa, Mali and Niger are around 10 percentage points away. However, the poverty situation worsened in Central African Republic, Nigeria, Madagascar, Zambia, Kenya, Guinea Bissau and Côte d'Ivoire.

Macro-economic stability, the pattern of economic growth and well-targeted, sector-specific policies play an important role in accelerating poverty reduction. Fiscal, monetary and exchange rate policies should be aligned with sectoral poverty-reduction objectives. For instance, countries driven by capital-intensive industries tend to generate limited benefits to the poor. Export-led growth in Angola, Mozambique and Nigeria, and Tanzania's mining sector-dependence are good examples of growth drivers that are not sufficiently labour-absorbing. Sector-specific policies and programmes that improve agricultural productivity and create employment opportunities in more productive and employment intensive activities are crucial for enhancing welfare and living conditions in the continent.

Poverty in Africa is characterized by three important features: (i) the predominance of rural poverty; (ii) the feminization of poverty; and (iii) a large informal sector. For instance, poverty is at least three times higher in rural than in urban areas. The deplorable state of rural infrastructure, rural livelihoods and youth employment, limited access to quality education and high child labour are all key drivers of rural poverty. Formulating and implementing integrated rural development, creating growth poles or clusters in rural communities, and improving agricultural yields are crucial in addressing the imbalance. In addition, countries such as South Africa and Nigeria experience urban poverty. For countries in this situation, it is essential to address the imbalance between rural and urban development, enhance municipal service delivery, improve infrastructure provision, up-

grade slums, and facilitate access to microfinance in order to reduce the incidence and severity of urban poverty.

The feminization of poverty

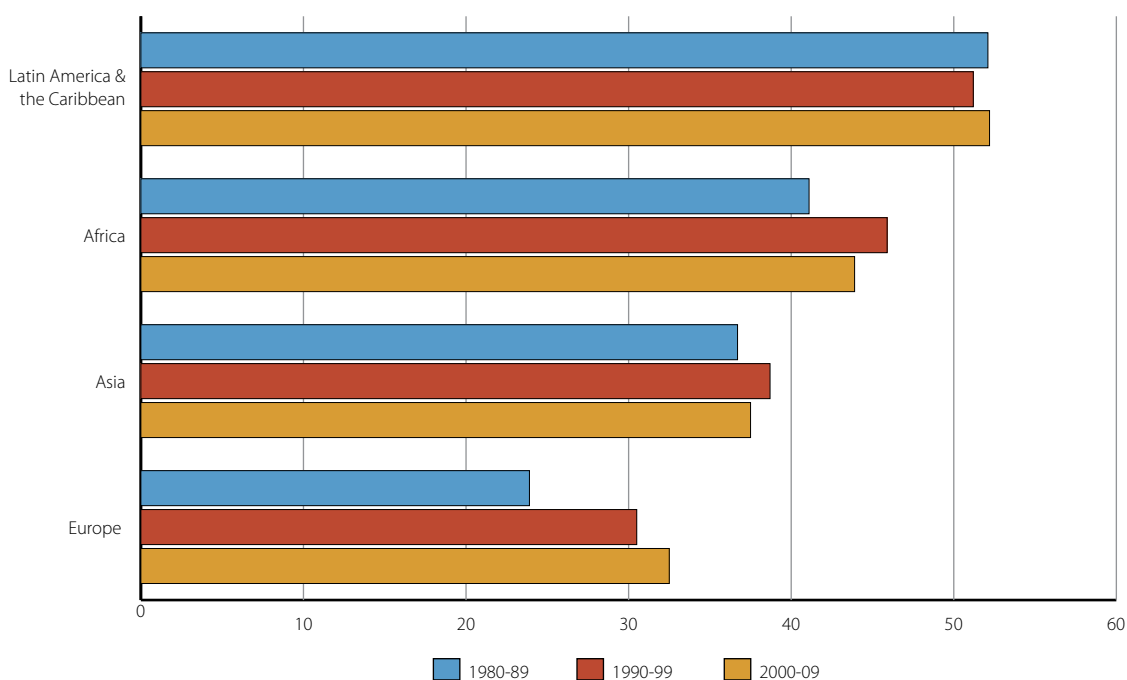
The feminization of poverty is prevalent in Egypt, Cameroon, Morocco, Kenya, Cape Verde, South Africa, Guinea and Madagascar, among others. Several factors account for this. Women's work in the home and the workplace tends to be undervalued. Also, they usually earn low wages and work under poor conditions. In addition, there is limited access to productive assets such as land due to traditional restrictions on their property rights. Further, a low level of education reduces access to decent, high-wage jobs. Finally, the prevalence of violent civil conflicts discriminates against women and weakens their ability to be fully engaged in productive activities. Policy and actions should target factors that propagate the unequal distribution of economic opportunities and assets between men and women in the continent.

Inequality: falling but still a serious concern

Africa is the second most unequal region in the world, after Latin America, where the rich capture the largest part of national resources. The Gini index for 2000–09 for Africa was 43.9 compared to 52.2 for Latin America and the Caribbean. Asia and Europe have the lowest Gini index at 37.5 and 32.5, respectively. However, between 1990–99 and 2000–09, Africa showed the highest improvement (4.3 percent), followed by Asia (3.1 percent). Inequality worsened in Latin America and the Caribbean, and Europe (figure 2).

The continent is permeated with horizontal inequalities, characterized by the exclusion of certain groups from actively participating in the social, economic, and political processes in society. This inequality has weakened the impact of economic growth on social outcomes. Geographical distribution of inequality in Africa between 2000 and 2009 shows that Southern Africa (Gini index: 48.5) and Central Africa (Gini index: 45) are the most unequal, and North Africa (Gini index: 37.4) and East Africa (Gini index: 41.0) are the least unequal. Moreover, in 2010, six out of the ten most unequal

Figure 2: Regional comparison of inequality, 1990–2009



Source: Authors’ calculations based on the 2013 World Development Indicators.

countries in the world were in Africa, with the largest concentration in Southern Africa.

Countries that have been able to address inequality have also succeeded in accelerating growth and reducing poverty. When inequality is very high, the impact of high growth in reducing poverty is weakened. Addressing inequality through social protection makes growth more inclusive, builds a more cohesive society, and promotes a harmonious citizen-state relationship. This lays the foundation for growth sustainability, reinforces social stability, and deepens political legitimacy. Tackling poverty in Africa also requires increasing productivity and incomes in the informal sector.

Women’s unequal access to land ownership and control is a major factor propelling the level of inequality in most African countries. Although the definition of land ownership varies widely, the consensus is that land ownership is disproportionately skewed against women in most African countries. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations’ (FAO) land use database covering the period 2000 to 2007, reveals that women account for an average of 24 percent of agricultural landholders. But the figures vary by

country, from 3.1 percent in Mali to 50.5 percent in Cape Verde.

Most drivers of inequality are linked to endogenous factors. However, exogenous drivers of income inequality are equally important, including the effects of trade and trade openness, and financial globalization, particularly since it affects demand for skills and the associated wage differentials. The domestic impact of exogenous factors, however, depends on how national macro-economic and labour market policies counteract or intensify their effects. African policymakers should explore how to use their macro-economic and labour market policies to address the income inequality effects associated with globalization.

Employment is not expanding sufficiently fast to keep up with the growing labour force

In Africa, an increasing number of youth are entering the labour market, but there are few available job opportunities. In 2013, Africa contributed to the bulk of the increase in global unemployment. For example, since 2007, unemployment has been rising in North Africa. The global macro-economic developments have had a serious impact on labour markets through negative feedback

loops from households, firms and public budgets. Due to weak aggregate demand and fiscal austerity programmes in a number of countries, labour markets have been weakened by direct cuts in employment and wages.

Africa has one of the highest youth unemployment rates in the world, at 27.2 percent in 2013 versus 26.6 percent in 2012. Between 2007 and 2012, on average, this indicator increased by around one percentage point each year. North Africa, relative to other developing world regions, saw a substantial increase in youth unemployment rates.

African governments should prioritize employment generation as a national strategic action. Job creation should be mainstreamed into national development plans and strategies. Governments must put in place measures to improve the productivity of the informal sector, create enabling environments for small-scale enterprises to blossom, as well as measures to build the relevant skill sets among the population, especially among youth and women. In addition, governments should set the priority for public actions on jobs that have the greatest returns on development given each country's development context. Finally, Africa needs pragmatic and proactive policies and programmes that continually bridge the infrastructure gap in the continent, including electricity, road, rail, waterways, irrigation, telecommunications and water supply. There is also an urgent need to remove bottlenecks to entrepreneurial transformation and private sector development.

Africa is still far from reaching the hunger target

Between 1990 and 2013, Africa (excluding North Africa) reduced hunger by around 23 percent. The performance of African countries in achieving the target of hunger varies markedly. Generally, low agricultural productivity is constraining progress towards this target. To this end, strengthening the capacity of communities to be resilient to economic and climate-related shocks and investing in agricultural productivity enhancement are pivotal. Progress in halving the proportion of undernourished people has been slow; not a single

developing region reached the target in 2013. In 1990–2013, the progress from all developing regions was approximately 36.5 percent compared to 22.3 percent in Africa.

Halving the prevalence of underweight children under five years of age: still a daunting challenge

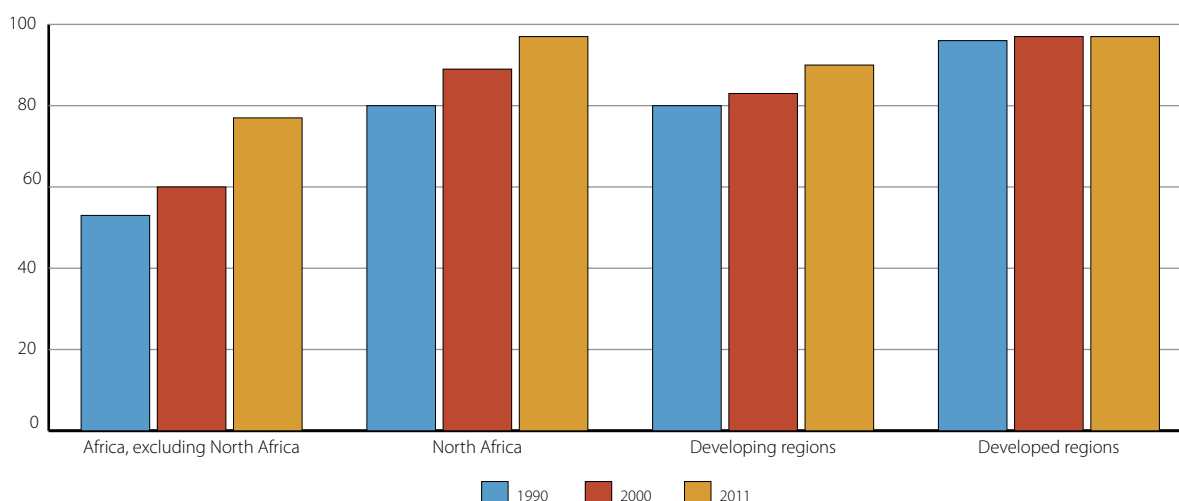
Achieving a rapid reduction in prevalence of underweight children is a serious challenge globally; Africa still lags behind most other developing regions in achieving this target. Africa (excluding North Africa) only managed to reduce the prevalence of underweight children under five years of age by 14.3 percent between 1990 and 2012. Underweight prevalence in children could result from several factors, such as socio-economic conditions; for example, children from the poorest households are twice as likely to be underweight as those in the richest. Furthermore, children living in rural areas are more likely to be underweight than those in urban areas. Social protection can be used to accelerate access to nutrition among vulnerable children, especially in rural and urban areas.

MDG 2: Achieve universal primary education

Africa's initial conditions on educational attainment were among the worst in the 1990s. The educational system in Africa during this period was not comparable in structure and quality with other regions of the developing world. It was only in Africa (excluding North Africa) that net enrolment in primary education was less than 60 percent; in other regions, it was over 80 percent; and in Latin America and the Caribbean, East Asia and South Eastern Asia, above 90 percent. In spite of this, however, the 2011 global MDG report rated Africa (excluding North Africa) as the region with highest improvement between 1999 and 2009.

Compared to the rest of the world, Africa has achieved spectacular leaps in primary education enrolment

Between 1990 and 2011, Southern, East, Central and West Africa together recorded a 24 percentage point increase in their net enrolment rate compared to 17 percentage points for North Africa, 10

Figure 3: Net Primary school enrolment rates by region

Source: Author's calculations based on UNSD, July 2013.

percentage points for the developing countries and 1 percentage point for the developed world (figure 3). Although Africa continues to register the lowest completion rates in the world, there has been considerable improvement: 50 percent of the 46 countries with data recorded at least a 15 percent increase in completion rates between 2000 and 2011. The number of out-of-school children has been reduced from 40 million in 1999 to almost 22 million. Finally, gender parity has also significantly improved in primary level enrolment, although inequities continue to prevail.

Regardless of the dramatic achievements in access to education and gender parity at the primary level, issues of education quality and relevance require focused attention. Additional investment is needed to enable the poorest and most vulnerable countries to make similar progress by improving classroom pedagogy and teacher professional development, and by removing the barriers to effective learning and strengthening and institutional development. For this purpose, the promotion of Science, Technology and Innovation (STI) and a greater involvement of the private sector are some of the most effective interventions that can improve the quality of education.

The enrolment policies adopted by African governments need to be accompanied by a consistent and sustainable allocation of resources to ensure optimum quality of the basic conditions

for learning and teaching. To this end, while moving from a centralized decision-making process to a more decentralized and accountable school-based management system, the following drivers of change need to be prioritized: (i) improving teachers' professional development; (ii) updating curricula with a strong component on in-school assessment and systematic evaluation of learning achievements; and (iii) providing adequate textbooks and other information and communications technology (ICT) based pedagogic materials. To a large extent, the education system in most African countries is not equipping students with the adequate and relevant skills to meet present and future social and economic demands.

MDG 3: Promote gender equality and empower women

The initial conditions in Africa with respect to gender equality and women's empowerment were relatively lower than in the other developing regions. For instance, gender parity in primary school enrolment was around 80 percent compared to 96.0 percent in Latin America and the Caribbean, and 95.0 percent in South East Asia. A similar trend is observed in the share of women in paid non-agricultural sector employment, which was 23.0 percent in Africa (excluding North Africa) compared to 37.0 percent in Latin America and the Caribbean, and 36.0 percent in East Asia. With respect to the share of seats held by women in national parliaments, the initial conditions were

poor in North Africa compared to other regions: women held only 3.0 percent of seats in national parliaments in 1990, whereas the percentage was three to four times higher in Latin America and the Caribbean, and South East Asia. In terms of policies, regulatory environment and legislative frameworks, in 1990, Africa lagged behind the rest of the world. Most of the laws and policies supporting gender equality and women's empowerment were already in place in Latin America and the Caribbean, whereas many African countries started building the requisite institutions much later. Gender-based violence, early marriage and female genital mutilation, which had been reduced in most parts of the developing regions, were endemic in Africa in the 1990s and still remain serious concerns in the continent. Policies for creating equal opportunities for girls and women are relatively new in most African countries. All of these above issues, which are taken for granted in many other developing regions, require substantial investments in human and physical resources are in limited supply in several African countries.

Good progress has been recorded in narrowing gender disparity in primary school education

The ratio of girls to boys enrolled in primary school continues to improve in many African countries. North Africa raised its parity level from 0.82 to 0.94, and the rest of Africa, from 0.83 to 0.93 between 1990 and 2011. Of the 49 African countries with available data, 18 have achieved gender parity; in two countries, Chad and Central African Republic, the Gender Parity Index was less than 0.8; and in 28 countries, it was between 0.80 and 0.97. In contrast, Senegal, Mauritania and Malawi must step up efforts to address the persisting imbalance between girls' and boys' enrolment in primary school.

Several policy and institutional innovations are driving progress, but challenges abound in tackling repetition rates and early marriage. Eliminating school fees has resulted in increasing overall enrolments and reducing gender disparities in access to education. Universal education laws combined with substantial infrastructure and human resource investments to enhance service delivery

have brought more children into school, not only in Africa, but across the world.

Gender parity in secondary education has been less impressive

The most recent data available on gender parity in secondary education enrolment for 43 African countries show that 12 countries achieved parity as of 2013. The high cost of secondary education, early marriage, inadequate female teachers and the poor quality of education are impediments to progress.

Performance in gender parity targets at the tertiary education level has remained stagnant

Achieving gender parity at the tertiary levels is necessary for closing the gender wage gap (figure 4). Of the 36 countries with data for 2010, only eight (Tunisia, Algeria, Namibia, Cape Verde, Lesotho, Mauritania, Botswana and Swaziland) achieved gender parity in tertiary education.

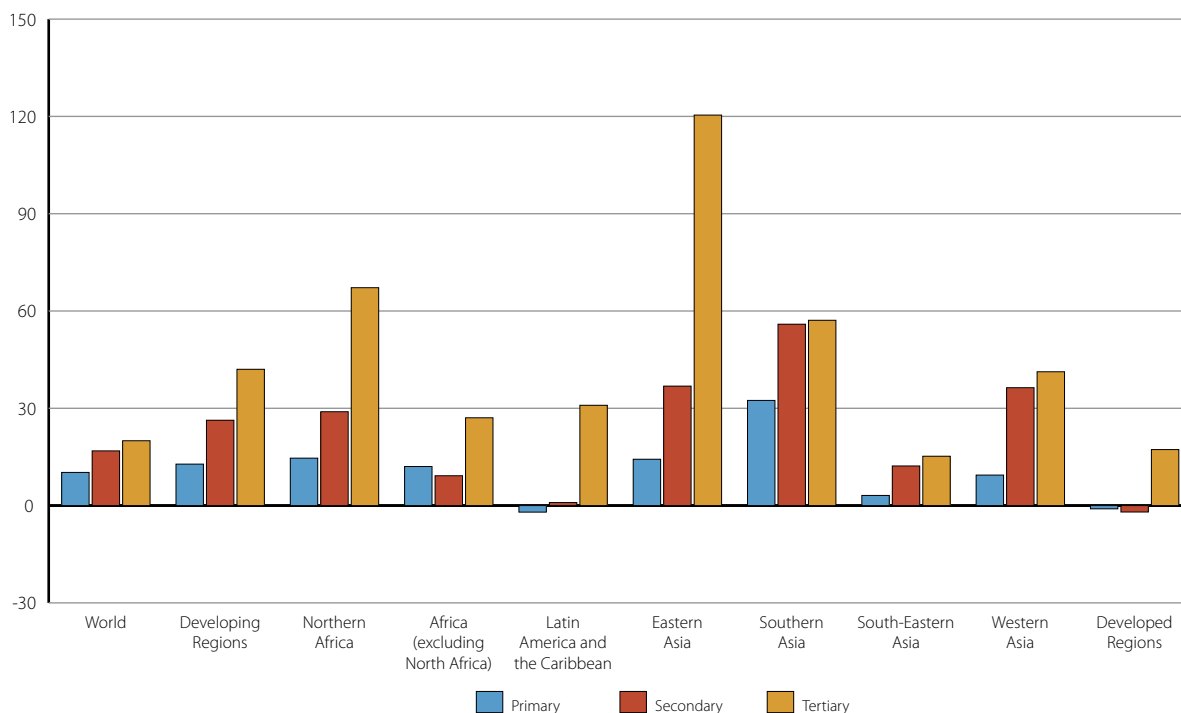
There has been limited progress in increasing non-agricultural wage employment for women

Despite the 35.3 to 39.6 percent increase in women's share of paid employment outside of the agricultural sector over the 1990–2011 period, African women's employment in the non-agriculture sector is lower than in other regions. Of the 32 countries with recent data (2000–11), 16 had over 30 percent of women in non-agriculture wage employment (including South Africa, the Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Namibia, Botswana and Cape Verde), and five had less than 20 percent (Senegal, Algeria, Libya, Egypt and Guinea).

Structural transformation can expand non-agricultural wage employment for women

African leaders' call for structural economic transformation in the continent is more relevant than ever, especially given the challenges associated with overdependence on primary commodities for revenues, exports and livelihoods. Structural economic transformation promotes employment and productivity through value addition and skills upgrading. Reducing gender disparities in

Figure 4: Percentage change in the Gender Parity Index at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels, 1990-2011



Source: Authors' calculations based on UNSD, July 2013.

access to education at all levels will therefore be critical in ensuring that girls and women benefit from a structural transformation agenda. In effect, active government policies such as affirmative action and targeted skills training programmes, and measures that end discriminatory cultural practices are required to ensure gender equality in access to jobs and economic opportunities in general.

Gender wage disparity is extremely high in many African countries

Only in Egypt, Uganda, The Gambia, Ghana, Malawi, Zambia, Burundi, Botswana and Benin do women earn wages of 75 percent or more of men's wages for similar jobs. In Mauritania, Algeria and Côte d'Ivoire, women earn less than 60 percent of what men earn. Countries need a combination of minimum wage policies and policies designed to address female wage discrimination. Promoting more secondary education for girls will enhance their future opportunity in the labour market.

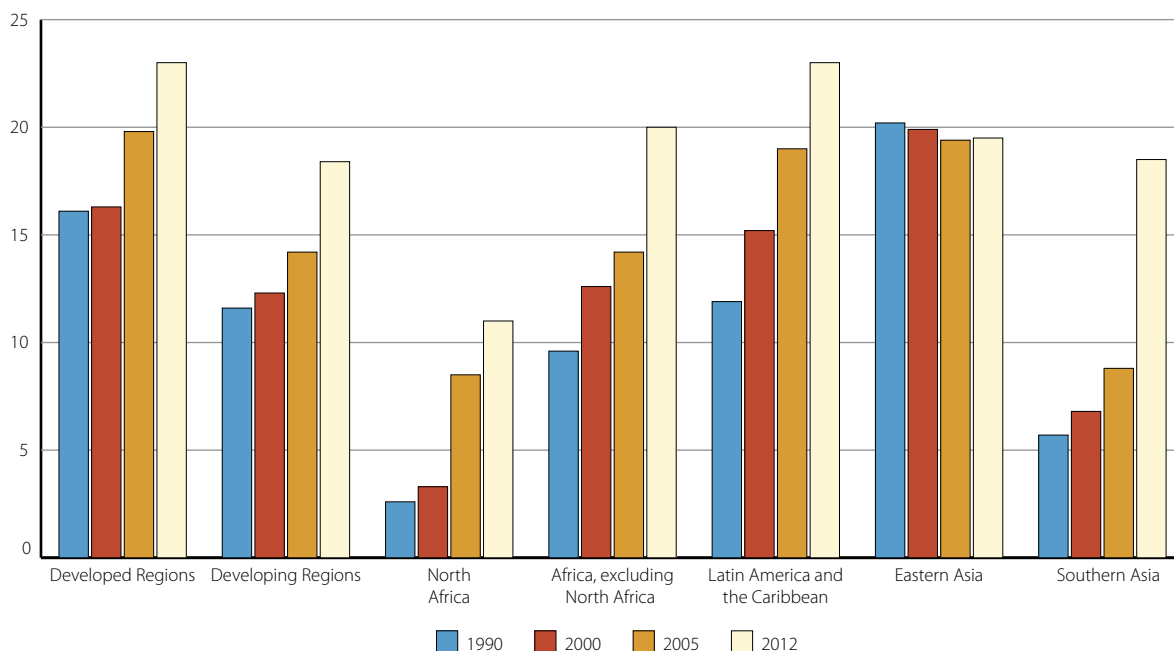
Africa is making steadier progress in increasing the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments than in other regions

Almost all regions of the developing world (except East Asia) made steady progress on the number of seats held by women in national parliaments between 1990 and 2012 (figure 5).

Progress on this target looks promising at the country level. Ten countries have reached the target of at least 30 percent women in the national parliament – Rwanda, Seychelles, Senegal, South Africa, Mozambique, United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda, Angola, Algeria and Burundi; Tunisia, Ethiopia and Lesotho are very close, with less than four percentage points from the target. However, the number of women in national parliaments dropped in Guinea Bissau, Congo, Egypt, Equatorial Guinea, Chad, The Gambia and Cameroon.

There are a number of clear lessons learned in terms of drivers of and impediments to progress in women's representation in national parliaments. In particular, countries should adopt ex-

Figure 5: Percentage of seats held by women in national parliaments across regions of the world, various years



Source: Authors' calculations based on World Economic Forum, 2012.

PLICIT quota systems for women's representation; political parties should intensify the pace and depth of women's inclusiveness; the electoral system should be strengthened to support quality participation of women; the implementation of national gender policies and strategies should be strengthened; and efforts to counter violence, discrimination and other social and cultural barrier should be intensified.

MDG 4: Reduce child mortality

Child mortality has been falling in Africa since 1990. The average annual rate of decline in child deaths reached 4.1 percent during the period 2005–12, up from 0.8 percent in 1990–95. Accelerated efforts in reducing under-five mortality rate (U5MR) in Africa have enabled the continent to achieve good progress in reaching this target. Continent-wide, the U5MR reduced from 177 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1990 to 98 deaths in 2012 – a 45 percent reduction against the two-thirds reduction target. Yet, the continent is still the region with the highest U5MR globally, accounting for almost half of the total child deaths before the age of five. In spite of some progress on child survival in the continent, 3.2 million of

Africa's children did not reach their fifth birthday in 2012. Most children died as a result of easily preventable infectious diseases; which is related to the educational attainment of mothers, their level of access to health systems, income, nutrition and the prevalence of HIV. Concerted effort should be placed in scaling up investment in child health and providing effective social protection to children in poor households, especially free health services.

There is much slower progress in reducing neonatal mortality: Africa still accounts for one third of neonatal deaths.

A *Lancet journal* article published in March 2014 indicated that globally, although the number of deaths of children under five has almost been halved between 1990 and 2012. Progress in reducing neonatal deaths has been much slower than that of children over four weeks of age (average annual reduction of 2.1% vs. 3.4%). The highest neonatal mortality rate (32 deaths per 1,000 live births in 2012) occurred in Africa (excluding North Africa). The most common reasons for deaths include: complications of prematurity (34%); intrapartum-related complications (24%); sepsis,

meningitis, or pneumonia (22%); and congenital abnormalities (9%). Improving quality and access to primary health care throughout pregnancy and birth greatly enhances neonatal survival.

Mixed progress on immunization rates

Immunization remains one of the most successful public health initiatives, averting between two and three million child deaths from diseases such as measles, tetanus and diphtheria worldwide. The average immunization coverage in Africa increased modestly, from 62 percent in 1990 to 68 percent in 2011. However, with the exception of four countries (Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia and Somalia), in 2011, immunization coverage in African countries was more than 50 percent, almost half of which had an immunization coverage of 90 percent or more.

MDG 5: Improve maternal health

Maternal health is a useful indicator in assessing not only women's health status, but also the accessibility, sufficiency and effectiveness of a country's health service system. However, assessing progress toward this target continues to be a major challenge due to the paucity of data.

The world falls short of the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) target but progress faster in 2005-2013 than in 1990-2005

The global MMR declined by 45 percent from 380 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births in 1990, to 210 in 2013, yielding an average annual decline of 2.6 percent. The highest reduction was registered in Europe (66%) followed by Asia (59%), Oceania (48%), Africa (47%) and Latin America and the Caribbean (39%). The annual decline in global MMR over the period 2005 - 2013 (3.3 percent) was faster than the decline during the period 1990 - 2005 (2.2 percent)

Africa still has the highest burden of maternal deaths despite a 47 percent decline between 1990 and 2013

Africa has reduced its MMR from 870 deaths per 100,000 live births in 1990 to 460 in 2013, a 47 percent reduction since 1990. However, Africa accounts for the largest share of global maternal deaths, at 63 percent. In 2013, Africa was home

to 16 out of the 18 countries with the highest MMRs globally (i.e. above 500 deaths per 100,000 live births). Most of these deaths are preventable. The most common causes of maternal mortality are severe bleeding after child birth, infections, high blood pressure during pregnancy and unsafe abortions. Associated with socio-economic and spatial inequality, lack of access to skilled birth attendants and contraceptives, and high adolescent birth rates, maternal deaths are higher among poor and uneducated women with little income and/or living in remote rural areas.

On average, there are more pregnancies among women in developing countries than in developed countries, and their lifetime risk of death due to pregnancy is higher. The probability that a 15-year old girl will eventually die from a maternal cause is 1 in 3,700 in developed countries, compared with 1 in 160 in 2013, in developing countries. The adult lifetime risk of maternal death in Africa is 1 in 45, which is the highest in the world.

The presence of skilled health personnel at birth is critical to reduce maternal mortality. Of 52 African countries for which data were available, eight reported the proportion of births attended by a skilled professional at 90 percent or above, and 16 recorded fewer than 50 percent of births attended by skilled health personnel.

Expanding access to family planning is an effective strategy for saving women's and children's lives and improving their health. Family planning empowers women and households in making decisions about whether and when to have children as well as the desired family size. In 2010, globally, 63 percent of girls and women aged 15-49 years who were married or in a consensual union were using some form of contraception. However, it is evident that most African countries are unlikely to achieve contraceptive prevalence rates; in over 75 percent of African countries, the rates are below 50 percent.

MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases

In 1990, Africa had the highest burden of HIV and malaria of all regions of the world, accounting for

more than half of global incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with these diseases. The HIV prevalence rate in Africa (excluding North Africa), alone, for example, was 2.7 percent in 1990, compared to in other regions of the world, at less than 0.3 percent.

Today, Africa has achieved impressive progress towards achieving two of the three targets under MDG 6. Substantial gains have been made in reversing the spread of HIV, malaria and tuberculosis (TB), evidenced by the downward trends in incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with these diseases. Between 2000 and 2012, Africa (excluding North Africa) averted 67 percent of malaria cases (337 million) and 93 percent malaria deaths (3.08 million), compared to other regions that registered progress of no more than 13 percent. The use of insecticide-treated bednets and artemisinin-based combination therapies has been vital to the gains in malaria control. New annual HIV infections (per 100 people) among the 15-49 age cohort have declined from a peak of 0.85 percent in 1995 to 0.32 in 2012. Correspondingly, prevalence rates have also declined from 5.8 percent in 2000 to 4.7 percent in 2012. The net result has been a decline in the number of AIDS-related deaths among adults and children since 2005. Total deaths from HIV/AIDS dropped from 1,800,000 in 2005 to 1,200,000 in 2012.

However, sustaining the gains is proving to be a challenge as risky sexual behaviour in some African countries threatens to reverse the gains in combating HIV. Consolidating the gains in reducing the spread of HIV is important for reducing TB due to the interactions between the two diseases.

Expansion of effective interventions is critical in reducing malaria incidence.

Between 2000 and 2012, Africa (excluding North Africa) reduced its malaria incidence rate by an average of 31 percent and its death rate by 49 percent. Success was largely due to the use of preventive measures, particularly insecticide-treated bednets, vector control interventions, diagnostic testing, treatment with effective and/or quality assured artemisinin-based combination therapies (ACTs) and strong malaria surveillance. These

measures were underpinned by strong leadership and political commitment, and increased funding for malaria control.

Despite these efforts, Africa's malaria burden remains enormous, accounting for more than half of the global malaria cases and more than three quarters of malaria deaths. In 2012 alone, 90 percent of the estimated 627,000 malaria deaths worldwide occurred in Africa (excluding North Africa), of which 77 percent were among children under the age of five.

Reducing the HIV/AIDS prevalence rate is critical for reducing TB prevalence rates

The TB prevalence rate per 100,000 of the population in Africa reduced on average by only 11 percent between 1990 and 2011. In the same period, TB incidence increased by an average of 16 percent in Africa. High HIV prevalence and incidence in Africa contributes significantly to the high TB incidence in the continent. The World Health Organization (WHO) Global Tuberculosis Report 2013 notes that 1.1 out of 8.8 million people who developed TB in 2012 (around 13 percent) were HIV positive, 75 percent of whom were from Africa. In addition to the challenge of HIV, lack of access by many people to appropriate and quality TB care, especially in Africa, is affecting progress on TB targets. This has partly led to increasing cases of multidrug-resistant TB (MDR-TB), which is primarily caused by incorrect and/or inappropriate use of anti-TB drugs. As a result, efforts in TB control have been severely hampered.

MDG 7: Ensure environmental sustainability

Many African countries are doing a better job of protecting territorial and marine areas, reducing their CO₂ emissions and scaling back on the use of ozone-depleting substances (ODS). The world met the MDG target for drinking water by 2010, but 45 countries (20 of which are from Africa), are still not on track to meet the target by 2015. On the other hand, the world is not on track to meet the MDG sanitation target: 69 countries were not on track in 2012, 36 of which were from Africa. Despite 1.9 billion people gaining access since 1990, by the end of 2012, there were 2.5 billion people

who did not use improved sanitation facilities, just 7 percent less than the 2.7 billion without access in 1990.

High CO₂ emissions from industrialization

Africa accounts for a small but rising share of the world’s total annual carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions. Countries with higher industrialization tend to emit larger volumes of CO₂ than those with lower industrialization or smaller industrial sectors. Thus, measures to promote industrial development must be guided by resource-efficient and cleaner production practices to ensure sustainability. However, given the limited contribution of Africa to greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and the high investment costs associated with renewable energies, developed countries will have to play a key role in supporting the continent achieve a more balanced energy mix.

The use of ozone-depleting substances (ODS) on the decline

There was remarkable progress in Africa with respect to the reduction of ODS consumption between 2000 and 2011, with more than half of

African countries achieving substantial reductions of over 50 percent.

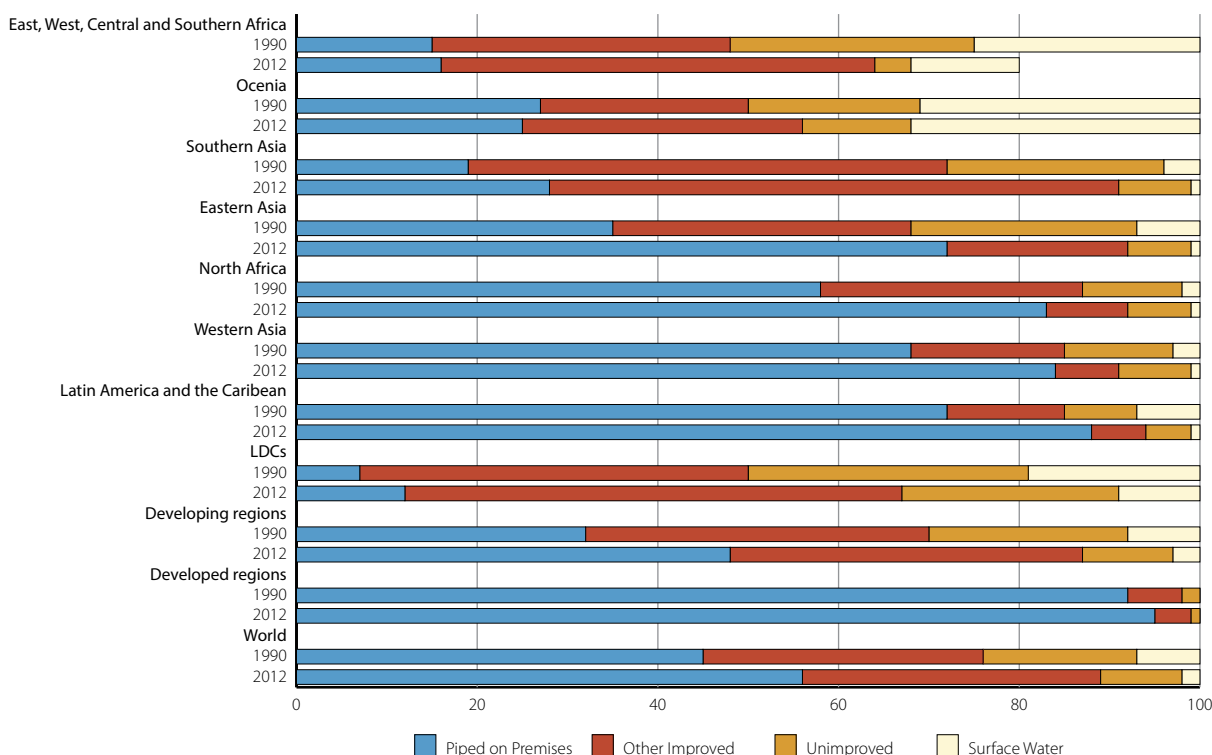
The proportion of terrestrial and marine areas protected is increasing

During the 1990-2012 period, most African countries increased the proportion of protected terrestrial and marine areas. By 2012, a total of 32 countries had reached the target of protecting at least 10 percent of their territorial and marine areas, compared to 19 countries in 1990.

Access to safe drinking water improving, but sanitation is still a challenge

Access to adequate water supply is not only a fundamental need, but also has considerable health and economic benefits to households and individuals. Progress on access to safe drinking water in the continent has been impressive. Between 1990 and 2012, Africa (excluding North Africa) increased access to improved drinking water sources by 16 percentage points. By 2012, 69 percent of the African population used an improved drinking water source (figure 6); urban populations tend to have better access to improved water supply than

Figure 6: Drinking water coverage by region, 1990–2012 (%)



Source: WHO and UNICEF, 2014.

rural populations. Furthermore, only 16 percent of the population were using a piped drinking water source on their premises. This is the lowest in the world, and calls for scaled-up actions to accelerate progress on this target.

Access to improved sanitation facilities remains an area of critical concern given the health implications. The percentage of the population using improved sanitation facilities in Africa (excluding North Africa) increased from 24 percent in 1990, to 30 percent in 2012; in North Africa, from 72 to 91 percent, and in developing regions, from 36 to 57 percent during the same period. Since 2000, however, Africa (excluding North Africa) is among regions with the largest increase (24 percentage points) in access to improved sanitation between 2000 and 2012.

MDG 8: Develop a global partnership for development

African economies' integration in global markets remains limited despite major commitment of development partners in various multilateral trade negotiations to support African countries' efforts to promote trade and development. The continent's share of global exports represented only 3.4 percent of the total in 2012, up from 2.3 percent in 2000, but still around half the level of the early 1980s.

ODA to Africa from DAC donors declined by 5 percent between 2011 and 2012, confirming predictions that the global economic crisis would eventually impact on aid to Africa. Landlocked and Small Island Developing States (SIDS) have also been impacted by the decline. Between 2010 and 2011, four of the six African SIDS experienced reductions in ODA as a percentage of their gross national income (GNI) of over 25 percent between 2011 and 2012.

Development partners continue to fall short of their ODA commitments. As of 2013, only five countries reached the United Nations target of allocating 0.7 percent of GNI to ODA. The Development Assistance Committee (DAC) donors' ODA was equivalent to 0.3 percent of their combined GNI, leaving a delivery gap of 0.40 percent of GNI.

Limited progress has been made in developing an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system

There has not been much progress in negotiations with the European Union (EU) in the context of the EU-ACP Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA). Following strong opposition to the original EPA by African countries, the EU introduced an interim EPA in 2007; however, as of 2013, only four out of the 47 eligible African countries have ratified it. On this basis, the European Commission set a deadline of 1 October 2014 for African, Caribbean and Pacific (ACP) countries to switch to a new EPA. ACP countries that do not sign up to the new interim economic partnerships by the deadline will fall back into a less advantageous trade regime and lose the trade preferences offered under the Cotonou Agreement. Careful attention will be required to ensure that a new trade regime with the EU does not undermine African efforts to implement the Continental Free Trade Area (CFTA) initiative. Indeed, the CFTA is expected to help address many of the constraints of intra-African trade by removing remaining trade barriers within the continent and easing customs procedures and cross-border and port handling.

In addition, the failure to conclude the Doha Round of world trade negotiations has been a major constraint on Africa's ability to harness trade for development. A window of hope was opened during the Ninth WTO Ministerial Conference held in Bali, from 5 to 7 December 2013, where an agreement was reached on a package of issues designed to streamline trade and to allow developing countries more options for promoting food security and boosting LDC trade.

Moreover, there are serious production capacity and supply-side constraints facing African countries that severely limit their ability to benefit from the current trading system. Specifically, they lack technical capacity, notably in formulating, negotiating and implementing trade policy and related agreements. The Aid for Trade (AfT) Initiative seeks to help them build trade-related capacity so they can more effectively participate in multilateral trade negotiations. During the 2009-11 period, to-

tal AFT commitments to Africa were \$16.3 billion, but disbursements were only \$11.9 billion.

Furthermore, the Africa Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA), which offers preferential market access to 39 African countries, will come up for renewal in 2015. Although the US administration has pledged a ‘seamless renewal’ of the initiative, there is scope to expand the number of product lines covered and to more closely align trade-related capacity-building support provided by the United States with the CFTA initiative. African countries must also develop greater capacity to coordinate, negotiate and lobby to ensure that key issues from the Doha Development Agenda, unresolved at Bali, can be addressed.

Debt initiatives are helpful for Africa, but debt sustainability is weakening.

After reaching US\$193 billion in 2006 at the height of the Highly Indebted Poor Country (HIPC) Initiative and Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MRDI), Africa’s total external debt stock (excluding North Africa) rose by an annual average of 11 percent during the 2006-11 period. However, as a percentage of GNI and exports of goods and services, both the stock of debt and debt service declined by over two thirds as a combined result of HIPC and MRDI. Moreover, debt service payments expressed as a share of exports fell from 11.5 percent in 2000 to less than 3.4 percent in 2011. While many African countries have benefitted from

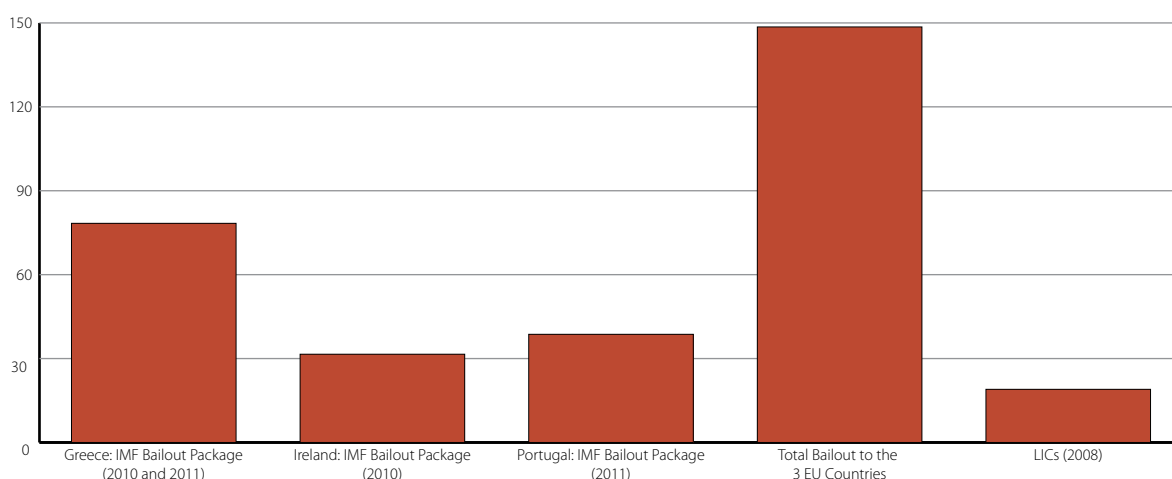
HIPC, MRDI and other debt relief initiatives, recent debt build-up has led to worsening of debt sustainability. It is estimated that 14 of the 33 African HIPCs are facing moderate risk of debt distress, and seven are in high risk of debt distress.

Further commitments were made in 2009 to increase the resources provided by international financial institutions (IFIs) to cushion the effects of the sub-prime and the Eurozone crises. However, LICs have not been provided with a fair share of IMF bailout. Although African LICs were cushioned from these crises to some extent due mainly to limited integration of financial markets with global financial markets, they still experienced some adverse spillovers of the crises, such as dwindling aid inflows, fall in commodity prices, reduction in global trade, precipitous drop in remittances, and stifled capital flows, especially foreign direct investment. The share that was allocated to all LICs (\$19.00 billion) was well below the \$148.57 billion allocated to Greece, Ireland and Portugal (figure 7).

Availability, affordability and quality of medicines affect access to essential drugs.

Availability and affordability of essential medicines remain a challenge, particularly as the response to outbreaks of contagious diseases and the development of resistant strains of infection create new difficulties.

Figure 7: IMF bailout during the sub-prime and Eurozone crises



Source: World Development Indicators, 2013.

Funding pledged for the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria and GAVI Alliance has proven to be effective. The World Trade Organization (WTO) Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) clauses facilitating local manufacturing and importation of essential medicines appears to be more broadly incorporated in national laws. These provisions provide flexibility for developing countries to work out policy measures to promote access to cheap medicines. However, US bilateral Free Trade Agreements (FTAs) with several countries or groupings are limiting this flexibility. This is because the FTAs require that developing countries join international intellectual property-related treaties that make it more difficult or impossible to undertake measures such as compulsory licensing or government efforts to provide cheaper generic drugs. Moreover, the quality of medicines is threatened by counterfeit and substandard products, a problem compounded by the limited capacity of national regulatory agencies.

Growth in fixed telephone lines remains flat and/or negative.

There has not been any notable change in fixed telephone lines in African countries. On average, the number of fixed telephone lines in Africa has stagnated at less than 5 lines per 100 inhabitants since 2000. Between 2011 and 2012, slight increases were observed in this indicator in only 15 African countries; in 25 others, reductions were shown in this indicator for the same period, while no change was observed in the remaining countries. The poor growth in fixed telephone lines can be attributed to the emergence and rapid expansion of mobile telephones, which are more desirable and accessible than fixed telephone lines, both in terms of cost and convenience.

The fastest growing mobile phone subscriptions are observed in Africa.

Africa has had impressive growth in the number of mobile phone subscription, at over 2,500 percent from 2000 to 2012. Since 2012, this sharp growth has started to stabilize, at above 10 percent. As of 2012, the mobile subscription ratio for the continent is 74 per 100 inhabitants.

The rapid growth of number of mobile phones subscription explains the poor growth in number of landlines. In addition to the cost advantages and convenience that mobile phones have over landlines, people have also been attracted to various social networking and other technological innovations that have been integrated into mobile phones. Through these technologies, mobile phones have the potential to promote social and economic development.

Internet penetration is low, but growing fast.

Average Internet penetration remains relatively low in Africa. Between 2011 and 2012, Africa's average number of Internet users per 100 people increased by more than 13 percent. As at 2012, it was approximately 14 per 100 inhabitants. The high cost of Internet is explained by Africa's historical reliance on satellites and very small aperture terminal (VSAT) earth stations for most of its connectivity. However, this is set to change because many African nations are heavily investing in information and telecommunications infrastructure. Accordingly, African Internet penetration and use is expected to significantly improve in the near future.

Conclusions and policy perspectives

Addressing poverty unemployment and underemployment

- » Macro-economic policy must target employment creation together with price stability.
- » African countries endowed with natural resources should pursue a commodity-based industrialization strategy to create decent jobs through value addition. In parallel, revenues from primary commodity exports should be channelled into developing fiscally sustainable social protection programmes that enhance human capital development and labour productivity.
- » National policies and strategies designed to improve productivity, income and working conditions of the informal sector (especially in women-dominated sectors) are critical to

Summary

- substantially reduce vulnerable employment, particularly for women.
- » Governments must set the priority for public actions on jobs that have the greatest returns on development given each country's development context.
- » It is essential to pursue pragmatic and proactive policies, and programmes that continually bridge infrastructure gaps, particularly energy, transport, irrigation, telecommunications and water supply.
- » Recurrent crises in the Horn of Africa and the Sahel should be addressed by promoting investments in agricultural productivity and building community resilience to respond to natural disasters.
- » Teachers' professional development should be improved.
- » The educational curricula should be upgraded with a strong component on in-school assessment and systematic evaluation of learning achievements.
- » The provision of adequate text books and other ICT-based pedagogic materials should be ensured.
- » Access to quality early childhood care and development should be enhanced.
- » Educational management and planning capacities should be upgraded.

Addressing inequality in all its dimensions

- » Rural development programmes should be integrated, creating growth poles or clusters in rural communities.
- » Agricultural productivity should be improved to enhance employment opportunities and rural livelihoods while ensuring a predictable supply of raw materials for the manufacturing sector.
- » Social protection programmes should be implemented in order to address the needs of the vulnerable and improve the productive capacities of the labour force.
- » The gender gap in inequality should be closed by instituting: conditional cash transfers that prioritize females; curricula reforms and gender-sensitive teaching methods; measures against gender-based violence in schools; and affirmative action programmes that facilitate the full participation of girls in school and the labour market.
- » Improving productivity and human capital
- » Access to antenatal care and skilled birth attendants should be facilitated.
- » Availability of contraceptives should be increased to stem the high incidence of adolescent birth rates.
- » Access to Insecticide Treated bed Nets (ITNs) and artemisinin-based combination therapies (ACTs) should be expanded to reduce malaria prevalence and incidence rates.
- » ART coverage should be expanded for HIV positive TB patients.
- » Effective TB preventive treatment for people living with HIV/AIDS should be ensured.

Improving domestic resource mobilization

- » Tax enforcement capabilities and the quality of information on existing and potential taxpayers should be strengthened.
- » Progressive tax regimes should be developed to avoid exacerbating inequalities.
- » Value for money should be ensured by strengthening audit institutions, and instituting and or implementing reforms in

public financial management, transparency and governance.

- » Financial intermediation and inclusion should be strengthened by encouraging innovation and the utilization of affordable technologies in the delivery of financial services.
- » Loopholes that facilitate licit and illicit financial outflows should be closed; the illicit outflow of resources greatly exceeds ODA received in Africa.

Improving management of external financing

- » Capacities for coordination and management of external inflows should be strengthened.
- » Closer alignment of external inflows with national priorities should be ensured.
- » The cost of remittances should be reduced.
- » Advocacy should be continued for donors to meet their commitments and use external resources to leverage domestic resource mobilization capacities.

Effective financing of regional infrastructure and industrial development

- » Untapped and new financing sources and instruments should be explored such as the

International Finance Corporation's (IFC) global infrastructure fund, sovereign wealth funds, local and diaspora bonds, and finance.

- » The constraints of short-term commercial lending should be overcome by developing partial risk guarantees and other risk-sharing mechanisms to extend the maturity of loans.
- » Mixed or blended financing measures should be adopted, including public-private partnerships (PPPs).
- » An enabling legal and regulatory framework should be set up to ensure sustainability of long-term projects.
- » In-country capacity should be built in order to structure viable, bankable projects that can attract private sector investment.
- » Country-level industrial and infrastructure plans should be developed to leverage regional and continental plans such as New Partnership for Africa's Development's (NEPAD) Programme for Infrastructural Development in Africa (PIDA).

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