United Nations
Economic Commission for Africa

Inclusive and sustainable development in Africa

Institutional arrangements for implementing the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063

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Abbreviations and acronyms

ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
GDP	gross domestic product
IMF	International Monetary Fund
NDP	National Development Plans
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund

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The present report was prepared by staff members of the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) with the aim of contributing to knowledge on institutional requirements for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and Agenda 2063. The study is based on an extensive review of literature on the role of institutions in promoting social economic development and development planning in select countries.

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Executive summary

Translating both the global and regional development frameworks adopted by member States in 2015 into concrete outputs and outcomes will require strong institutional capacities for planning, coordination and follow up. The present report examines the role of institutional arrangements in the implementation of development frameworks.

Institutions consist of a set of customs, norms and social routines as well as formal and informal rules and regulations agreed by communities and societies to regulate human behaviour, individually, in the community and outside of the community.

To the extent that institutions provide a formal and informal framework for societal engagement in political and socioeconomic development, they have profound implications for patterns of growth and distribution of rewards, with implications for inequality and poverty eradication. In that context, a country's institutional culture can exert considerable influence on its capacity to implement development initiatives, such as the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and Agenda 2063 on transforming Africa.

Open, transparent and inclusive institutions promote growth, and encourage innovation and creative destruction, which are critical for the advancement of knowledge, production systems and, ultimately, quality of life. On the other hand, institutions that are opaque and controlled by powerful elites tend to be predatory, alienate broad segments of society and are counter-productive to development. Hence, inclusiveness is vital for sustaining and enhancing institutional effectiveness.

Inclusive economic, political and social institutions that support sustainable economic growth and socioeconomic transformation are underpinned by broad stakeholder participation on issues of common concern, for example, taxation, trade, the transparent means of conflict resolution, and property rights.

The development of such institutions is, however, a long-term process that may involve revolutions and counter-revolutions.

Despite the importance of inclusive institutions in fostering sustainable economic growth and development, most sub-Saharan African States, with a few exceptions (such as Mauritius and Botswana), have not built strong and inclusive institutions. Indeed, one of the challenges to the realization of the Millennium Development Goals was the lack of strong institutional arrangements to coordinate their implementation, mobilize resources and hold Governments accountable.

Going forward, strengthening the capacities of development planning institutions will be vital for the successful implementation of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063. Development planning provides a systematic approach to identifying, articulating, prioritizing and satisfying the economic and social needs and aspirations of a country within a given resource envelope. Inclusive planning, informed by institutionalized platforms for stakeholder engagement, enhances ownership by promoting buy-in.

Suggested areas for capacity development include: advocacy for and awareness-raising on the synergies between the global and continental agendas to enhance inclusiveness and buy-in; empowering the central planning entity to coordinate the activities of line Ministries so as to leverage synergies and enhance accountability; enhancing capacities for evidence-based policymaking to maximize policy impact; and strengthening national statistics systems to ensure the generation of reliable and timely data for evidence-based policymaking and reporting.

1. Theoretical background

1.1. Introduction

The year 2016 ushered in a new global and regional development paradigm for Africa. At the global level, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development enshrined a development paradigm underpinned by the three dimensions of sustainable development: economic, social and environmental. Compared to the Millennium Development Goals, the Sustainable Development Goals are not only relatively more inclusive and participatory in their design but also more comprehensive in scope, comprising 17 goals, 169 targets and 230 indicators. At the regional level, Agenda 2063 encapsulates Africa's vision of structural transformation grounded in a common cultural identity and the overarching principle of sustainable development. However, the objective of achieving multidimensional sustainability invariably requires a multidisciplinary and multi-sectoral approach underpinned by strong institutional capacities and support. Specifically, translating both the global and regional development frameworks into concrete outputs and outcomes will require strong institutional capacities for planning, coordination and follow-up.

The present report examines the role of institutional arrangements in the implementation of development frameworks. From a broader perspective, institutions can be viewed as enablers or constraints to human behaviour at the level of the individual or communities. The concept of institutions as enablers is based on the argument that by providing incentives, institutions help individuals and communities to act positively and efficiently. For example, societal norms and conventions governing driving and traffic rules help us to drive efficiently and safely (Chang and Evans, 2005). This view focuses on the enabling environment that shapes and nurtures societal advancement.

The view of institutions as constraints is led by North (1984), who notes that "institutions consist of a set of constraints on behaviour in the form of rules and regulations; and a set of procedures to detect deviations from the rules and regulations". North further underscores the role of institutions as constraints that are informally enforced by society, such as codes of conduct, norms and conventions. Institutions form the rules, regulations and conventions that act as constraints to behaviour in society. Based on these two broad views, which are not necessarily mutually exclusive, the concept of institutional arrangements can be explained as the design and shaping of organizations or markets by establishing a set of rules within a given environment (Sorsa, 2008).

At a more technical level, institutions are the systems of formal and informal customs, norms and social routines (such as consumption culture and socialized work practices), and formal structures of rules and regulations (such as employment, contracts and trade), controlling economic behaviour (Martin, 2000). The role of institutions as enablers or constraints is closely linked to the concept of incentives (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2008); depending on their nature, institutions can create incentives or disincentives for economic participation by the majority of the population with implications for economic development, poverty and inequality reduction, and for transformation.

1.2. Conceptualization

The two conceptual views on institutions have implications for the evolution and functioning of institutions in different regions and countries, and can be the basis for theoretical distinction of institutions. From the literature, three distinctions of institutional progression emerge: the rational choice institutionalism; sociological institutionalism; and historical institutionalism (Eggertson, 1990; Swedberg, 1997; Martin, 2000).

The rational choice institutionalism considers institutions to be continuously evolving and changing through the process of competition (Eggertson, 1990) within markets and social contexts. This perspective focuses on how institutions structure individuals and communities through constraints to increase economic efficiency. It also addresses the questions of how institutions are selected and how individuals or communities are motivated to follow institutionalized patterns of behaviour (Greif and Kingston, 2011). It does not necessarily assume that individual actors are perfectly "rational" and that institutions are formulated and function in a perfectly rational way.

The sociological institutionalism is founded on the belief that institutions evolve through collective and cultural social routines of trust, cooperation and obligation (Swedberg, 1997). Institutions underline the systems of established and embedded social conventions, norms and rules that structure social interactions and serve collectively valued purposes (Nabli and Nugent, 1989; Hodgson, 2001). Social institutions are built on regular social behaviour, norms and rules for regulating human interaction and undertaking certain functions that are agreed to by the community; they are a set of rules to facilitate coordination and allow expectations to form. These norms can be either self-policed or policed by an external authority, through consensus (North, 1989). Thus, institutions change as a result of a continuous process of social construction, embedded within society and its interactions with the outside world.

The historical institutionalism considers institutions as historically driven systems of social, economic and political relations that frame the regulation and coordination mechanisms that govern society (Martin, 2000). This perspective is particularly important because institutional growth is cumulative, and subject to path-dependence and lock-in features. The process and evolution of institutions influence the current institutional set-up, that is, pre-existing institutions, emerging economic and political conflicts and how they are resolved have implications for economic and social outcomes (Immergut, 2006; Acemoglu and Robinson, 2012). Thus, how institutions are established and nurtured in the present is key to their evolution and service to future generations.

In the three approaches, the existence and evolution of institutions to serve current and future generations is crucial. These three perspectives form an important foundational framework for the functioning and development of institutions across the world. They also help to shed some light, from a theoretical angle, on why some nations are more likely to institutionalize systems that are conducive to inclusive and sustainable growth than others. In effect, the approaches discussed above provide a useful framework for understanding country-specific institutional responses to the implementation of the new global and regional development initiatives in Africa.

It is important to note that in almost all definitions, "repetitiveness of human actions" and "common agreement" by the people to specific norms and rules are key to their functioning. Whatever the origin of institutions, their wide acceptance by the community is important for their functionality and outcomes (Wiggins and Davis, 2006). While endorsement by the State as legally binding is often important, institutions can operate effectively without this. Institutions are critical in the governance of communities and their participation in day-to-day economic and social engagements. Appropriate institutional arrangements are therefore essential for the integration of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 into national development plans, awareness raising at national, sectoral and local levels, implementation, resource mobilization, monitoring and reporting.

1.3. Purpose

Chapter 1 analyses the impacts of institutions on economic growth and development from a theoretical and empirical perspective. It underscores the links between economic, political and social institutions and their role in the development and transformation of societies. This review highlights some of the emerging issues that African countries need to take into consideration as they adapt and implement the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and Agenda 2063 for Africa's transformation.

1.4. Economic, political and social institutions

The term "economic institutions" refers to the arrangements by which a society produces, distributes and consumer goods, services and other resources. Examples of economic institutions include central banks, trade authorities, rules of exchange, property rights, collective action and cooperation (in labour markets). Economic institutions are a collective outcome of political choices and they are a primary determinant of economic outcomes (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2008; 2012). Economic institutions are an emerging economic bloc, and it is critical to understand their status and contribution to inclusive economic and social progress in Africa. Today, Africa has the highest levels of poverty in the midst of large untapped economic resources and potential; inclusive and transformative institutions are key to eliminating this challenge.

The term "political institutions" pertains to the governance of society, its formal distribution of authority, use of force, and its relationships to other societies and political units. Examples of political institutions include parliament and political parties. In any given territory, the State is the most powerful of all institutions and an important arbiter and driver of economic and social change (World Bank, 1997; Harris, 1997). In its 1989 report on sub-Saharan Africa, the World Bank underscores the positive role the State can play in the development process by managing development and social change through good governance and inclusive institutions (World Bank, 1989). While literature emerged in the 1980s and 1990s suggesting that "developmental States" were impossible in Africa, with arguments ranging from cultural ones about the pervasive nature of "clientalism" to structural ones on the dependence of African economies or the atypical levels of rent seeking, there are States in Africa that are "developmental" in both aspirations and economic performance (Mkandawire, 2001).

The definition of the term "social institutions" is more encompassing; it considers the established or standardized patterns of rule-governed behaviour. Social institutions revolve around how people in communities interact with each other, how they are governed and "agreements" on the use of common resources. The key issues include civic rights, community engagement and participation, common resources and cultural norms. Such institutions include the family, education, religion and other institutions closely linked to economic and political institutions.

The trinity of functional and participatory economic, political and social institutions is critical for inclusive and sustained growth and the transformation of societies. As noted by Esfahani and Ramirez (2003), while large public investments, such as infrastructure, are critical for economic growth, good governance underscored by functional and participatory institutions is equally important for such investments to sustainably improve growth. In addition to reducing economic growth, the quality of public services and foreign investment, a lack of institutional accountability can, in the extreme, lead to a significant reduction in the legitimacy of the State (Tanzi, 1998).

2. Effective and inclusive institutions for Africa's transformation

2.1. Institutions in post-independence Africa

Upon attainment of independence in the 1960s, most African countries inherited democratic political systems that were hastily put in place by the departing colonial powers. While the emerging African politicians of the time participated in the processes leading to independence, their experience and actual engagement in the discussions was limited (Lancaster, 1991). Democracy was "shifted overnight" from the autocratic rule of the colonizers with no history of representation. Over the years, institutions in Africa have continued to evolve through the periods of one-party States of the late 1960s and 1970s, through the liberalization and structural adjustment of the 1980s and 1990s, to the era of renewed planning in the early 2000s, to the present. From December 1999, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank introduced a new approach to development engagement with low-income countries, centring on the design and implementation of poverty reduction strategy papers as the framework for concessional financing (ECA and the African Union Commission, 2011). The initiation of home-grown medium-term and long-term poverty reduction strategies, with prioritized actions that could be supported by development partners and the establishment of institutions to support implementation, has been key to the success of the plans.

2.2. Do institutions matter for economic growth?

The impact of institutions on economic growth and development has been underscored in several studies using different approaches. The findings on the correlation between institutions and economic performance are startling (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2008). For example, using entry barriers as a measure of economic participation across countries, Djankov and others (2002) compare the relative costs of doing business in different countries. Their findings show that opening a medium-sized business in the United States of America costs only about 0.02 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP) per capita in 2009, but 2.7 per cent and 1.2 per cent of GDP per capita in Nigeria and Kenya, respectively (Djankov and others, 2002). The entry barriers are, as expected, highly correlated with other economic outcomes, for example, the rate of economic growth and level of development (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2008). North (1990) underscores the importance of an efficient judicial system in enforcing contracts, the lack of which has adverse implications for economic growth by retarding investment, innovation and acquisition of new technologies.

Similarly, corruption and rent-seeking retard innovation and talent growth (Murphy and others, 1991). Rent-seeking by public officials increases the costs of doing business and can result in reduced foreign investment as investors seek opportunities elsewhere (Deininger and Mpuga, 2005). Harms and Ursprung (2002) provide evidence that levels of foreign direct investment are much higher in countries where individual freedom and respect for civil and property rights is high. Using cross-section data from 57 countries, Feld and Voigt (2003) test whether judicial independence affects economic growth and confirm that real GDP growth per capita is positively related to judicial independence. They also underscore the role of securing property rights that allow for safe transfer and are enforceable by the judiciary in the development and prosperity of market economies. In a study on red tape and efficiency of the judicial system using the business intelligence data on corruption index, Mauro (1995) finds that Bangladesh could increase its investment rate by about five percentage points and economic growth by over half a percentage point through improving the bureaucratic efficiency index by one standard deviation. Thus, the importance of efficient institutions, public or private, in promoting economic growth, talent exploration, innovation and overall development and transformation cannot be overemphasized. Urgent reform of public institutions is called for to allow the State to play its developmental role.

Developing countries require significant investments in public goods such as infrastructure and energy generation. To attract private investment and promote broad-based and egalitarian economic development, weaknesses in public institutions, as evidenced by high levels of corruption, bias and public spending towards undesirable ends, need to be addressed (Deininger and Mpuga, 2005). Reforms leading to inclusive public institutions, a supportive private sector-focused policy environment, responsible macroeconomic management, and sustained commitment to structural reforms have positive implications in terms of opportunities for African countries' participation in global markets (Pigato and Tang, 2015).

Examples of two African countries, Botswana and Mauritius, underscore the importance of inclusive and participatory institutions in promoting broader economic and political participation. Research by Brautigam (1997) and Ramtohul (2006) on the economic and political reforms of Mauritius confirms that inclusive institutions lead to sustained growth and transformation with benefits that are more widespread. Another African country with good institutions leading to impressive economic development is Botswana. Acemoglu and others (2003) review the evolution and role of economic institutions, with a focus on private property, in Botswana's development process. The authors underscore why and how the current property rights in Botswana were adopted, which is very different from most other African States. The power of sustained smooth transitions from one regime to another and economic transformation as a virtuous circle, where good actions and vested interests of the majority sustain good actions in the future, is underscored by Acemoglu and Robinson (2012).

The link between the operation (efficiency, effectiveness, inclusiveness or otherwise) of institutions, on the one hand, and economic growth and development, on the other, cannot be overstated. Institutional history is crucial in explaining why countries grow or stagnate (Landes, 1998; Easterly, 2001). Fischer (1993) stresses the importance of macroeconomic stability for development; economic freedom in the host country positively impacts the flow of foreign direct investment, which is itself positively correlated with economic growth in the host countries (Bengoa and Sanchez-Robles, 2003). Cultural norms and institutions often explain why certain countries grow rich and others remain poor (Landes, 1998). Using a wide body of evidence and literature, Acemoglu and Robinson (2008; 2012) highlight this by addressing two questions: why some countries are poorer than others; and why some countries achieve economic growth while others stagnate. The answers are revealing. The authors argue that the main determinants of differences in prosperity across countries arise from differences in economic institutions. Similarly, using cross-country regressions, Rodrik and others (2002) suggest that the quality of institutions is the single most important difference between strong and weak economies in the developing world. Thus, the set-up and functioning of institutions is critical for economic growth, reducing income inequality, economic and social transformation and sustainability.

Open and transparent economic institutions promote growth, and encourage innovation and creative destruction (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2008; 2012), which are critical for the advancement of knowledge, production systems, products and services, and, ultimately, the quality of life. Institutions have profound implications for patterns of growth and distribution of rewards, with implications for equitable growth and poverty eradication (Wiggins and Davis, 2006; Acemoglu and Robinson, 2008; 2012). For example, the management of property rights, control and usage of natural resources, and regulations on trade, are very important, as they assign entitlements and can affect the bargaining power of different groups (Wiggins and Davis 2006; Acemoglu and Robinson, 2008; 2012).

The Commission on Growth and Development (2008) in *The Growth Report: Strategies for Sustainable Growth and Inclusive Development* underscores the role of capable government institutions in promoting growth. The study analyses the experience of 13 high-growth economies from 1950 for 25 or more years and notes common features that include: strategic integration with the world economy (openness), mobility of resources especially labour (liberal economic policy), high savings and investment rates (resource mobilization), and capable Governments committed to growth (institutions). Institutions that open countries and communities to trade allow for specialization leading to increased production and productivity as well as acquiring new technology and learning from others. Trade promotes healthy competition and results in increased supply of goods and services at lower prices.

2.3. Gaps in institutional development in Africa

Despite the importance of inclusive institutions in fostering sustainable economic growth and development, and the impressive economic progress underpinned by inclusive institutions, as discussed in the cases of Mauritius and Botswana, most sub-Saharan African States have not built strong and inclusive institutions. Van de Walle (2001) argues that a review of the political institutions in Africa can explain their current crisis. Political reform is one of the most critical requirements for development, and yet Africa is one continent where non-State actors have weak engagement (lower power), which increases government (organized interest groups) institutional power not to implement economic reforms. Because of this, African government institutions have not engaged much in policy reform despite the associated economic and social benefits.

Confronted with the chief bottlenecks to development civil war, dependence on extraction and export of natural resources, bad governance, and being landlocked[1] (Collier, 2007), African countries stand to benefit from effective and inclusive institutions that promote growth and transformation. Effective and inclusive institutions are key to unlocking the continent's potential for industrialization, innovation, technological advancement and transformation through creative destruction (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2008; 2012). Following the wave of democratization and reform in the 1980s and the 1990s in many African countries, stronger institutions for growth and transformation can be expected because designing and nurturing institutions is in the control of the people and their representatives. However, struggles exist between reformers and conservative leaders who benefit from exclusive institutions through corruption and extraction (Collier, 2007; Acemoglu and Robinson, 2012), and the corrupt tend to win (Collier, 2007) because of their connections with the political leadership and control of the judiciary and military. This calls for reforms of public institutions in order to enhance their efficiency and effectiveness in providing public services and promoting growth.

2.4. Inclusive institutional development: worthy but no easy task

Developing fully inclusive economic, political and social institutions is a long-term and learning process. Structural changes take time and require consistent engagement. Governance reforms succeed when they complement, rely on and accommodate the social institutions of excluded and historically marginalized communities (Ogbaharya, 2008). Informal client network relationships are important in this process and need to be harnessed. Both economic and political institutions need to move in the same direction in order to effect structural change. Checks and balances are required to hold leaders accountable for their actions.

This underscores the importance of progressive economic, political and social institutions and continuous reform for inclusive and lasting trans-

[1] In addition to being assumed to be at a considerable distance from the sea, landlocked countries tend to be seen as having poor and unreliable rail and road networks.

formation to occur. Lasting institutions evolve on the basis of real issues, informed and grounded by the people through consensus building and tested by harsh economic realities, political interests and social challenges (Lancaster, 1991). In that context, the global 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the continental Agenda 2063 provide important foundational issues for national governments to establish strong institutional frameworks, for their integration into national development plans, better coordination and greater public awareness. Indeed, the current global, regional and intergovernmental organizations have important impacts on institutional development pathways in developing countries. The major players in the development process of developing countries through multilateral and bilateral cooperation and partnership, for instance, are Western countries, the United Nations, African Development Bank, African Union Commission, International Monetary Fund, and World Bank. They also influence institutional development by promoting free markets, protecting property rights and adopting intellectual property rights (Chang, 2010).

The role of the media in supporting the evolution and sustainability of effective, inclusive and transparent institutions is well articulated by Acemoglu and Robinson (2012). The media help to enhance awareness and bring to the public attention proposals under discussion in key national, sectoral and subnational institutions, as well as fostering debate on the likely impacts on the public. Access to information can help strengthen accountability and diminish embezzlement in public institutions (Reinikka and Svensson, 2004; Deininger and Mpuga, 2005), with the public providing scrutiny and helping institutions to check and balance. Indeed, inclusive and open institutions are associated with participatory approaches to dialogue on issues of common concern, such as property rights, taxation, trade and transparent means of conflict resolution. This promotes the confidence of individuals and companies to invest knowing that they will benefit from the gains of their investments (Economist, 2012).

In contrast to inclusiveness, there are the controlled and extractive institutions, which are largely founded on the beckoning of a few "elites" (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2008; 2012). Such institutions lead to less progressive outcomes, due to high barriers to economic participation, limited opportunities for innovation and exploitation of talent. The overall effect is retarded growth and limited transformation. Agreement on an efficient set of institutions is often not forthcoming because of the complementarity between economic and political, as well as social institutions. The groups with political power want to continue using that power to change the distribution of resources in their favour (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2008). The reform of economic and political institutions, with a focus on fostering inclusiveness and broader participation to the benefit of all in the long run, is often beset with challenges and resistance, especially from the rent-seekers who stand to lose from change.

Research by Galli (1990) and Mamdani (1991) highlights the extent of extractive policies and how they have protected a few rent-seekers in Guinea-Bissau and Uganda. In the former, the liberalization programme that started in 1987 shifted economic power from a small State class to a slightly broader one that included merchants and concessionaires, but some of whom had connections to the State (Galli, 1990). In Uganda, following the expulsion of the Asian community in 1972, the State created and protected a small group of proprietors, the "mafuta mingi", who benefited from protectionist institutions and policies including foreign exchange controls and import licensing (Mamdani, 1991).

3. Development planning and institutional frameworks

3.1. Development planning matters, but institutions matter more

Sustained growth requires long-term commitment by political leaders, a commitment pursued with patience, perseverance and pragmatism (Commission on Growth and Development, 2008). From the 1940s and 1950s onwards, development economists identified a strong role for the State in planning for economic development and structural transformation (ECA and African Union Commission, 2011). The sustained high growth recorded in Europe after the Second World War is in part attributed to the strong role played by the State through planning (Commission on Growth and Development, 2008).[2] As noted by Chang (2010), the whole world lives in planned economies; economy-wide or sectoral planning is undertaken in virtually all countries across the world to promote inclusive and sustained growth. Given the nascent and weak institutions and market failures in developing countries, particularly in Africa, the role of development planning in fostering inclusive and transformative growth cannot be overemphasized (ECA and others, 2016).

Development planning is a collaborative effort involving public and private sector actors and includes civil society and academia, among others. Such collaboration is required in order to define the direction and best approaches to realizing national development goals. For the one and a half decades that the Millennium Development Goals were the focus of global policy debates and national planning, they were incorporated into national plans together with those of non-governmental organizations and civil society (Sachs, 2012). The framework of the Millennium Development Goals, however, did not invest adequately in long-term institutional arrangements to implement them and report progress. Achieving the goals of national visions or long-term and medium-term plans requires clear institutional arrangements to identify and hold accountable specific institutions for specific deliverables, and to identify resources required and reporting mechanisms.

Long-term comprehensive development frameworks or visions, at both the international and national levels, are crucial for inclusive and sustainable development and transformation. From the Millennium Development Goals to their successor global development framework, the Sustainable Development Goals, and the regional development frameworks, such as the continent's Agenda 2063 and national development visions, long-term planning has provided the framework for designing medium-term strategies and plans, which are critical to identifying and implementing national development goals and priorities.

While focusing on eliminating poverty, long-term development plans or visions also underscore the interdependence of key sectors of economic and social development environment, financial markets, governance, human capital, institutions, private actors and political sectors (ECA and African Union Commission, 2011); environmental sustainability can be added to that list. Development planning helps to identify national visions and goals for economic and social transformation. Planning underscores the interlinkages in economic, environmental and social dimensions of development, and the required infrastructure and governance approaches (ECA and others, 2016) to realize the goals and achieve balance between macroeconomic concerns and social, structural and institutional issues (World Bank, 2001).

[2] While many economists account for growth using the triple formula of technology, capital and human capital, the underlying sources of growth draw on advances in science, finance, trade, education, medicine, public health and government (Commission on Growth and Development, 2008).

3.2. Institutions to operationalize global and regional development frameworks

Inclusive institutions play an important role in creating equal opportunities for all and, more so, ensuring that the most vulnerable in society are not left behind as the economy and society advance (Barrett and others, 2005). As noted earlier, inclusive and transparent institutions lead to broader and sustained economic growth and development, and thus play a critical role in development planning. Strong institutions guard against systemic failure, ensure fair competition and protect property rights. States have the power and moral authority to impose regulation on industrial actors through, for example, restraining monopoly tendencies, and to influence the direction and pace of economic growth (Stigler, 1971). While big corporates can influence the regulatory framework in their favour through lobbying, small companies and individual consumers are unable to do so due to problems of collective action and low potential benefit to them. Thus, the role of inclusive institutions to moderate and regulate the actions of big corporations and correct market failures is critical, and the effects on inclusive and sustainable growth are enormous.

When adapting global and regional development frameworks and designing national development plans, it is important to consider the place and capacity of existing institutions, and the scope for establishing new ones to implement, monitor and report progress on the goals and targets. Well-coordinated institutions are key in this process. In spite of the weaknesses of some African States, including over-extension and repression (Mkandawire, 2001), they have an important role in developing, planning and addressing market failures. As noted by ECA and others (2016), inclusive planning, based on institutionalized mechanisms for stakeholder engagement, enhances sustainability and can avert social unrest by establishing and sustaining inclusiveness. Development planning provides a systematic approach to identifying, articulating, prioritizing and satisfying the economic and social needs and aspirations of a country within a given resource envelope. Planning is an essential means of achieving a country's development objectives or vision (ECA and others, 2016). Institutions provide the framework on which to coordinate, prepare, implement and report progress against the development plans. Institutions also play a critical role in "establishing the rules of the game", based on which economic and social actors play, for equitable development to occur.

Institutions establish the framework within which routine decisions are made (Wiggins and Davis, 2006), and should therefore lend themselves to participatory reform as societies evolve over time. The natural growth of populations and immigration, emergence of new information, new products and advances in technology, trade, and ways of life, demand changes in the operation of institutions and emergence of new ones.

3.3. Realizing the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063

Realizing the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and Agenda 2063 for Africa's transformation hinges on institutional capacity for planning and coordinating interventions, adequate monitoring and reporting. At the national level, the efforts of the cabinet, national parliaments, local authorities, academia, civil society, the private sector and development partners are required to ensure smooth operations and effective delivery of services, monitoring and reporting. At the regional level, a coordinated approach of the multilateral institutions (for example, United Nations, African Development Bank, African Union Commission, International Monetary Fund, World Bank) and bilateral agencies are required to ensure a harmonized approach to funding and technical support through clear division of labour. Prioritizing policy initiatives based on institutional policy analysis is required to leverage resources and ensure efficiency (ECA and others, 2016). As most African countries are at the nascent stage of their industrialization process, they require the capacity to assess the choices and options for them to analyze the impacts of policy initiatives on economic, social and environmental sustainability.

Appropriate institutional arrangements are required to coordinate and strengthen capacities for evidence-based analysis of the structural effects of key policies to balance and integrate social, economic and environmental considerations (Armah and Baek, 2016). Strong institutions are required to mobilize domestic and external resources, promote accountability to the population and for the use of resources, gather and manage data, and monitor and report progress. Currently, a number of frameworks exist to support institutional policymaking and planning to integrate the three dimensions of sustainable development: the Mainstreaming, Acceleration and Policy Support framework (United Nations Development Programme, 2015); the Policy Coherence for Sustainable Development approach (OECD, 2016); and the Integrated Green Economy Implementation Programme (UNEP, 2014). A coordinated approach to the application of these frameworks is needed to avoid duplication.

Institutional coordination among various institutional arrangements is vital in development planning. Coordination among government ministries and departments at the national level is crucial. The planning institutions have to play a coordination role – coordinating all the other sectoral ministries' agencies and local governments to design and monitor implementation of their plans, ensuring that they are aligned to the national development goals. To this end, institutions responsible for development planning require political leadership to articulate the national vision and long-term development intents or goals to the public for wider buy-in and commitment of funds to implement the plans. Identifying a leading agency (central planning agency, located, for example, in the Presidency or the Prime Minister's office or equivalent) with the authority and capacity to plan and coordinate smooth, integrated action among government actors is a plus (Olsen and others, 2014).

Coordinated action from different sectoral ministries, institutions and stakeholders at the national level (horizontal coordination) and between the national, provincial and local levels (vertical coordination) is important for success (Olsen and others, 2014; ECA and others, 2016). Vertical integration is crucial for connecting national visions with local realities (Olsen and others, 2014; Bhattacharya and others, 2016). Development planning for sustainable development is most effective when it takes into account community priorities (Berke and Conroy, 2000) requiring capacity strengthening of local government institutions to implement identified priorities.

Mapping the goals and targets of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 alongside the agencies involved in implementing them is necessary to facilitate coordination and promote accountability. Successful implementation of an inclusive agenda requires cross-government coordination and dynamic countrywide sustainable development partnerships (Steven, 2015). It is also important to have a designated government organ to act as a channel between governmental and non-governmental entities.

Lessons from the implementation framework and oversight mechanisms for national plans and international development frameworks of Rwanda (ECA and others, 2016) are a good start for many African countries. Rwanda is one of the first African countries to fully domesticate and elaborate a framework for implementing, monitoring and reporting progress on the Sustainable Development Goals. The framework defines accountability and responsibilities from the highest political level, through the technical levels to the subnational levels of government (see table 1). At the national level, the President chairs the annual leadership retreat (*Umushyikirano*) that provides overall guidance and calls for accountability. Oversight is provided by the national Parliament and the Senate, with national-level technical coordination managed by the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning. The district councils and joint action development forums manage district-level coordination and reporting. Coordination and division of labour among development partners is emphasized to avoid duplication of efforts and reduce transaction costs. Within the United Nations, for example, all support relating to the implementation of the 2030 Agenda is coordinated through the task force chaired by the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA).

Table 1: Rwanda — Institutional arrangements for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

Leadership level or organ	Role	Functions
National dialogue/the leadership retreat (*Umushyikirano*)	Strategic guidance, monitoring	Overall guidance, accountability monitoring
Senate and Parliament	Oversight and accountability	Oversight of the progress, endorsing plans and budgets, demanding accountability
Cabinet	Strategic orientation	Approval of financing and implementation plans, strategic guidance
Development Partners Coordination Group	Technical advisory	Technical advice and support to implementation
Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning	National technical coordination	Integrating SDGs in plans and budgets, monitoring and evaluating progress
Ministerial clusters	Sector coordination	Addressing cross sectoral issues
Sector working groups	Technical consultations	Forum for engaging all stakeholders, monitoring sector level
District councils, district joint action development forums	District coordination	Forum for engaging all stakeholders, monitoring district level
Sector, cell and villages	Community outreach through *Umuganda* (community engagement and volunteerism arrangement) and district administrative organs	Citizen participation and engagement forums

Source: *Sekamondo (2016).*

Countries can benefit from subnational development strategies (in addition to or as part of the national development plans), as these aid implementation of national development plans at the district and local levels, and ensure effective coordination with central authorities (Bizikova and others, 2015). This is akin to creating local agendas for national priorities, which helps to strengthen ownership among the local population. It also helps in monitoring and reviewing implementation and accountability at that level (United Nations Development Group, 2015). Establishing institutional coordination mechanisms among different levels of government to foster partnerships and to create clear channels of communication is vital. For effectiveness, institutions are needed to monitor and enforce the plans and rules set by communities or countries (Barrett and others, 2005).

The experience with the Millennium Development Goals shows that countries stand to benefit from the linkages and synergies between the goals and targets. Among the goals and targets identified in the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063, there are relative synergies and trade-offs, and different agencies will be involved in their implementation. In the 2030 Agenda, for example, Goal 1 (No poverty) and Goal 2 (End hunger) are closely linked and achieving one will be important for achieving the other. On the other hand, it is also crucial to envisage and address potential policy trade-offs, associated with, for example, expanding agricultural land towards realizing Goal 1, Goal 2 and Goal 10 (Reduced inequalities) and impacts on the environment (Goal 12 – Responsible consumption and production, Goal 13 – Climate action and Goal 15 – Protection of land).

Effective development planning requires multisectoral and stakeholder collaboration to coordinate and support collaboration among stakeholders in identifying the right priorities for national and sectoral development (Bhattacharya and others, 2016). This also helps in identifying the advantages of different institutions and the synergies of collaboration. Since the 17 goals of the 2030 Agenda and the 20 goals of Agenda 2063 are closely linked and cannot be implemented in isolation, it is important to establish institutional mechanisms for coordinating government entities (for example, interministerial working groups) and stakeholder engagement, through a sector-wide approach, for example. The three dimensions of sustainable development are interlinked and require appropriate coordination across government ministries and local governments to ensure that they are reflected in all aspects of programme and project execution.

Decentralized decision-making capacity is critical for successful delivery of the transformational agenda. Since the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 call for reduction of inequalities within countries and most of the poor segments reside in rural areas, institutional capacity and planning at local government level and cross-government coordination (between central, sectoral and local levels) will be key. Moreover, development planning for sustainable development is most effective at the local levels (Berke and Conroy, 2000). For these reasons, clear separation of duties across different levels of government as well as stronger planning capacity at local levels is imperative.

Strong and visionary leadership is needed for institutional effectiveness and translation of national plans, as well as political commitments to action for national development (Olsen and others, 2014). Sharing the vision through consistent and passionate communication, and acting upon the vision by establishing and strengthening institutions to coordinate implementation of the visions is very important for progress (Nadler and Tushman, 1990; Collins, 2001). Under these circumstances, the role of central planning is best strengthened by institutionalizing its mandate of coordinating all line ministries, commissions, agencies and local authorities responsible for each goal and the targets of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063, as well as the partners, civil society, and private sector involved in and supporting the process. The planning authority should have the capacity to convene and negotiate policy interventions, and monitor and report progress.

Independence and adequate oversight are critical. Institutions to design and implement development plans require independence to think through the national development priorities based on the current context, country comparative advantage and the vision. The independence of institutions, while maintaining the needed coordination, is key to their success (Brautigam, 1997). Accountability mechanisms with adequate checks and balances are needed so that technocrats entrusted with the power to make key decisions do not abuse this power. Implementation goes hand in hand with monitoring and evaluation, adequate reporting and timely intervention to address bottlenecks. The monitoring and evaluation function allows for review of progress, identifying factors of both success and failure and adopting corrective measures for further success. Institutional arrangements for integration of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 into national development plans need to embed strong monitoring and evaluation, data gathering and analytical capacities for sound implementation of priority goals and targets and reporting progress.

3.4. Institutions for sustainable development

The 2030 Agenda underscores climate change and environmental protection as critical to sustainable development. As an emerging industrial continent at the time when climate change and environmental protection are critical to the sustainability of the planet, Africa has an excellent opportunity to promote green industrialization for the sustainability of the continent and the world. Green industrialization, however, requires good planning and policies entrenched in coherent development strategies (ECA and others, 2016). Thus, institutional arrangements for implementation of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 need to create the environment for inclusive growth and transformation through planning for equal opportunity and protecting natural resources from destruction. Similarly, national development plans need to take into account economic, environmental and social dimensions for inclusiveness and sustainability.

Development that meets today's needs without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987) requires good planning, policies and strong institutions as well as mechanisms that promote the realization of current human needs while sustaining the life-supporting ecosystems to perpetually renew themselves (Visser, 2010). Strong institutions are needed to guide the private sector and communities in adopting strategies to meet current needs and stakeholder value, and to protect or even generate resources required for future development (International Institute for Sustainable Development and others, 1992). Sustainable development requires institutional frameworks that enable multiple pathways for supporting communities and organizations, create awareness about laws and principles for sustainable development, and establish a collaborative system of governance (Gupta, 2002).

4. Institutional arrangements for planning – country experiences in Africa

The existence of efficient institutions is fundamental and one of the first steps for a coherent and coordinated implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (ECA and others, 2016; United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2016).[3] This chapter examines the institutional arrangements that are in place in African countries to plan, implement and monitor their development process in general, and to achieve the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and the goals of Agenda 2063 in particular. The chapter draws primarily from presentations made during a regional workshop on mainstreaming the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 into national development strategies organized by the United Nations Development Programme in Johannesburg, South Africa, on 15 and 16 June 2016. The exchanges held through the ECA online platform for the community of practice of African development planners are another source of information used in this chapter. Other sources include the national development plans of the countries concerned.

Several aspects of the institutional dispositions established for sound planning are reviewed, including the entities in charge of planning and their mandates; the planning frameworks developed and their major areas of focus; the inclusiveness of the planning process; implementation strategies of planning frameworks; the integration of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 into planning frameworks; monitoring and evaluation; coordination mechanisms; and funding arrangements.

[3] ECA and others, 2016; United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2016.

4.1. Entities and institutions in charge of planning and their mandates

Countries adopt various arrangements with regard to the location of the main planning entity. In some countries the function of planning is ensured by a ministry while in others a dedicated or autonomous commission or agency is created and put under the direct supervision of the head of Government, which may be the President, Vice-President or Prime Minister. In the case of location within ministries, the denomination of the ministry in charge varies from one country to another, but in most cases the ministry has a general directorate for planning which focuses on this. Eventually, in both types of arrangements, the head of Government is the ultimate entity that spearheads development planning. The main difference between the two types of arrangements is that, unlike a ministry, a planning commission is usually a constitutionally mandated body.

Examples of countries where planning is placed under the responsibility of a ministry are Burkina Faso (Ministry of Economy, Finance and Development); Cameroon (Ministry of Economy, Planning and Regional Development); Côte d'Ivoire (Ministry of Planning and Development); Guinea (Ministry of Planning and Cooperation); Lesotho (Ministry of Development Planning); Madagascar (Ministry of Economy and Planning); Malawi (Ministry of Planning and Cooperation); and Rwanda (Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning). Within such structures, there may be a general directorate in charge of planning. That is the case in Burkina Faso and Madagascar, which have general directorates for economy and planning.

Ethiopia, Ghana, Morocco and Nigeria represent examples of countries where the function of planning is ensured by a national planning commission. In Ethiopia, for instance, that entity is anchored to the Prime Minister's Office and the head of that Commission has the rank of minister.

As far as mandates are concerned, these ministries and commissions are generally mandated to manage the design, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of development planning frameworks that have a macro or cross-sectional dimension (covering all sectors), such as long-term visions and medium-term plans, also referred to in general as national development plans. Sectoral and regional or local plans are generally handled by line ministries and regional or local authorities, respectively.

In Rwanda, for instance, the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning facilitates the implementation and monitoring of the second Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy, and the current national development plan. The National Institute of Statistics provides data for the indicators. The Prime Minister's Office is responsible for coordination of government programmes and, as such, works closely with the Ministry to ensure effective implementation and monitoring of the strategy. Oversight functions lie with Parliament, the Cabinet, and the Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy National Steering Committee.[4]

4.2. Planning frameworks and implementation strategies

Many countries operate their planning process under comprehensive development planning frameworks. Countries develop planning frameworks to provide overall strategic orientation and overarching development objectives and priorities. These may include long-term visions, and medium-term and short-term plans. The instruments may have a macroeconomic dimension in the sense that they are comprehensive and cover all or several aspects of development, or sectoral, covering specific sectors such as education, health and energy. The national development plans and their accompanying medium-term expenditure frameworks are critical instruments for the achievement of the 2030 Agenda, as are the sectoral plans and their associated sector budgets, and local development plans. Experience has shown that the more integrated planning instruments and frameworks are, the more useful they are for countries. The existence of multiple planning frameworks may indeed be detrimental to the achievement of the overarching development goal, while integration can improve implementation efficiency and effectiveness through better coordination and avoidance of duplication.

By way of illustration, Uganda currently has a Comprehensive National Development Planning Framework comprising a long-term vision, which is disaggregated into three 10-year plans that provide the overall development objectives. Each 10-year plan is accompanied by long-term expenditure frameworks and is broken down into two five-year plans also referred to as national development plans. The national development plans are linked to medium-term expenditure frameworks and are operationalized through sector master plans and strategies that provide strategic direction for five years; at the end of the chain come annual plans and budgets outlining priority activities for the year.

The planning framework of the United Republic of Tanzania consists of the Vision 2025 launched in 2000, an attendant Long-Term Perspective Plan that spans the period 2010-2025, and three five-year development plans (FYDP): FYDP I covers the period 2011-2015; FYDP II covers 2016-2020; and FYDP III covers 2021-2025. Over the period 2011-2015, the country was concurrently running two planning frameworks, that is, the Mkukuta II focusing on poverty reduction and FYDP I representing the growth and transformation agenda. This approach resulted in weak prioritization and coordination, and incoherent policies and implementation arrangements with unclear division of responsibilities in monitoring, evaluation and reporting. To redress such inefficiencies, the country developed an integrated and single planning framework for the period 2016-2020, which is FYDP II (United Republic of Tanzania, 2016).

[4] United Nations and Rwanda, 2016.

Ethiopia also took steps to ensure good alignment between two major planning frameworks, namely, its second Growth and Transformation Plan, covering the period 2016-2020 and its Climate Resilient Green Economy Strategy, adopted in 2011. The Growth and Transformation Plan is the current national development plan, which aims to realize the vision of achieving middle-income status by 2040, while the Strategy is the instrument intended to ensure environmental quality during the journey towards the vision. To avoid duplication or overlaps, the country integrated the indicators and targets of the Strategy into sectoral plans and did the same for the indicators and targets of the Growth and Transformation Plan.

4.3. Areas of focus: vision and national development plans

The long-term visions of countries are ambitious, and in several instances, they are precise as expressed in quantified or easily quantifiable terms. The long-term target of several countries is to become a middle-income country; for others, the target is to become an emerging country. The following countries share the vision of achieving middle-income status: Rwanda in 2020, the United Republic of Tanzania in 2025, Ethiopia in 2030, and Uganda in 2040. Aiming to become a middle-income country is already a precise target, yet Uganda pushes the precision further by specifying that it aims to increase per capita income to $9,500 by 2040, that is, to become an upper middle-income country.

For Côte d'Ivoire, the long-term vision is to become an industrial power by 2040, while both Senegal and Cameroon aspire to become emerging countries by 2035. National development plans also set ambitious targets, although very different from one country to another. For instance, the target of becoming an emerging country is rather a medium-term target than a long-term one for Côte d'Ivoire. Indeed, the overarching objective of its national development plan for 2016-2020 is to turn the country into an emerging one by 2020, with a solid industrial base.

The current national development plan for Rwanda is the Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy II 2013-2018. It represents one step towards the Vision 2020 by aiming at accelerating progress to middle-income status and better quality of life for all Rwandans through sustained average GDP growth of 11.5 per cent and accelerated reduction. The strategy has four major thematic areas: economic transformation, rural development, productivity and youth employment, and accountable governance.

The national development plan for Madagascar for 2015-2019 seeks to promote a modern and prosperous nation, inclusive and sustainable growth, national reconciliation, effective decentralization, democracy, rule of law and respect of human rights. The National Development Plan II 2016-2020 for Uganda, the current plan for which is the second of the six five-year plans to implement Vision 2040, has prioritized areas with greatest multiplier effects, namely agriculture, tourism, minerals, oil and gas, infrastructure and human capital development. The United Republic of Tanzania FYDP II identifies four general areas of focus: growth and transformation, human development, improving the business environment, and fostering implementation effectiveness.

In the Sudan, the Five-Year Programme for Economic Reform 2015- 2019, the current national development plan, is based on the long-term vision of the country referred to as the Quarter Century Strategy (2007-2031). Its main objectives are to ensure improvement in the living standards of all citizens, the attainment of welfare and justice, and the achievement of inclusive and balanced growth. In this context, the plan seeks to increase and direct national production towards exports. This will be realized by focusing on the transformative and extractive industries as the main driving forces for economic growth, spurred by expanding free zones and establishing economies of agglomeration. Other areas of focus include infrastructure and research and development.

4.4. Inclusiveness of planning processes

In most countries the process of design, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of the national development plan is more and more consultative and participatory, involving a variety of stakeholders. In this context, some countries have taken steps to formalize and organize the interactions of Government with other stakeholders, notably, civil society, the private sector and the donors.

In Uganda, with the participation of non-governmental organizations, the Government has developed and is operationalizing a national policy to guide and promote the partnership of Government and civil society organizations. In the context of the adoption of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, civil society in Uganda formed a 2030 Agenda reference group with over 60 core members from civil society organizations, bringing together women, young people, people with disabilities, and religious and cultural organizations. The Reference Group aims at creating awareness, advocacy, and promoting domestication of the 2030 Agenda at national and local levels. Civil society organizations, in addition, complement the Government in participatory citizen monitoring of the relevant Goals, resource mobilization and popularizing Agenda 2063 (Government of Uganda, 2016).

4.5. Integration of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 into planning frameworks

Integrating internationally agreed development goals, such as those of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063, into national planning frameworks is key to their effective and successful implementation. It ensures that adequate financial resources are dedicated to their achievement. For some countries, those regional and global development frameworks were adopted at an opportune time, coinciding with the renewal or reformulation of their national development plans. The perfect timing allowed those countries to integrate the objectives of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 into their national development plans, and to be on top of the game on that front. Countries in the same category include Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania. For each of them, the new national development plan started in 2016.

In Burkina Faso, for instance, the efforts to mainstream the 2030 Agenda into the national development plan, (*Plan national de développement économique et social 2016-2020*), went as far as establishing a table that mapped the targets of the Sustainable Development Goals to those of the Plan (Burkina Faso, 2016). A tool, referred to as rapid integration assessment (developed by the United Nations Development Group), was used to facilitate the integration process.

The United Republic of Tanzania has set itself the objective of assimilating implementation of global and regional solidarity agreements, specifically the 2030 Agenda, East Africa Vision 2050, and Agenda 2063, with the aim of mainstreaming them into national development planning and implementation frameworks. A number of Sustainable Development Goals and Agenda 2063 goals and issues that are pertinent to the second Five-Year Development Plan aspirations and in line with the priorities of the United Republic of Tanzania have been mainstreamed within the Five-Year Development Plan for 2016/2017–2020/2021 (United Republic of Tanzania, 2016).

In Uganda, the United Nations Country Team and the Government of Uganda drafting team for the National Development Plan II worked together to ensure proper alignment. As a result, chapter 3 of the Plan formally incorporates the Sustainable Development Goals as part of the development context. The proposed sub-goals were integrated into the National Development Plan II results framework and used as a platform for discussion with various stakeholders to generate a set of monitoring indicators and targets at national, sector and local government levels. Guidelines to mainstream the Sustainable Development Goals have been developed at all planning levels: sector development planning guidelines and local government development planning guidelines. A total of 76 per cent of the Sustainable Development Goals targets have been mainstreamed in National Development Plan II. A certification tool will also be used to monitor compliance of plans and budgets (Uganda, 2016).

Rwanda is currently in the process of preparing its Vision 2050 and a new national development plan, the third Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy, which will guide policy choices and actions of Rwanda from July 2018.

In this context, the country has taken a number of steps towards adapting the 2030 Agenda to its national context, starting by undertaking a gap analysis; developing and implementing a road map approved by the Cabinet; and launching a national communication campaign on the Goals and translating them into Kinyarwanda. With the support of the "One United Nations" initiative, the country conducted an exercise that assessed readiness to implement the Goals. This comprehensive exercise included a gap analysis carried out by a national consultant, which helped establish the degree of alignment of both targets and indicators between the current national development framework and the 2030 Agenda, as well as the data requirements to track progress towards Rwanda's prioritized Sustainable Development Goals.

The gap analysis and data assessment are a strategic input to inform the formulation of the new national development plan and long-term vision. In addition, through the National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda, an intensive engagement with all 16 sectors of the second Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy took place on the indicators of the Sustainable Development Goals that was expected to cascade further into discussions at each sector level in terms of what indicators are currently being measured and which are not, and how to incorporate the new indicators. The exercise provided a preliminary view of data availability with respect to the national application of the Sustainable Development Goals within the existing planning, monitoring and implementation frameworks. Next steps include coming up with a compiled list of indicators, baselines and targets per sector; determining measurability, form and timing of integration into national planning processes; further review of the lists; identifying priority targets and indicators per sector and aligning them fully to Vision 2050, the third Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy and development of the third National Strategy for the Development of Statistics; and putting in place a clear accountability framework to ensure selected indicators are clearly measured and implemented (United Nations and Rwanda, 2016).

4.6. Monitoring and evaluation

There are in general two major options for carrying out the monitoring and evaluation of regional and global goals targets and indicators. The first is to do it through existing mechanisms available for the national development plans and the second is to develop new mechanisms specifically dedicated to the "external" agendas. Most countries adopt the first option because it is more cost-effective and facilitates an integrated and coherent approach to reporting. Burkina Faso and Ethiopia, for instance, plan to use the existing arrangement for the monitoring and evaluation of their national development plans to follow up progress on the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063.

Accountability at different levels (national government, private sector, civil society, and development partners) is becoming a major feature of monitoring and evaluation and follow-up mechanisms or frameworks set up by countries. In that regard, countries have to design appropriate instruments to ensure robust and effective monitoring and evaluation systems. Uganda has a relevant national policy in place to guide monitoring and evaluation at national, sectoral and local government levels. Additionally, Uganda adopted an integrated monitoring and evaluation strategy in the second National Development Plan to coordinate and support ministries, departments and agencies, local governments and other stakeholders for the period 2015–2020. A national standard indicator list has been compiled and is aligned to the national budgeting tool. The list is itemized by goal and theme. Annual and semi-annual government performance assessment reports are prepared and discussed during government retreats of Cabinet, accounting officers and local leaders. These reports will include a chapter on progress in implementing the 2030 Agenda (Uganda, 2016).

Countries are also seeking to ensure an optimal level of integration with the various monitoring and evaluation mechanisms that exist at different levels. These mechanisms or frameworks are increasingly integrated and comprehensive to ensure both horizontal and vertical coordination with the monitoring and evaluation exercise. One lesson learned from past national development plans in Rwanda is that the lack of integration of different monitoring and evaluationsystems may be challenging and ineffective. To address this issue, the country will use an electronic integrated monitoring and evaluationsystem to ensure the integration of the different systems.

Data needed for monitoring and evaluation will come mainly from national statistics offices through household surveys and from administrative sources produced by sectoral ministries. However, it should be noted that significant work needs to be done to calculate some of the indicators from the existing data. In effect, the Sustainable Development Goals introduce many new and complex development goals such as industrialization, sustainable consumption and production, and climate change, for which no systematic measurement of progress was done in the past. An assessment made in the United Republic of Tanzania indicates that data are available for only 50 per cent of the Sustainable Development Goals indicators; this figures drops to 33 per cent in the case of Uganda, which is facing an absence of baseline data for some indicators (Uganda, 2016).

At the global level, the high-level political forum on sustainable development offers great opportunities for peer learning and cross-fertilization through exchanges on progress in the implementation of the 2030 Agenda and experience-sharing on underlying success and failure factors. The following African countries: volunteered to report on implementation of the 2030 Agenda at the high-level political forum annual meeting in 2016: Egypt, Madagascar, Morocco, Sierra Leone, Togo and Uganda.

4.7. Coordination mechanisms

Given the complex nature of the development process and the interlinkages existing between its many dimensions, coordination in government action is key to leveraging synergies when possible. The Sustainable Development Goals, for example, cover three dimensions of sustainable development, namely, economic, social and environmental. These are interlinked in such a way that action taken on one front has impacts on another. For instance, an economic strategy based on the exploitation of timber with no adequate measures to regenerate the forest may in the short term lead to higher exports and fiscal revenues, but in the medium to long term, impacts may include environmental challenges, such as deforestation and reduction of rainfall, which in turn may lead to socioeconomic problems, such as reduction of agricultural output, reduction of income of small farmers, and an increase in poverty and inequality. Mindful of the importance of coordination to achieve sustainable development, countries adopt various mechanisms and institutional arrangements to make it optimal.

Uganda has a national coordination policy to guide implementation of government policies and programmes. Based on the guidelines of the policy, a coordination framework on the Sustainable Development Goals has been established. The framework has three tier committees at political and technical levels. At the political level is the Sustainable Development Goals Policy Coordination Committee chaired by the Prime Minister with a membership of relevant ministers, ambassadors, heads of missions, and representatives of civil society and the private sector. This committee sits every six months and provides policy guidance and direction to ministries, departments and agencies on the Goals, and reviews implementation. At the technical level, there are two committees, namely the Sustainable Development Goals Implementation Coordination Steering Committee chaired by the Head of Public Service and Secretary to the Cabinet with a membership of accounting officers (permanent secretaries), technical representatives of development partners, civil society organizations and the private sector. This committee sits every four months, reviews progress and makes recommendations to the Policy Coordination Committee. The Sustainable Development Goals Technical Implementation

Coordination Committee is chaired by the permanent secretary of the Office of the Prime Minister with technical officers from Government, development partners, civil society organizations and the private sector as members. The committee meets quarterly to review reports from technical working groups for consideration by the Coordination Steering Committee. The framework is supported by five technical working groups covering the following areas: coordination, monitoring and reporting; data; planning; resource mobilization; and communication and advocacy (in the process of formulating the Framework for Advocacy and Communication Support of the Sustainable Development Goals in Uganda under the Directorate of Information and National Guidance, Office of the Prime Minister). Representatives of sectors are members of the technical working groups: for example, each ministry has a communication officer who sits on the communication and advocacy working group (Uganda, 2016).

In Rwanda, the Government has adopted a sector-wide approach and specifically sector working groups which bring together the Government, development partners, the private sector, civil society and other stakeholders within each sector under the Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy, and a national partnership group or steering committee for the National Strategy for the Development of Statistics led by the National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda. The objective is to provide more technical forums for discussion of policy, strategy and implementation at sector level, as well as statistical projects and programmes to support evidence-based decision-making, policymaking and planning processes with good quality, timely, reliable, consistent and accessible statistical information across the national statistical system (United Nations and Rwanda, 2016).

4.8. Funding arrangements

Since the resurgence of development planning in the 2000s, the situation of national development plan financing has been characterized by limited domestic resources coupled with volatile and, more recently, declining external contributions received in the form of official development assistance. And yet regardless of the quality of a plan, without adequate financial resources it cannot be implemented. In this respect, it is essential that countries develop effective resource mobilization strategies if they are to finance their development priorities and objectives as defined in their national development plans.

It is not uncommon for countries to experience funding gaps. As a result, countries adopt a number of resource mobilization strategies to fill the deficits. Besides putting emphasis on enhancing domestic resource mobilization and official development assistance, the usual sources or instruments of funding national development plans include external concessional and non-concessional loans, domestic borrowing and foreign direct investment. Newer instruments are also emerging, including resources from the diaspora, private–public partnership schemes and blended finance, which comprises a mix of official development assistance and other commercial funding sources. The issuance of treasury bills, such as Eurobonds and crowd-funding schemes, is also common.

As part of its funding strategy, Lesotho intends to promote foreign direct investment and investment by the diaspora, especially from South Africa. In addition, the Government will develop more effective strategies to mobilize more official development assistance from traditional and new sources and use available fiscal space to contract additional funds from sources such as concessional external debt, and bilateral framework agreements such as Millennium Challenge Account and South-South cooperation (Lesotho, 2012).

The cost of Ethiopia's second Growth and Transformation Plan 2016-2020 is estimated at 2.3 trillion Ethiopian birr, comprising 57.7 per cent in capital expenditures and 44.3 per cent in recurrent expenditures. Sources identified to fund the plan include domestic revenue and external grants, foreign loans and domestic borrowing (from the central bank and through the sale of treasury bills). The plan presents a funding gap of 14 per cent, of which 38.8 per cent will be financed through foreign loans and the remaining 61.2 per cent will be generated from domestic borrowing (Ethiopia, 2015).

The cost of Burkina Faso's national development plan for 2016-2020 is estimated at 15,395.4 billion CFA francs, with a funding gap equal to 36.2 per cent of that amount. To bridge the gap, the Government aims to enhance the mobilization of both domestic and external resources. At the domestic level, it will improve taxation systems, promote voluntary contributions and lotteries, and develop public–private partnerships, among others. On the external front, the Government will seek to finance the plan in a number of ways, including through concessional loans, crowd funding, treasury bills, and Eurobonds (Burkina Faso, 2016).

In Uganda, the second National Development Plan will be financed by both public and private resources, with about 57.8 per cent from Government and 42.2 per cent from private contributions. The funding strategy includes external borrowing (concessional and non-concessional), domestic borrowing, public-private partnerships, private sector financing, domestic resource mobilization and grants (although these are expected to decline) (Uganda, National Planning Authority, 2015).

The private sector may be a good partner for bridging the financial gaps of national development plan implementation. In Cameroon, for example, an organization in Nkolfolou village adopted a participatory development approach for constructing schools involving multi-stakeholder partners. The Government provided part of the required funds, and the private sector covered the remainder. In addition, the local population in the area provided land and space for the construction. In that way, everyone was involved and helped other stakeholders to take responsibility resulted in a successful partnership (ECA, 2016).

For Côte d'Ivoire's national development plan for 2016-2020, the cost of capital expenditures amounts to 30,000 billion CFA francs ($60 billion), of which 37.6 per cent is expected to be funded by the public sector and 62.4 per cent by the private sector.

International pledge conferences, organized and attended by both institutional partners, such as donor countries and private sector representatives are an effective resource mobilization strategy to implement national development plans. Several African countries organized such events in 2016 and were able to record substantial amounts of pledges. The Groupe Consultatif organized by Côte d'Ivoire in May 2016 in Paris to finance the 2016-2020 national development plan yielded $15.4 billion (*Jeune Afrique*, 2016a); the Conference du Plan National de Développement Économique et Social organized by Burkina Faso in Paris (December 2016) mobilized €12.2 billion (about $14.6 billion) in of grants and €16 billion (some $19.15 billion) in the form of investments from the private sector (*Jeune Afrique*, 2016b). The Conference Tunisia 2020 organized in November 2016 in Tunisia to fund the national development plan, 2016-2020, received pledges amounting to €14 billion (about 16.76 billion) in the form of loans, grants and debt reconversion (*Jeune Afrique*, 2016c); in November 2016, the Central African Republic, through a similar conference, mobilized €2.06 billion ($2.47 billion) for its five-year recovery plan (European Commission, 2017) aimed at tackling the effects of several years of unrest (*Jeune Afrique*, 2016d).

Box 1: Resource mobilization strategy for the National Development Plan 2012-2015 of Côte d'Ivoire

The National Development Plan 2012-2015 of Côte d'Ivoire was operationalized by developmental projects and programmes amounting to about $20.2 billion, including $10.5 billion expected from the public sector and $9.7 billion from the private sector. To mobilize resources to finance this ambitious plan, the Government organized a consultative group meeting, held in Paris on 4 and 5 December 2012, at which it set out the country's vision of development. The first day of the event was dedicated to institutional partners and the second day brought together a forum of national and international private investors. Both days recorded remarkable participation. Pledges from institutional partners amounted to twice what was expected before the meeting. These resources could finance all the public investments costed without resorting to the Government's own resources. The day dedicated to private investors was attended by over 300 investors from Africa, Asia, Europe, Middle East and North America. The investment pledges made were well above the private financing requirements anticipated in the National Development Plan.

Absorption proved slightly challenging. In terms of absorption of resources, the disbursement rate for Côte d'Ivoire was 91 per cent of the commitments received from partners. The country deemed the interventions of partners to be aligned with the priorities identified in the 2012-2015 plan. Partners allocated their resources to the various sectors as follows (Côte d'Ivoire, 2016): (i) petroleum and energy (31.4 per cent); (ii) infrastructure and transport (17 per cent); (iii) governance (17 per cent); (iv) poverty reduction (8.9 per cent); (v) agriculture and agro-industry (7 per cent); (vi) employment (6.5 per cent); (vii) sanitation (2.8 per cent); (viii) health (3.8 per cent); (ix) education (1.8 per cent); (x) tourism and services (0.6 per cent); (xi) social cohesion (0.6 per cent); (xii) entrepreneurship and small and medium-sized enterprises (0.5 per cent); (xiii) trade (0.4 per cent); (xiv) justice (0.4 per cent); (xv) industry (0.4 per cent); (xvi) mining (0.3 per cent); (xvii) water and forestry (0.3 per cent); and (xiii) environment (0.1 per cent).

Can Islamic finance be seen as a new reliable source of funding for the national development plans of African countries?

According to Jacques Assahoré Konan, director of the Ivorian Treasury, "the use of *sukuk* in the West African Economic and Monetary Union zone is linked to the growing financing needs of national development plans that conventional investments are no longer able to cover". In October 2018, Côte d'Ivoire, Senegal and Togo admitted their *sukuk* (Islamic bonds) for listing on the Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire, regional stock exchange (*Jeune Afrique*, 2016e). The Islamic bonds issued by the three member States of the West African Economic and Monetary Union enabled funds to be raised totaling $1.4 billion.

This operation, which was facilitated mainly by the Islamic Development Corporation, a subsidiary of the Islamic Development Bank based in Saudi Arabia, represents one of the largest of its kind ever carried out in the world.

Within the West African Economic and Monetary Union, Senegal was the first, in 2014, to issue a *sukuk* amounting to 100 billion CFA francs (equivalent to $180 million) over four years at an interest rate of 6.25 per cent. In 2016, Senegal experienced its second issuance of Islamic bonds for an indicative amount of 150 billion CFA francs ($270 million). Côte d'Ivoire followed suit by organizing two fundraising events via this alternative mode of financing for a total of 300 billion CFA francs ($540 million). It was divided into two tranches of 150 billion each. The first was purchased in December 2015 at 5.75 per cent over the period 2015-2020 and the second in August 2016 over the period 2016-2023 with a rate of 5.75 per cent. Togo, the most recent country to enter the Islamic bonds market, issued its first *sukuk* in July 2016, also in the amount of 150 billion CFA francs ($270 million) over 10 years, and was able to collect 156 billion CFA francs ($290 million).

With then $1.2 billion of Islamic financial obligations listed, the regional stock exchange has become the first financial centre for *sukuk* in Africa, ahead of Khartoum ($130 million) and Tunis ($6.25 million). The Central Bank of West African States is therefore working for the adoption of a law regulating Islamic finance by 2017 (*Jeune Afrique*, 2016e).

4.9. Evolution of development planning institutions in South Africa

4.9.1 Context

The implementation of South Africa's development objectives has been both challenging and informative. Over a period of just 22 years, development planning has evolved from the Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994–1996), to the Growth, Employment and Redistribution programme (1996–2005), then to the Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa (2005–2008), and subsequently the New Growth Path (2010-date) and the long-term vision framework called the National Development Plan (2013–2030).

4.9.2 Evolution of planning in South Africa

1994-1996: The era of the Reconstruction and Development Programme

At independence in 1994, the Government of South Africa under President Nelson Mandela undertook the challenging task of realigning national development planning from an apartheid programme towards the implementation of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (South Africa, 1994). The Programme, while focused on economic growth, aimed to address injustices of the past, namely, to redress the inequality in all spheres and to alleviate mass poverty. The objective was to radically transform production and distribution processes of national resources into a system that propagates equality between beneficiaries of the former apartheid system and the marginalized majority of South Africans. Among other things, the Programme sought to redirect national resources in order to address massive backlogs of basic socioeconomic services (for example, housing, water, electricity and sanitation) in areas previously excluded under apartheid.

A Special Cabinet Committee on the Reconstruction and Development Programme was established, coordinated by a minister without portfolio (in the Presidency) to ensure consistency between the sectoral development plans (short and medium-term) of line ministries and the objectives of the Programme. No departmental development projects were to be funded from the National Treasury without input and approval of the Special Cabinet Committee. The National Treasury was strengthened with an elaborate macroeconomic team, which developed a general equilibrium macroeconomic model to guide the Programme towards sustainable growth.

1996-2005: The era of the Growth, Employment and Redistribution programme

In 1996, a new development framework guided by growth trajectories from the macroeconomic model was instituted. It was called the Growth, Employment and Redistribution programme (South Africa, Department of Finance, 1996). The role of the Treasury was redirected from its primary focus on assessing the budgetary implications of development projects to evaluating the consistency and coherence of such projects with the development framework. In effect, the National Treasury assumed the role of the Special Cabinet Committee established during the Reconstruction and Development Programme era.

The Growth, Employment and Redistribution programme delivered in terms of real GDP growth, however, the benefits were not broad-based. Rapid growth was not associated with commensurate declines in unemployment. By 2005, the official unemployment rate remained high at 23.8 per cent and access to social services was limited even though the economy was growing at a promising rate of 5.3 per cent.

2005-2008: The era of the Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa

With mounting pressure from social partners (that is, trade unions and civic organizations), the Government adopted a new development framework called the Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa, which largely retained the key elements of the Growth, Employment and Redistribution programme but with a greater focus on investment (such as foreign direct investment) and private sector participation in the country's development programme (South Africa, The Presidency, 2005).

Strategic planning under the Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative was retained in the Presidency with macroeconomic modelling at the National Treasury. The Cabinet Committee for Investment and Employment was accorded the responsibility of implementing, monitoring and evaluating the Initiative at executive level.

The implementation of the Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative was, however, short-lived. Following the 2008 global financial crisis, real GDP growth declined from a high of 5.6 per cent in 2006 to 3.2 per cent in 2008. Gross fixed capital formation declined from a high of 13.8 per cent in 2007 to 12.8 per cent in 2008. The official unemployment rate remained high at around 22 per cent during the period 2006-2008.

New Growth Path: 2010-present

The New Growth Path adopted in 2010 aimed at generating more decent jobs, reducing poverty and accelerating economic growth (South Africa, Economic Development Department, 2010). During this period, the role of the National Treasury's macroeconomic model, which had guided the selection of development projects for the Growth, Employment and Redistribution programme and the Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative, was reduced to simply ensuring consistency in budgetary allocations. The removal of development planning guidance from the National Treasury's macroeconomic model created a massive vacuum for coherent development planning and forecasting among all other government departments.

National development planning responsibilities were shifted to the Department of Trade and Industry, and three newly established components: the Department of Economic Development, Central Planning Commission, and Department of Monitoring and Evaluation. The Department of Economic Development launched the New Growth Path in 2010, the Department of Trade and Industry launched the Industrial Policy Action Plan in 2010, while the National Development Plan was unveiled by the National Planning Commission in 2012.

The New Growth Path targeted the creation of 5 million jobs from 2010 to 2020 through massive infrastructure investment in: (a) agriculture, mining and manufacture; (b) energy, transport, housing and communication; and (c) tourism and the green economy.

The National Development Plan offers a longer term vision (up to 2030) of the creation of inclusive economic growth, decent work, reduced inequality and defeating poverty. All short- and medium-term national development plans are expected to be aligned with the Plan targets set up for 2030.

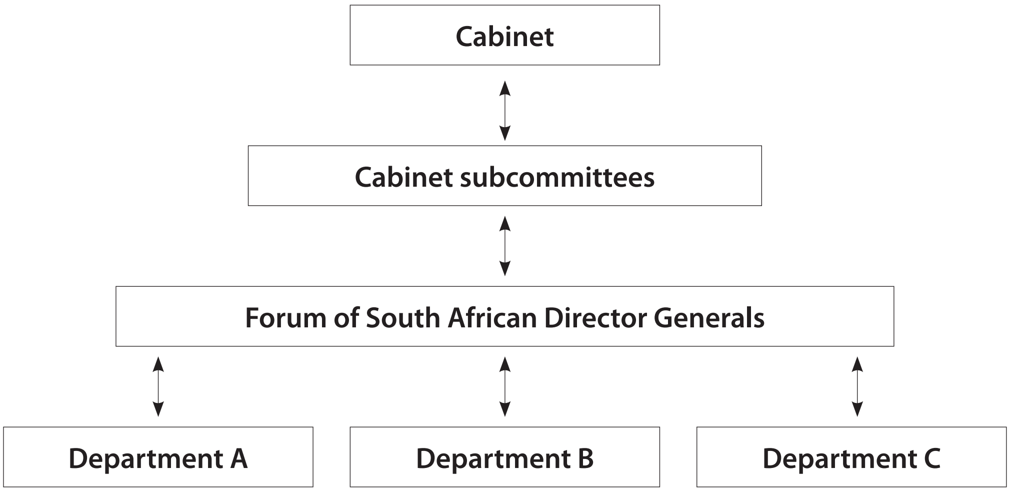
The Department of Monitoring and Evaluation, resident in the Presidency, instituted an outcomes-based monitoring approach intended to ensure that government programmes and objectives, outlined throughout various government departments, are efficiently and effectively implemented.

Key institutional actors in planning

Since independence in 1994, strategic national development planning has been centralized in Cabinet and its committees. National planning decisions then filtered through heads of government departments (Director Generals) for implementation by their respective departments. Figure I shows the main structure through which strategic national development objectives are discussed, transformed into policies and implemented through different government departments. The operation of the structure in figure I has varied since 1994.

The Ministry without Portfolio, resident in the Presidency, was established to monitor and ascertain the implementation of the Reconstruction and Development Programme. Following President

Figure I: Main decision-making structure



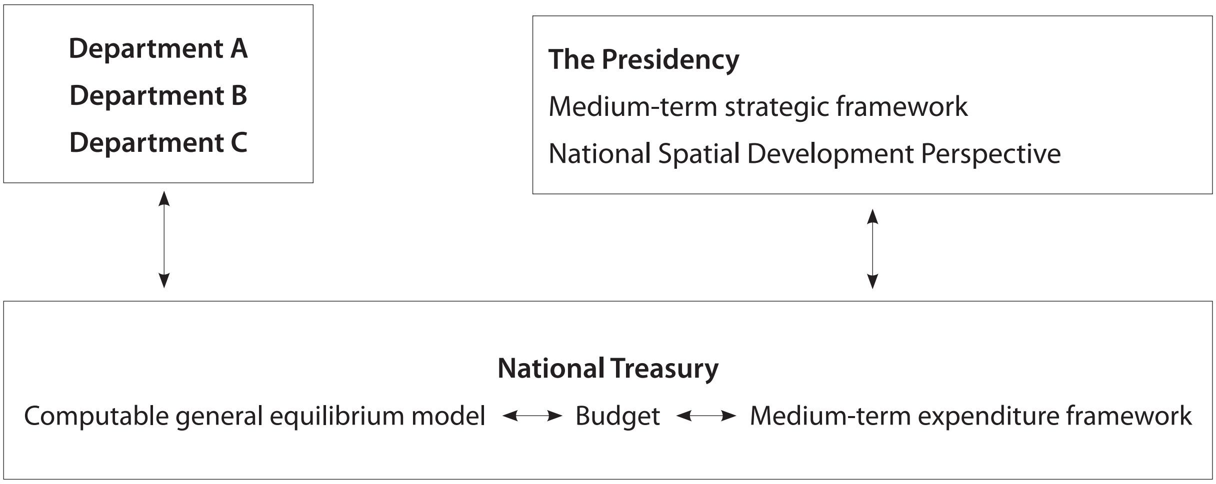
Mbeki's inauguration in 1999, the Ministry without Portfolio was collapsed and Cabinet subcommittees streamlined into sector Cabinet clusters committees in 2000 for more focused decision-making on the Growth, Employment and Reconstruction programme. The clusters comprised: (a) international relations, peace and security; (b) investment and employment; (c) justice, crime prevention, peace and security; (d) governance and administration; (e) economic sector; and (f) social sector. Similarly, the Forum of Director Generals formed five subcommittees that were aligned to the Cabinet cluster committees, respectively.

While the clusters constituted the centre of coordinated development planning in the 1996-2008 period, the National Treasury was central in assessing the contribution of development projects towards the Growth, Employment and Reconstruction programme and the overall sustainability of the country's growth path. Figure II depicts the role of the National Treasury under that programme. With inputs from all government departments for budgetary purposes, the National Treasury used a computable general equilibrium macroeconomic model to forecast pathways to the realization of programme targets on a broad range of macroeconomic indicators such as economic growth, investment, employment and trade or budget deficits. The National Treasury's model guided the development of policies through various "what if" planning scenarios, the drafting of annual budgets and the drafting of the medium-term expenditure framework of Government as a whole.

South Africa institutionalized mechanisms to align and coordinate national development plans with spatial planning processes. In 2003, Cabinet adopted a comprehensive National Spatial Development Perspective (South Africa, The Presidency, 2003). These national spatial guidelines sought to consciously transform apartheid spatial and geographical patterns of development in line with development objectives adopted after 1994. The National Spatial Development Perspective guides national investment and development programmes in terms of geographical space. Provinces and municipalities developed similar spatial structures to enhance consistency across all tiers of Government.

During that time, there were substantive calls for a review of treasury powers and the decentralization of the National Treasury's power. Three new government departments or entities were introduced: the National Planning Commission resident in the Presidency for the development of a long-term plan (that is, Vision 2030) for the country; the Department of Economic Development to provide medium-term economic growth programmes; and the Department of Monitoring and Evaluation, resident in the Presidency, to oversee implementation of all government programmes.

Figure II: Planning institutions in South Africa



In his second term, beginning in 2014, the President merged the National Planning Commission with the Department of Monitoring and Evaluation resulting in the Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation. Government ministries were also reconstituted in five Ministerial Cabinet Clusters: Economic sector, employment and infrastructure development; Governance and administration; Social protection, community and human development; International cooperation, trade and security; and Justice, crime prevention and security.

The Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation is custodian of the overall long-term vision and objectives of the country, that is, the National Development Plan. The National Development Plan, launched in 2013, presents broad socio-economic targets that South Africans aspire to achieve by 2030. Short- and medium-term development plans by all government departments should, over time, be aligned with the objectives contained in the National Development Plan for 2030.

The Department is also responsible for the development and propagation of the outcomes approach through all government departments and monitoring implementation of the objectives of government, drawn from the Medium-Term Strategic Framework. The approach seeks to enhance efficiency (that is, do more with less) among all government departments in the implementation of government projects. Monitoring is based not only on output, but also on expected outcomes and their intended social impact. The top twelve outcomes were initially outlined in the 2009 administration and extended to the following outcomes in 2014.

(a) Improved quality of basic education;

(b) A long and healthy life for all South Africans;

(c) All people in South Africa are and feel safe;

(d) Decent employment through inclusive economic growth;

(e) A skilled and capable workforce to support an inclusive growth path;

(f) An efficient, competitive and responsive economic infrastructure network;

(g) Vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities with food security for all;

(h) Sustainable human settlements and improved quality of household life;

(i) A responsive, accountable, effective and efficient local government system.

Despite more direct efforts towards the planning and monitoring of outcomes, economic conditions degenerated from around 2011 to around 2014. Real GDP growth declined from a high of 3.3 per cent in 2011 to 1.6 per cent in 2014; gross fixed capital formation from 55 per cent in 2011 to 15 per cent in 2014; while the official unemployment rate increased from 24.8 per cent in 2011 to 25.1 per cent in 2014. During the 2015 State of the Nation address a nine-point plan was announced to revitalize economic performance:

(a) Revitalizing agriculture and the agroprocessing value chain;

(b) Adding value to our mineral wealth (advancing beneficiation and support to the engineering and metals value chain);

(c) More effective implementation of a higher impact Industrial Policy Action Plan;

(d) Unlocking the potential of small, medium and micro enterprises, cooperatives and township enterprises;

(e) Operation Phakisa (including oceans economy, mining, health, tourism and basic education);

(f) Encouraging private sector investment;

(g) Resolving the energy challenge;

(h) Moderating workplace conflict;

(i) State reform and boosting the role of state-owned companies, information and communications technology infrastructure or broadband roll-out, water, sanitation and transport infrastructure.

4.9.3 Present development planning framework

Industrial Policy Action Plan

The Industrial Policy Action Plan is one of the major outputs of the Department of Trade and Industry. Its major objectives are to accelerate gross national output and employment. Cabinet adopted the National Industrial Policy Framework in 2007 and subsequently endorsed the Action Plan in 2007 as a comprehensive approach to South Africa's industrialization programme. The Industrial Policy Action Plan consolidates the ad hoc industrial policy initiatives undertaken since 1994. The programme focuses on stimulating a number of industrial sectors, for example, the following: automotive; chemicals, plastic fabrication and pharmaceuticals; forestry, pulp, paper and furniture; transport equipment and metal fabrication; clothing and textile; and tourism (South Africa, Department of Trade and Industry, 2007).

New Growth Path

The New Growth Path released in 2010 seeks to create decent work, reduce inequality and defeat poverty. The main thrust of the plan is to restructure the South African economy so that it has increased labour absorption capacity and the revamped economy grows at a much higher rate. The growth path planned to create 5 million jobs by 2020 through massive public investment in infrastructural development for energy, transport, communication, water and housing. Jobs would be created for construction, maintenance and operations of the infrastructure as local industries expand given the envisaged scale of infrastructural development.

Other major job creation strategies of the New Growth Path include: (a) greening the economy through the promotion of green technologies such as solar, wind and biofuels; (b) transforming agriculture through curbing high capital input costs, promoting agricultural processing and exports; (c) large-scale promotion of beneficiation of mining output; (d) promotion of skills development, innovation and efficiency (that is, reduced input costs); and (e) the promotion of tourism (South Africa, Department of Economic Development, 2010).

National Treasury

The role of the National Treasury in development planning has since 2009 been primarily limited to the collection of tax revenues through the South African Revenue Service and budgeting for development projects as approved through Cabinet and its clusters. In effect, the National Treasury no longer has the mandate of ensuring alignment of development projects with national objectives. The macroeconomic model of the National Treasury is primarily used to evaluate the overall macroeconomic implications of government expenditure and make budgetary forecasts for five-year term periods (i.e. the Medium-Term Expenditure Framework).

Government departments implement, in accordance with their respective mandates, the National Development Plan, New Growth Path, and the Industrial Policy Action Plan including the National Spatial Development Perspective that emanates from the Presidency. The plans provide guidance for sector plans. They also provide guidance for provincial, municipal and spatial plans through the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs.

National objectives cascade into subnational planning structures. The National Council of Provinces, one of the houses of Parliament, ensures consistency between national and provincial objectives. Each of the country's nine provinces has six permanent delegates in the Council and four special delegates consisting of the premiers (that is, the political head of the province) and three other members from the provincial legislature. Also included in the Council are 10 delegates from the South African Local Government Association. Among the major development planning products from provincial governments are the provincial growth and development strategies and the provincial spatial development plans that frame provincial conditions alongside national development planning objectives.

The South African Local Government Association is mandated to ensure consistency between national, provincial and municipal development objectives. Legislative representatives from all municipalities vote to constitute provincial executive committees and a national executive committee of the Association; these consist of municipal mayors. The Association has eight directorates, including the economic development and planning directorate which accounts for development plans from all municipalities. The directorate oversees the development and implementation of programmes, such as integrated development plans, local economic development plans and spatial development plans, all of which link local conditions with the national development planning framework.

5. Conclusions and policy recommendations

This present study evaluates the evolution, working and impacts of economic, social and political institutions in Africa. It underscores the importance of establishing adequate institutional arrangements for adaptation and coordination of international and regional development frameworks such as the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063.

The study argues that inclusive and participatory institutions are most conducive for broad-based economic dynamism, growth, innovation and technological development, as demonstrated by the experiences of different countries. Initial conditions and exposure to the rest of the world affect the functioning of institutions and their impacts on economic development. Differences in the historical evolution of institutions explain differences in economic, political and social conditions across the world. The responses by the political leadership to concerns of the population regarding the functioning and effects of economic, political and social institutions can lead to different paths of institutional formation. This in turn affects growth and equality in various aspects of society, which has impacts on the evolution and sustainability of political and socioeconomic institutions.

The importance of open and transparent institutions for inclusive and sustainable growth and development cannot be overstated. Most institutions in Africa are still at the nascent level of development and can benefit from continued nurturing. They need to continuously lend themselves to participatory reform and strengthening as new information emerges, technology advances and populations change. Strong institutions are needed for better coordination of development plans, awareness creation, resource mobilization and accountability if Africa is to benefit from the global and regional development frameworks and efforts.

An examination of the links between institutions and development planning underscores that although development planning is important for development, success is more sustainable when institutions are inclusive and transparent. Thus, such institutions are required to facilitate the integration of global and regional development frameworks in national development plans and coordinate implementation.

The importance of institutional coordination among government ministries and departments at the national, provincial and local levels is underscored. Implementation of the development agenda requires a coordinated and transparent system with monitoring and evaluation, with timely reporting and interventions to address problems.

The theoretical discussions in the first three chapters are underpinned with some case studies in Chapter 4. The planning function can be located either within a ministry or an autonomous commission or agency. In either cases, the planning function needs to report to the head of Government.

Some African countries, particularly those whose planning cycles coincided with the commencement of the Sustainable Development Goals, have initiated the process of integrating the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 into their national development frameworks. Some have used integration tools designed by the United Nations.

African countries have very clear development objectives and recognize the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 as important frameworks to guide them towards these objectives and targets.

Some countries are well advanced in the establishment of the institutional frameworks to implement the 2030 Agenda and the Agenda 2063. The mechanisms adopted vary from one country to another which is an advantage for peer learning and experience sharing. An example of efforts to institutionalize the participatory feature of the planning process is noted in Uganda's policy to guide and promote partnership of Government and civil society organizations.

The monitoring and evaluation function is critical in achieving developments goals. It enables countries to assess their progress, identify sources of success and failure, and adopt corrective measures for improvement. The development of institutions for monitoring and evaluation of the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063 is emerging but more needs to be done.

Countries such as Burkina Faso and Ethiopia undertake the monitoring and evaluation of the regional and global development frameworks through existing mechanisms. Accountability at different levels (private sector, civil society, and development partners) is becoming a major feature of national monitoring and evaluation frameworks. Some countries integrate the different monitoring and evaluation mechanisms at various levels, to ensure horizontal and vertical coordination of the exercise. Rwanda, for example, intends to use an electronic integrated monitoring and evaluation system to ensure the integration of the different systems.

Coordination of the different entities involved in the design, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of the national development plans and programmes or policies, is very important if countries are to take advantage of synergies, maximize impacts and also minimize risks of duplication. It also helps to optimize the use of human and financial resources. Countries set up specific institutional mechanisms for appropriate coordination of actions by Government and partners. Rwanda, for example, is using a sector-wide approach to bring together government and non-government actors for discussion of policy, strategies, and programmes and projects targeted to operationalize the implementation of national development plans, the 2030 Agenda and Agenda 2063.

The South Africa case study exemplifies strong coordination between spatial and strategic planning. It also reveals coordination gaps between sector plans and national development frameworks. Unlike the era of the Growth, Employment and Redistribution programme, there is currently no clear mechanism to fully align departmental and sectoral plans to the medium-term development objectives of the New Growth Path and the long-term objectives of the National Development Plan.

The analysis also notes a decline in the use of modelling for development planning and policymaking. Modelling capacities tend be located in very few national departments, and increasingly isolated following the curbing of the dominance of the Treasury under the Growth, Employment and Redistribution programme. Consequently, modelling capacities and tools need to be developed and adopted (such as macroeconomic and Threshold 21 models) to ensure policy coherence and consistency with the country's development objectives.

Funding is key for effective implementation and attainment of development goals. In the face of serious funding gaps, countries resort to different instruments and devise various resource mobilization strategies to cover the financial needs of their national development plans. Among the usual sources and instruments of funding national development plans are efforts to enhance domestic resource mobilization and official development assistance; external concessional and non-concessional loans; domestic borrowing and foreign direct investment. Newer instruments are also emerging now, including: resources from the diaspora; private-public partnership schemes; treasury bills such as Eurobonds; Islamic bonds referred to as sukuk; and crowd-funding schemes. With regard to strategies for resource mobilization, the organization of international conferences — where both institutional partners and private investors make pledges— continues to prove useful.

Policy recommendations

The study stresses that accountable and transparent institutions are required for inclusive and sustainable economic growth in Africa. Integrating the global and continental development goals and targets can only be feasible with strong institutions. Building these institutions is not an easy matter and in many African countries most of the institutions are weak. Thus, we recommend some steps that can be taken to build capable and inclusive institutions for effective implementation of the global and continental agendas.

- Strengthen capacities for the harmonization of international development agendas so as to appreciate their complementarity and potential synergies.

- Improve capacities for the integration of international development agendas in national development plans. This ensures coherence and minimizes duplication in the integration process. There are currently a number of tools that can facilitate the integration process including ECA's Integrated Planning and Reporting software.

- Promote inclusive and sustainable implementation of both agendas by creating institutionalized platforms for continual citizens' engagement in the design, implementation and follow-up process.

- Capacitate and empower central planning entities to coordinate implementation and follow-up of the two Agendas. In this context, some countries have combined the Budget functions with planning to forge stronger links between development priorities and fiscal allocations.

- Strengthen capacities for evidence based policymaking. This requires improving the capacity of planners to simulate policy impacts and trade-offs using existing modelling tools.

- Strengthen capacities and systems for data generation and management to lay the foundation for evidence-based policymaking and to ensure a more robust follow-up and reporting process. In this context, National statistical offices should complement traditional data sources (e.g. household surveys) with administrative and big data sources to strengthen the data ecosystem.

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