



POLICIES AND INSTITUTIONS

Safeguarding human capital during and beyond COVID-19



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Executive Summary

- ▶ The 2020 Africa Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) report covers the period from January to December 2019. The addition of Somalia brought the number of the region's International Development Association (IDA)—eligible countries to 39. The overall CPIA score for the region's 39 IDA-eligible countries came in at 3.1, the same as in the previous three years, in a context of moderating per capita growth.
- ▶ The average scores for most of the CPIA clusters trended down in 2019. While the average score for the economic management cluster was unchanged from last year's assessment, the average scores for the other three clusters—structural policies, social inclusion, and public management and institutions—declined, indicating that the quality of policies and institutions in the region's IDA countries weakened in 2019.
- ▶ The weakening of structural policies was reflected in the decline in the quality of trade policy, uneven improvements in the regulations affecting factor and product markets, and further deterioration of the financial sector performance. In the area of social inclusion, many countries experienced a decrease in the quality of service delivery that affects access to and quality of health and education services. In the broader area of governance, limited progress was made in strengthening property rights, and transparency and accountability. In addition, the quality of public administration declined, and financial management systems and revenue mobilization capacity weakened in many countries.
- As Table ES.1 illustrates, the gains were mostly in the areas of economic management and environmental sustainability. Although debt sustainability remained a concern, fiscal policy improved along with debt management capacity. The institutions for environmental sustainability also strengthened, notably in the areas of public access to information, environmental assessment, and coordination.
- ▶ Fragile countries underperformed non-fragile countries across all the CPIA clusters. The quality of their monetary and exchange rate policies and debt management was weaker, trade policy reforms were slower, and businesses continued to operate in poorer regulatory environments. Similarly, fragile countries largely underperformed non-fragile countries on the governance front, including the protection of property rights, domestic revenue mobilization, quality of public administration, and transparency and accountability. Fragile countries gained most in the area of social inclusion, especially on building human resources and equity of public resource use, although they substantially lagged non-fragile countries on these dimensions. The scores of fragile countries were also weaker on gender equality and environmental sustainability.
- As a group, IDA-eligible countries in Sub-Saharan Africa trailed IDA countries in other regions across all four clusters of the CPIA. However, the region's fragile IDA countries performed better than fragile countries in other regions on social inclusion and equity policies. Also, the region's non-fragile IDA countries had a higher average score on structural policies than other non-fragile countries, due to their stronger performance on the business regulatory environment.

- ▶ The 2019 CPIA assessments provide a view of the policies and institutions of the region's IDA countries at the outset of the COVID-19 pandemic. Most countries entered the COVID-19 crisis on a weak footing. While macroeconomic stability was broadly maintained, debt vulnerabilities remained elevated and the pace of structural reforms had slowed. The quality of national policies and health service delivery had weakened in many countries, indicating a low level of preparedness for a health crisis. Social protection systems remained limited in their coverage and ability to reach the poor and vulnerable groups. In this context, a broader concern is that disruptions in the delivery of essential services, caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, could slow down, or even reverse, gains in human capital, which will be detrimental to future productivity and welfare. In many countries, weak domestic revenue mobilization had constrained the creation of fiscal space needed to finance the critical pandemic-related spending for health services and social safety nets, while financial management systems remain insufficiently strong to ensure the transparent use of public resources.
- ▶ The COVID-19 outbreak has underscored the need for the region's IDA countries to take action to (i) strengthen health systems, (ii) protect human capital, (iii) strengthen public sector governance, and (iv) implement structural reforms to boost productivity.
 - Strengthening health systems. Governments need to reinforce public health capabilities and infrastructure to meet immediate health needs while improving preparedness for pandemics. In 2019, the median Global Health Security Index for the Africa region was 30.8, well below the worldwide median of 40.2. The region's low Health Security Index calls for measures to increase the human and technical capabilities of public hospitals, increase the number of hospital beds, and reinforce the capacity for disease surveillance and detection. As the COVID-19 pandemic has demonstrated, it would also be critical to ensure the continuity of basic health services such as vaccination coverage, malaria admissions, and reproductive health care, as well as non-health services such as water and sanitation.
 - Protecting human capital. Beyond health, disruptions to children's schooling, such as the school closures caused by the COVID-19 outbreak, combined with a loss of incomes, could slow down or reverse human capital gains. Vulnerable groups are likely to be most affected. To prevent these effects, governments would need to implement measures to accelerate learning by building more equitable and resilient education systems that enable children to learn continuously both in schools and at home. Protecting vulnerable groups would entail ensuring that social protection systems can flexibly adapt to rapidly changing needs. Cash transfers would be needed to reach the poorest and most vulnerable groups, including those in the informal sector, to help maintain adequate income levels and access to basic services. Digital technologies can provide a solution for the disbursement and expansion of social assistance to individuals and households. Protecting human capital is the focus of this year's CPIA report.
 - Strengthening public sector governance. Good governance would be critical to ensure effective delivery of public services. Governments need to strengthen core public administration capacity to lead and communicate with citizens and businesses. Efficient cash management to pay for priority services with a process for integrity and transparency needs to be developed. The rapid response to the pandemic has heightened corruption risks and

- exposed weak procurement systems. Measures such as asset declarations and conflict of interest legislation could help mitigate corruption risks. Procurement strategies that involve the use of international entities that offer transparency will also need to be developed.
- Sustaining productivity-enhancing reforms. These reforms are needed to ensure a steady pace in economic recovery. They include encouraging the reallocation of resources toward more productive sectors, expanding trade, fostering technology adoption and innovation, and promoting a growth-friendly macroeconomic and institutional environment. In addition, raising the quality and effectiveness of governance and improving the business climate would encourage a faster rebound from disasters. Governments that improve labor and product market flexibility, strengthen legal and justice systems and property rights, foster effective competition, and build fiscal space will set the foundation for more effective adjustment to adverse events.

Table ES.1. Changes in the CPIA 2019 Score, by Indicators

| CPIA indicators | Number of increases in score | Number of decreases in score |
|--|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Economic Management | | |
| Debt Policy & Management | 4 | 2 |
| Fiscal Policy | 2 | 0 |
| Monetary & Exchange Rate Policies | 1 | 1 |
| Structural Policies | | |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 5 | 5 |
| Trade | 3 | 3 |
| Financial Sector | 1 | 4 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | | |
| Building Human Resources | 3 | 7 |
| Polices and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 5 | 1 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 2 | 2 |
| Social Protection & Labor | 1 | 2 |
| Gender Equality | 1 | 1 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | | |
| Quality of Budgetary & Financial Management | 5 | 5 |
| Efficency of Revenue Mobilization | 1 | 6 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3 | 3 |
| Property Rights & Rule-Based Government | 2 | 1 |
| Transparency, Accountablity, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2 | 0 |

Source: CPIA database.

Introduction

CPIA Africa is the annual report prepared by the Office of the Chief Economist for the Africa Region to review the progress International Development Association (IDA)—eligible countries in Sub-Saharan Africa are making on strengthening the quality of their policies and institutions. The report draws on Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) scores to assess the extent to which the policies and institutions of the region's IDA countries foster sustainable growth, poverty reduction, and effective utilization of development resources. The CPIA scores measure the level of performance of each country against 16 criteria that represent the various policy and institutional arrangements of an effective poverty reduction and growth strategy (appendix A provides a description of the CPIA criteria). All countries are rated on a scale between 1 and 6, with higher scores denoting stronger policy and institutional frameworks. As such, the 2019 CPIA exercise offers a unique perspective on the quality and effectiveness of the policies and institutions of the region's IDA countries prior to the COVID-19 outbreak. The special focus of this year's report—safeguarding human capital—highlights the need for the region's IDA countries to strengthen their health systems and protect people's livelihoods and access to essential services in health and education.

The CPIA scores underpin the IDA resource allocation process. With 39 of the world's 75 IDA countries, Sub-Saharan Africa has the largest number of countries that rely on IDA financing to help boost economic growth and improve their population's living conditions. The annual CPIA exercise is therefore singularly important for these countries as the resulting CPIA scores are used in the performance-based allocation formula of IDA resources to IDA-eligible countries.

The report is organized into four sections. Section 1 reviews recent economic developments in the region's IDA countries, focusing on key macroeconomic outcomes in 2019, including real gross domestic product growth, the current account balance, inflation, fiscal positions, and public debt. In interpreting these outcomes, a distinction is made between oil exporters, industrial metals exporters, and non-resource-intensive countries. The special topic is developed in section 2. Section 3 presents the results of the 2019 CPIA exercise. The CPIA scores are analyzed by clusters and criteria, as well as by countries and across regions, distinguishing between fragile and non-fragile countries. The individual country CPIA pages are presented in section 4.

Section 1: Recent Economic Developments in IDA Countries

ECONOMIC RECOVERY CONTINUED AT A MODERATE PACE

Average real gross domestic product (GDP) growth in IDA countries in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2019 is estimated to have reached 3.4 percent, slightly less than the 3.5 percent growth achieved in 2018 (figure 1). The moderating pace of economic growth reflected, on the demand side, a slowdown in private consumption and gross fixed capital formation amid fiscal consolidation and, on the supply side, a slowdown in industry due to falling commodity prices (figure 2). Modest growth in Nigeria—the region's largest economy—and among other resource-intensive countries continued to weigh on the average growth of the region's IDA countries.

The Nigerian economy grew by 2.5 percent year-on-year in 2019Q4, its strongest expansion since 2015, supported by stable oil production and strong growth in the financial and insurance industries. This performance brought real GDP growth in 2019 to 2.3 percent, up from 1.9 percent in 2018, but still far below the country's average growth of 6 percent over 2010–14. Growth

GDP growth in Figure 1: Real GDP Growth (%) 2019 moderated among IDA 6 countries in 5 Sub-Saharan 4 Africa. 3 2 0 -1 -2 -3 SSA IDA SSA IDA SSA IDA SSA IDA non-resourcecountries oil exporters mineral exporters rich countries **■** 2016 **■** 2017 **■** 2018 **■** 2019 Source: World Bank. Figure 2: Commodity Prices IDA countries faced falling Index, 2010 = 100 commodity prices in 2019. 160 140 120 100 80 60 40 May-11

Sep-11

Sep-12

Sep-12

Sep-13

Sep-13

Jan-13

Jan-14

Jan-15

Sep-16

Jan-17

Jan-17

Jan-17

Jan-17

Jan-18

May-18

Sep-16

Jan-17

Jan-17

Jan-18

May-18

Sep-17

Jan-18

May-18

Sep-17

Jan-18

May-18

Sep-17

Jan-19

Jan-19 Energy — Metals — Agriculture — Crude oil, Brent Source: World Bank.

was mixed among other oil exporters. In Chad, growth is estimated to have picked up to 3.2 percent in 2019, from 2.4 percent in 2018, helped by higher oil production and agricultural output. After four consecutive years of economic contraction, South Sudan saw growth rebound in 2019 as oil production recovered amid a peace agreement that reduced the level of hostilities in several parts of the country. However, in the Republic of Congo, the largest oil producer in the Central African Economic and Monetary Community, economic activity contracted in 2019 as maturing oil fields weighed on oil production.

Among industrial metals exporters, growth weakened in many countries in 2019. Industrial metals prices fell amid slowing global demand and trade tensions.

The exception was the price of iron ore, which rose strongly, boosted by supply shortages and rising demand from China. In this context, growth slowed markedly in some countries as mining production fell (the Democratic Republic of Congo and Guinea) and contracted in others due to mine closures (Liberia). However, countries that benefited from higher iron ore prices saw a pickup in activity (Mauritania and Sierra Leone).

Among non-resource-intensive countries, growth remained solid in the West African Economic and Monetary Union (WAEMU) and East African Community (EAC) countries, supported by public and private investment. Growth averaged 6.3 percent in the WAEMU area, led by Côte d'Ivoire, and 6.0 percent in EAC, driven by Ethiopia and Rwanda.

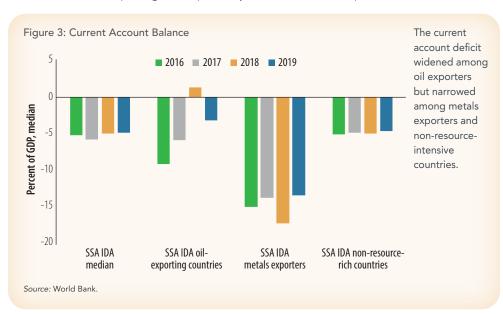
However, several countries—the Comoros, Mozambique, Sudan, and Zimbabwe—experienced a marked deceleration in growth due to extreme weather events and political crises. In the Comoros, growth almost halved after Tropical Cyclone Kenneth destroyed agricultural production. In Mozambique, real GDP growth weakened to a historical low as tropical cyclones coupled with mounting security challenges depressed domestic demand. In Zimbabwe, a drought followed by Cyclone Idai disrupted agricultural production and electricity supply, while triple-digit inflation and policy tightening dampened private consumption and investment, causing the economy to contract sharply. In Sudan, the recession that started in 2018 deepened amid deteriorating macroeconomic imbalances, a poor business environment, and political uncertainty.

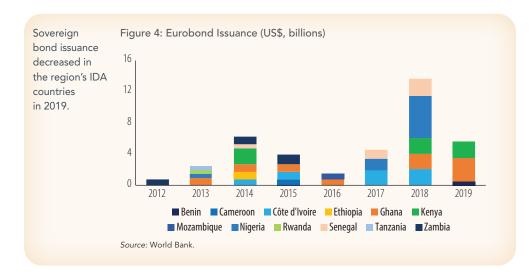
MIXED EXTERNAL POSITIONS

The median current account deficit narrowed slightly in 2019 (figure 3). It improved among metals exporters and non-resource-intensive countries but widened in oil-exporting countries. Among metals exporters, the current account deficit narrowed noticeably, owing to a marked decline in imports in several countries amid slowing growth. Among non-resource-intensive countries, the decline in the current account deficit was moderate, as higher import levels, driven in several cases by an increase in the demand for capital goods, partially offset a rise in exports.

The current account deficit widened among oil exporters, reflecting the effects of lower oil prices on export revenues. The deterioration was most visible in Nigeria, where the current account balance changed from a surplus in 2018 to a deficit in 2019.

Capital inflows moderated in 2019. Strengthening global sentiment toward the U.S. dollar, due to fears of a trade war between the United States and China, slowed



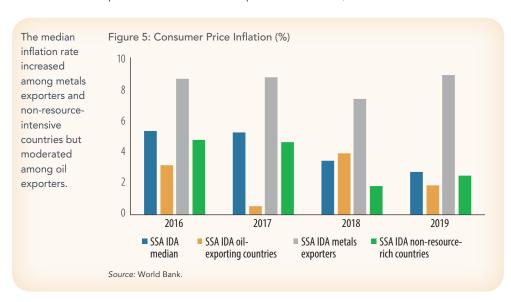


portfolio flows to emerging markets and developing economies. Sovereign bond issuance decreased in the region's IDA countries (figure 4). Governments issued about U\$\$5.6 billion in Eurobonds in 2019, compared with more than U\$\$10 billion in 2018. Benin, Ghana, and Kenya were the most active bond issuers. Benin issued a €500 million Eurobond, Kenya issued two Eurobonds in the amount of

US\$2.1 billion, and Ghana issued a US\$3 billion Eurobond in three tranches, the largest bond offering in the region in 2019. Several countries, including Côte d'Ivoire and Senegal, did not return to the market. Meanwhile, persistent global uncertainty and the slow pace of reforms seeking to address structural productivity bottlenecks in many economies hampered foreign direct investment (FDI). However, some countries, including Kenya, Nigeria, and Uganda, saw an increase in FDI flows, directed at the development of major oil fields.

MODERATING INFLATION

The median inflation rate in the region's IDA countries is estimated to have declined from 3.5 percent in 2018 to 2.8 percent in 2019, amid subdued domestic demand, lower oil prices, and



increased currency stability (figure 5). However, there were significant differences between resource-intensive and non-resource-intensive countries. The median inflation rate in resource-intensive countries edged down, reflecting lower inflation among oil-exporting countries. Inflation in Nigeria eased from 12.1 percent in 2018 to 11.4 percent in 2019, helped by a decline in non-food prices, but it remained well above

the central bank's target range of 6 to 9 percent. Among metals-exporting countries, the median inflation rate increased, reflecting a sharp rise in inflation in Liberia, while high double-digit inflation rates persisted in Sierra Leone and inflation pressures built up in Zambia. The pickup in inflation among metals exporters was due to the continued monetization of large fiscal deficits and greater pass-through of currency depreciation to domestic prices (figure 6). Among non-

resource-intensive countries, the median inflation rate rose moderately. However, rising food price pressures, partly due to drought, contributed to higher inflation in Ethiopia, and inflation remained very high in Sudan and Zimbabwe.

Softening economic activity and low inflationary pressure provided scope for accommodative monetary policy in many countries.
Central banks in 10 countries—including Ghana, Kenya, and Nigeria—cut their policy rates. However, in contrast, the Bank of Zambia raised its interest rates to stabilize the exchange rate amid rising inflation.



UNEVEN IMPROVEMENTS IN FISCAL BALANCES

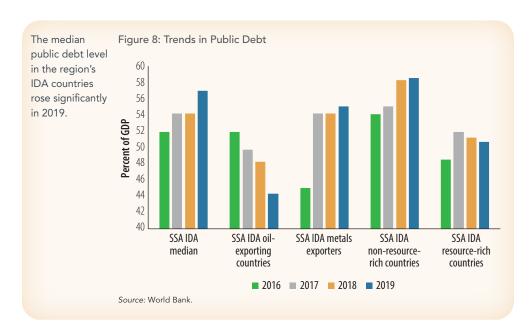
The median fiscal deficit for the region's IDA countries is estimated to have narrowed to -2.9 percent of GDP in 2019 from -4.1 percent in 2018 (figure 7). The decline in the median fiscal deficits of metals exporters and non-resource-intensive countries more than offset the deterioration in the fiscal balance of oil exporters.

About half of the non-resource-intensive countries saw their fiscal deficits fall in 2019. Among them, WAEMU countries strived to adhere to the regional fiscal deficit convergence criterion of 3 percent of GDP, through greater domestic revenue mobilization efforts, including curbing tax exemptions and enforcing regional tax policy directives. However, the fiscal deficit widened in



other countries, due to increased spending in some cases (Mozambique, Rwanda, and Uganda) and weaker revenue mobilization in others (Sudan). In Rwanda and Uganda, the increase in the fiscal deficit reflected higher public investment spending. In Sudan, tax revenue collection was

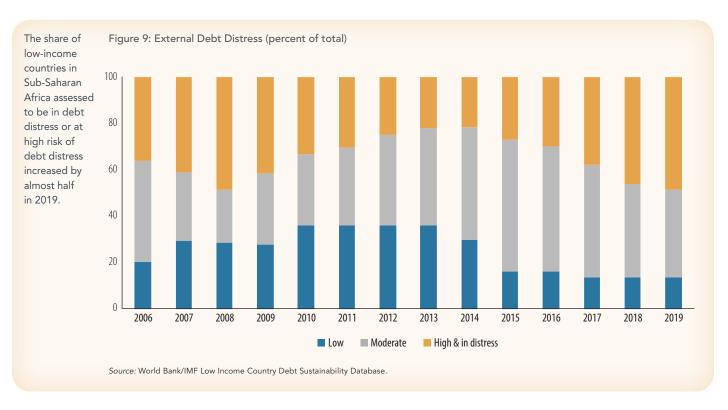
considerably weaker than expected. In Mozambique, cyclone reconstruction needs pushed the deficit higher. Among the resource-intensive countries, oil exporters saw their fiscal surplus fall as lower oil prices weighed on revenue. In Nigeria, where non-oil revenue mobilization has remained low due to weak tax reforms, the fiscal deficit widened. Among metals exporters, the median fiscal deficit narrowed, reflecting some progress in fiscal consolidation.



DEBT VULNERABILITIES REMAINED ELEVATED

The median government debt-to-GDP ratio is estimated to have reached 57.4 percent in 2019, up from 54.3 percent in 2018, driven by rising debt levels among metals exporters and non-resource-intensive countries, while debt levels fell among oil exporters (figure 8). The decrease in government debt among oil exporters mainly reflected fiscal adjustment in Chad and the Republic of Congo. In Nigeria,

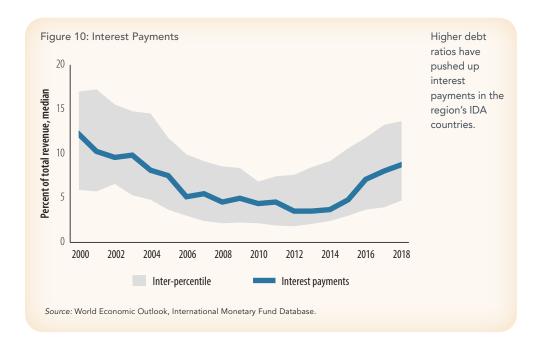
public debt was expected to rise to a moderate level of about 26 percent of GDP. The increase in government debt among metals exporters was mainly driven by Zambia's rising debt levels,



due to high fiscal deficits and large currency depreciations. Among non-resource-intensive countries, the increase in debt partly reflected borrowing to finance infrastructure investment. Government debt increased significantly in the countries that experienced a deterioration in their fiscal balances (Ghana, Mozambique, and Rwanda) as well as currency depreciations (Ghana, Mozambique, and Sudan).

The share of countries in Sub-Saharan Africa assessed to be in debt distress or at high risk of debt distress increased by almost half, from 25 percent in 2012 to 49 percent in 2019 (figure 9). The rising debt vulnerability stems from the high level of government debt, an increase in the share of foreign currency–denominated debt, and a substantial rise in debt servicing costs. The share of foreign currency–denominated public debt increased by 12 percentage

points from 2013, to 36 percent of GDP in 2018, partly reflecting the recent surge in Eurobond issuance. Increased reliance on foreign currency borrowing has heightened refinancing and interest rate risk in debtor countries. The rise in nonresident participation in domestic debt markets has exposed some countries to the risk of sudden capital outflows, which could trigger large currency depreciations. Meanwhile, higher debt ratios have pushed up interest payments, which are absorbing a growing share of revenue (figure 10).



Section 2: Safeguarding Human Capital during and beyond the COVID-19 Pandemic

INTRODUCTION

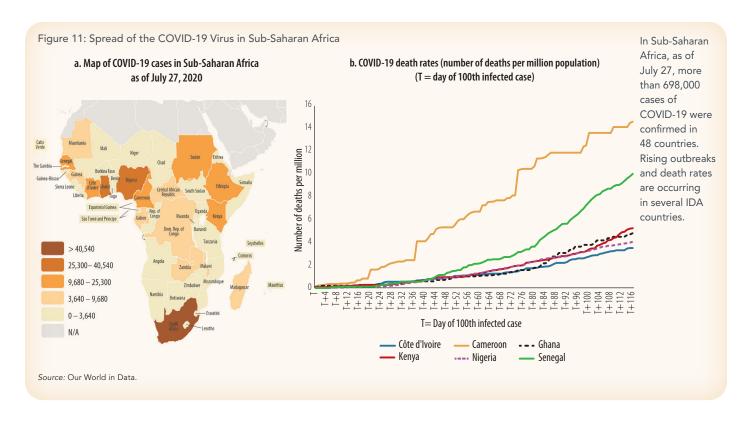
The COVID-19 virus first appeared in Hubei province in China in December 2019 and spread rapidly to Asia, Europe, the United States, and the rest of the world. On March 11, the World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 a pandemic. Containment measures to slow the spread of the COVID-19 virus have slowed global trade by reducing international travel and disrupting global value chains. Official quarantines have interrupted the free flow of people and goods, while precautionary behaviors by consumers and firms and restrictions imposed by governments have reduced travel and tourism. This has been accompanied by record capital outflows from emerging markets and developing economies (EMDEs), a steep decline in remittances, and a drop in commodity prices, especially oil prices. Disruptions in the delivery of essential goods and services, including health care, education, and nutrition, are expected to erode not only welfare, but also human capital and thus future growth prospects across EMDEs.

Although the immediate priorities of policy makers are to address the health crisis and moderate the short-term economic losses, the likely long-term consequences of the pandemic underscore the need for policy responses to safeguard human capital gains. This section takes stock of the consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic for the Sub-Saharan Africa region's International Development Association (IDA) countries, considering their vulnerabilities to health crises. It then reviews the channels through which COVID-19 is impacting human capital, and highlights the policy responses that may help prevent the erosion of human capital, including social protection measures to maintain consumption and restore lost income for poor households. In the near term, containment measures to combat the pandemic, including through testing and tracing, would be essential. Beyond the health impacts, safeguarding human capital will require protecting people's access to food, livelihoods, and education services.

SPREAD OF THE PANDEMIC

By the end of June 2020, more than 10 million cases of COVID-19 were confirmed globally, with nearly half a million deaths attributed to the disease. Cases have continued to rise rapidly in most countries, including EMDEs. In Sub-Saharan Africa, as of July 27, more than 698,000 cases of COVID-19 were confirmed in 48 countries (figure 11). The lack of testing capacity in many countries suggests that these figures most likely understate the true number of infections. South Africa had the largest outbreak in the region, with more than 445,000 cases. Rising outbreaks, although smaller in magnitude compared with that of South Africa, are occurring in several IDA countries, notably Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, and Nigeria.

To help mitigate the spread of the virus, most countries have implemented necessary but severely disruptive measures. These actions have included school closures, restrictions on nonessential business activities, prohibitions of public gatherings, suspension of public transport,



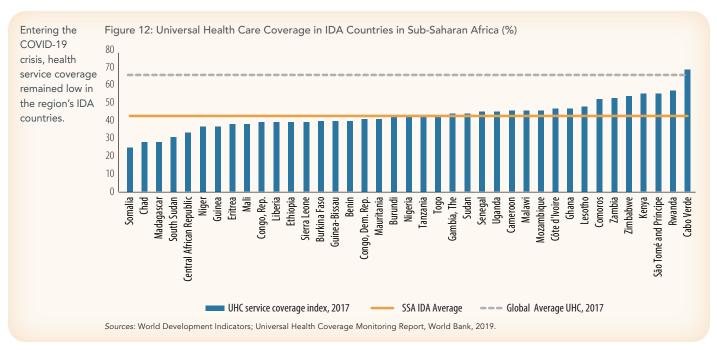
restrictions on the movement of people, border closures, and travel bans. However, in recent months, many countries in the region have been gradually easing restrictions even as new cases accelerate, often out of economic necessity to protect incomes and jobs.

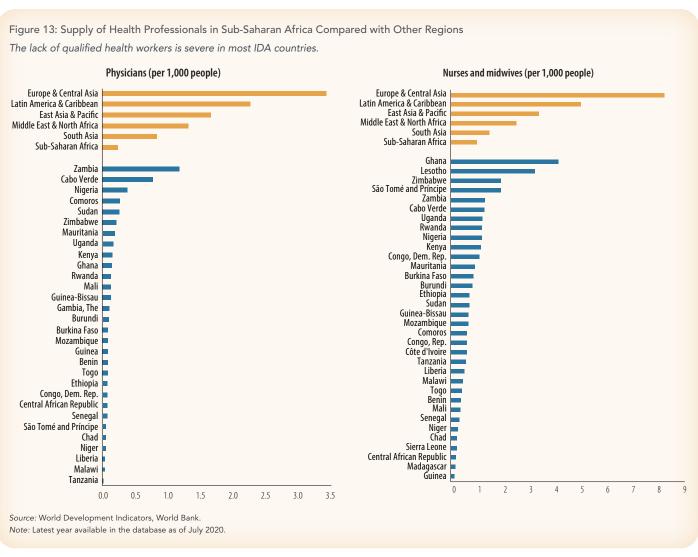
HEALTH VULNERABILITIES

The region's IDA countries entered the COVID-19 crisis with significant vulnerabilities to a health emergency, reflected in low health coverage, inadequate government spending on health, and elevated out-of-pocket health payments by the population.

Low health service coverage. The need for universal health coverage has never been greater than now, but health service coverage in Sub-Saharan Africa is well below the global average (figure 12). The low health service coverage in the region is due to many factors, including low population density in many countries, which makes service delivery relatively costly; limited funding; supply bottlenecks; and low productivity of health professionals. The lack of qualified health workers is severe in several countries (figure 13). For example, Guinea has about eight doctors and 12 nurses per 100,000 inhabitants. In addition, geography, economic, social, and gender disparities remain large, with a concentration of health professionals in the capital city.

The Universal Health Coverage Index consists of 16 indicators divided equally into four subcategories: (i) index of reproductive, maternal, newborn, and child health (family planning, antenatal care, immunization, and child care for pneumonia); (ii) index of infectious disease control (TB treatment, HIV treatment, treated bed nets, and basic sanitation); (iii) index of noncommunicable diseases (blood pressure, fasting plasma glucose, cervical cancer screening, and nonuse of tobacco); and (iv) index of service capacity and access (density of hospital beds, density of health workers, access to core medicines, and international health regulations core capacity).



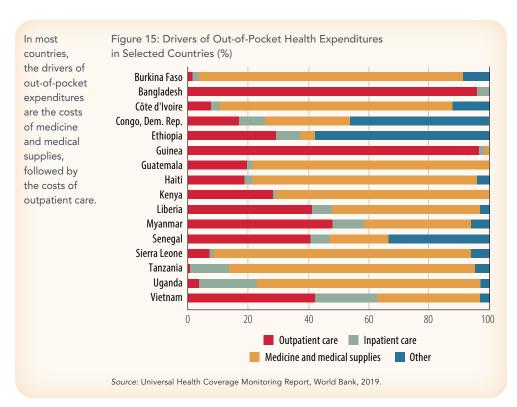


Inadequate government spending on public health. The region not only has a health service coverage deficit, but also public health spending is well below recommended levels (figure 14a), while out-of-pocket health expenditures are high in some countries (figure 14b). Total health expenditure per capita in the most recent year with data was US\$32, less than half the level recommended by WHO for low-income countries (US\$86). Health financing is mostly provided through the budget and often by international donors. For example, Zambia's health sector financing mostly comes from the government and external donors—81 percent of the total current health expenditures (CHE), while out-of-pocket expenses are only 12 percent of



CHE. Donors finance about 43 percent of the total CHE. Per capita health spending in Zambia is US\$59.² In contrast to Zambia, out-of-pocket expenditures in Senegal are high—51 percent of current health expenditures in 2016. In Nigeria, current health expenditure per capita has been declining since 2014, while out-of-pocket expenses are very high—at 77 percent of CHE.

Health care financing is particularly challenging in fragile countries, partly because of low revenue collection. In several fragile countries in Africa, there is no formal health financing system that collects revenues to pay for health care services and no national health insurance system (except for civil servants). Household out-of-pocket expenditures are high relative to household income. In turn, the high out-of-pocket expenditures limit access to health services



and place the population at high risk of a financial catastrophe. In most countries, the main drivers of out-ofpocket expenditures are the costs of medicine and medical supplies, followed by the costs of outpatient care (figure 15).

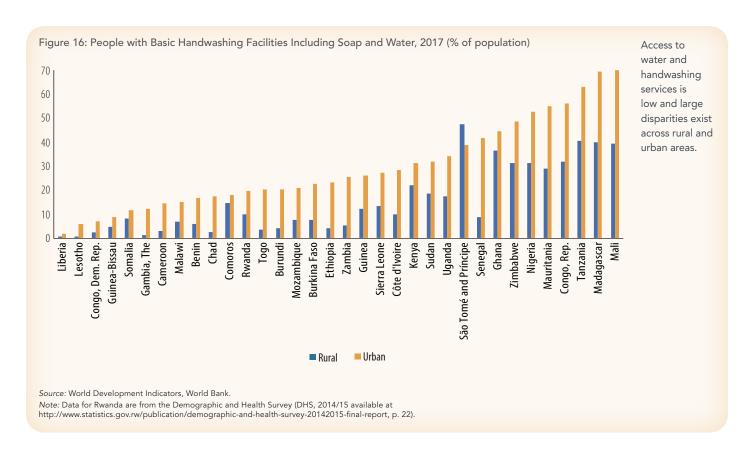
Restricted access to water and sanitation services.

Frequent and proper hand hygiene is one of the most important measures that can be used to prevent infection with the COVID-19 virus. Public health officials recommend washing hands with soap and water to eliminate viral particles on the hands. However,

that recommendation is difficult to follow in African countries where access to water and handwashing services is incredibly low—at about 15 percent (figure 16). The scarcity of water has been attributed to contaminated local water supplies, distances to the nearest sources of clean water, frequent droughts, or climate change.

Water that is safe enough to drink is ideal for handwashing. Figure 16 depicts the percentage of people living in households that have a handwashing facility with soap and water available on the premises. The figure displays the disparity across rural and urban areas. In many countries, access to these services is well below 50 percent of the population. In the absence of improved water sources, small-scale solutions like a network of public handwashing stations could provide an alternative. Handwashing stations were set up in West Africa during the 2014 Ebola outbreak. About half the population of Mali has access to basic handwashing facilities, while more than 40 percent of the people in the Republic of Congo, Tanzania, Mauritania, Nigeria, and Ghana have

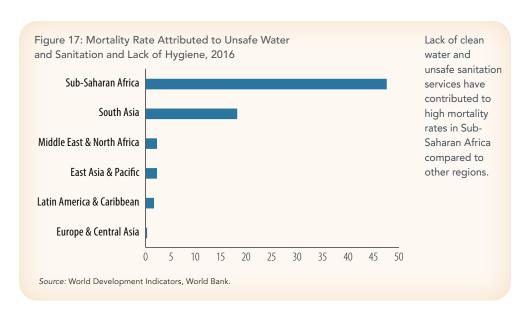
² World Bank. 2019. "Zambia Health Sector Public Expenditure Tracking and Quantitative Service Delivery Survey." World Bank, Washington, DC.

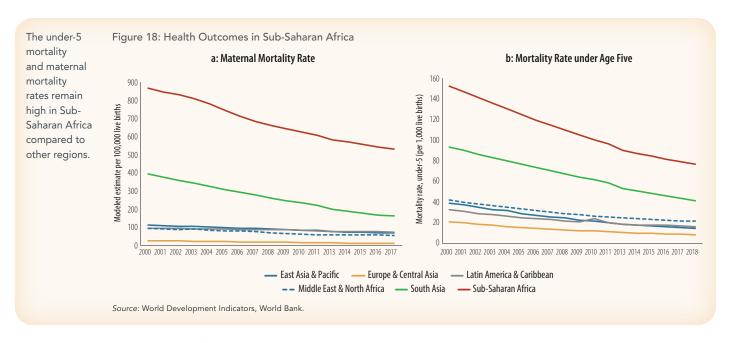


access to these stations. Only a small percentage of the population has access to handwashing stations in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Chad, and Guinea-Bissau, among others.

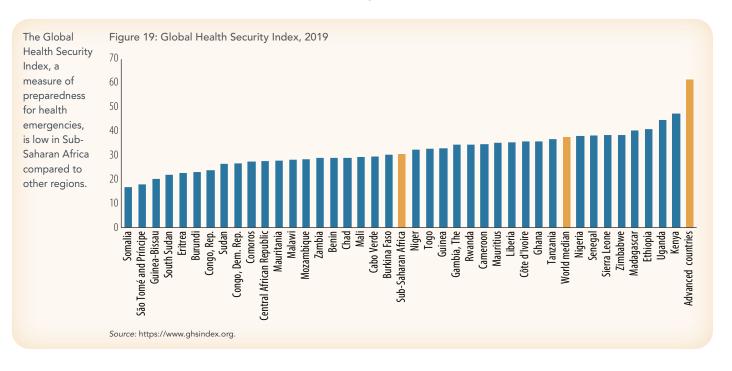
Large, unmet health needs.

High health vulnerabilities and weak health services have stunted health outcomes in Sub-Saharan Africa. For example, lack of clean water and unsafe sanitation services have contributed to high mortality rates in the region—nearly 50 deaths per 100,000 people—compared with other regions (figure 17). The under-5 mortality and maternal mortality rates are about twice as high as the levels in South Asia and nearly fivefold relative to other regions (figures 18a and 18b).





Preparedness for pandemics. The management and control of COVID-19 cases relies heavily on the capacity of the health systems in the countries. According to the Nuclear Threat Initiative (NTI) and Johns Hopkins Center for Health Security, national health security is weak around the world, and all countries have important gaps to address to be fully prepared for a pandemic. International preparedness is also fragile collectively. The average Global Health Security Index is 40.2 (of a maximum of 100) for 195 countries worldwide. The average for the Sub-Saharan Africa region is 30.8, and only five countries in the region exceed the world median (Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, South Africa, and Uganda) (figure 19). Most countries in the region have an influenza pandemic preparedness plan (35 of 47 countries in the continent). However, most of these plans are outdated—they were set up prior to the 2009 influenza H1N1 pandemic—and are considered inadequate to deal with a global pandemic.



Overall, countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have severe weaknesses in their ability to prevent, detect, and respond to health emergencies. They also display severe gaps in health care systems—health care capacity in clinics and hospitals, medical personnel deployment, access to health care, infection control practices and availability of equipment, and capacity to test and approve new medical countermeasures.

IMPACT ON HUMAN CAPITAL ACCUMULATION

The COVID-19 pandemic is likely to impact human capital including through disruptions in the provision of essential non-pandemic health services, income shocks, and mandatory school closures. WHO observed that since March 2020, the provision of routine immunization services has been substantially disrupted in at least 68 countries, likely affecting 80 million children under age 1 living in these countries.³ Disruptions of access to essential health services at this scale could undo decades of gains in health outcomes in low-income countries and slow human capital accumulation. In many health systems in the region's IDA countries, the fight against the COVID-19 pandemic is expected to entail a redirection of resources away from other essential health services due to their limited fiscal space. In most countries, lockdowns have led to massive loss of income for poor families without formal jobs and employment-based social protection, as well as school closures. Child mortality could rise due to the disruption of maternal and child health services. Meanwhile, data suggest that, across the Africa region, about 252 million learners have been affected by COVID-19-driven school closures, which are likely to worsen learning outcomes.⁴ These disruptions to essential health and education services threaten the ability of IDA countries in the region to build the human capital they need for their development.

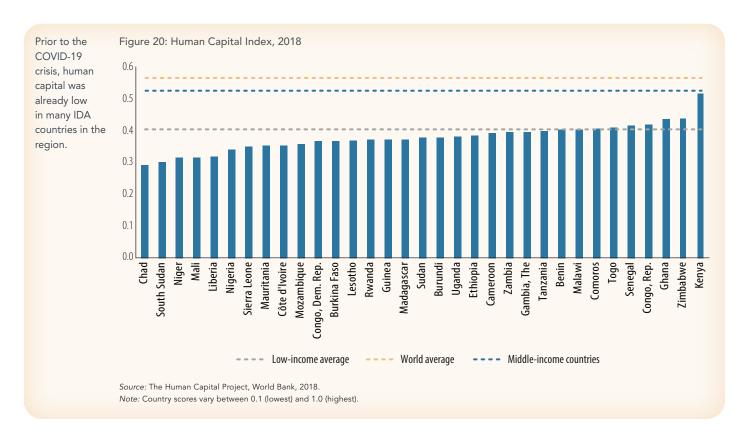
Prior to the COVID-19 outbreak, the level of human capital was already very low across Sub-Saharan Africa (figure 20). Several countries are at the bottom of the Human Capital Index, which measures the extent of economic productivity per capita in a country, with a maximum value of 1.0. The gap between a country's index value and the maximum provides an estimate of productivity loss due to underinvestment in human capital. As figure 20 illustrates, a person in Chad, for example, has an earning potential of only 29 percent of what it could be if the country were able to develop its human capital fully. This productivity index takes into account child survival, school enrollment, quality of learning, healthy growth, and adult survival, all of which are likely to be adversely affected by the COVID-19 outbreak.⁵

Without a robust policy response in place, there could be severe negative impacts on human capital across the region's IDA countries, with possible reversals of previous gains in the sector. In the short-to-medium term, there are high risks of an increase in learning losses and inequality as well as physical and emotional deprivation, especially among children from disadvantaged households and girls. For girls, these risks are higher due to a potential increase in child marriage, early childbearing, and other gender-based violence, especially in stressed, resource-constrained

³ World Health Organization, 2020, "At least 80 million children under one at risk of diseases such as diphtheria, measles and polio as COVID-19 disrupts routine vaccination efforts, warn Gavi, WHO and UNICEF," May 5.

⁴ World Bank, 2020. "Africa One Education Response to COVID-19." World Bank, Washington DC.

⁵ Paul Corral and Roberta Gatti. 2020. "Accumulation interrupted: COVID-19 and human capital among the young." In COVID-19 in Developing Economies, edited by Simeon Djankov and Ugo Panizza. CEPR Press.



households. Learners face a high risk of dropping out of school permanently. Furthermore, the crisis presents income and health shocks, particularly to poor households, which will reduce their investments in education. As fiscal space tightens due to projected falls in government revenue and donor contributions, education budgets may be affected, impacting the payment of teachers' salaries and budget allocation to educational institutions, leading to lower education quality.

Across the globe, many countries are promoting distance education, remote learning programs, and online training. Such online and distance learning modalities have enormous potential during the school closure period. However, distance learning protocols will be difficult to implement in Sub-Saharan Africa, due to the region's modest internet penetration. On average, less than 20 percent of the Sub-Saharan African population has access to the internet—compared with 90 percent of the population in advanced countries and 60 percent in other developing countries (figure 21).

In the long term, there is a high likelihood of the adverse impacts on human capital accumulation affecting the quality of the labor force and threatening technological advancement and the development of the economy. Growing food insecurity, including disruptions to school feeding programs, could also lower long-term productivity, as malnutrition early in life can permanently impair learning abilities. Studies indicate that in EMDEs severe disasters have resulted in considerable losses in output, labor productivity, and total factor productivity. This is possibly because after a severe disaster firms delay or cancel investment in research and development, which impedes the creation, transfer, and adoption of new technologies.



POLICY RESPONSES

The aftermath of recent epidemics and pandemics—SARS, H1N1, MERS, and Ebola—has put emphasis on the need to strengthen public health capabilities and infrastructure, which are the first line of defense against the COVID-19 virus. The Ebola epidemic provide lessons for the region in the prioritization of measures to combat COVID-19 in the areas of effective communication, community engagement, and comprehensive care even in difficult environments. Massive community engagement enabled the flow of credible information to the population. Cash transfer schemes supported the stay-at-home orders by replacing lost income from the marketplace, enabling poor populations to practice safe behavior. Such schemes were often accompanied by behavioral change programs, which were quickly adapted to carry messages on hand-washing, physical distancing, and key symptoms that require medical intervention. The potentially adverse long-term consequences of COVID-19 underscore the need for policy actions to ensure that the disruptions to people's access to essential services will not lead to the erosion of recent gains in human capital.

Containing the Pandemic

Given the fiscal constraints, most governments in Sub-Saharan Africa are redirecting resources to public health spending and putting together emergency response plans for the health sector. These actions have included strengthening the human and technical capabilities of public hospitals, expanding testing capacity, and increasing the number of hospital beds. Governments need to reinforce their epidemiological and biological surveillance (for example, testing kits, creation of free call centers, and rehabilitation and/or setup of laboratories), increase the supply of protective personal equipment for physicians and nurses, and strengthen the capacity of pharmaceutical industries and financing for research on the virus.

The relatively low number of cases in the region presents an opportunity to limit the spread of the virus by adopting and expanding testing, tracing, and isolation measures. Early extensive investment in health systems to test, trace, and isolate reduces the odds of adopting stringent containment measures later that would result in significant impacts on people's livelihoods given the features of these economies. More recent experiences of countries and studies from the 1918 flu pandemic suggest that places that implemented early and extensive interventions to slow the spread of the pandemic also reduced the severity of the economic disruption.

In fragile countries, substantial resources are needed to strengthen the government response to the crisis. Government response has included better early detection methods and greater technical and operational coordination, improved surveillance at ports of entry, provision of high-quality and affordable medical care to infected patients, development of effective preventive communication strategies, and enhancement of medical logistics platforms. Some governments are planning the construction of mobile hospitals as well as health centers in remote areas. Other countries are preparing the deployment of surge staff to perform contact tracing activities, rapid response teams, and training of responders.

Other health-related interventions to contain the spread of the pandemic include securing the provision of water and sanitation services to the population. Hand hygiene is a highly recommended practice to fend off the virus. In this context, setting up a network of public handwashing stations could prove an effective solution for areas of the country that lack running water and sanitation. This was implemented by West African countries during the 2014–16 Ebola outbreak. Handwashing stations were placed in public buildings, schools, and markets in Ebola-affected areas. These stations have been set up again at airports and outside public buildings in Liberia and Sierra Leone. To keep handwashing stations safe from becoming a hot spot for disease transmission, social distancing nudges are being introduced on the ground.

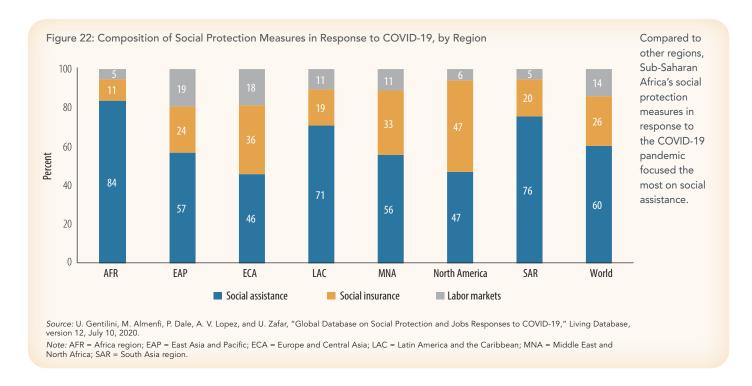
Safeguarding Human Capital

By protecting human capital now, IDA countries in the region will be able to recover and sustain growth post COVID-19. This highlights the need for government policies to support vulnerable households, ensure access to education, and strengthen digital connectivity.⁶

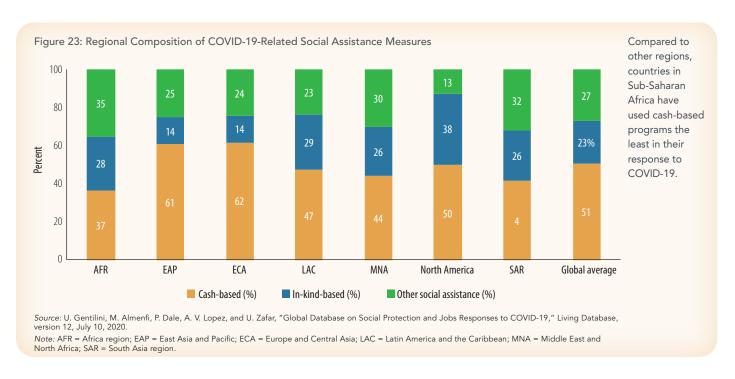
Protecting the Poor and Vulnerable

In the short run, fiscal policies need to be geared to provide income support to the workers who are most affected by or vulnerable to COVID-19. Since March 2020, a total of 44 countries in the region have planned or put in place 143 social protection measures in response to the COVID-19 crisis. Social assistance represented the largest share of responses among countries in the region. Of all the social protection measures implemented across the region, almost 80 percent were social assistance, while social insurance and labor market programs constituted 11 and 5 percent of the responses, respectively. Compared to other regions, Sub-Saharan Africa's social protection measures in response to the COVID-19 pandemic focused the most on social assistance, whereas it had the fewest social insurance measures (figure 22).

⁶ World Bank. 2020. "Protecting People and Economies: Integrated Policy Responses to COVID-19." World Bank, Washington, DC.



Within the region's social assistance responses, the number of cash-based programs is slightly higher than in-kind and other social assistance programs. However, compared to other regions, countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have used cash-based programs the least in their response to COVID-19 (figure 23). In contrast, in-kind transfers have a higher than average percentage compared to most other regions and other social assistance programs play a more important role. In particular, the number of utility support measures is highest in the Africa region. Such measures include the adoption of utility subsidies and postponement or waiver of fees for basic services, such as the waivers for electricity tariffs announced by the Government of Niger.



Cash transfers are not only easy to implement, they can also reach the informal sector. Most social safety nets in the region are focused on the extreme poor in rural areas. Expanding social safety nets to urban areas to reach the "missing middle" of those who are too poor to receive social assistance but not wealthy enough to have formal employment with employment-related protections is a critical challenge in the rapid expansion of cash transfers. Elaborate targeting mechanisms involving multiple layers of selection and a sophisticated proxy means test may be substituted by broader geographical or categorical targeting, or by using trade associations' membership lists. The presence of a comprehensive social registry in a country has facilitated the rapid scale-up of programs to households that had not previously been receiving a benefit.

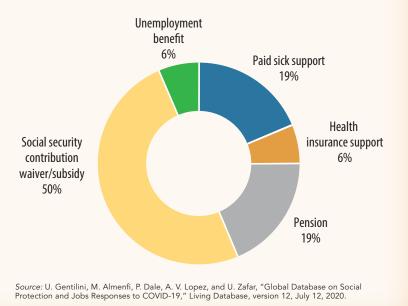
Other options in the social protection policy toolkits of governments in Sub-Saharan Africa include social insurance and labor market programs. Twelve countries in the region have

Table 1: Social Insurance Programs and Measures in Response to COVID-19 in Sub-Saharan Africa

| Social insurance program type | Number of measures | Number of countries |
|---|--------------------|---------------------|
| Paid sick support | 3 | 3 |
| Health care insurance support | 1 | 1 |
| Pension | 3 | 3 |
| Social security contribution waiver/subsidy | 8 | 7 |
| Unemployment benefit | 1 | 1 |
| Total social insurance programs | 16 | 12 |

Health care insurance support and unemployment insurance programs in the region have been limited.

Figure 24: Social Insurance Measures in Sub-Saharan Africa, Share of Total



instituted social insurance programs in response to Covid-19. Most programs include waivers, deferment or subsidization of social security contributions (8 measures), followed by pensions (3) and paid sick support (3). The number of health care insurance support and unemployment insurance measures has been limited (table 1, figure 24). Supplyside, worker-related labor markets programs represent only 5 percent of the region's total COVID-19 related social protection measures. With six programs in five countries, wage subsidies are the lead labor market instrument. These measures account for 86 percent of the COVID-19 labor market-related responses. For example, wage subsidies are being implemented to encourage employers not to lay off their staff in Cabo Verde.

Protecting Livelihoods

Minimizing disruptions in critical intra-African food supply chains and keeping logistics open would be important to avert a food crisis in the region. Government actions to reduce trade barriers and ensure that food system workers can go to work without problems is critical. Funding for agriculture and agribusiness needs to be protected. Early warning systems for food shortages and associated emergency food provisioning systems will have to be adjusted to increase attention on rural and urban areas. Digital technologies can help anticipate problems and smooth temporary shortages as well as build the resilience of food chains. Maintaining transport and logistics services along the main corridors will be critical, particularly for land-locked countries, for continued access to food and other essential services.

Digital technologies can provide a solution for the expansion of social assistance to individuals and households during the COVID-19 emergency. Sub-Saharan Africa has the largest number of registered mobile money accounts in the world, at around 400 million, and most unbanked adults own a mobile phone. In several African countries, governments already transfer cash to their citizens' mobile accounts. In the past few years, some governments have imposed regressive taxes on mobile money and other digital financial transactions. These taxes disproportionately affect low-income earners who mostly transact in small values and are sensitive to these costs. A temporary suspension of these charges would be a quick and effective way to put cash back into the pockets of the poor and encourage cashless transactions for the purpose of enforcing social distancing. The Central Bank of West African States (BCEAO) has reduced and waived such fees. Limitations of the mobile money approach include weak network coverage, low financial literacy, and few agents/outlets to cash out the transfers.

Sustaining Student Learning

As many countries in the region were already facing a learning crisis before the pandemic, governments, in collaboration with development partners, have responded rapidly to mitigate a further worsening of the situation. There has been an increase in the development and multimodal delivery of learning content through the mass media, especially given the low technology penetration in Sub-Saharan Africa. Countries with low human resources scores generally have lower technology penetration rates.

To increase the reach of learning content, some governments are providing educational online platforms and distribution of media devices to selected households. Parents and teachers are also supported through guidance on home-based learning and the use of remote learning platforms, as well as the continual payment of teachers' salaries. As schools prepare for reopening, authorities are putting different measures in place. These include but are not limited to ensuring adequate distancing and safety measures, preparing re-enrollment sensitization campaigns and programs, carrying out teacher training programs, offering counseling services, enhancing access to sanitation facilities in schools, and providing guarantees of safe schools and gender-based violence prevention.

To build resilience to similar shocks in the future, digital infrastructure and national repositories for educational content would need to be developed. Governments should implement measures to accelerate learning by building more equitable and resilient post-COVID-19 education systems that enable children to learn continuously in schools and at home.⁷

Implementing Productivity-Enhancing Reforms

After addressing the immediate health crisis, countries need to make productivity-enhancing reforms a priority. These include encouraging reallocation of resources toward more productive sectors, fostering technology adoption and innovation, and promoting a growth-friendly macroeconomic and institutional environment. In addition, raising the quality and effectiveness of governance and improving the business climate would encourage a faster rebound from disasters. Governments that improve labor and product market flexibility, strengthen legal systems and property rights, foster effective competition, and address inequality set the foundation for more effective adjustment to adverse events.

⁷ João Pedro Azevedo, Amer Hasan, Diana Goldemberg, Syedah Aroob Iqbal, and Koen Geven. 2020. 'Simulating the Potential Impacts of COVID-19 School Closures on Schooling and Learning Outcomes: A Set of Global Estimates." World Bank Group, Washington, DC.

Section 3: 2019 CPIA Results

OVERVIEW

The 2019 Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) exercise for the Sub-Saharan Africa region covered 39 International Development Association (IDA)—eligible countries, one more than in 2018 because of the addition of Somalia. The overall CPIA score for the region's IDA countries came in at 3.1, unchanged since 2016. However, the overall CPIA score masks changes in the scores among the CPIA clusters and at the country level.

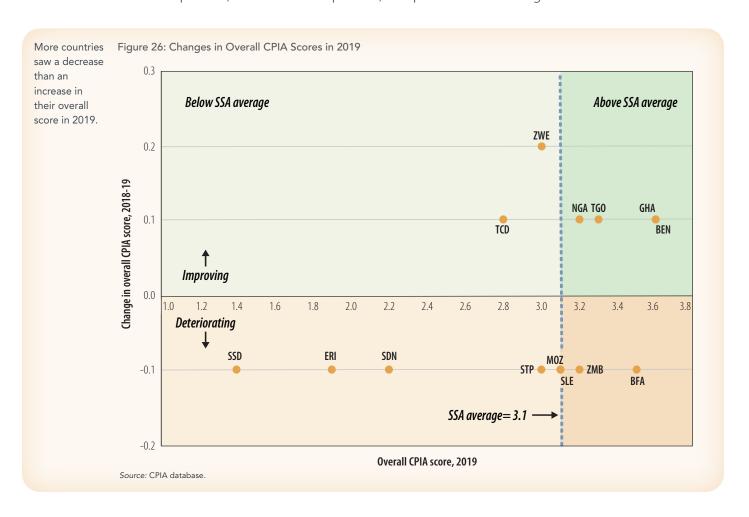
Country CPIA Scores and Rankings

Rwanda remained at the top of the ranking (figure 25). Its overall score of 4.0 has not changed over the past three years, however. The top tier of countries following Rwanda also remained

the same, consisting of Cabo Verde, with an overall score of 3.8, and Kenya, Senegal, and Uganda, each with an overall score of 3.7. Following these countries were Benin and Ghana, which saw their overall score increase to 3.6 from 3.5 in 2018, and Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, and Tanzania, all with an overall score of 3.5. These high-ranking countries on the CPIA scale also have the fastest growing economies in the region. The next group consisted of Mali, Niger, and Mauritania, with an overall score of 3.4, respectively. Nigeria, the region's largest economy, stayed in the group of moderate performers, with an overall score of 3.2. Fifteen of the 39 countries, consisting predominantly of fragile countries, scored below the regional average. South Sudan had the lowest overall score, at 1.4.



In total, 14 countries experienced a change in their overall CPIA score in 2019, compared with 15 in 2018. However, unlike in 2018, more countries (eight) saw a decrease than an increase (six) in their overall score (figure 26). The eight countries that registered a decrease in their overall score consisted of an equal number of non-fragile countries (Mozambique, Sierra Leone, São Tomé and Príncipe, and Zambia) and fragile countries (Eritrea, Burkina Faso, South Sudan, and Sudan).8 For both sets of countries, the decrease in the overall CPIA score reflected a decline in the quality of structural policies, social inclusion policies, and public sector management.



Among the six countries that observed an increase in their overall score, three (Chad, Nigeria, and Zimbabwe) were fragile and conflict-affected (FCV) countries. The non-fragile countries included Benin, Ghana, and Togo. Togo has emerged as a strong performer. Its overall CPIA score has increased each year for the past three years and, at 3.3 in 2019, stands well above the regional average, reflecting gains across a range of areas. The increase in the overall score for these countries reflected gains in the quality of economic management (Benin and Chad), structural policies (Ghana and Zimbabwe), social inclusion (Chad, Nigeria, and Togo), and public sector management (Togo and Zimbabwe).

⁸ The full list of fragile and conflict-affected countries and non-fragile countries is provided in appendix B.

For most of the region's IDA countries (24), the overall score was unchanged in 2019, although their performance varied across the 16 CPIA criteria. For many countries, the overall CPIA score has remained unchanged for several years, underscoring the need across IDA countries in the region for consistent implementation of economic and institutional reforms.

Trends in CPIA Cluster Scores

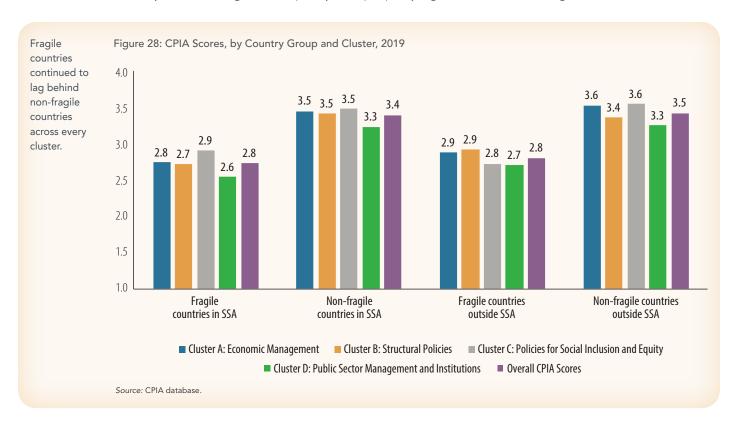
In 2019, the average cluster scores trended mostly downward (figure 27). While the average score for cluster A (economic management) was unchanged from last year's assessment, the average scores for cluster B (structural policies), cluster C (policies for social inclusion), and cluster D (public sector management and institutions) decreased. After sliding in 2018, the average score for the economic

management cluster stabilized in 2019, reflecting gains in fiscal policy and debt management in several countries. Meanwhile, after remaining steady for several years, the average score for the structural policies cluster decreased in 2019, due to a decline in the quality of the trade policy framework and a further weakening of the financial sector in several countries. For the social inclusion cluster, the decrease in the average score reflected weaker performance on the human capital development criterion, especially in relation to the quality of health services. The public



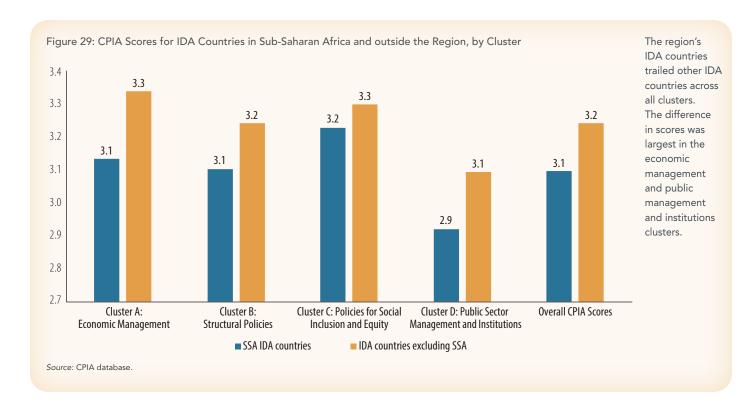
management and institutions cluster—referred to as the governance cluster—which had been lagging all other clusters, saw its average score decrease further in 2019 as the efficiency of revenue mobilization and quality of public administration deteriorated in many countries.

Fragile countries continued to lag behind non-fragile countries across every cluster (figure 28). The gap was particularly large in economic management and structural policies. On economic management, fragile countries lagged non-fragile countries on the quality of their monetary and exchange rate policies and debt management frameworks. On the structural policies cluster, the difference in scores was largest on the trade criterion. Elsewhere, fragile countries' scores were notably weaker on gender equality and property rights and rule-based governance.



Comparison with IDA Countries Outside the Sub-Saharan Africa Region

At 3.1, the overall score for IDA countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa region remained below the all-IDA average CPIA score, which was unchanged at 3.2 in 2019. As a group, the region's IDA countries trailed other IDA countries across all clusters (figure 29). The difference in scores was largest in the economic management and public management and institutions clusters.



The overall score for the region's fragile IDA countries was the same as that for other fragile IDA countries, at 2.8, unchanged from 2018. The region's fragile countries underperformed other fragile countries on the economic management and public management and institutions clusters but performed better on social inclusion and equity policies. The overall score for the region's non-fragile IDA countries came in at 3.4, unchanged from last year, remaining below the overall score of other non-fragile IDA countries (3.5). However, the region's non-fragile countries had a higher average score on the structural policies cluster, with stronger performance on the business regulatory environment criterion, but they underperformed on economic management and policies for social inclusion. Their average score on the public management and institutions cluster was the same as that for other non-fragile IDA countries, suggesting that good governance remains a challenge in IDA countries across regions.

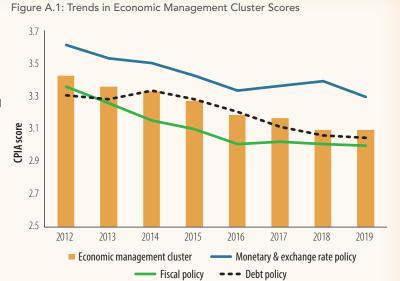
Analysis of the CPIA Components

CLUSTER A: ECONOMIC MANAGEMENT

Cluster A of the CPIA assesses the quality of macroeconomic management. It covers monetary, exchange rate, fiscal, and debt policies.

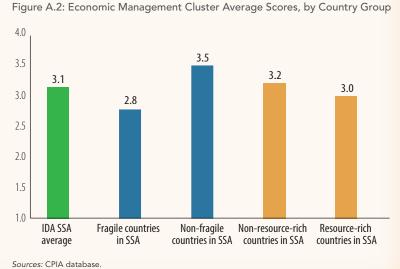
The average score for cluster A stabilized at 3.1 in 2019, following a decrease in the previous year (figure A.1). The 2019 results reflect gains in fiscal policy, especially in its stabilization function, and debt management. The average score on the fiscal policy criterion was unchanged at 3.0 but anchored on a firming trend. Meanwhile, the declining trend in the average score for the

The average score for the economic management cluster stabilized at 3.1 in 2019, helped by gains in fiscal policy and debt management.



Source: CPIA database

The region's fragile IDA countries saw their average score rise to 2.8 in 2019, from 2.7 in 2018, as the quality of fiscal policy and debt policy and management strengthened.

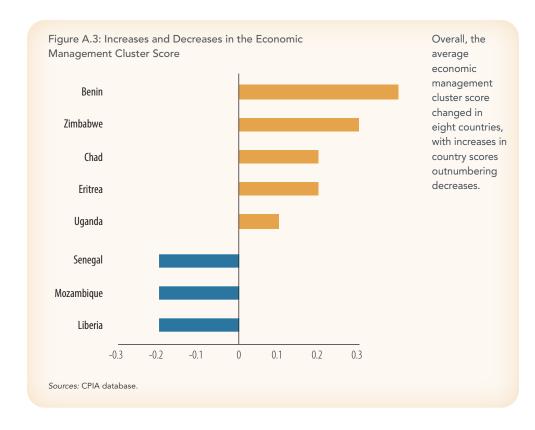


debt policy and management criterion steadied. Although debt sustainability remained a concern, the effectiveness of debt management functions strengthened in many countries as they adopted medium-term debt strategies and built implementation capacity. However, the average score on the monetary and exchange rate policy criterion decreased, due to inconsistencies between the monetary policy framework and price stability objectives in some countries.

The level of performance in the economic management cluster varied among fragile and non-fragile countries (figure A.2). The region's fragile IDA countries saw their average score rise to 2.8 in 2019, from 2.7 in 2018, as the quality of fiscal policy and debt policy and management strengthened. In contrast, the average score for the region's non-fragile IDA countries was unchanged at 3.5. For

these countries, an increase in the score on fiscal policy was offset by a decrease in the score on debt policy and management. Resource-intensive IDA countries fared less well than non-resource-intensive countries across all criteria in the economic management cluster as they continued to adjust to the drop in commodity prices from mid-2014.

The average economic management cluster score changed in eight countries, with increases in country scores outnumbering decreases (figure A.3). Five countries, including three



fragile countries—Eritrea, Chad, and Zimbabwe—saw their overall score on the economic management cluster rise. Benin and Uganda were the non-fragile countries that registered an increase in the score for this cluster. In three countries, including one fragile country—Liberia—the economic management score fell. Mozambique and Senegal were the non-fragile countries that recorded a decline in their score for this cluster.

Monetary and Exchange Rate Policies

This criterion assesses whether the monetary/exchange rate policy framework is consistent with economic stability and sustained medium-term growth. The average score for this criterion decreased to 3.3 in 2019, from 3.4 in 2018. One country—Zimbabwe—increased its score, while another—Liberia—saw its score fall (table A.1).

Table A.1: Changes in the Economic Management Cluster Scores, by Criterion

| Changes in scores | Monetary and exchange rate policy | Fiscal policy | Debt policy and management | Economic mangement cluster |
|-------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------------|---|
| Increases | Zimbabwe | Benin, Zimbabwe | Benin, Chad, Eritrea, Uganda | Benin, Chad, Eritrea, Uganda, Zimbabwe |
| Decreases | Liberia | | Mozambique, Senegal | Liberia, Mozambique, Senegal |

Source: CPIA database.

Liberia and Zimbabwe are fragile countries with a challenging economic environment. Liberia's score on the monetary and exchange rate policy criterion fell to 3.0, from 3.5 in 2018. Liberia's monetary policy framework weakened considerably in 2019. Starting from 23.3 percent year-on-year in January 2019, inflation accelerated to 30.9 percent in September, reflecting the rapid growth in monetary aggregates. Following an initial exchange rate depreciation—induced rise in prices, the inflation pressure was maintained by a rapid increase in the Liberian dollar money supply, as the Central Bank of Liberia (CBL) continued to extend credit to the government. Additional money creation resulted from the financing of the CBL's deficit. Monetary policy was tightened toward the end of the year, which helped slow inflation. Gross official foreign reserves fell further in 2019 to below adequate levels due to financing of the CBL's operational budget, foreign exchange intervention, and lending to the government. The CBL responded to the decline in foreign exchange mainly through administrative measures.

By contrast, Zimbabwe's score rose to 2.5, from 2.0 in 2018, due to the reforms implemented by the monetary authorities to tackle deep macroeconomic imbalances and the severe price distortions past policies had created. Currency reforms led to the establishment of a single domestic currency and exchange rate, moving the economy away from dollarization and the multiple exchange rates of the past decade. The currency reforms, in tandem with strengthened control over the quasi-fiscal operations of the central bank and stricter regulations of foreign exchange bureaus, helped contain the rapid depreciation of the currency. However, Zimbabwe's low score points to the need for a stronger monetary policy framework to help stabilize the economy. Inflationary pressures intensified in 2019, with the inflation rate rising to unprecedented levels, fueled in part by continued currency depreciation. On the external front, although the current account deficit fell, it mainly reflected the lack of foreign financing.

Fiscal Policy

This criterion assesses the quality of fiscal policy in its stabilization and allocation functions. The stabilization function deals with achieving macroeconomic policy objectives in conjunction with coherent monetary and exchange rate policies. The allocation function is concerned with the appropriate provision of public goods.

Two countries—Benin and Zimbabwe—saw their score on fiscal policy change, compared with seven in 2018. Benin's score increased to 4.0, from 3.5 in 2018, while Zimbabwe's score rose to 3.0, from 2.5. No decreases in scores were observed in 2019, compared with four in 2018.

Benin's performance on fiscal policy strengthened in 2019. The fiscal deficit narrowed by more than was anticipated, partly owing to continued efforts to rationalize the wage bill. Domestic tax and nontax revenues reached their targets. Continued fiscal discipline created fiscal space that the authorities are using to respond to the COVID-19 crisis. Fiscal policy was further strengthened by the use of contingency budgeting, which enhanced the quality of the fiscal response to external shocks. Spending on infrastructure, agriculture, health and education, and the digital economy accounts for almost 70 percent of capital expenditure, consistent with medium-term growth objectives.

In Zimbabwe, fiscal policy was tightened. Expenditure measures targeted the sources of fiscal imbalances—the wage bill and government support to agriculture. The freeze on hiring

noncritical staff and efforts to keep wage increases in check helped reduce the wage bill to sustainable levels. Reforms of command agriculture, which in the past included providing guarantees to banks and using vouchers instead of direct funding, decreased spending on agriculture. Borrowing from the central bank was discontinued, and issuance of Treasury bills was curtailed. The government increased spending to mitigate the economic and social impacts of natural disasters. Additional spending allocations were directed toward restoring critical infrastructure after Cyclone Idai hit the country.

Debt Policy and Management

This criterion assesses the extent to which external and domestic debt is contracted with a view to achieving/maintaining debt sustainability and the effectiveness of debt management functions. The average score for this criterion was unchanged at 3.1. More countries than in 2018—Benin, Chad, Eritrea, and Uganda—saw their score increase and fewer countries—Mozambique and Senegal—registered a decrease in their score.

Among the countries where the score increased, two—Chad and Eritrea—were fragile countries. Despite the increase, the scores for Chad and Eritrea remained very low on the debt policy and debt management subcomponents. Chad remained at high risk of debt distress. The 2018 restructuring agreement with an international commercial creditor helped strengthen Chad's liquidity position. The restructuring agreement, which included a maturity extension, a large reduction in restructuring fees, and a lower interest rate, helped reduce the country's debt level. However, institutional arrangements for debt management remained fragmented, and monitoring and reporting continued to be weak.

Eritrea remained in external debt distress, although debt relief from some creditors and debt restructuring with others helped reduce the amount of external arrears. The authorities took steps to enhance debt management, with the introduction of a debt recording system, training of staff on the principles of borrowing and cash management, and coordination between the Treasury and spending units. However, greater efforts are needed in all these areas, including coordination between debt management and other macroeconomic policies, effectiveness of the debt management unit, and preparation and implementation of a debt management strategy.

By contrast, Benin and Uganda scored highly on debt policy and management. The overall and external risk of debt distress remained moderate in Benin and low in Uganda, reflecting sustained fiscal consolidation efforts. In both countries, projected external debt burden indicators are below their thresholds under the baseline; however, the debt service-to-revenue ratio exceeds its threshold in the case of an extreme depreciation shock in Benin, reflecting its exposure to the international capital market. In both countries, debt management continued to strengthen.

Mozambique and Senegal recorded a decrease in their score. Mozambique's debt remained in distress. Although the authorities have taken steps to enhance debt transparency, the capacity of the debt management unit needs to be strengthened further to exercise effective oversight over the entire public debt portfolio. Senegal's score fell, as the risk of debt distress was raised from low to moderate due to the country's increased reliance on external non-concessional borrowing.

CLUSTER B: STRUCTURAL POLICIES

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

The average score for cluster B decreased from 3.2 in 2018 to 3.1 in 2019, the first change over the past 10 years (figure B.1). Performance weakened across the cluster. After remaining steady at 3.7, the score on the trade criterion fell to 3.6. The score on the financial sector criterion decreased further from 2.8 to 2.7, well below the cluster average. The score for the business regulatory environment, which had declined to 3.0 in 2018, was unchanged. These decreasing scores suggest a slowdown in the pace of structural reforms across the region's IDA countries,

The average Figure B.1: Trends in the Structural Policies Cluster Scores score for cluster B decreased in 2019, the first 3.7 change over the past 10 years. Performance weakened on 3.3 the trade and financial sector 3.1 criteria. 2.9 2.7 2.5 2012 2014 2015 2016 2017 2018 2019 Structural policies cluster - - Business regulatory environment Financial sector Source: CPIA database Figure B.2: Structural Policies Cluster Average Scores, by Country Group Fragile countries underperformed non-fragile 4.0 countries across 3.5 the structural 3.5 policies cluster. 3.2 3.1 A similar pattern 3.0 3.0 2.8 was observed between resource-rich and non-resourceintensive 2.0 countries. 1.5 1.0 IDA SSA Fragile countries Non-fragile Non-resource-rich Resource-rich countries in SSA countries in SSA average in SSA countries in SSA Source: CPIA database

which could weigh on output growth in the medium term.

These average patterns mask considerable heterogeneity. Among fragile countries, the average score for the cluster fell from 2.8 in 2018 to 2.7 in 2019, due to deterioration in the policies and regulations affecting financial sector development. In contrast, the average cluster score for the region's non-fragile countries increased to 3.5, after declining to 3.4 in 2018. This increase reflected the countries' stronger trade policy and regulatory business environment frameworks. A relatively similar pattern holds between resource-intensive and non-resource-intensive countries (figure B.2). Fragile countries underperformed non-fragile countries across the structural policies cluster. For each criterion in the cluster, fragile countries registered more decreases than increases in their scores (table B.1).

Table B.1: Changes in the Structural Policies Cluster Scores, by Criterion

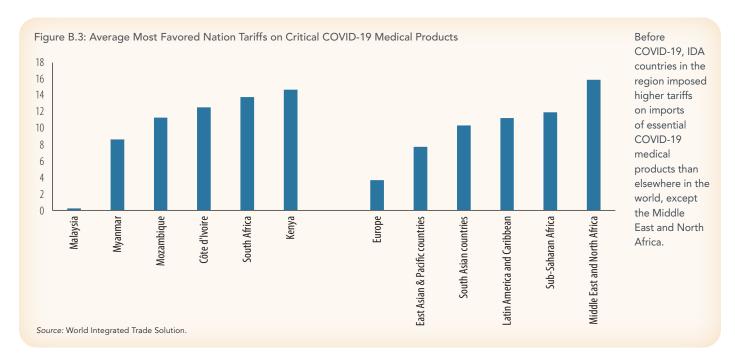
| Changes in scores | Trade | Financial sector | Business regulatory environment |
|-------------------|--|--|--|
| Increases | Ghana, Guinea, Zimbabwe | Malawi | Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal Zimbabawe |
| Decreases | Eritrea, Nigeria, São Tomé and Príncipe | Congo, Rep., Kenya, Niger, Sierre Leone | Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, South Sudan, Sudan, Uganda |

Source: CPIA database.

Trade

The trade criterion assesses how the policy framework fosters global integration in goods and services. It covers the trade regime and trade facilitation. The average score for trade was 3.6 in 2019, down from 3.7 in 2018. Six countries experienced a change in their score, with three countries (Ghana, Guinea, and Zimbabwe) registering an increase, while the score declined for three countries (Eritrea, Nigeria, and São Tomé and Príncipe). A worsening of trade policy drove the change in the countries where the score on the trade criterion fell. For the countries that recorded an increase in their score, the gain was due to improvements in trade facilitation (Ghana and Guinea) and in the quality of trade policy (Zimbabwe).

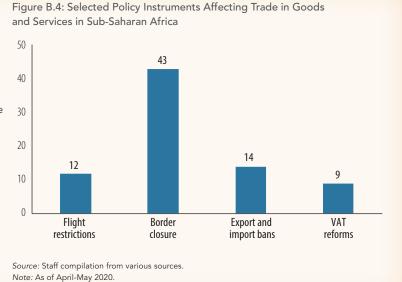
The relatively slow pace of trade policy reform and trade facilitation improvements has limited the ability of the region's IDA countries to leverage trade to overcome the COVID-19 crisis; mitigate its health and economic impact, especially on the poor; and drive the subsequent economic recovery. Figure B.3 shows that prior to the crisis, IDA countries in the region were imposing higher tariffs on imports of essential COVID-19 medical products than were low- and middle-income countries elsewhere in the world, except the Middle East and North Africa. In addition, according to the World Trade Organization's Trade Facilitation Agreement database, Sub-Saharan African countries have made the least progress on implementing single windows,



border agency cooperation, authorized operators, enquiry points, and risk management, all of which are critical for the smooth functioning of trade. Trade provides countries access to essential medical goods (including material inputs for their production) and services to help contain the pandemic and treat those affected. Trade ensures access to food, maintaining and enhancing the nutritional intake of the poor, which will boost immune systems and contribute to the ability to resist the virus. Trade is also crucial in providing farmers with necessary inputs.

In response to the COVID-19 crisis, Sub-Saharan African countries have put in place measures that, to a large extent, have been trade restrictive. From figure B.4, as of April/May 2020, 43 countries in the region have closed their land borders, 14 have put in place export/import bans, 12 have put in place flight restrictions, and only nine have instituted some type of value-added tax (VAT) reform. Border closures can have drastic impacts on welfare and poverty reduction. Small-scale cross-border trade is a major feature of many Sub-Saharan African economies, contributing to the income of about 43 percent of the region's entire population according to some estimates. Such trade supports livelihoods, especially for women; creates employment; and, being dominated by agricultural and livestock products, is an essential part of food security in many places. Hence, borders need to be kept open as much as possible for trade, while implementing effective containment measures. Trade measures have included export restrictions⁹ on medical supplies and food as well as import restrictions¹⁰ on food. Some measures have been trade liberalizing—for example, a few countries have suspended import duties on various medical-related goods and services. A best practice approach would generally be to steer away from restrictive measures so as to ensure better access to critical

In response to the COVID-19 crisis, the region's IDA countries have put in place measures that have been trade restrictive.



products for all.

Trade policy reforms can constitute a positive response to the crisis. Limiting the negative economic and social impact will require reforms that reduce the cost and improve the availability of COVID-19 goods and services, reduce tax and administrative burdens on importers and exporters, and reduce the cost of food and other products heavily consumed by the poor. Measures to streamline trade procedures and facilitate trade at the borders can contribute

to the response by expediting the movement, release, and clearance of goods, including goods in transit, and enabling exchange of services.

⁹ Algeria, Botswana, Côte d'Ivoire, the Arab Republic of Egypt, Eswatini, Kenya, Lesotho, Libya, Mali, Morocco, Namibia, Sudan, and Zimbabwe. 10 Mauritius and the Seychelles.

¹¹ Angola, Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, Cameroon, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

Reforms can be designed to reduce the need for close contact between traders, transporters, and border officials to protect stakeholders and limit the spread of the virus, while maintaining essential assessments to ensure revenue, health, and security. Maintaining transport and logistics services along the main corridors will be essential, particularly for landlocked countries, for continued access to medical products, food, and other essential goods and services. Where there is a need to implement stronger containment measures for health reasons, transport and logistics must be categorized as essential activities to keep critical supply chains up and running. Box B.1 presents possible policy responses that governments in the region's IDA countries can take to support trade during the crisis.

To facilitate access to essential COVID-19-related medical goods and supplies

- · Reduce to zero import tariffs on COVID-19-related medical goods
- · Exempt from value-added tax (VAT) imports of COVID-19-related medical services and goods
- · Waive withholding taxes (advance income taxes) on imports of COVID-19-related goods
- · Commit to refrain from imposing export bans or taxes on COVID-19 medical goods or services.

To support consumption of essential items and limit negative impacts on the poorest

- · Reduce to zero import tariffs on all food products
- · Waive withholding taxes on imports of food products for the duration of the crisis
- · Refrain from imposing export bans or taxes on critical food staples.

To support exporters to maintain jobs and foreign exchange earnings

- · Remove bans, quantitative restrictions, and taxes on exports
- · Waive withholding taxes on exports
- · Review all export applications, licenses, and permits and remove those that are not required to maintain market access or protect health, safety, and security
- · Reimburse exporters that have lost overseas sales for the VAT that was paid on inputs in the expectation that it would be refunded on export.

To streamline regulatory and border procedures to facilitate access to COVID-19-related medical goods and food

- Remove the need for applications, permits, and licenses for products that do not pose significant risk to human health, environmental safety, or consumer protection; streamline procedures for those that are required and prioritize issuance and regulatory approval of imports of COVID-19-related medical goods and food
- · Recognize certificates or systems of conformity for medical equipment, essential food items, and farming inputs from accredited agencies in countries with similar or higher standards
- · Implement risk management to allow low-risk critical supplies to pass clearance controls quickly
- · Support increased internal and external border agency collaboration; for example, customs and agencies responsible for sanitary and phytosanitary standards should work together to expedite clearance for essential medical goods, food products, and farming inputs
- Enhance business continuity through greater use of information and communications technology, flexible working schedules, longer border opening hours, and expanded access to telephone and online enquiry points, all of which can increase efficiency and limit the physical presence and interaction of logistics workers and officials at facilities and border crossing points
- · Raise the threshold for application of simplified trade regimes to encourage small-scale traders to consolidate.

To ensure effectively functioning trucking and logistics services and minimal supply chain disruption

- \cdot Maintain transit rights and expedite transit of medical goods, food, and other essential items
- Ensure no additional taxes and fees are imposed on transit traffic and reduce existing duties where possible on COVID-19 medical goods and food
- · Limit impacts on the main trade corridors and set up COVID-19 "container clinics" at key nodes in the network to reduce contamination and spread.

Box B.1: Key
Trade Policy
Reforms
and Trade
Facilitation
Measures to
Enhance the
Response to
the COVID-19
Crisis

Trade will also play a key role in the recovery. Sustaining and enhancing many of the measures outlined above would reduce trade costs and provide a more certain environment for trade and investment in trade-related activities. Collaborative efforts at the regional and global levels would build on national efforts in repairing fractured international value chains, improving preparedness, and enhancing the resilience of trade to future shocks. For example, deeper regional integration through the African Continental Free Trade Area could contribute to pulling countries out of recession by increasing opportunities for growth and poverty reduction through expanding the regional market, enhancing diversification, and generating better paid jobs. In the aftermath of the crisis, the recent trend for manufacturing activities to migrate from China in response to rapidly rising wages may be augmented as firms seek to increase their resilience to future shocks. The region's IDA countries have an opportunity to attract foreign investment in manufacturing and the jobs that this will bring. The 2020 World Development Report concludes that open and transparent trade policies and investments in trade facilitation and trade logistics are elements of a policy framework that is conducive to participation in global value chains.

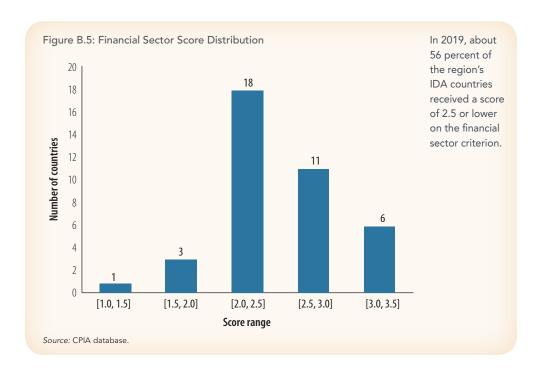
Financial Sector

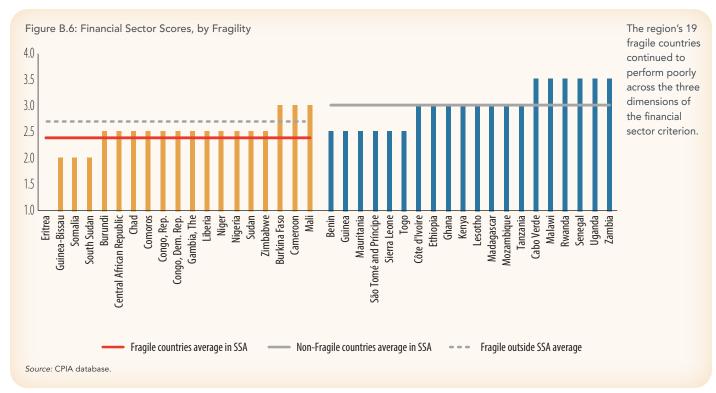
The financial sector criterion assesses the policies and regulations that affect (i) financial stability; (ii) the sector's efficiency, depth, and resource mobilization strength; and (iii) access to financial services. The average score for the financial sector criterion decreased from 2.8 in 2018 to 2.7 in 2019, one of the lowest scores among the 16 CPIA criteria, pointing to a deterioration in the quality of policies and regulation affecting financial sector development in the region. Four countries—Kenya, Niger, the Republic of Congo, and Sierra Leone—saw their score fall while the score for one country—Malawi—increased.

Persisting financial inclusion gaps, including by gender, age, and income, and the substantial decrease in access to credit by micro, small, and medium-size enterprises following the introduction of the interest rate cap in 2016 contributed to the decline in Kenya's score. For Niger, the decrease in the score was due to the increase in the level of capital at risk, far above regulatory requirements set by the regional central bank. For the Republic of Congo, it was due to a deterioration in asset quality in the banking sector. The decrease in Sierra Leone's score was on account of the high cost of financial intermediation and the population's low access to financial services. In Malawi, a significant decrease in the level of nonperforming loans helped strengthen asset quality in the banking sector, which contributed to the increase in its score.

Country scores ranged from 1.0 to 3.5, with 46 percent of the countries receiving a score between 2.0 and 2.5, and six countries achieving the region's highest scores of 3.0 to 3.5. (figure B.5). These results indicate that in most countries, important components of the financial sector remain very vulnerable to shocks, financial markets are underdeveloped, and only small shares of households and small and medium enterprises (SMEs) have access to formal sector financial services. In particular, the region's 19 fragile countries, with an average score of 2.4, continued to perform poorly across the three dimensions of the financial sector criterion (figure B.6).

Although only five countries saw their score changed in 2019, there were nine individual score changes across the three subcomponents, four of which were positive and five were negative. In contrast to the previous year, the financial stability subcomponent recorded a modest gain in 2019, with three countries recording an increase in their score while two countries observed a decrease. This reflected improved adherence to the





new Basel II/III norm and some efforts to increase asset quality in the banking sector, although in many cases nonperforming loans remain elevated. Partly as a result, the average score for this sub—component remains low, indicating persisting vulnerabilities in the financial sector (figure B.7).

Figure B.7: Financial Sector: Overall and Components The average score for the financial stability subcomponent 4.1 remained low. indicating 3.6 persisting 3.1 vulnerabilities in the financial 2.6 sector. 2.1 1.6 1.1 0.6

Financial stability

Access to financial services

0.1

Source: CPIA database

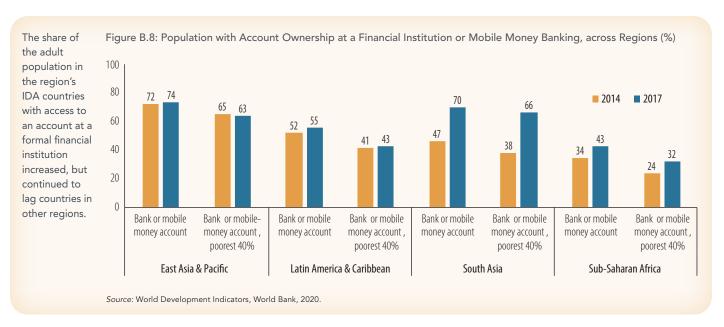
The efficiency, depth, and resource mobilization subcomponent recorded no gain in 2019. As in 2018, one country registered a decrease in its score while for all other countries the score on this subcomponent remained unchanged, which points to a lack of progress in increasing the diversity, efficiency, and competitiveness of the financial sector and achieving sustainable levels of intermediation to the private sector.

Similarly, the access to financial services

subcomponent achieved no gains in 2019. While one country increased its score on the subcomponent, two countries recorded a decrease in their score. In many cases, this reflected a regulatory environment that continues to constrain SMEs' access to formal sector financial services. Countries across the region continue to make notable gains in the share of the adult population with access to an account at a formal financial institution, owing to the continued expansion of mobile money activities. However, they continue to lag countries in other regions (figure B.8).

Overall financial sector score

Financial depth



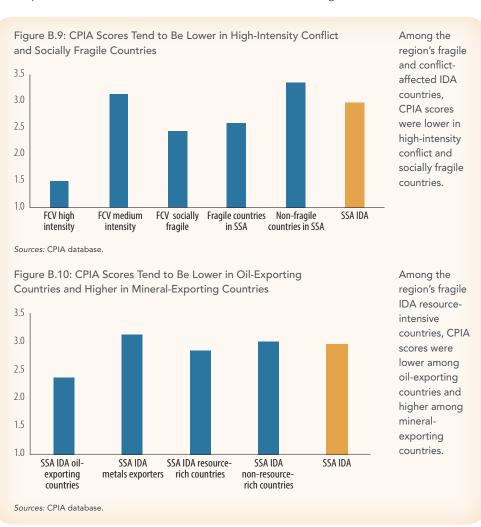
Business Regulatory Environment

The business regulatory environment criterion assesses the legal, regulatory, and policy environment for private sector business. It has three subcomponents that measure the efficacy of regulations affecting (i) entry, exit, and competition; (ii) ongoing business operations; and (iii) factor markets (labor and land).

The average score for the business regulatory environment criterion was 3.0 in 2019, the same as in 2018. Five countries (Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal, and Zimbabwe) registered an increase in their score, while for five countries (Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, South Sudan, Sudan, and Uganda) the average score declined. Rwanda at 4.5 and Zambia at 4.0 were joined by Kenya as the IDA countries in the region with the highest scores on business regulatory environment. More generally, businesses in fragile and conflict-affected countries (FCV) continued to operate in regulatory environments that are more challenging than in their non-fragile counterparts. Resource-intensive countries also had lower scores on the business regulatory environment than non-resource-intensive countries, reflecting their slower pace of reforms, especially among oil exporters.

The average scores hide significant variation in performance among FCV and resource-intensive countries. Among the region's 19 FCV countries in 2019, the three countries experiencing high-intensity conflict (the Central African Republic, Somalia, and South Sudan) had an average score

of 1.5, reflecting the difficulty in effectively regulating business in countries with such conditions. The eight mediumintensity conflict countries (Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, and Sudan) had an average score of 3.1, with seven countries scoring between 3.0 and 3.5, while Sudan was downgraded to 2.5 from 3.0 in 2018. The average score for the socially fragile FCV countries (Chad, the Comoros, the Republic of Congo, Eritrea, The Gambia, Guinea Bissau, Liberia, and Zimbabwe) was unchanged at 2.4, although Zimbabwe's score increased from 2.5 to 3.0 (figure B.9). Among the resource-intensive countries, oil exporters had a much lower average score (figure B.10).



CPIA scores Figure B.11: Distribution of CPIA Scores Among Fragile and for the region's Conflict-affected IDA Countries in the Region (number of countries) fragile and conflict-affected **IDA** countries **2019 2018** exhibited wider 6 variance at the lower end of the rating scale. 3 Source: CPIA database CPIA scores Figure B.12: Distribution of CPIA Scores Among Non-fragile IDA for the region's Countries in the Region (number of countries) non-fragile 10 countries were **2019 2018** concentrated at the high end of the rating scale. 2 < = 1.52 2.5 Source: CPIA database.

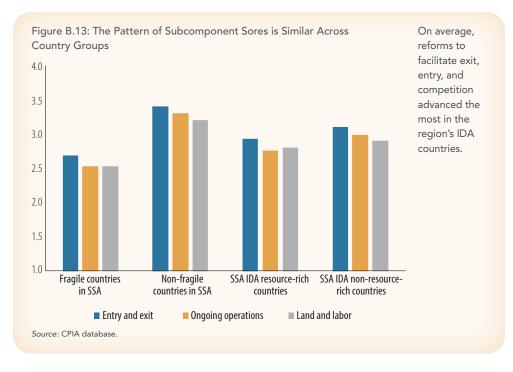
The distribution of scores highlights the wide range of business environments in the region's FCV countries and underscores a widening gap between FCV and other countries. The scores among the FCV countries span the range from 1.0 to 3.5, with a worsening at the low end due to the downgrades of South Sudan and Sudan, coupled with offsetting upgrades in Nigeria and Zimbabwe (figure B.11). In contrast, the non-FCV countries are more concentrated around the 3.0-4.5 range, with most scoring 3.0 and 3.5 in 2019 (figure B.12). The non-FCV distribution also appears to have improved at the upper end, with increases in the scores for Ethiopia, Kenya, and Senegal partially offset by decreases in the scores for Côte d'Ivoire and Uganda.

On average, reforms to facilitate exit, entry, and competition advanced the most in all countries, while gains on regulations affecting ongoing operations and factor markets were mixed (figure B.13). Performance on all three types of regulations was strongest among non-FCV countries and non-resource-intensive countries. Regulations affecting ongoing operations were more burdensome in FCV countries and resource-intensive countries more broadly. Regulations affecting land and labor were also more rigid among FCV and resource-intensive countries.

For FCV countries, the distribution of scores across the three types of regulations was evenly spread. Many FCVs scored 2 or less in the three categories of regulations, while the scores for most non-FCV countries were clustered around the 3.0-3.5 range for two of the subcomponents. The scores covering regulations affecting entry, exit, and competition show a relatively flat distribution for both types of countries. Most of the non-FCV countries scored 3.5 or 4 and above, while FCV countries mostly scored 2.5 or less.

The various dimensions of the business regulatory environment in the region are captured in the World Bank's annual Doing Business report. Although countries in Sub-Saharan Africa continue to lag other regions on the Doing Business indicators, they have continued to implement

reforms (figure B.14). The Doing Business 2020 report captured 63 reforms carried out by 26 of the 39 IDA countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. Of the 26 countries that made it easier to do business in 2019, 16 implemented more than one reform and seven implemented more than three. The countries with the greatest number of reforms were Kenya (seven), Nigeria (six), Togo (six), and Zimbabwe (five). By virtue of the greatest improvement in the Doing Business scores, Togo and Nigeria were ranked



among the top 10 performers in the report.

The 39 IDA countries in Sub-Sahara Africa have a wide range of business environments, as demonstrated by the Doing Business scores ranging from 76 in Rwanda to 20 in Somalia. At the top end, in addition to the top reformers, strong business environments are on display in Rwanda, Zambia, Malawi, Ghana, Senegal, and Niger. Even Côte d'Ivoire and Uganda maintained a strong position, despite recording a decrease in their CPIA scores. At the other end of the spectrum are the FCV countries, holding seven of the bottom 10 Doing Business rankings in the world, with three other FCV countries rounding out the bottom 10 in the region.

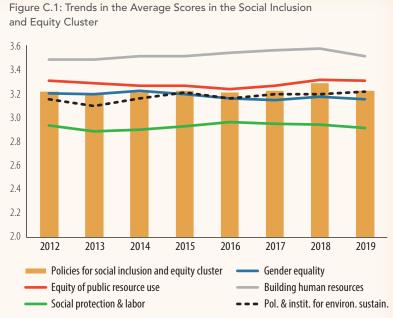


CLUSTER C: POLICIES FOR SOCIAL INCLUSION AND FOULTY

Cluster C deals with social inclusion and equity. It covers gender equality, equity of public resource use, building human resources, social protection, and environmental sustainability.

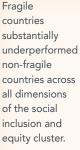
After rising to 3.3 in 2018, the average score for cluster C decreased to 3.2 in 2019, where it had been for the past several years (figure C.1). This decrease was mainly due to a decline in the score on the building human resources criterion. The scores for gender equality, equity of public resource use, environmental sustainability, and social protection were unchanged. The

The average score for cluster C decreased in 2019, mainly due to a decline in the average score for the building human resources criterion.

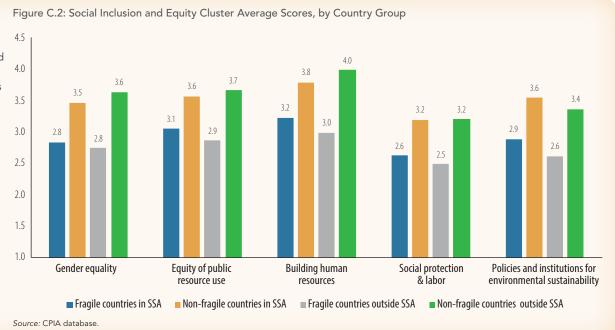


score for social protection continued to lag.

Fragile countries substantially underperformed non-fragile countries across all dimensions of the social inclusion and equity cluster (figure C.2). The gap in the score was particularly large in gender equality, building human resources, and environmental sustainability. Fragile and non-fragile countries hit their lowest scores on the social protection and labor criterion. However, the decreases in the score in 2019 were heavily concentrated in the building



Source: CPIA database



human resources component, which covers health and education, suggesting that many countries entered the COVID-19 crisis inadequately prepared to confront the pandemic (table C.1).

Table C.1: Changes in the Social Inclusion and Equity Cluster Scores, by Criterion

| Changes in scores | Gender equality | Equity of public resource use | Building human resources | Social protection and labor | Policies and institutions for environmental sustainablity |
|----------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|--|
| Increases | Togo | Mali, Togo | Chad, Mauritania, Nigeria | Liberia | Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Niger, Rwanda |
| Decreases | South Sudan | Rwanda, Zambia | Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Comoros, Liberia, Mozambique, South Sudan, Zambia | Guinea, Zambia | Mauritania |

Source: CPIA database.

Gender Equality

The gender equality criterion assesses the extent to which a country has enacted and put in place laws, policies, mechanisms, institutions, and programs that promote equal access for men and women to human capital development and productive and economic resources, and which give men and women equal status and protection under the law.

The regional average score for the gender equality criterion has remained unchanged since 2014, at 3.2. In 2019, only Togo achieved an increase in the score for gender equality, while South Sudan was the only country that saw its score fall. Fragility, conflict, and violence continue to underpin gender gaps in the region and are associated with lower scores for this component of the CPIA. Of the 37 countries and territories included on the World Bank's FY2020 list of fragile and conflict situations, 19 are in Sub-Saharan Africa. Within the region, countries that are currently classified as experiencing fragility and conflict situations achieved an average CPIA score of 2.8 for gender equality, compared with an average of 3.5 for countries not classified as experiencing fragility and conflict situations.

At the policy level, the past few years have seen several countries in the region enact reforms that improve gender equality, including reforms responding to domestic violence and sexual harassment, women's equal access to assets, and women's equal access to employment. Liberia and Burkina Faso, for example, have enacted recent reforms to address domestic violence. South Sudan has also brought in legislation to protect women from sexual harassment. On access to assets, the increase in Togo's score reflects provisions in its new land code to ensure that women have equal property ownership rights and daughters have equal inheritance rights to those of their male counterparts. In Côte d'Ivoire, reforms have granted husbands and wives equal rights to immovable property as well as equal administrative authority over their assets during marriage. These reforms may help women use their assets as collateral to access finance, increase their incentives to make productive investments in their land, or allow them to transition to off-farm activities, as they no longer have to guard their land, thus spurring the structural transformation that is vital to economic development. Finally, on women's equal access to employment, recent reforms have included equalizing the retirement ages for women and men (the Democratic

Republic of Congo), prohibiting gender discrimination in hiring and pay for equal work (Mali and South Sudan), removing restrictions on the types of work women can do (Niger, São Tomé and Príncipe, and South Sudan), mandating that maternity leave is paid by the government rather than the employer (the Democratic Republic of Congo), increasing the length of maternity leave (Zambia), and making paid parental leave available to men (South Sudan).

These recent policy reform efforts are representative of a longer-term effort by countries across the region to bring in reforms that improve gender equality. Indeed, the 2019 Women, Business and the Law report, "A Decade of Reform," finds that the Sub-Saharan Africa region achieved the greatest proportional increase in its Women, Business and the Law Index score over the past 50 years (with an 81 percent increase) and that over the past 10 years four of the world's 10 countries with the greatest increase in their scores were in Sub-Saharan Africa, including South Sudan, São Tomé and Príncipe, and the Democratic Republic of Congo.

On mechanisms for effectively implementing policies so that reforms lead to changes on the ground, one of the difficulties is the existence of dual legal systems in many countries. This may mean that reforms to national statutory law or policies are not implemented on the ground where local customary laws and practices, which may conflict with these reforms, have more influence. Thus, it is especially important for national policy makers to work with key formal and informal actors and institutions who exert authority on practices at the community level. A recent example of this approach can be found in Niger, where the government has institutionalized the use of Child Protection Committees to promote the abandonment of child marriage. These committees include a wide range of community representatives, such as religious and traditional leaders who exert significant influence over the social norms and practices around child marriage.

Over the coming months, the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic are likely to vary by gender. To maximize the effectiveness of the response and prevent the crisis from contributing to widening key gender gaps, it will be critical that governments recognize the potential gendered impacts of the pandemic and take them into account in the design of their policy response (box C.1).

Box C.1: Potential Effects of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Gender Equality Global data currently suggest that the death rate for people who contract COVID-19 is between 10 and 90 percent higher for men than for women.^a Immunological and hormonal factors may play a role, but more research is needed to form a rigorous understanding of this disparity. However, in terms of exposure to the virus, women across the Sub-Saharan Africa region face specific vulnerabilities. For example, women are heavily exposed as frontline health workers, with data showing that 65 percent of nurses across the region are women.^b As patients, women may also be exposed through their need to access maternal and reproductive health services, and policy makers will need to ensure that pregnant women can continue to access these services in a safe way. Some of the risks here are illuminated by evidence from the 2014–16 West Africa Ebola outbreak, with researchers estimating that the reallocation of public resources from reproductive and sexual health services to the emergency Ebola response led to a reduction in the use of key services, which contributed to an additional 3,600 maternal, neonatal, and stillbirth deaths for the year 2014–15. Women may also be disproportionately exposed in their households, as they tend to be more likely to take on the role of caring for sick household members.

Adolescent girls may be especially vulnerable to the disruption that the pandemic is likely to cause at a critical moment in their lives when they are making key decisions with long-term consequences related to

Box C.1 continued

health outcomes, fertility, marriage, and acquisition of skills.^d Evidence from Sierra Leone, for example, indicates that school closures related to the 2014–16 Ebola outbreak contributed to a 50 percent increase in teen pregnancy rates.^e Although girls' clubs that were used to deliver an adolescent girls' training program during the outbreak were found to act as a safe space and mitigate the impact of school closures on teen pregnancy, such physical gatherings may not be an option, given the need for physical distancing during the current pandemic. And although there is evidence of the positive impacts of digital mechanisms for improving women's access to agricultural extension^f and financial services,^g there is not yet evidence on whether the positive impacts of girls' clubs can be replicated using digital platforms.

There is emerging evidence that the COVID-19 pandemic may have greater negative impacts on economic outcomes for women than men. This will make it even more critical for governments to implement policies and programs that respond to the specific needs of women workers, farmers, and entrepreneurs. Such approaches can draw on an ever-growing base of knowledge, including evidence from the World Bank's Africa Gender Innovation Lab. Although the spread of the virus is still in its relatively early stages in Sub-Saharan Africa compared with other regions of the world, emerging data from the recent Facebook COVID-19 Future of Business Survey collected May 28-31, 2020 indicates that, across the sampled countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, the business closure rate was 43 percent for businesses owned by women compared to 34 percent for those owned by men at the time of the survey. With the lockdown policies in place in many countries in the region, women are more likely to have had to temporarily close their businesses than men. Women business owners may be disproportionately affected by the contraction in economic activities as a result of COVID-19 for a number of reasons. This includes gender differentials by (i) government-imposed restrictions, (ii) sectors of operation, (iii) time spent on domestic responsibilities, and (iv) finances. The Facebook COVID-19 Future of Business survey showed that women are more concentrated in consumer-facing sectors (services, hospitality, and retail trade), which have experienced a more severe demand shock in the context of the pandemic. In addition, a large proportion of operational business owners/managers are having to manage domestic and care responsibilities, with women still doing the bulk of this work. This could be the result of the extra burden that may come from staying home during a quarantine or caring for children out of school or family members who have fallen ill.

In addition, women's higher concentration in vulnerable types of employment and in the informal sector may also put them outside the reach of formal social protection, weakening their ability to cope with pandemic-related economic shocks and forcing them to resort to negative coping strategies.

Finally, the COVID-19 pandemic is likely to increase women's exposure to gender-based violence (GBV). A variety of factors are likely to contribute to an increase in GBV during the pandemic, including the need for households to quarantine together for extended periods, the increased stress on household members caused by poverty and economic uncertainty, the weaker bargaining position that many women may find themselves in because of the unequal economic impacts of the pandemic, and a reduction in access to or funding for key health services, including those that respond to GBV. Impacts may be particularly severe in countries that are already affected by conflict, fragility, and violence, of which there are many in the region.

 $a.\ https://www.brookings.edu/blog/up-front/2020/05/15/covid-19-much-more-fatal-for-men-especially-taking-age-into-account/.$

b. M. Boniol, M. McIsaac, L. Xu, T. Wuliji, K. Diallo, and J. Campbell, 2019, "Gender Equity in the Health Workforce: Analysis of 104 Countries," Working Paper 1, World Health Organization, Geneva.

c. L. Sochas, A. A. Channon, and S. Nam, 2017, "Counting Indirect Crisis-Related Deaths in the Context of a Low-Resilience Health System: The Case of Maternal and Neonatal Health during the Ebola Epidemic in Sierra Leone," Health Policy Plan 32 (suppl 3), iii32-iii39.

d. World Bank, 2011, World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development, Washington, DC: World Bank Group.

e. O. Bandiera, N. Buehren, M. P. Goldstein, I. Rasul, and A. Smurra, 2019, "The Economic Lives of Young Women in the Time of Ebola: Lessons from an Empowerment Program," World Bank, Washington, DC.

f. E. Lecoutere, D. J. Spielman, and B. V. Campenhout, 2019, "Empowering Women with Digital Extension in Uganda: Effects of Information and Role Models," International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, DC.

g. T. Suri and W. Jack, 2016, "The Long-Run Poverty and Gender Impacts of Mobile Money, Science 354 (6317), 1288–92.

h. World Bank, 2020, "Supporting Women throughout the Coronavirus (COVID-19) Emergency Response and Economic Recovery," World Bank, Washington, DC, https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/33612.

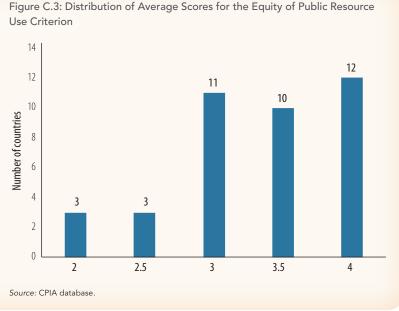
i. A. Peterman, A. Potts, M. O'Donnell, K. Thompson, N. Shah, S. Oertelt-Prigione, and N. van Gelder, 2020, "Pandemics and Violence against Women and Children," Center for Global Development, Washington, DC.

Equity of Public Resource Use

This criterion assesses the extent to which the pattern of public expenditures and revenue collection affects the poor and is consistent with poverty reduction priorities. There are three subcomponents to the criterion. The first is an expenditure component that assesses the extent to which poverty measurement tools are available, mechanisms are in place to track expenditure, and the degree to which information on poverty is available to the public. The second is a score that reflects how well poor and vulnerable groups are identified and whether government priorities and strategies are effectively directed toward these groups. The third is a score assessing how progressive or regressive the incidence of various tax policies in the country are.

The regional average score for this criterion was unchanged at 3.3 in 2019. However, the score changed in four countries, with two countries (Mali and Togo) seeing an increase and two countries (Rwanda and Zambia) experiencing a decrease in their score. Mali's score increased to 4.5, from 4.0 in 2018, as several statistical reforms continued to be enacted, including a new statistics law. This increase places the country's score alongside the likes of Burkina Faso, Niger, and Togo. Togo's score increased to 4.0. A harmonized and modernized household survey was completed, which will be used to update national welfare estimates and identify poor and vulnerable groups. Rwanda's score dropped to 4.0 because of changes in the prioritization of government spending toward infrastructure, which squeezed the available fiscal space for investments in rural areas and human capital. The score for Zambia declined because of continued delays in the implementation of an updated national household survey.

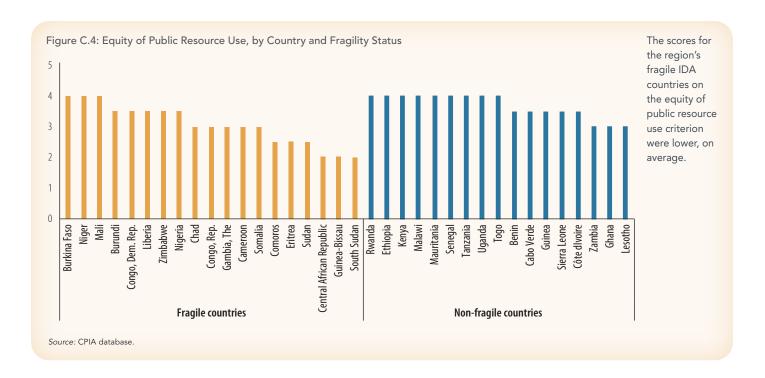
More than half of the region's IDA countries had an average score of 3.5 or more on the equity of public resource use criterion. This reflected recent gains in poverty measurement and monitoring and the increased availability of poverty-related information to the public.



Individual country scores ranged from 2.0 to 4.0, with an almost equal share of countries scoring between 3.0 and 3.5 and between 3.5 and 4.0 (figure C.3). For the most part, the scores reflect recent gains in poverty measurement and monitoring and the increased availability of poverty-related information to the public. The highest score for this criterion across all IDA countries was 4.5.

The country scores by fragility status are shown in figure C.4. The average score for fragile countries was 3.1, compared

with an average score of 3.6 among non-fragile countries. The best-scoring fragile countries had an average score of 4, comparable to those in the upper range in non-fragile countries. The lowest scoring fragile countries had an average score of 2.0, which was a full point below the lowest scores for non-fragile countries. Fragile countries still struggle to obtain regular estimations of poverty, identify the poor and vulnerable, and maintain progressive public budgets.



Building Human Resources

The building human resources component assesses the quality of national policies and public and private sector delivery in health and education. The regional average score for this criterion decreased to 3.5 in 2019, from 3.6 in 2018, much lower than the average score of 3.7 for IDA countries outside the Sub-Saharan Africa region. Ten countries saw their scores change in 2019, with seven registering a decrease and three recording an increase (table C.1).

Health

The regional average score for health was 3.4, the same as in 2018. However, decreases in country scores largely outnumbered increases. Three countries—Benin, Mauritania, and Nigeria—saw their scores increase from 2018, while eight countries—Burkina Faso, the Central African Republic, the Republic of Congo, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Niger, and Zambia—registered a decrease in their scores. Most countries' scores are in the midrange, at 3.0 or 3.5 (figure C.5). The countries trailing the regional average include the Central African Republic, the Republic of Congo, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Somalia, and South Sudan. The countries that were above the regional average and had a score of 4.0 or higher include Cabo Verde, The Gambia, Rwanda, Benin, Burundi, Ethiopia, Ghana, Senegal, and Zimbabwe.

The countries that had a score of 4.0 or higher accounted for 23 percent of the region's IDA countries (table C.2). This was a negative development compared with 2018, when 26 percent of the IDA countries scored in that range. Rwanda remains outstanding in this range. It sustained the significant progress it had made in service coverage, stewardship, and health financing. At the low end of the distribution, the share of countries that scored 2.5 or below was 13 percent, which was higher than the 10.5 percent in that bracket in 2018. Finally, about 64 percent of the region's IDA countries scored between 3.0 and 3.5, compared with 63 percent in 2018.

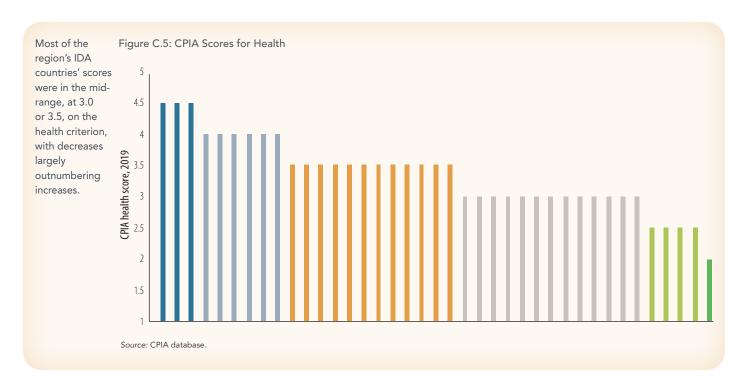


Table C.2: Distribution of CPIA Health Scores

| Score bracket | Number of countries | Share of total (%) |
|---------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| 4.5 | 3 | 7.7 |
| 4 | 6 | 15.4 |
| 3.5 | 12 | 30.8 |
| 3 | 13 | 33.3 |
| 2.5 | 4 | 10.3 |
| 2 | 1 | 2.6 |
| Total | 39 | 100 |

Source: CPIA database.

In general, progress in health financing has remained slow, with insufficient revenue generation, and budget allocations to the sector are largely input-based, with little progress toward strategic purchasing. Moreover, although data availability and health information systems have improved somewhat across program areas, these gains are not commensurate with the promise innovations in information systems hold for tracking program coverage.

The average score for the health subcomponent was equal to the average score for the cluster. For nearly 62 percent of the region's IDA countries, the health score equaled the average score for the cluster. Conversely, in the 38 percent of the countries where the average cluster score

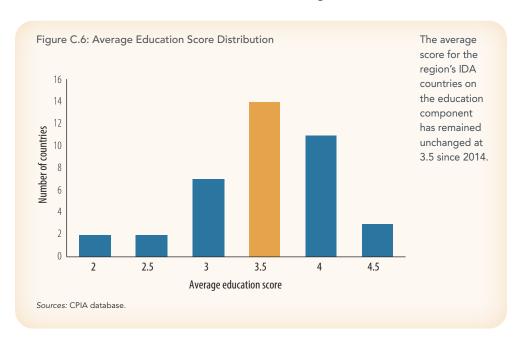
was higher than the health score, the difference was on average only about half a point. The difference in scores between the health subcomponent and the overall cluster was more pronounced for countries in fragile situations. For almost 72 percent of the region's fragile IDA countries, the average score for health was below the average score for the cluster. The health subcomponent outperformed the cluster average in only five countries.

Education

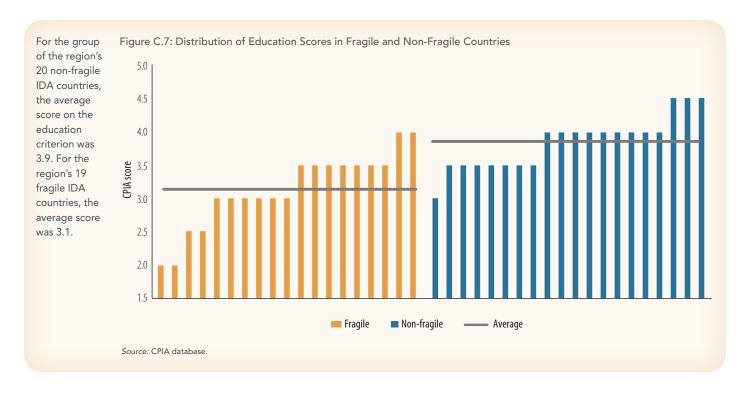
The education component of the CPIA evaluates six key education system aspects that are critical to its high performance: sector strategy, education management and information systems (EMIS), learning assessments, teachers, education finance, and school-based management.

The average score for the education component remained at 3.5, unchanged since 2014. Fourteen countries had a median score of 3.5 (figure C.6).

There were significant gaps between fragile and non-fragile countries. In 2019, among the 19 fragile IDA countries in the sample, the average education score was 3.1. For the group of 20 non-fragile IDA countries, the average score was 3.9 (figure C.7).



Three countries recorded changes in their scores: the Comoros and Liberia (0.5-point decrease) and Chad (0.5-point increase). In the Comoros, the education management information system (EMIS) is highly dependent on donor funding. There were delays in data analysis and reporting, as well as in dissemination of statistics. Updated information on and assessment of education finance show that students and teachers lack learning tools and facilities, while families must support schools with basic inputs such as textbooks and maintenance. In Liberia, challenges remained in different areas and the recent upgrade in the score was reverted. The decrease in the score reflected the lack of consistent school data, as the government has struggled with effectively resourcing and carrying out EMIS activities, delays in advancing the national learning assessment system, highly centralized funding and teacher management, and school Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) and committees are generally not informed about school performance.



In Chad, the education score increased for two consecutive years. In 2018, the increase was supported by the implementation of the interim sector plan with the backing of all education stakeholders. The increase in the score in 2019 reflected the government's commitment to improving education data availability, having worked to improve timeliness, with the next step set toward quality. A second major improvement is linked to teachers, whose salaries are now paid on time, including payments of community teachers. In addition, incentives were introduced to improve teacher allocation, such as allowances and accommodation and remoteness premiums.

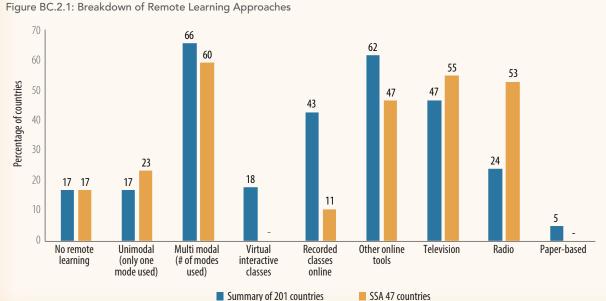
Box C.2 discusses the impact of COVID-19 on education in countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa region.

Box C.2: Impact of COVID-19 on Education Financial impact on education. Government revenues are projected to fall due to the pandemic as a result of slowing economic activity. As fiscal space is already limited in many countries, there is a risk that policy responses to the crisis will be insufficient or worsen macroeconomic conditions. In addition, the need to prioritize the public health emergency response and strengthen safety nets is likely to reduce the amount of funding that is available for other public investments, including education. Previous forecasts estimated that overall public education spending would grow in real terms, but if governments reprioritize their budgets and reduce the share allocated to education, there is likely to be a downside scenario in which per capita education spending declines in almost all country income groups and regions. In Sub-Saharan Africa, per capita education spending would fall by 4.2 percent.

Box C.2 continued

Expected impact on education services. About 252 million learners across Sub-Saharan Africa have been affected by COVID-19-driven school closures. Without a robust policy response in place, there could be severe negative impacts on human capital, with a possible reversal of previous gains in the sector. In the short-to-medium term, there are high risks of an increase in learning losses and inequality, and physical and emotional deprivation, especially among children from disadvantaged households and girls. For girls, these risks are higher due to a potential increase in child marriage, early childbearing, and other gender-based violence. Learners face a high risk of dropping out of school permanently. Furthermore, the crisis presents income and health shocks, particularly to poor households, which will reduce their investments in education. As fiscal space tightens due to a projected fall in government revenue and donor contributions, education budgets may be affected, impacting the payment of teachers' salaries and budget allocation to education institutions, leading to lower quality of education. In the long term, there is a high likelihood of adverse impacts on human capital accumulation affecting the quality of the labor force and threatening the technological advancement and development of the economy.

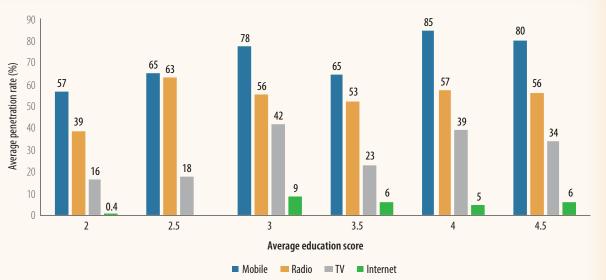
Countries' response. As many countries in the region were already facing a learning crisis before the pandemic, governments in collaboration with development partners have rapidly responded to mitigate further worsening of the situation. There has been an increase in the development and multimodal delivery of learning content through the mass media, especially given the low technology penetration in Sub-Saharan Africa (see figure BC.2.1^a and figure BC.2.2b). Countries with low human resources scores generally have lower technology penetration rates. To increase the reach of learning content, some governments are providing zero-rated educational online platforms and distributing media devices to selected households. Parents and teachers are also supported through guidance on homebased learning and the use of remote learning platforms, as well as the continual payment of teachers' salaries. As schools prepare for reopening, authorities are putting different measures in place. These include but are not limited to ensuring adequate distancing and safety measures, preparing re-enrollment sensitization campaigns and programs, providing teacher training programs, teaching students at the right level, and offering counseling services. To build resilience to similar shocks in the future, digital infrastructure and national repositories for educational content are being developed and advanced.



Development and multimodal delivery of learning content through the mass media have picked up to mitigate the impact of COVID-19 on education.

Box C.2 continued

Figure BC.2.2: Technology Penetration Rate, by Score



Operational response. The Education Global Practice at the World Bank is employing multiple strategies to assist governments. Existing and pipeline projects are being restructured. Contingency emergency response components are being activated for ongoing projects and incorporated into pipeline projects in case of a similar crisis in the future. The World Bank is also carrying out emergency operations across the region, including projects financed through the Global Partnership for Education emergency funds. Furthermore, education-related prior actions are being included in Development Policy Operations, and Programs for Results are being adapted to support response efforts. Interventions include the deployment of remote learning and the use of digital technologies, support for teacher salaries and publication of state and local government education expenditures, access to sanitation facilities in schools, guarantees of safe schools and gender-based violence prevention, and building system resilience for future crises. The World Bank continues to provide advisory services and analytics to support countries.

Sources: Samer Al-Samarrai, 2020, "The Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Education Financing," World Bank Group, Washington, DC; and World Bank, 2020. "Africa One Education Response to COVID-19." World Bank: Washington, DC.

a. http://pubdocs.worldbank.org/en/231961590785765860/Education-Sector-Brief-May-26.pdf.

b. Data source: Demographic and Health Surveys and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys for various years. The figure shows the average penetration rate for mobile subscriptions, radio and television ownership, and internet access by score. Countries with similar education scores are grouped together.

Social Protection and Labor

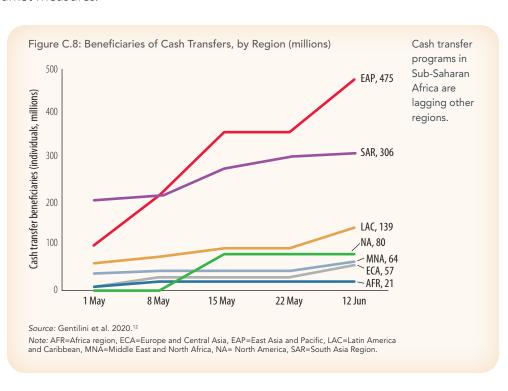
This criterion assesses social protection and labor policies. It covers the overall social protection system, social safety net programs, labor market programs and policies, local service delivery and civil society participation in community development programs, and pension and old-age savings programs. There was almost no change in the scores for the social protection and labor criterion in 2019. The regional average score came in at 2.9, the same as in 2018, remaining well below the average cluster score of 3.2. Only three countries—Guinea, Liberia, and Zambia—saw a change in their score in 2019. Liberia's score increased, while the scores for Guinea and Zambia fell.

Guinea's score decreased from 3.0 in 2018 to 2.5 in 2019 due to a reassessment of the country's social safety net programs vis-à-vis comparator countries and the standardized criteria for the rating. The decrease in Zambia's score to 2.5 reflected a deterioration in the effectiveness of social safety nets. The government's Social Cash Transfer program, designed to reach two-thirds of the country's extreme poor households, has received minimal funding. The benefit package does not meet the basic food requirements of an average size household and has not been adjusted for inflation to maintain its real value. Most Social Cash Transfer households received only 15 percent of their annual transfer amount due to fiscal shortages.

In contrast, Liberia's score for social protection increased to 3.0, from 2.5 in 2018, bringing the country in line with comparable systems (Sierra Leone and Ghana). The increase in the score reflected gains in the labor markets and pensions subcomponents. Specifically, the government ratified the applicable International Labor Organization Convention, passed conforming legislation, and made progress on its implementation. Labor market regulations are broadly appropriate. On the pensions and old-age savings programs, Liberia has a contributory pension system that provides old-age and disability benefits to formal sector workers in the private and public sectors.

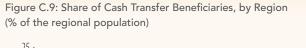
Social protection and labor systems help improve equity among populations, build resilience to shocks, and build opportunities by helping poor and vulnerable people smooth consumption, improve productivity, and invest in the human capital of their children. The utility of social safety nets is being demonstrated as 190 countries and territories have now planned, introduced, or adapted 937 social protection measures in response to COVID-19, of which 254 involve social insurance and 126 cover labor market measures.

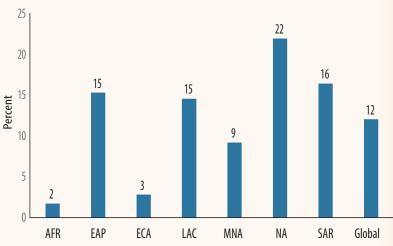
The Sub-Saharan Africa region's cash transfer programs are lagging other regions in the number of beneficiaries (approximately 19 million) and coverage of the population in percentage terms (just 2 percent). These figures would not be significantly different if they included labor market and social insurance programs (figures C.8 and C.9). It is likely that the number of people benefitting from social protection in the region will rise in response to COVID-19: many cash transfer programs are being mobilized with



¹² U. Gentilini, M. Almenfi, P. Dale, A. V. Lopez, and U. Zafar, "Global Database on Social Protection and Jobs Responses to COVID-19," Living Database, version 12, July 10, 2020. Ugo; Almenfi, Mohamed; Orton, Ian; Dale, Pamela. 2020. "Social Protection and Jobs Responses to COVID-19: A Real-Time Review of Country Measures." World Bank, Washington, DC.

Cash transfer programs in Sub-Saharan Africa are lagging other regions in coverage of the population in percentage terms.





Source: U. Gentilini, M. Almenfi, P. Dale, A. V. Lopez, and U. Zafar, "Global Database on Social Protection and Jobs Responses to COVID-19," Living Database, version 12, July 10, 2020.

Note: AFR= Africa Region, EAP=East Asia and Pacific, ECA=Europe and Central Asia, MNA-Middle East and North Africa, NA=North America, SAR=South Asia Region.

coverage rates that far exceed the low-coverage, narrowly targeted programs previously existing in many countries. In general, COVID-19 response transfers are more generous than the usual transfers, given as a one-off or for a very short duration, and in some cases targeted to new, temporary beneficiary groups, such as urban, informal sector workers to compensate for the loss of economic activity arising from COVID-19 prevention measures and a drop in remittances from developed countries.

However, without sustained domestic financing, many of these expanded schemes are unlikely to be sustainable after the COVID-19 crisis.

Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability

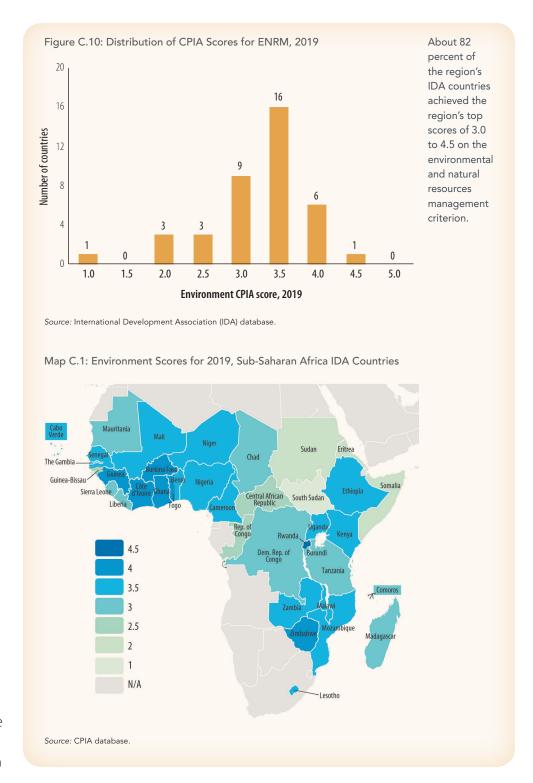
The environmental and natural resources management (ENRM) component relies on a standard scoring tool measuring (i) the appropriateness and implementation of policies across a range of environmental topics: air pollution, water pollution, solid and hazardous waste, freshwater resources, marine and coastal resources, ecosystem/biodiversity management, commercial renewable resources (mainly forests and fish), nonrenewable commercial resources (mainly minerals), and climate change; and (ii) the strength of cross-cutting institutional systems, including the quality and effectiveness of the environmental impact assessment system and a range of environmental governance factors, namely access to information, public participation, cross-sectoral coordination, and accountability.

The regional average score for ENRM for 2019 was 3.2, the same as in 2018. IDA countries in Sub-Saharan Africa continue to show stronger performance in this category compared with IDA countries in the rest of the world. With average scores of 2.9 and 3.6, respectively, the region's fragile and non-fragile IDA countries outside the region. Individual country scores in the Sub-Saharan Africa region ranged from 1.0 to 4.5, with 82 percent of the countries (32 of 39) achieving the region's top scores of 3.0 to 4.5 (figure C.10 and map C.1). For the ENRM criterion, scores from 3.0 to 4.5 generally indicate countries with relatively comprehensive environmental policies but gaps between policy and implementation.

Five countries—Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Niger, and Rwanda—saw an uptick in their score. Chad's score increased to 3.0, due to improvements in water pollution and commercial nonrenewable resources. Côte d'Ivoire showed significant achievements in access to

information, environmental assessments, management of ecosystems and biodiversity, and commercial renewables, which contributed to its score of 4.0. Guinea improved its performance on accountability, thus achieving a score of 4.0. Niger's sustained improvement on access to information was the decisive factor for its score increase to 3.5. Rwanda was the only country in the region to achieve a score of 4.5, attributable to improvements in water pollution management. Mauritania was the only country that had a decrease in the score on ENRM, from 3.5 to 3.0, due to negative developments concerning its air pollution management.

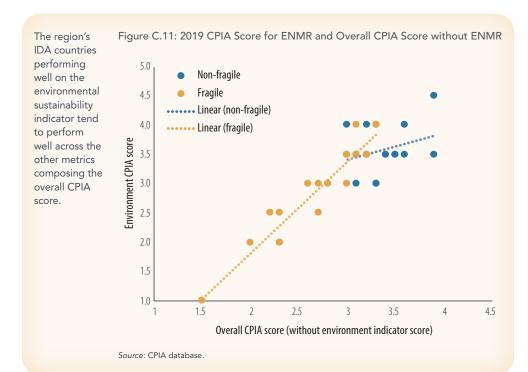
Although there were only a few changes in the final country scores, there were 19 individual changes across the 14 performance criteria, 13 of which were positive. The areas that improved most across the region were accountability, water pollution, and ecosystem and biodiversity management. The average score on air pollution management decreased. As in 2017 and 2018, accountability



showed the strongest improvement (with three countries improving their ratings and no decrease). Cross-sectoral coordination, air pollution management, solid waste management, and freshwater resources management saw no net changes in scores across countries. As last year, public participation, ecosystem/biodiversity management, and climate change were the metrics with the highest average scores for the region (3.6), while air pollution management scored the lowest on average (2.4).

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

- Institutional measures (that is, accountability, public access to information, participation, environmental assessment, and coordination), with an average score of 3.4, generally performed better than the environmental themes (average score of 3.2), although the gap continues to close, given recent improvements across the themes.
- The ecosystem/biodiversity management and climate change metrics were again the topperforming sector-specific measures.
- Countries performing well on the environmental sustainability indicator tend to perform well across the other metrics composing the overall CPIA score (figure C.11).



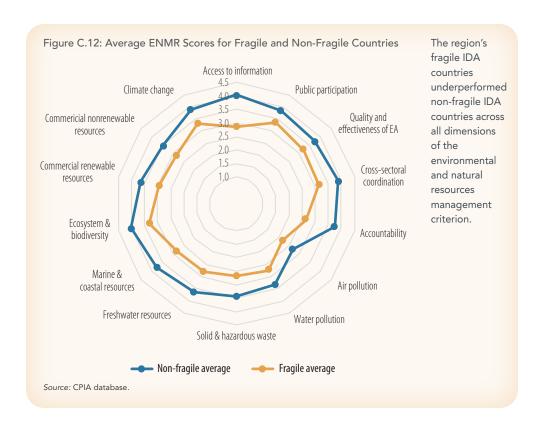
Within the region, fragile IDA countries substantially underperformed non-fragile IDA countries across all dimensions of the ENMR criterion (figure C.12). The gaps in the scores were particularly large in the areas of access to information and accountability.

Against this backdrop, as the COVID-19 crisis progresses, it would be important to continue to enhance environmental and natural resource management in the region, along with increased support for vulnerable communities. Links between

the environmental agenda and responses to the COVID-19 crisis are substantial and diverse. Reducing exposure to air pollution is particularly important given the evidence for a strong association between poor air quality and virus-related mortality, calling for technological and behavioral change. Similarly, the COVID-19 crisis has caused additional pressure on waste management systems by increasing the production of medical waste and temporarily reversing the efforts to avoid single-use plastics.

In the short term, countries may also develop and implement improved health and safety protocols through safeguard frameworks, especially related to equipment and services. This might become even more important in the recovery phase, during which increased construction activity may be expected. In addition, the region may take advantage of the job creation potential of labor-intensive environmental programs, particularly in remote areas, for example in the conservation and forestry sector. Such interventions could help support livelihoods and promote the sustainable use of natural resources.

In the medium and longer term, governments may develop stimulus packages in line with a "grow back greener" paradigm, including prior actions in areas ranging from forestry and carbon markets to air pollution and the circular economy. There may also be a need for additional work on the human, animal, and ecosystem interface, including the illegal wildlife trade as a risk factor for the spread of infectious diseases. To support the recovery of economies, activities on ecotourism may be considered.



CLUSTER D: PUBLIC SECTOR MANAGEMENT AND INSTITUTIONS

Cluster D of the CPIA—also referred to as the governance cluster—covers property rights and rule-based governance; quality of budgetary and financial management; efficiency of revenue mobilization; quality of public administration; and transparency, accountability, and corruption in the public sector.

OVERVIEW

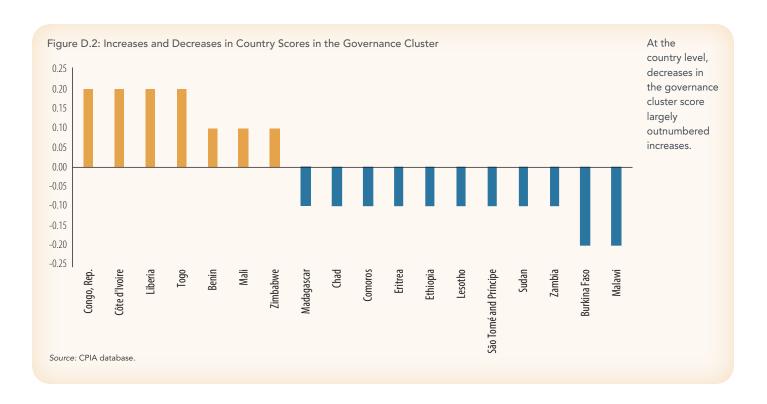
Source: CPIA database

After remaining steady at 3.0 for the past four years, the average score for the governance cluster decreased to 2.9 in 2019, the lowest among the four CPIA clusters (figure D.1). Two components of the governance cluster—efficiency of revenue mobilization and quality of public administration—saw their scores fall. The scores for the other components of the cluster were unchanged. Despite the decrease, the score for the revenue mobilization component remained

Figure D.1: Trends in the Public Sector Management and Institutions Cluster The average score for the governance 3.6 cluster decreased to 3.4 2.9 in 2019, the 3.2 lowest among the four CPIA 3.0 clusters. 2.8 2.6 2.4 2.2 2.0 2012 2013 2014 2015 2016 2017 2018 2019 Public sector management and institutions cluster Quality of public administration Efficiency of revenue mobilization Quality of budgetary and financial management Transparency, accountability, and corruption in public sector --- Overall CPIA score Property rights & rule-based governance

the highest in the cluster, followed by the budgetary and financial management component. The scores for the property rights and rule-based governance and transparency and accountability components remained low.

At the country level, decreases in the governance cluster score outnumbered increases. A total of 18 countries recorded a change in their governance score in 2019, with increases in seven countries and decreases in 11 countries (figure D.2). The decreases were concentrated in the revenue mobilization and budgetary and financial management components.



Country scores ranged from 1.4 to 4.0, with the majority of countries (21) receiving a score of 3.0 or less. Cabo Verde remained at the top of the governance cluster ranking, with an overall governance score of 4.0, followed by Rwanda at 3.8 and Ghana at 3.6 (figure D.3), as in the previous year. Immediately following the top tier countries were Côte d'Ivoire and Senegal, both with an overall governance score of 3.5, and Benin, Ethiopia, and Kenya, each with an overall score of 3.4. Côte d'Ivoire notched a 0.2-point increase in its overall governance score to 3.5, and Benin registered a 0.1-point increase to 3.4, while Ethiopia saw its score fall to 3.4, from 3.5 in 2018. The majority of the region's 19 fragile countries remained clustered in the lower range of the ranking, with average governance scores between 1.4 and 3.0, reflecting their weaker governance policies and institutions.

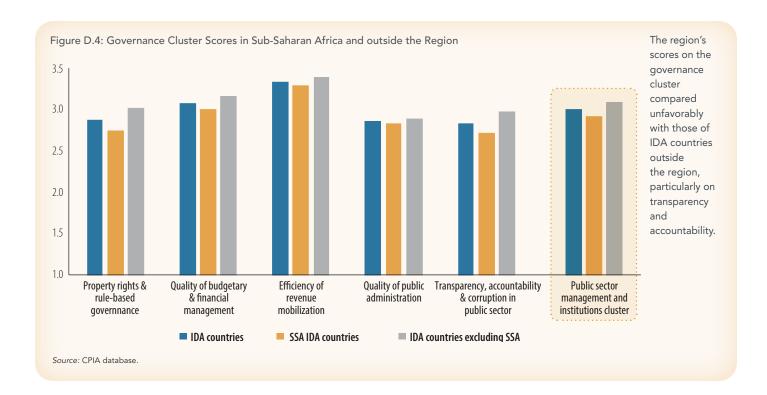


Source: CPIA database.

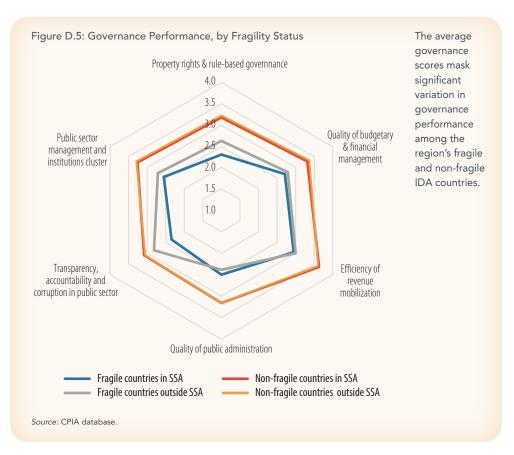
Note: Fragile countries are highlighted in orange.

The region's scores on the governance cluster compared unfavorably with those of IDA countries outside the region across all components (figure D.4). The difference in the score was particularly large on the transparency and accountability component, a major area of weakness for the region. The region's IDA countries also significantly underperformed IDA countries in other regions in the area of property rights and rule-based governance and in the quality of public administration.

The average scores mask significant variation in governance performance among fragile and non-fragile countries. The performance of the region's fragile IDA countries is equal to that of fragile IDA countries outside the region in budgetary and



financial management, the efficiency of revenue mobilization, and quality of public administration criteria. However, the performance of the region's fragile IDA countries is weaker in the areas of rule-based governance and transparency and accountability (figure D.5). In contrast, the scores of the region's non-fragile IDA countries are broadly similar to those of nonfragile IDA countries outside the region.



ANALYSIS OF THE GOVERNANCE COMPONENTS

The changes in scores on the governance cluster were spread across its five components (table D.1). Increases in the score for the budgetary and financial management and public administration components were offset by an equal number of decreases, and the revenue mobilization component saw more decreases than increases in the scores. Although the scores for the property rights and rule-based governance and transparency and accountability components were unchanged at low levels, they registered more increases than decreases.

Table D.1: Changes in the Governance Cluster Scores, by Criterion

| Cluster D indicators | Increases | Decreases |
|---|---|---|
| Propery rights and ruled based government | Benin, Liberia | Malawi |
| Quality of budgetary and financial management | Congo, Rep., Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia, Mali , Togo | Chad, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Malawi, Zambia |
| Efficiency of revenue mobilization | Togo | Burkina Faso, Eritrea, Liberia, São Tomé and Príncipe, Tanzania, Sudan |
| Quality of public administration | Congo, Rep., Liberia, Zimbabwe | Burkina Faso, Comoros, Lesotho |
| Transparency, accountablilty, and corruption in public sector | Côte d'Ivoire, Tanzania | |
| Changes in cluster D averages | Benin, Congo, Rep., Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia, Mali, Togo, Zimbabwe | Burkina Faso, Chad, Comoros, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, São Tomé and Príncipe, Sudan, Zambia |

Source: CPIA database.

Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance

This criterion assesses the extent to which economic activity is facilitated by an effective legal and judicial system and rule-based governance structure in which property and contract rights are respected and enforced. The average regional score for this criterion was unchanged at 2.8. Two countries—Benin and Liberia—recorded an increase in their score for this criterion, while one country—Malawi—registered a decrease in its score.

Benin's score increased from 3.0 in 2018 to 3.5 in 2019. This increase reflected a strengthening of the legal framework for secure property and contract rights. Property rights are protected by law and cannot be changed without parliamentary approval. The regulatory basis for secure property and contract rights is governed by the Organisation for the Harmonization of Business Law in Africa, the regional body for harmonization of legal and business practices. The commercial courts are fully operational, and 40 percent of the cases were completed in 2019, significantly contributing to contract enforcement. Benin ranks 108 (against 110 in the 2019 Doing Business report) globally on ease of resolving insolvency, with the strength of the overall insolvency framework assessed as 9 out of 16 (Doing Business reports 2019 and 2020). The recent cadaster completion for Cotonou, Porto-Novo, and Lokossa, which is now online (https://cadastre.bj/), has enhanced property rights.

Liberia's score increased to 2.5, owing to firming up the integrity of legal institutions and upholding the protection of the tenure of top officials in accountability entities such as the Liberia Auditing Commission. Although the justice system lacks capacity, the government's actions and rulings permitting independent oversight of public services were an important development, especially when formal adjudication mechanisms were considered inaccessible or costly for most citizens and businesses.

Malawi's score decreased to 3.0, from 3.5 in 2018, due to an uptick in violence. The rising civil unrest and violence that followed the 2019 elections weakened the rule of law. The demonstrations and the government's response highlighted weaknesses in the effectiveness of the state in limiting violence against citizens and their property.

Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management

This criterion assesses the extent to which there is a comprehensive and credible budget linked to priorities, financial management systems ensure that the budget is implemented as intended, and accounting and fiscal reporting are timely and accurate. The average regional score for this criterion was unchanged at 3.0 in 2019. However, the score changed in 10 countries, with an increase in the score for five countries—the Republic of Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Liberia, Mali, and Togo—and a decrease for five countries—Chad, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Malawi, and Zambia.

In the countries that increased their score, the quality of budgetary and financial management was strengthened across its three dimensions. In the Republic of Congo, the budget link to policy priorities was reinforced. Efforts were made to comply with the budget formulation and execution directives of the Central African Economic and Monetary Community, and the ratio of off-budget expenditure to total expenditure (other than donor-funded projects) was significantly reduced. In Côte d'Ivoire, fiscal reporting and transparency was enhanced in line with the Open Government Partnership requirements. Consolidated government financial statements were produced in a timely manner and transmitted to the Court of Accounts. In Mali, computerization of the expenditure chain helped improve budget execution reporting, reduced the time required to produce annual financial statements and balance sheets, and strengthened the application of the Budget Execution Law. In Togo, extrabudgetary expenditures were brought down significantly, and the public's access to information was enhanced with the timely publication of quarterly budget execution reports and government financial operations.

In the countries where the score fell, financial management reforms slowed. In Chad, policy priorities were not adequately linked to the budget and forward estimates of fiscal aggregates were not used in the formulation of the budget, which is limited to administrative and economic classifications. Reflecting these weaknesses, unreported extra-budgetary expenditure constitutes a significant portion of total expenditures. In Ethiopia, weaknesses in the budgetary process limited the comprehensiveness of the budget. A number of funds established under their own laws and managed by their respective boards were not included in the federal budget, their bank balances were not brought within the Treasury single account, and their accounts were not included in budget execution reports or annual financial statements. In Madagascar, the fiscal accounts of local governments and state-owned enterprises were also not included in the budget, and extrabudgetary expenditures related to public establishments were elevated.

Deviations of execution from initial budget plans were significant. In Malawi, budget control and monitoring was inadequate. Weak managerial accountability limited the efficacy of the public financial management legal framework. Finally, in Zambia, budgetary policy was not backed by the full force of the law. The lack of a legal framework for budget policy impaired strategic coordination between the Ministry of Finance, Ministry of National Development Planning, line ministries, provinces, and other spending agencies.

Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization

This criterion assesses the quality of tax policy and tax administration. The regional average score for the criterion fell to 3.3 from 3.4 in 2018. Only one country—Togo—increased its score, while the score decreased in six countries—Burkina Faso, Eritrea, Liberia, São Tomé and Príncipe, Tanzania, and Sudan.

Togo has emerged as a strong reformer with gains across a range of policy areas. In the area of tax policy, the tax base was broadened with the introduction of a new tax code, which reduced the number of taxes from 26 to 17; the creation of a dedicated single account for payment of VAT credits; and mainstreaming of the VAT statutory rate to 18 percent. In the area of revenue administration, in addition to setting up a unique taxpayer identification system to help internal controls and fight corruption, tele-procedures were promoted to reduce taxpayer compliance costs and facilitate voluntary tax filing. The cadastral services were modernized, and the customs and domestic tax databases were harmonized. These measures have led to a reduction of the time to comply with tax obligations by 57 hours, a decrease in tax exemptions from 3.5 to 1.8 percent of gross domestic product (GDP), and an increase in the number of taxpayers by 23.6 percent.

The decrease in the efficiency of revenue mobilization in many countries underscores challenges across the region to reform tax policy and strengthen revenue administration to mobilize the resources needed to support the countries' growth and poverty reduction objectives. In Burkina Faso, revenue mobilization was constrained by inefficient administrative processes, weaknesses in the collection of arrears, and limited coverage during the year. In Eritrea, tax administration was weak. Annually, tax revenue collection amounted to 4.3 percent of GDP, while other revenues accounted for about 4.5 percent of GDP. There is a need to deepen tax administration and pursue modernization efforts. In São Tomé and Príncipe, the slow pace of capacity building held back progress on revenue administration, including the planned rollout of the VAT, which requires a revamp of the current information technology system to automate tasks that are done manually. In Sudan, gaps in tax policy and revenue administration impaired revenue mobilization. Sudan's non-oil revenue was very low, at about 8-9 percent of GDP. Tax exemptions were wide-ranging. Tanzania's tax efforts remained among the lowest in the East African Community, due in part to the lack of an integrated domestic revenue administration system.

Quality of Public Administration

This criterion assesses the functioning of the core administration—defined as the civilian central government and subnational governments, excluding health and education personnel and police—in three areas: managing its own operations, ensuring quality in policy implementation and regulatory management, and coordinating the larger public sector human resources

management regime outside the core administration. The average regional score for this criterion decreased to 2.8 in 2019, from 2.9 in 2018. Three countries—the Republic of Congo, Liberia, and Zimbabwe—registered an increase in their score, and three countries—Burkina Faso, the Comoros, and Lesotho—recorded a decrease.

In the countries where the score on the quality of public administration increased, greater control over the public sector wage bill was achieved. In the Republic of Congo, pressure on the wage bill was curtailed by reducing the number of civil servants from about 83,000 in 2015 to about 62,000 in 2019. Liberia successfully carried out a pay harmonization exercise, which brought several employees who were outside the civil service regime under the auspices of the Civil Service Agency, which is governed by the Civil Service Act. In line with the new recruitment, selection, and placement procedures that were introduced over the past few years, a centralized human resource management process has been established. As a result, ministries, agencies, and commissions can no longer hire staff without appropriate oversight of the Civil Service Agency and the Ministry of Finance. In Zimbabwe, the wage bill, a major source of the fiscal deficit, was reduced to 30 percent of revenues in 2019, from 80 percent in 2017, including through a freeze on hiring noncritical staff, keeping wage increases in check, and carrying out biometric authentication to identify ghosts.

In the countries where the score decreased, capacity gaps adversely affected public service outcomes. In Burkina Faso, significant gaps in planning, pay policies, and recruitment practices contributed to the rapid growth of the wage bill. In the Comoros, the implementation of the organic framework for public sector recruitment remained suboptimal. The recruitment, appointment, promotion, and dismissal of public sector staff were rarely merit-based. The government's capacity to design and implement an appropriate human resource management strategy weakened. In Lesotho, lack of appropriate controls resulted in escalation of the wage bill in 2019, reaching 16.8 percent of GDP, or about 41 percent of government spending. This deterioration was mainly due to automatic notch increases for all civil servants and annual cost-of-living adjustments at or above inflation.

Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector

This criterion assesses the extent to which the executive, legislators, and other high-level officials can be held accountable for their use of funds, administrative decisions, and the results obtained. The criterion covers the accountability of the executive and other top officials to effective oversight institutions, access of civil society to timely and reliable information on public spending and public policies, state capture by narrow vested interests, and integrity in the management of public resources.

The average score for this criterion was unchanged, at 2.7, remaining well below the governance cluster average score. Two countries—Côte d'Ivoire and Tanzania—recorded an increase in their score for this criterion, while no country experienced a decrease in its score.

The increase in Côte d'Ivoire's score reflected gains on the first two dimensions of the criterion. The assets declaration rate in the public sector reached 78.3 percent in 2019, while members of the Constitutional Council reached 100 percent compliance and about 86 percent of senior officials managing public funds declared their assets. The Commission of Access to Information

of Public Interest and Public Documents provided training to journalists, public administration staff (tax, treasury, and so forth), universities, and civil society organizations on how to access public information. A citizen budget was prepared for the first time and disseminated in cartoon form on the website of the Ministry of Budget. According to the Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance, Côte d'Ivoire is now ranked 22nd (score of 54.5), with an improvement of 12.7 points from 2017. The 2018 Transparency International Corruption Perception Index ranks Côte d'Ivoire 103rd in the world, with a score of 36, an improvement from a score of 34 and a ranking of 108th in 2017.

The increase in Tanzania's score was due to the changes the government made to the Statistics Act, which had imposed restrictions on the use and publication of government statistics. With the new changes, citizens can collect and publish statistical information. The revision of the Statistics Act represented a major change in policy.

COVID-19 GOVERNANCE RESPONSE: EMERGING DEMANDS AND INSTITUTIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

Against the backdrop of a decade of weak governance and public sector performance, the COVID-19 crisis is placing new demands on, and testing the strength of, public administration in unprecedented ways. In response to the crisis, many countries have introduced bold measures to restrict human interactions by invoking existing provisions in legislation or enacting emergency measures through constitutional means to launch stay-at-home orders and prevent group gatherings. Health services are being expanded to treat those affected by the virus and educate citizens on the scope and risks of the pandemic. Public officials are required to continue to provide essential services to contain the spread of the COVID-19 virus and have measures in place to protect those affected, including public servants. Tax and customs policies are being revised to provide the fiscal space to fund emergency health and economic responses. This includes the purchase of protective gear used by health workers, and other hospital supplies. Financial relief is being made available to small and medium-size businesses to make payments to employees and stay afloat, and social safety net programs are being boosted to provide direct assistance to the poor and vulnerable through cash transfers.

As the crisis settles, institutional reforms will be necessary to make public service delivery more resilient. This would require a fundamental shift away from face-to-face interactions and toward more efficient (and less susceptible to corruption) models of government operations, service delivery, and interactions with citizens, which include GovTech options for the digitization of services to citizens and businesses. These responses will need to fit each country's context and resources, as countries vary in preparedness, institutional setup, and capacity. For example, in jurisdictions where accountability for health service delivery lies at the subnational level, responses should be aimed at that level and take into account the World Health Organization's COVID-19 country preparedness categorizations. And, in the case of revenue administration reforms, contextual factors, such as public financial management, revenue structure, and performance, as well as economic structures should be taken into account when assessing the fit of revenue policy instruments for country circumstances.

¹³ World Bank. 2020. Governance and Institutions Response to the COVID-19 Pandemic, April 15. World Bank, Washington, DC.

¹⁴ See https://www.who.int/who-documents-detail/updated-country-preparedness-and-response-status-for-covid-19-as-of-16-march-2020.

Governments need to ensure core public administration capacity to lead and communicate with citizens and businesses. The emerging mantra is that the government needs "to do whatever it takes" to serve citizens in times of crisis. In view of the emergency declarations, many public administrations have taken wider coordination responsibilities to (i) identify high-priority staff essential for government continuity, the COVID-19 crisis response, and the implementation of other economic and social lifelines; (ii) prioritize the available information technology equipment for home-based work; (iii) determine protocols for staff who are required to work in an office; (iv) ensure access to medical support for senior civil servants and political leadership among the highest risk groups most susceptible to severe medical consequences of infection; and (v) negotiate agreements with private hospitals and other relevant suppliers and service providers to take on a public function.¹⁶

- In addition to the need to generate additional financial resources, there are *emerging public financial management* challenges, including relative to ensuring the transparent use of resources for the intended purpose. Rushed procurements of medicines and medical kits and ventilators are raising fiduciary risks. Tapping into disaster funds, contingency funds targeted for capital projects like airports and roads, and budget reserves for emergent purposes requires budget policy adjustments, such as suspending numerical fiscal rules, relaxing public investment management rules, and approving supplementary budgets. Treasury operations have also been considered crucial to the response. Efficient cash management to pay for priority services with a process for integrity and transparency requires e-payment systems that can reach citizens and businesses directly.
- Corruption risks that were negatively affecting governance performance in Sub-Saharan Africa have been heightened on account of the pandemic. Anti-corruption agencies require institutional support, such as to review large procurements of medicines during the pandemic. Preventive measures, such as asset declarations and conflict of interest legislation for senior officials, will be beneficial in cutting down corruption risks. Audits and ex-post controls are emerging as more important checks for fiscal institutions in the post-crisis era.
- Already weak procurement systems, which were susceptible to corruption, are under increased
 pressure in many countries. How to purchase necessary medical supplies amid international
 competition for the same resources that many countries are seeking is a challenge. Lessons are
 emerging for developing appropriate procurement strategies (for example, use of international
 entities that are agile and offer transparency) and action plans for deploying scarce medical
 supplies and finding enough foreign reserves to pay the bill.
- In view of the large number of FCV countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and the potential for social unrest, justice and accountability entities are considered more critical to stability and citizens' rights protection, as poverty, gender, conflict, and peace are intertwined in many places.

¹⁵ R. Baldwin and B. Wider di Mauro, 2019, "Mitigating the COVID-19 Economic Crisis: Act Fast and Do Whatever It Takes," CEPR/VOX, March. The inference of "doing whatever it takes" is to take action without concern for the resource consequences.

¹⁶ Governance and Institutions (GI) Response to COVID-19 Pandemic, April 5, 2020, World Bank.

SECTION 4: COUNTRY TABLES



CPIA Score 3.6

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▲ 0.1

Highest performing cluster

4.2

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

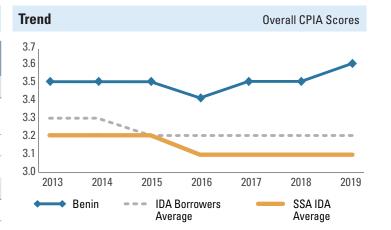
3.3

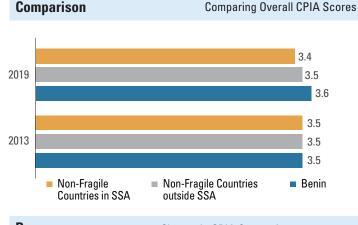
(Structural Policies)

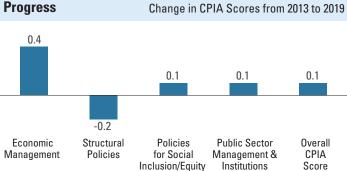
| Population (millions) | 11.8 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 14.4 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,219.4 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 45 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.41 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| country i oney and montane | 114171000 | | |
|---|-----------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Indicator | Benin | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
| Economic Management | 4.2 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 4.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 4.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.4 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.6 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







Definitions:

- CPIA: Country Policy and Institutional Assessment
- IDA: International Development Association, the arm of the World Bank Group that provides credits to the poorest countries
- SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa
- Poverty is based on PovcalNet poverty data as of June 2020
 The cutoff date for the World Development Indicators database is July 2020. • The Human Capital Index is from the Human Capital Project, World Bank, 2018.

- IDA Borrowing Countries: 75 countries eligible for IDA credits and with CPIA scores in 2019
- SSA IDA Countries: 39 SSA IDA countries that had CPIA scores in 2019
- Fragile Countries in SSA: 19 countries with CPIA scores included in the World Bank's Harmonized Fragile List for fiscal year 2020
- Non-Fragile Countries in SSA: 20 IDA-eligible countries (excluding fragile countries)
- Fragile Countries outside SSA: 12 countries with CPIA scores included in the World Bank's Harmonized Fragile List for fiscal year 2020
- Non-Fragile Countries outside SSA: 24 IDA-eligible countries (excluding fragile countries)

CPIA Score 3.5

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

v 0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.7

(Economic Management)

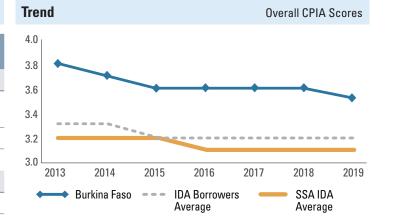
Lowest performing cluster

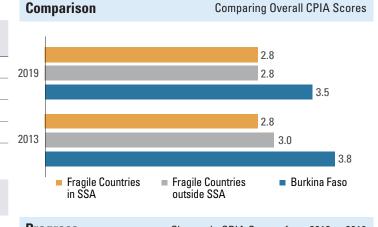
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

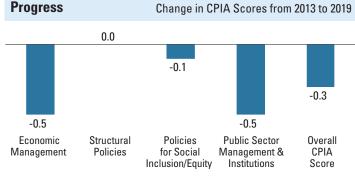
| Population (millions) | 20.3 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 15.7 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 774.8 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 35 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.37 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Burkina Faso | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|-----------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 4.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.5 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.6 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.2 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.5 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 2.9

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster

3.5

(Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

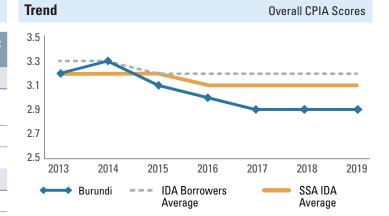
2.3

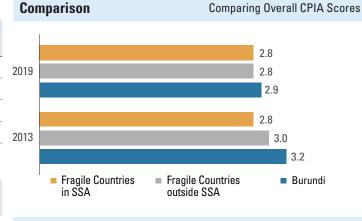
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

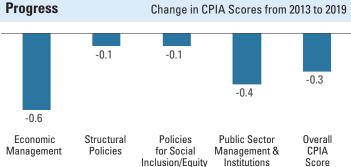
| Population (millions) | 11.5 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 3.0 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 261.2 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 78 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.38 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Burundi | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|---------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 2.7 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 2.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.3 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 1.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 2.9 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 3.8 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 4.0

(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

Lowest performing cluster

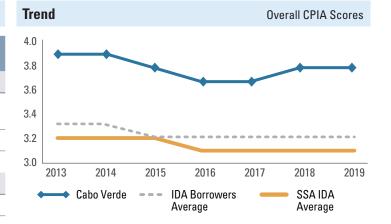
3.3

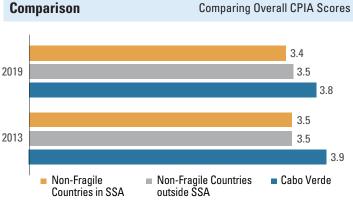
(Economic Management)

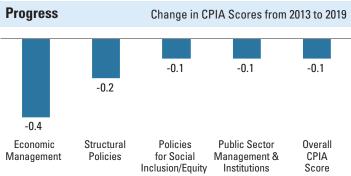
| Population (millions) | 0.5 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 2.0 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 3,603.8 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 2 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | NA |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Cabo Verde | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|---------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 2.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.8 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.9 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 4.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 4.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 4.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 4.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 4.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.8 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 3.3 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.7

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

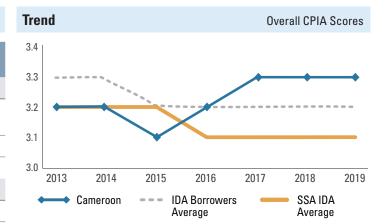
3.0

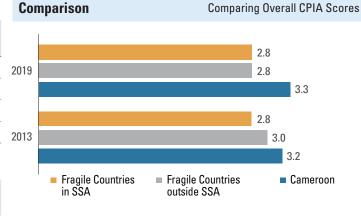
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

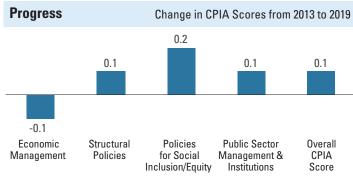
| Population (millions) | 25.9 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 38.8 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,497.9 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 21 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.39 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Country 1 only and montant | 01141710000 | | |
|---|-------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Indicator | Cameroon | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
| Economic Management | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.2 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 2.6 Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.0

(Economic Management)

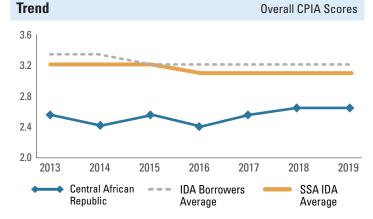
Lowest performing cluster

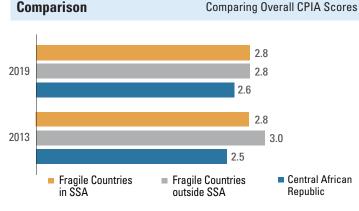
> 2.3 (Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

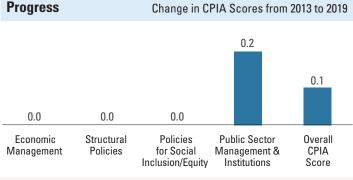
| Population (millions) | 4.7 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 2.2 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 467.9 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 72 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | NA |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| | Central | SSA IDA | IDA's Highest |
|---|---------------------|---------|---------------|
| Indicator | African Republic | Average | Score |
| Economic Management | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 2.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 2.5 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 2.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 2.3 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 2.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 2.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.4 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 2.6 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score

2.8

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▲ 0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.0

(Economic Management and Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

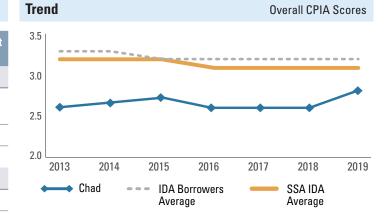
2.5

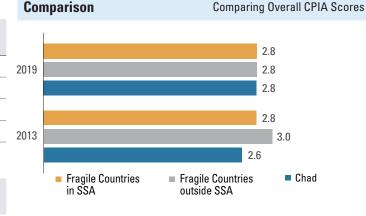
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

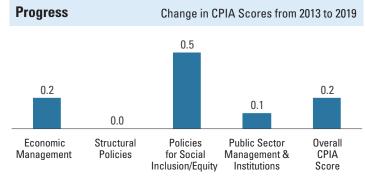
| Population (millions) | 15.9 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 11.3 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 709.5 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 41 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.29 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Chad | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 2.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 2.7 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 2.8 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 2.8 Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.0 (Structural Policies)

Lowest performing cluster

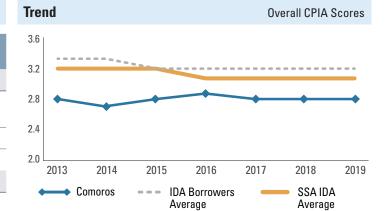
2.5

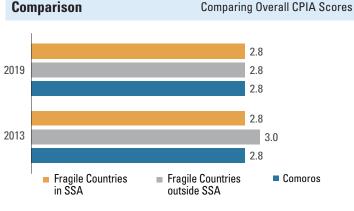
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

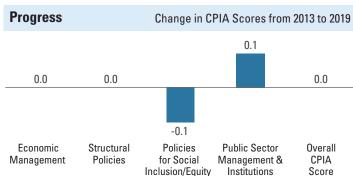
| Population (millions) | 0.9 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 1.2 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,393.5 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 17 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.41 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Comoros | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|---------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 2.8 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 2.7 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 2.8 | 3.1 | 4.0 |
| | | | |







Definitions:

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CPIA Score 2.9 Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.2

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

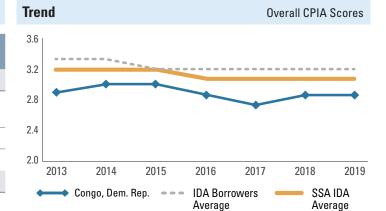
2.5

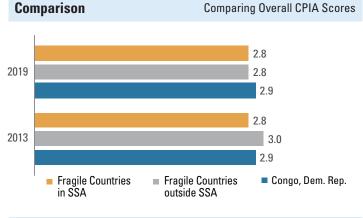
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

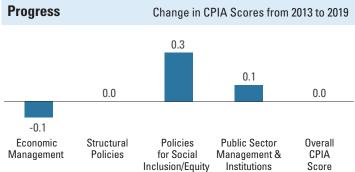
| Population (millions) | 86.8 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 47.3 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 545.2 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 71 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.37 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Congo, Dem. Rep. | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|---------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.1 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 2.9 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 2.7 Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 2.8

(Policies for Social

Inclusion and Equity)

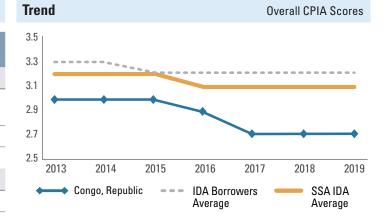
Lowest performing cluster 2.7

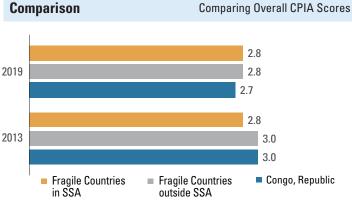
(Economic Management, Structural Policies, and Public Sector Management and Institutions)

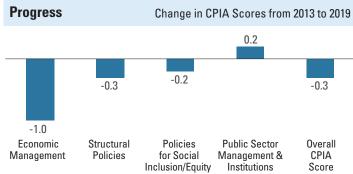
| Population (millions) | 5.4 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 10.8 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 2,011.1 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 40 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.42 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| country i oney and mentant | ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,, | | |
|---|--|--------------------|------------------------|
| Indicator | Congo, Republic | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
| Economic Management | 2.7 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 2.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 2.7 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 2.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 2.8 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.7 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 2.7 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 3.5 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.7 (Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

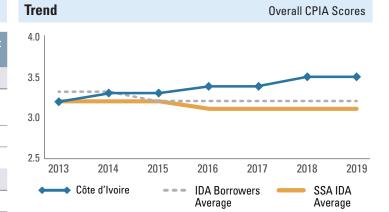
3.3

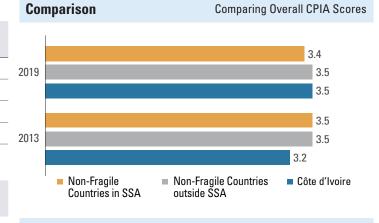
(Structural Policies)

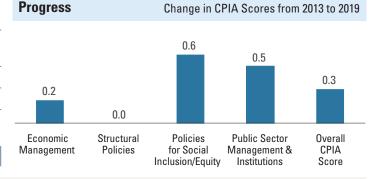
| Population (millions) | 25.7 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 58.8 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 2,286.2 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 21 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.35 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Côte d'Ivoire | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.5 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 4.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.5 | 3.1 | 4.0 |
| | | | |







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CPIA Score

1.9

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

0.1

2.6

(Policies for Social

Inclusion and Equity)

Highest

performing cluster

Lowest performing cluster

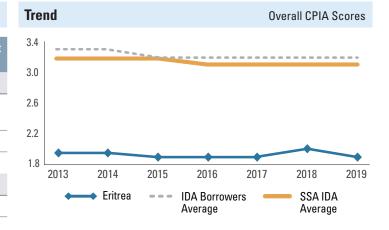
1.2

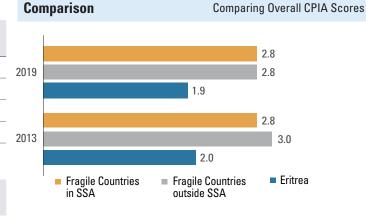
(Structural Policies)

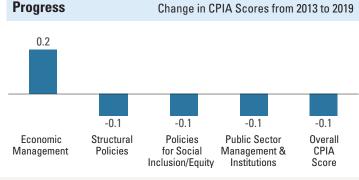
| Population (millions) | NA |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | NA |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | NA |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | NA |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | NA |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Eritrea | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|---------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 1.5 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 1.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 1.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 1.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 1.2 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 1.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 1.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 1.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 2.6 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 2.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 1.9 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score

3.5

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

— 3.8

(Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Highest

performing cluster

Lowest performing cluster

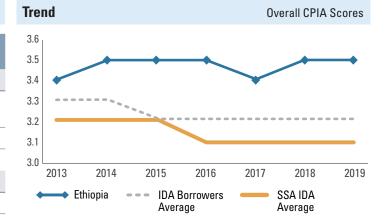
3.2

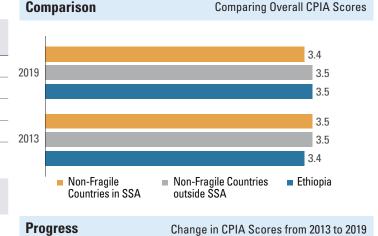
(Structural Policies)

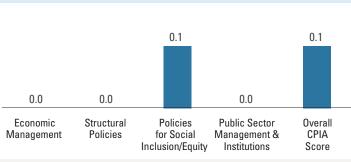
| Population (millions) | 112.1 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 96.1 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 857.5 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 22 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.38 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Ethiopia | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|----------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.5 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.8 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.4 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 4.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.5 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 3.0 Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.4 (Policies for Social

Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

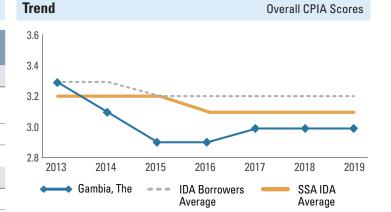
2.3

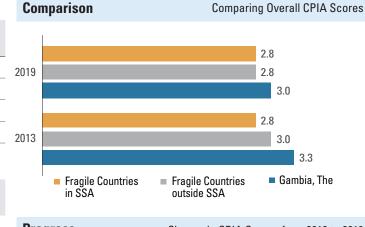
(Economic Management)

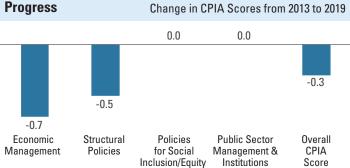
| Population (millions) | 2.3 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 1.8 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 751.3 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 9 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.40 |
| | /2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Gambia, The | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|----------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 2.3 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 2.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.4 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.0 |
| | | | |







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CPIA Score

3.6

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▲ 0.1

3.7

(Structural Policies and Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Highest

performing cluster

Lowest performing cluster

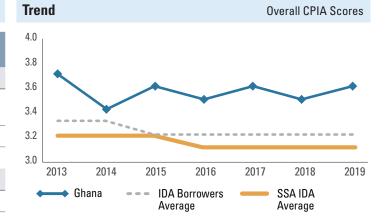
3.3

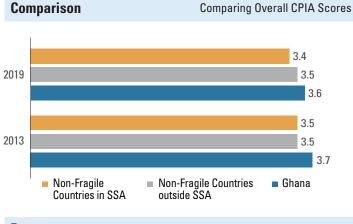
(Economic Management)

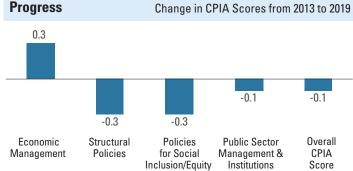
| Population (millions) | 30.4 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 67 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 2,202.1 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 12 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.44 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Ghana | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|-------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.7 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.6 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 4.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.6 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 3.2 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.5

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

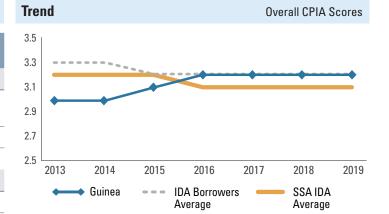
2.9

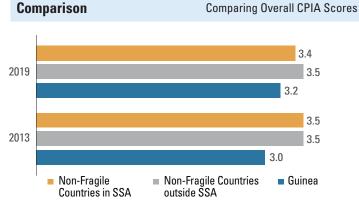
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

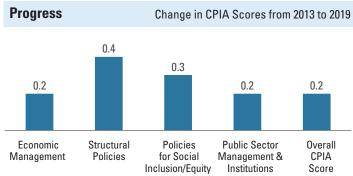
| Population (millions) | 12.8 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 13.6 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,064.1 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 22 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.37 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| . , | | | |
|---|--------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Indicator | Guinea | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
| Economic Management | 3.5 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.3 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.9 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.0 |
| | | | |







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CPIA Score 2.5 Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 2.8

(Structural Policies)

Lowest performing cluster

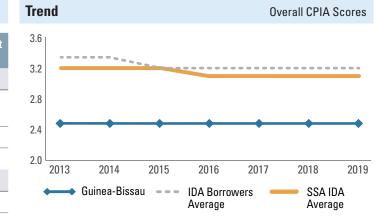
2.0

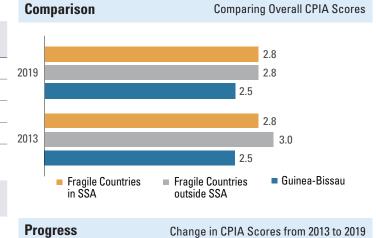
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

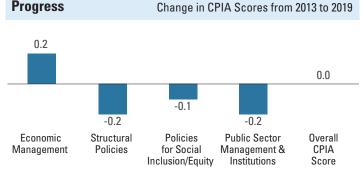
| Population (millions) | 1.9 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 1.3 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 697.8 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 62 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | NA |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Guinea- Bissau | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|-------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 2.7 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 2.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 2.8 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 2.3 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 2.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 2.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 2.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 1.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 2.5 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 3.7 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 4.0

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

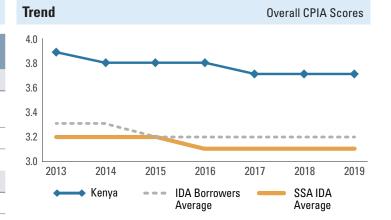
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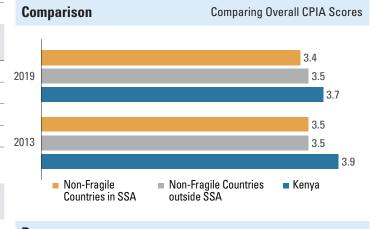
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

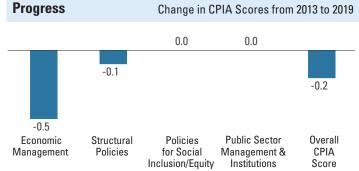
| Population (millions) | 52.6 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 95.5 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,816.5 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 33 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.52 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Kenya | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|-------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 4.0 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 4.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 4.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.7 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.4 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 3.3 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

(Structural Policies) No change

Highest performing cluster 3.5

Lowest performing cluster

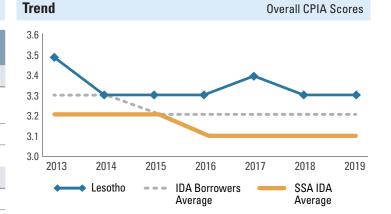
3.1

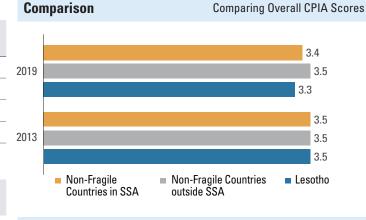
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

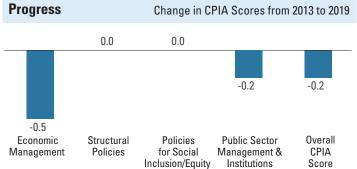
| Population (millions) | 2.1 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 2.5 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,157.5 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 27 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.37 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Lesotho | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|---------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.5 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.4 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.1 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 2.9 Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.1

(Policies for Social

Inclusion and Equity)

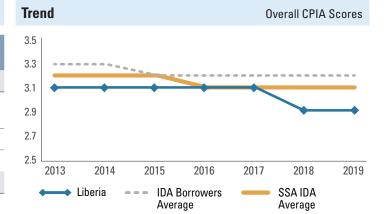
Lowest performing cluster 2.7

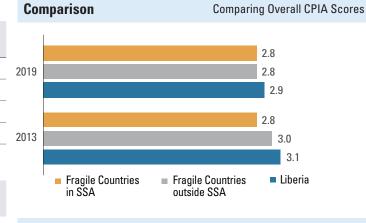
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

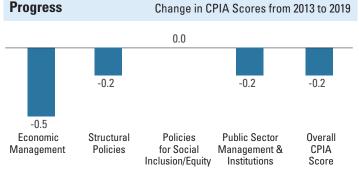
| Population (millions) | 4.9 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 3.1 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 621.9 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 42 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.32 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Liberia | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|---------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 2.8 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.1 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.7 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 2.9 | 3.1 | 4.0 |
| | | | |







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CPIA Score 3.3 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.7

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

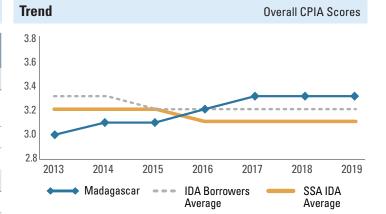
2.7

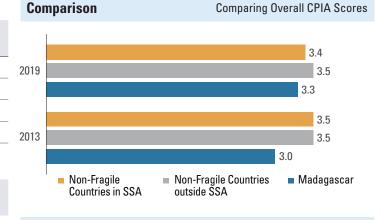
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

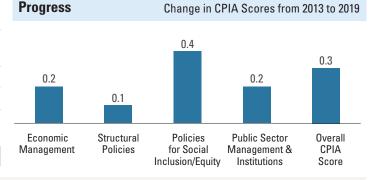
| Population (millions) | 27.0 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 14.1 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 522.2 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 76 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.37 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Madagascar | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|--|------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 4.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.3 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.7 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Secto | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 3.2 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

performing cluster 3.6 (Policies for Social No change Inclusion and Equity)

Highest

Lowest performing cluster

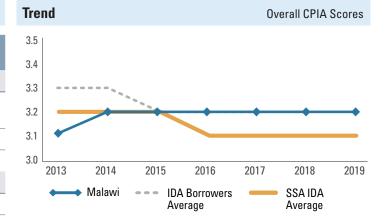
2.8

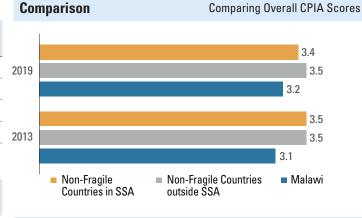
(Economic Management)

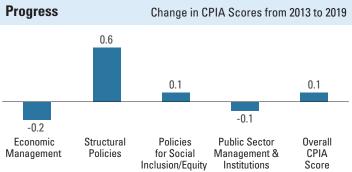
| Population (millions) | 18.6 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 7.7 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 411.6 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 69 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.41 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Country 1 only una montant | ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,, | | |
|---|--|--------------------|------------------------|
| Indicator | Malawi | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
| Economic Management | 2.8 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 2.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.6 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score

3.4

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 4.0

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

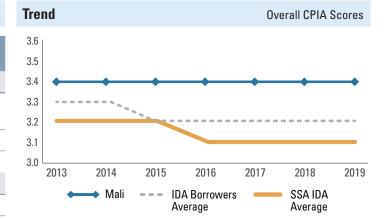
3.1

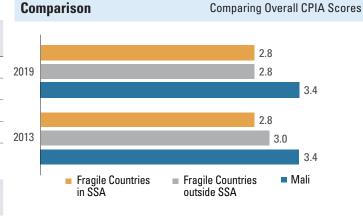
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

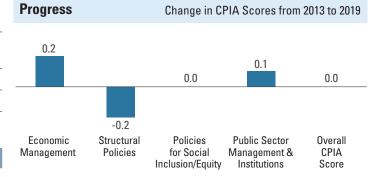
| Population (millions) | 19.7 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 17.5 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 890.7 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 43 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.32 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Mali | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 4.0 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 4.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 4.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.2 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.1 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 4.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.4 | 3.1 | 4.0 |
| | | | |







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CPIA Score 3.4 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.5

(Economic Management and Policies for Social

Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

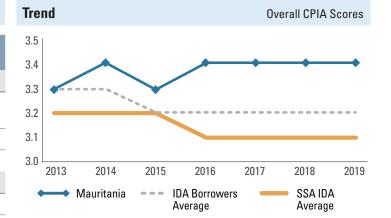
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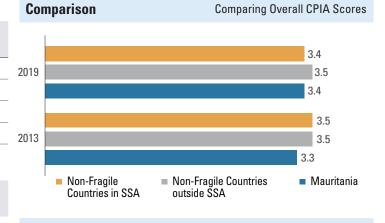
(Structural Policies)

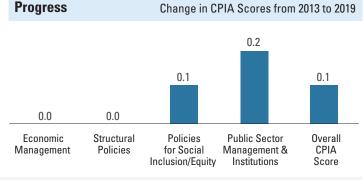
| Population (millions) | 4.5 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 7.6 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,677.9 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 6 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.35 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Mauritania | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.5 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 4.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.3 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.4 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score

3.1

At the SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

0.1

3.3 (Structural Policies and Policies for Social

Highest

performing cluster

Lowest performing cluster

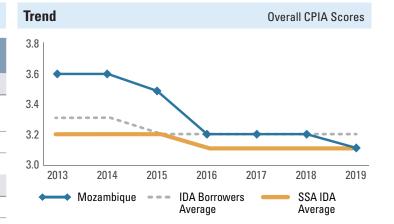
2.8

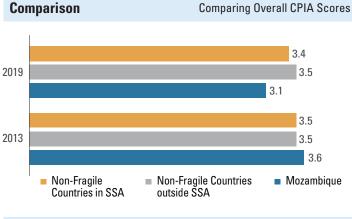
(Economic Management)

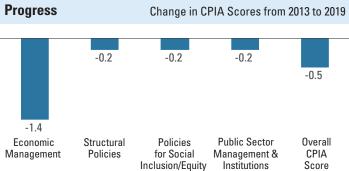
| Population (millions) | 30.4 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 14.9 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 491.8 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 61 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.36 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Mozambique | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 2.8 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 2.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.3 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.1 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.1 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 3.4 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 3.8

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

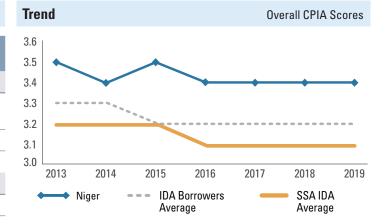
3.1

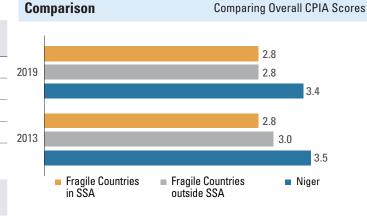
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

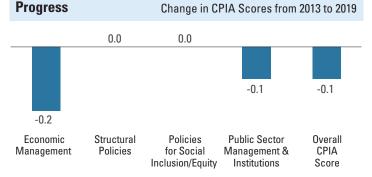
| Population (millions) | 23.3 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 12.9 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 554.6 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 41 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.32 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Country I only and montant | | | |
|---|-------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Indicator | Niger | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
| Economic Management | 3.8 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 4.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.3 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.1 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.4 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score

3.2

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

 \triangle 0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.5

(Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

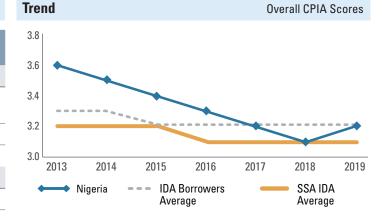
2.8

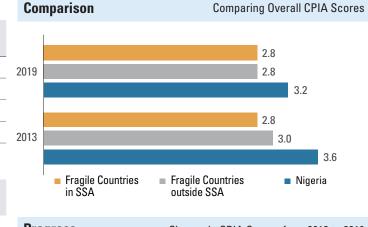
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

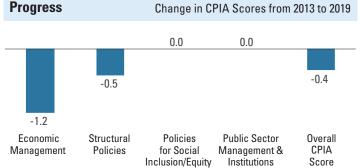
| Population (millions) | 201.0 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 448.1 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 2,229.9 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 51 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.34 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Nigeria | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|---------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 4.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 4.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.8 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score

4.0

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster

(Structural Policies and Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

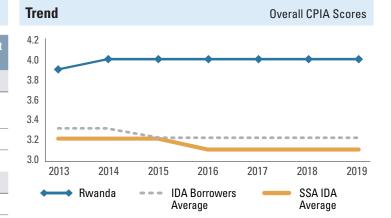
3.8

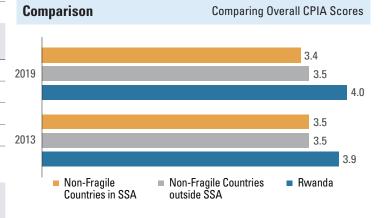
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

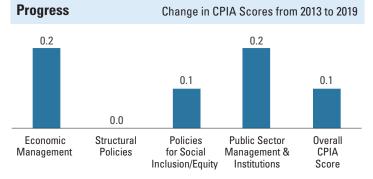
| Population (millions) | 12.6 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 10.1 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 801.7 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 51 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.37 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Rwanda | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|--------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 4.0 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 4.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 4.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 4.2 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 4.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 4.2 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 4.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 4.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 4.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.8 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 4.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 4.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 4.0 | 3.1 | 4.0 |
| | | | |







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CPIA Score

3.0

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.1

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

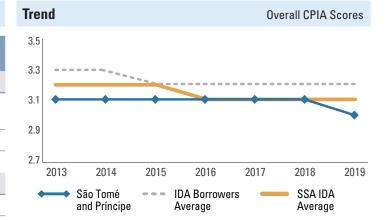
2.8

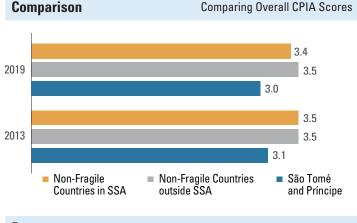
(Economic Management)

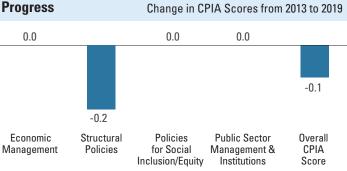
| Population (millions) | 0.2 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 0.4 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,994.9 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 34 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | NA |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | São Tomé and Príncipe | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 2.8 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 2.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.1 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.1 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score 3.7 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

(Economic Management No change and Structural Policies)

Highest

performing cluster

3.8

Lowest performing cluster

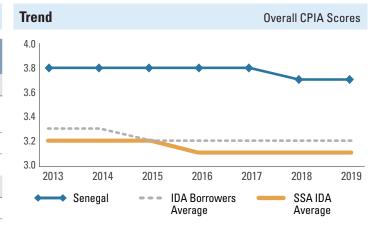
3.5

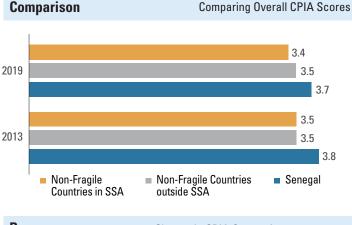
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

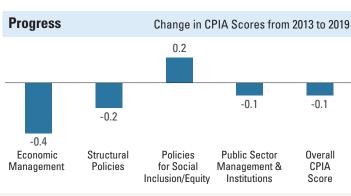
| Population (millions) | 16.3 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 23.6 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,446.8 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 28 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.42 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Senegal | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|---------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.8 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 4.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.8 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.7 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.5 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.5 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score

3.1

At the SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.2

(Economic Management and Public Sector Management and Institutions) Lowest performing cluster

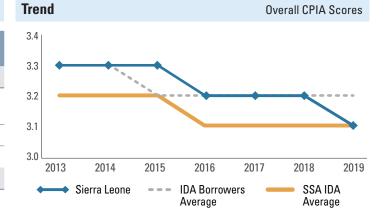
3.0

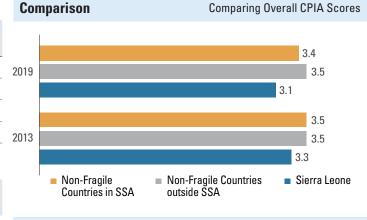
(Structural Policies)

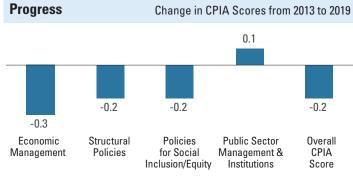
| Population (millions) | 7.8 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 3.9 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 504.5 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 40 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.35 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Sierra Leone | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|-----------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.1 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.2 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.1 | 3.1 | 4.0 |
| | | | |







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CPIA Score 2.0 Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster 2.4 (Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

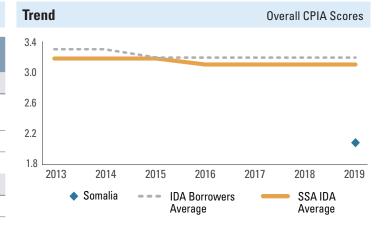
1.5

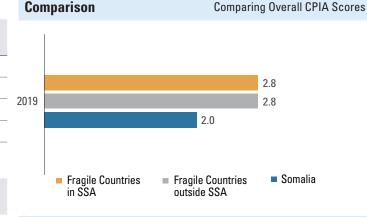
(Structural Policies)

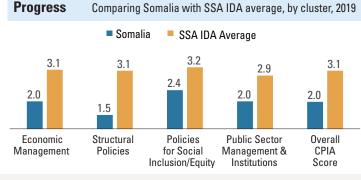
| Population (millions) | 15.4 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | NA |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | NA |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | NA |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | NA |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Somalia | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|---------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 2.0 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 2.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 1.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 1.5 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 1.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 1.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 2.4 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 2.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 2.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 2.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 1.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 2.0 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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$\label{lem:comparisons} \textbf{Average scores for comparisons refer to country groupings as follows:}$

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CPIA Score

1.4

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

0.1

Highest performing cluster

1.8

(Structural Policies)

Lowest performing cluster

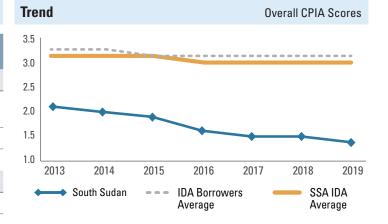
1.0

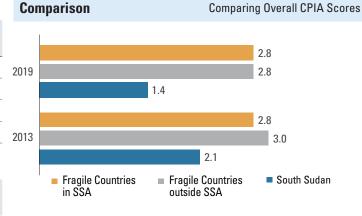
(Economic Management)

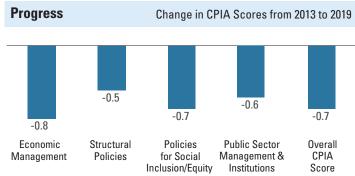
| Population (millions) | 11.0 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | NA |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | NA |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 85 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.30 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | South Sudan | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|----------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 1.0 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 1.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 1.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 1.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 1.8 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 2.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 1.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 1.5 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 1.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 2.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 2.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 1.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 1.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 1.4 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 1.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 1.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 2.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 1.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 1.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 1.4 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score

2.2

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

0.1

performing cluster 2.5

Highest

(Structural Policies and Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

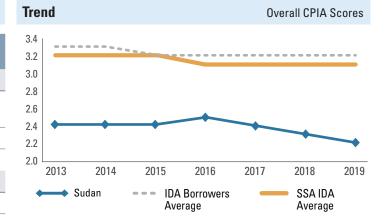
1.8

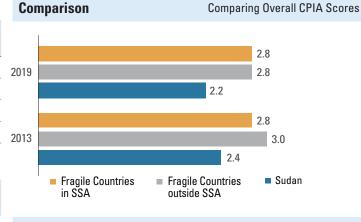
(Economic Management)

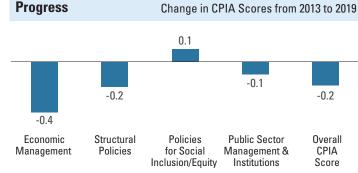
| Population (millions) | 42.8 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 18.9 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 441.5 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 12 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.38 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Sudan | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|-------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 1.8 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 1.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 1.5 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 2.5 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 2.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 2.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 2.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.1 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 2.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 1.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 2.2 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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CPIA Score

3.5

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

No change

Highest performing cluster **4.0**

(Economic Management)

Lowest performing cluster

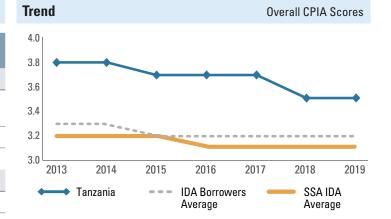
3.0

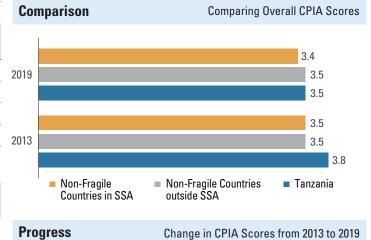
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

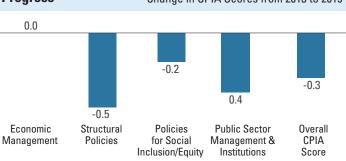
| Population (millions) | 58.0 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 63.2 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,122.1 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 49 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.40 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Tanzania | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|----------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 4.0 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 4.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.6 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 4.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.5 | 3.1 | 4.0 |
| | | | |







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CPIA Score

3.3

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

▲ 0.1

Highest performing cluster

3.6

(Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

3.1

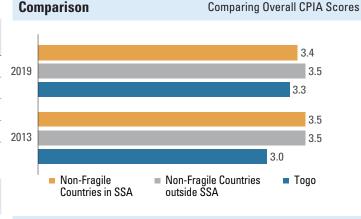
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

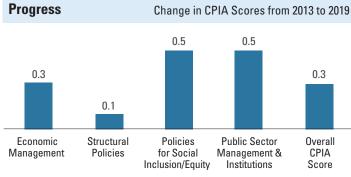
| Population (millions) | 8.1 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 5.5 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 675.5 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 46 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.41 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Togo | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.6 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.1 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 3.0 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.3 | 3.1 | 4.0 |
| | | | |







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CPIA Score 3.7 Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

performing cluster 4.3 No change (Economic Management)

Highest

Lowest performing cluster

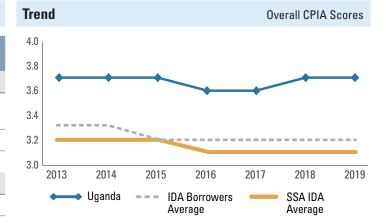
3.2

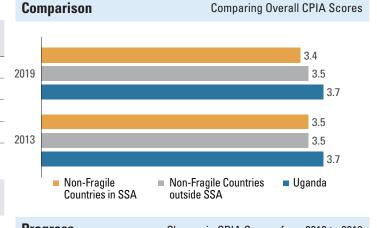
(Public Sector Management and Institutions)

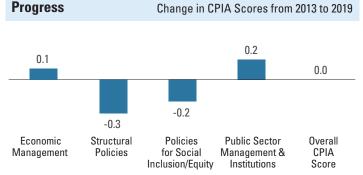
| Population (millions) | 44.3 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 34.4 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 776.8 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 40 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.38 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| obunity I oney and institutional Assessment 2013 | | | |
|---|--------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Indicator | Uganda | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
| Economic Management | 4.3 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 4.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 5.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.5 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.2 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.5 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.5 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.7 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







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- IDA Borrowing Countries: 75 countries eligible for IDA credits and with CPIA scores in 2019
- SSA IDA Countries: 39 SSA IDA countries that had CPIA scores in 2019
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CPIA Score 3.2

Above SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

0.1

3.8

Highest

(Structural Policies)

performing cluster performing cluster

2.7

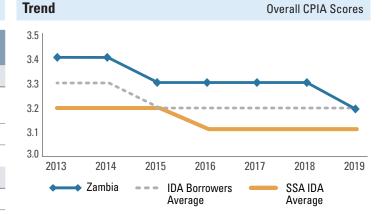
Lowest

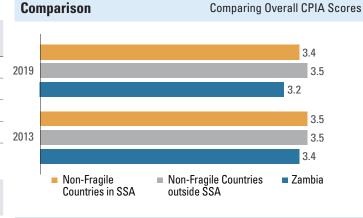
(Economic Management)

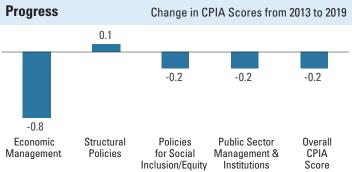
| Population (millions) | 17.9 |
|--|--------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 23.1 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1291.3 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 56 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.40 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Zambia | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|--------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 2.7 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 2.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 3.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 3.8 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 4.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 3.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 4.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.1 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 3.5 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 2.5 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 3.5 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.2 | 3.1 | 4.0 |







Definitions:

- CPIA: Country Policy and Institutional Assessment
 IDA: International Development Association, the arm of the World Bank Group that provides credits to the poorest countries
- SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa
- Poverty is based on PovcalNet poverty data as of June 2020
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CPIA Score 3.0

Below SSA IDA Avg.

Change from previous year

0.2

Highest performing cluster

3.7

(Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity)

Lowest performing cluster

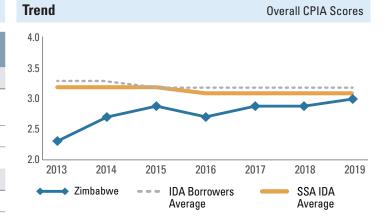
2.5

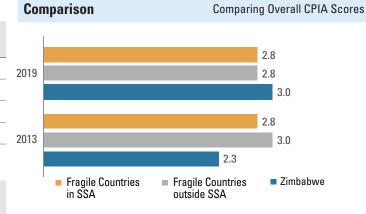
(Economic Management)

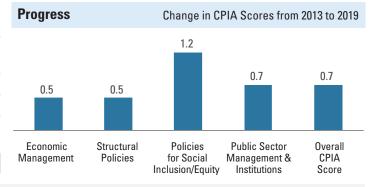
| Population (millions) | 14.6 |
|--|---------|
| GDP (current US\$, billions) | 21.4 |
| GDP per capita (current US\$) | 1,464.0 |
| Poverty below US\$1.90 a day (% of population, 2018, est.) | 31 |
| Human Capital Index (2018) | 0.44 |
| | (2019) |

Country Policy and Institutional Assessment 2019

| Indicator | Zimbabwe | SSA IDA Average | IDA's Highest Score |
|---|----------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Economic Management | 2.5 | 3.1 | 4.3 |
| Monetary and Exchange Rate Policy | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Fiscal Policy | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Debt Policy | 2.0 | 3.1 | 5.0 |
| Structural Policies | 2.8 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Trade | 3.0 | 3.6 | 4.5 |
| Financial Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Business Regulatory Environment | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.5 |
| Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity | 3.7 | 3.2 | 4.2 |
| Gender Equality | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Equity of Public Resource Use | 3.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Building Human Resources | 4.0 | 3.5 | 4.5 |
| Social Protection and Labor | 3.0 | 2.9 | 4.0 |
| Policies and Institutions for Environmental Sustainability | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Public Sector Management and Institutions | 2.9 | 2.9 | 4.2 |
| Property Rights and Rule-Based Governance | 2.0 | 2.8 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Budgetary and Financial Management | 3.0 | 3.0 | 4.0 |
| Efficiency of Revenue Mobilization | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.5 |
| Quality of Public Administration | 3.0 | 2.8 | 4.0 |
| Transparency, Accountability, and Corruption in the Public Sector | 2.5 | 2.7 | 4.5 |
| Overall CPIA Score | 3.0 | 3.1 | 4.0 |





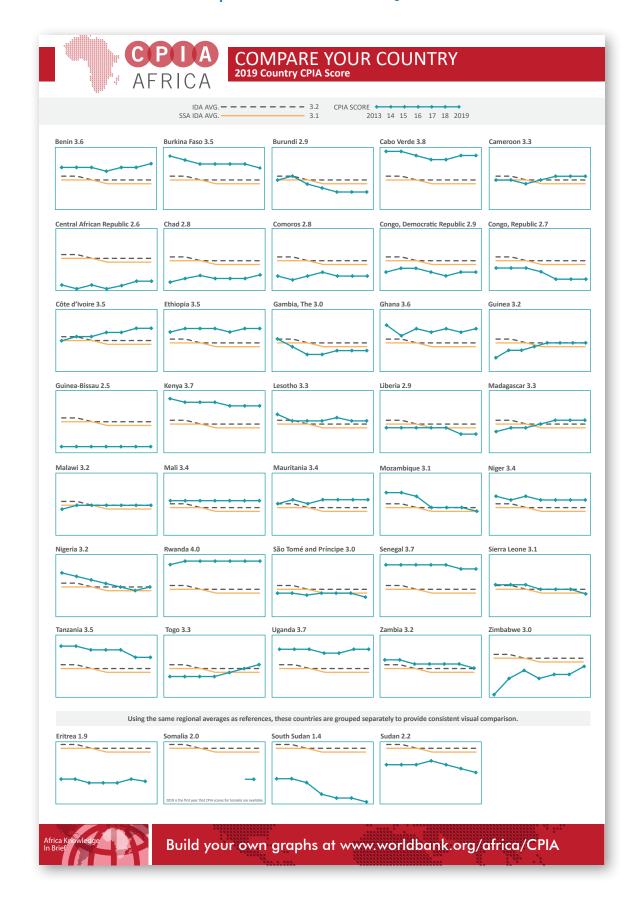


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CPIA Africa: Compare Your Country



Appendix A: CPIA Components

A. Economic Management

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

B. Structural Policies

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

C. Policies for Social Inclusion and Equity

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

D. Public Sector Management and Institutions

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

Appendix B: Country Groups and Classification

I. Country Grouping by Fragility

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

Note: This country group classification is based on the fragile and conflict-affected situations list for FY20. It classifies countries based on the nature and severity of issues they face. Fragile countries are defined as those with one or more of the following: (a) the weakest institutional and policy environment, based on a revised, harmonized CPIA score for IDA countries (for which CPIA scores are disclosed) that is below 3.0; or (b) the presence of a United Nations peacekeeping operation, because this reflects a decision by the international community that a significant investment is needed to maintain peace and stability; or (c) flight across borders of 2,000 or more per 100,000 population, who are internationally regarded as refugees in need of international protection, as this signals a major political or security crisis. The classification uses the following categories:

- 1. Countries with high levels of institutional and social fragility, identified based on publicly available indicators that measure the quality of policies and institutions and manifestations of fragility.
- 2. Countries affected by violent conflict, identified based on a threshold number of conflict-related deaths relative to the population. This category includes two subcategories based on the intensity of violence: countries in high-intensity conflict and countries in medium-intensity conflict.
- * The analysis does not include Iraq, Lebanon, Libya, the Syrian Arab Republic, the República Bolivariana de Venezuela, and the West Bank and Gaza. These economies do not have CPIA data.

II. Country Classification in SSA by Resource Abundance

| Resource-rich countries | Non-resource-rich countries | | |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|----------|
| Chad | Benin | Ghana | Somalia |
| Congo, Dem. Rep. | Burkina Faso | Guinea-Bissau | Sudan |
| Congo, Rep. | Burundi | Kenya | Tanzania |
| Guinea | Cabo Verde | Lesotho | Togo |
| Liberia | Cameroon | Madagascar | Uganda |
| Mauritania | Central African Republic | Malawi | Zimbabwe |
| Niger | Comoros | Mali | |
| Nigeria | Côte d'Ivoire | Mozambique | |
| South Sudan | Eritrea | Rwanda | |
| Sierra Leone | Ethiopia | São Tomé and Príncipe | |
| Zambia | Gambia, The | Senegal | |

Source: World Bank staff calculations based on the World Development Indicators database, Africa's Pulse, April 2020.

Appendix C: Guide to the CPIA

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

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

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

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

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

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

Appendix D: CPIA Process

The Country Policy and Institutional Assessment (CPIA) is an annual country assessment exercise that generally starts in October and ends by June of the following year. This exercise is carried out in stages.

In the *first stage*, country teams prepare the CPIA assessment drafts for their respective countries and propose preliminary ratings, including written justification for these proposed ratings. The initial CPIA rating proposals by the country teams are based on well-informed judgment.. The country teams are very familiar with the country, and often draw on their own knowledge of the country's performance. More importantly, they also use relevant diagnostic studies—for example, country economic reports, a public expenditure review, or a poverty assessment—that the World Bank, the country itself, or other stakeholders may have conducted. In addition, over the past several years, the World Bank has assembled economic and institutional data on its member countries, which staff utilize when making their judgments on the respective country's performance. These data are listed in the CPIA criteria under quidepost.

To ensure that the scores are consistent across countries and regions, the country teams' proposals undergo a series of checks and balances. In the *second stage*, the country teams' proposals are first reviewed within each operational region of the World Bank by the respective Office of the Chief Economist, and then they are submitted to a World Bank–wide review by experts in the Global Practices, Global Themes, and central departments. This review process is managed by the World Bank's Operations Policy and Country Services (OPCS) Vice Presidency. The assessment exercise is centrally managed to ensure a clear separation between the resource allocation function and the operations for which the allocations are used.

In the *final stage*, following the World Bank–wide review, the country team proposals are adjusted to ensure the consistency of the proposed ratings across countries. Country teams are requested to revise their qualitative and quantitative assessments, reflecting concerns raised by peer and World Bank–wide reviewers. In cases where differences of views between a country team and OPCS persist, clear mechanisms are in place to reach closure.

The World Bank's consultation with country authorities during the assessment exercise Country authorities are consulted in two stages.

Stage 1. Early in the assessment process, the World Bank's country team meets with country authorities to discuss progress made in addressing the issues identified in the previous year's assessment. This consultation helps identify areas in which the World Bank's assessments might differ from those of the country authorities. It also provides the authorities an opportunity to bring additional information to the attention of World Bank staff. The objective of the first-stage consultation is to ensure that country teams have taken into account all the relevant available information when preparing their write-ups and the associated rating proposals. The guidance provided to the teams makes clear that these interactions with country authorities are part of a process of consultation, not a negotiation over the ratings.

Stage 2. The second stage of interaction with the authorities occurs at the end of the assessment process. After the completion of the World Bank–wide review process and final CPIA scores, country teams communicate to the authorities the results of the assessment, discuss implications for the World Bank's engagement with the country, and explore ways to address identified weaknesses.



This report is produced by the Office of the Chief Economist for the Africa Region.

www.worldbank.org/africa/cpia

