

Evaluating Development Projects and Programmes in Africa

The Case of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)

This paper begins with a brief introduction on monitoring and evaluation concepts, the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) and challenges of its performance evaluation. It is indicated that NEPAD has not prescribed any internal or external monitoring and evaluation of its projects and programmes, and therefore calls into doubt the level of professional competence in its delivery strategies. The paper also examines selected monitoring and evaluation strategies such as the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) and others, which are embedded in the NEPAD workplan, but not sufficiently applied in its operations. Monitoring and evaluation mechanisms such as the Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA) and a few benchmarking evaluation techniques are recommended as possible introductory tools that could assist in the monitoring and evaluation of the NEPAD projects and programmes.

Edwin Okey Ijeoma

Edwin Okey Ijeoma is a senior lecturer at the School of Public Management and Administration (SPMA), Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, University of Pretoria

Introduction

Evaluation of projects and programmes of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) involves the effective implementation of checks and balances, appropriate administrative rules and procedures, audit requirements, the establishment of the institutional structures and formal law enforcement. Unfortunately, evaluation of the overall operations of the NEPAD initiative has not yet taken place, and the current level of implementation is not adequate towards bringing about the much needed economic growth of the African Union member countries. If measures are not put in place soon to evaluate the actual performance of its projects and programmes, NEPAD's Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) cannot be achieved by 2015. Even though the African continent has become aware of the issues of monitoring and evaluation – after it became clear that many governments have failed the public in service delivery and poverty alleviation, in spite several perceived and actual efforts to develop Africa – this awareness has not yet translated into widespread economic growth and wealth creation.

One mechanism of improving this situation is the diffusion and institutionalisation of

monitoring and evaluation systems. Another mechanism is the establishment of public and private sector accountability institutions. These institutions have shown some success where they have been effectively implemented.¹

When formulating an opinion on the evaluation of an organisation such as NEPAD, one must take care that one's view is not limited to considerations of revenue and expenditures while overlooking the objectives of NEPAD and the outcomes of its activities in both quantitative and qualitative terms. Many organisations and their sub-structures came into existence to meet specified goals and objectives of NEPAD, or because of changes in its organisational procedures and methods, or changes in the organisation in terms of growth, reorganisation or reduction.² Thus the importance of the evaluation of the NEPAD projects and programmes relates to its implications for change. The processes of conducting such evaluation and its related concerns are the major subject of this paper.

Background

NEPAD has a multi-faceted approach that envisages; (i) harmonised economic and investment policies, (ii) the provision of essential public goods in the areas of transportation, energy, water, education and health facilities, and (iii) the promotion of intra-African trade and investments, to enhance Africa's competitiveness and enable economic growth within the current context of globalisation.³ Central to the NEPAD framework is therefore the need for African countries to pool their resources.

The NEPAD initiative emphasises the strengthening of the five sub-regional groupings on the continent – namely; (i) the Southern African Development Community (SADC), (ii) the Mahreb Arab Union (MAU), (iii) the Economic Community

of West African states (ECOWAS), (iv) the Central African Development Community (CENSAD), and (v) the East African Economic Community (ECC) – through capacity building and within the rationalisation of existing regional organisations.⁴ NEPAD also solicits funds towards regional studies, infrastructure development programmes and poverty alleviation projects that could become an integral part of the NEPAD initiative.

Most African countries export mainly primary products such as agricultural produce and mineral resources, which limits their international trade. In addition, African economies are characterised by small domestic markets, huge structural weaknesses such as underdeveloped physical infrastructures, ineffective financial sectors and poorly developed manufacturing sectors, which are highly dependent on imports for capacity utilisation and accumulation. These factors, among others, render Africa unattractive to potential investors, with the low levels of investment in essential infrastructure limiting the continent's progress in diversifying the production base and export range.

Against this background, president Mbeki of South Africa and president Wade of Senegal respectively proposed two initiatives; the New Millennium for African Recovery Programme (MAP) and the Omega Plan (OP). The major thrust of these proposals was to ignite a path of sustainable economic growth, stimulate substantial infrastructure development and alleviate poverty across the continent. Following an agreement reached through the Organisation of African Unity (OAU), both the MAP and OP proposals were merged to form the New Africa Initiative (NAI), which was later renamed the New Economic Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), at the 2001 OAU Summit in Lusaka. Subsequently, NEPAD was adopted by the African Union (AU) as the programme that would ensure economic development and growth in Africa.⁵

It may be necessary to recall that NEPAD was conceived outside the continent, which often raised the issue of African ownership. The element of ownership is clearly defined towards seeing the programme as a homegrown initiative that would enable Africa to take her destiny in her own hands. Similarly, the element of partnership is not only between Africa and the G8, but essentially includes African domestic partnership among member states. The element of international partnership – which operates under donor relationships – must give way to equal partnership.⁶

NEPAD Strategic Objectives

NEPAD has identified its main objectives to be:

- the promotion of peace, security and political stability
- the entrenchment and protection of democracy
- establishing a human rights culture and good governance
- poverty eradication
- sustained high economic growth and development
- improving Africa's competitiveness
- strengthening Africa's participation in global institutions, including working for a new global finance and trade architecture.⁷

The objectives of NEPAD is to consolidate democracy and sound economic management on the continent in such a manner that the African leaders would make commitment to the African people and the world, as to work together in rebuilding the continent. Therefore, NEPAD was conceived as a pledge to promote peace and stability and a people-centered development in African countries and to enable countries hold each other accountable in terms of the agreements listed in the programme. NEPAD further

explained that the principles which underpin the achievement of these objectives include:⁸

- African ownership and responsibility
- the promotion of self-reliance
- democratic principles
- human rights
- the rule of law and good governance
- promotion of gender equality
- respect for sanctity of human life
- promotion of social justice and fostering a new relationship with the developed countries that would be based on mutual respect
- responsibility and accountability.

The accomplishment of these socio-economic and developmental objectives rests on; (i) mobilising substantial levels of investment in infrastructure development, especially in the areas of energy, information and communication technology, (ii) intensive human resource development, including education and reversing the 'brain drain', skills development in health services and agriculture, and (iii) making Africa's exports more accessible to the markets of the developed world. The most important trade-related areas of NEPAD include:⁹

- inter-linking infrastructure within Africa
- encouraging capital flows within Africa
- establishing common and coordinated regulatory frameworks
- raising complementary and/or combined cross-border production
- stimulating agricultural development and thereby providing food security
- eradicating the debt problems of African states.

Like many African development projects and programmes, however, NEPAD has not presented a clear monitoring and evaluation strategy; rather it has recognised some common African and international treaties and conventions as

building blocks for the possible evaluation of its projects and programmes. Therefore, this paper suggests a comprehensive assessment of constraints and complexities in conducting evaluation in Africa with a view to developing sustainable systems that could assist NEPAD in its projects and programmes evaluation process.

Conducting Evaluation in Africa: Origin, Constraints and Complexities

Origin

Evaluating developments projects and programmes in Africa may be considered new in the public sector domain, but it has always been used in the private sector and business environment. Unfortunately many African countries have no system in place to deal with the challenges facing government projects and programmes. This has resulted in underdevelopment, poverty, mal-administration and a high rate of corruption in many government institutions and agencies.

To address these issues some countries have established monitoring and evaluation (M&E) systems and professional associations, networks or societies, representing practitioners. In other countries, there are no systems in place and there are no structures that support the evaluation practitioners. The first continental body for evaluation, the African Evaluation Association (AfrEA) was established in 1999 and had its first conference in Nairobi in 2002 and its second in Cape Town in 2004.¹⁰ The aim of AfrEA is to promote the M&E agenda and participatory workshops in Africa. Since the inception of the association, practitioners would want to see its recommended M&E applications in use in many African countries. That would be the first test of its acceptance by governments, development agencies, non-governmental organisations and other development stakeholders.

Constraints

Evaluating the performance of government projects and programmes in Africa has been a huge challenge to researchers and practitioners. So far, the approach has been to use the goal approach, and participant satisfaction surveys. These do not constitute a comprehensive M&E process, rather it is meant to focus on dealing with internal effective performance appraisal.

The African evaluation process, however, faces major challenges.¹¹ In many Africa countries evaluation is perceived as a mechanism that focuses on exposing failures and weaknesses in job performance and general service delivery rather than celebrating its strengths and successes. This negative perception of evaluation presents it as something to be feared or, at best, tolerated. That the M&E arena is mostly donor-dominated and donor-driven can be explained by the fact that many African countries depend heavily on World Bank loans and other donor funds to finance projects. Similarly, the programmes of non-governmental organisations in African usually come with evaluation requirements. The high cost of evaluation is a huge constraint to evaluation of projects and programmes in Africa. The government's role in fostering learning from failures and successes of projects and programmes is neglected. Owing to the lack of feedback mechanisms – which may be attributed to Africa lagging behind in communication technology and therefore lack well-organised and coordinated information systems in government departments and ministries – M&E findings are usually non-utilised or, at best, under-utilised.

Complexities

The complexities of the African evaluation process can be linked to issues of tasks involved in assessing administrative outputs and arriving at optimal solutions for actual or perceived inadequacies.

However, there are three distinguishable and complicating features of evaluation that could impede implementation of projects and programmes in Africa.¹² First is the problem of determining the appropriate variables to use to represent such performance measures as benefits and costs (or gains and losses). The benefits to consumers of the construction of a road may include, for example, savings in the form of reduced costs for transported goods, reduced travel costs due to savings in petrol consumption, and time saved as a result of reduced traffic. Determining and arraying these variables can be time-consuming and difficult to undertake. The second complicating factor is that many of the variables considered as gains and losses are not easily quantifiable and thus immeasurable. In line with the government's obligations and commitments to its citizens, projects and programmes benefits and costs must be evaluated beyond profit maximisation results and take account of non-monetary variables such as pollution, health and safety, or even the wasting of people's time. Changes in any of these accounts should be included in the calculation.¹³ Third, the pricing of resources or benefits is more complicated for public than for private enterprises. Whereas private business evaluates benefits and costs using market prices alone, governments may have to adjust market prices to reflect social costs or benefits that are not captured in these prices.¹⁴ (The prices that are adjusted to take account of such externalities can be described as shadow prices.)

It is important to note that the constraints and complexities discussed do not represent an exhaustive list of issues around the challenges of evaluation, rather, it is meant to complement other identified factors within this category. It is also important to note that no country in Africa has as yet achieved a fully developed M&E system adequately suited to its needs.

To large extent African countries are still experimenting with several methods of M&E that could provide credible solutions to dealing with their project and programmes implementation. Despite those constraints and complexities, however, there are hope and positive signs that M&E is finally being recognised in African countries. It is only on this premise that the process will have footholds in assisting development efforts in the NEPAD initiative.

Background to the Evaluation Provisions of NEPAD

In recognition of the Abuja Treaty, NEPAD formally called Africa and Africans to a renewed commitment to good governance, rule of law and human rights. The following agreements and declarations serve as references for evaluation:¹⁵

- Lagos Plan of Action, and Final Act of Lagos (1980)
- African (Banjul) Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (1981)
- African Charter for Popular Participation in Development (1990)
- declaration on the Political and Socio-Economic Situation in Africa and the Fundamental Changes taking place in the World (1990)
- African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)
- Abuja Treaty establishing the African Economic Community (1991)
- Cairo Declaration Establishing the Mechanism for Conflict Prevention, Management and Resolution (1993)
- Protocol on the Establishment of African Court on Human and People's Rights (1998)
- Grand Bay (Mauritius) Declaration and Plan of Action for Promotion and Protection of Human Rights (1999)

- Framework for an OAU Response to Unconstitutional Changes of Government (adopted at the 2000 OAU summit in Lome, Togo, and based on an earlier decision of the OAU summit in Algiers in 1999)
- Conference on Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation (CSSDCA) Solemn Declaration (2000)
- Constitutive Act of the African Union (2000).

Unfortunately African states do not have a good record in complying with international agreements, and therefore NEPAD may not necessarily have introduced something new. As such, the need has arisen to determine the major reasons why African countries violate international agreements and treaties, which they freely entered into within the regional and global development terrain.

Contextualising the NEPAD Evaluation Process

The NEPAD Action Plan does not provide clear monitoring and evaluation direction to the initiative, rather the plan indicates the need for implementation of certain initiatives as major pre-conditions for sustainable development in Africa.¹⁶ They are:

- democracy and good political governance
- economic and corporate governance
- socio-economic development
- African Peer-Review Mechanism (APRM).

In support of democracy and good political governance, NEPAD plans to; (i) adopt clear codes, standards and indicators of good governance at national, sub-regional and continental levels, (ii) promote an accountable, efficient and effective civil service, (iii) ensure the effective functioning of parliaments and other accountability

institutions in all African Union countries, including parliamentary committees and anti-corruption bodies, and (iv) ensure the independence of the judicial system, which will be able to prevent abuse of power and corruption. Similarly, in support of economic and corporate governance, NEPAD has other key codes and standards for transparency and financial management. These include principles of payment systems, as well as for securities and insurance supervision and regulations. In terms of socio-economic development, NEPAD was founded on a cold-blooded, hard-headed assessment of the political and socio-economic realities in Africa. The African Peer-Review Mechanism (APRM) – which is voluntarily acceded to by member states of the African Union – has been developed as an African self-monitoring mechanism.

Assessing the African Peer-Review Mechanism (APRM)

The NEPAD Action Plan provides the following information towards the understanding on the mandate, objectives and principles governing the APRM process:¹⁷

- The mandate of the APRM is to ensure that the policies and practices of the participating countries conform to the agreed political, economic and corporate governance values, codes and standards contained in the Declaration on Democracy, Political, Economic and Corporate Governance. The APRM is a mutually agreed instrument for self-monitoring by the participating member governments.
- The primary purpose of the APRM is to foster the adoption of policies, standards and practices that lead to political stability, high economic growth, sustainable development

and accelerated sub-regional and continental economic integration through sharing of experiences and reinforcement of successful and good practices, including identifying deficiencies and assessing the need for capacity building.

- Every review exercise carried out under the authority of the mechanism must be technically competent, credible and free of political manipulations. These stipulations together constitute the core guiding principles of the APRM.
- APRM process is open to all member states of the African Union. Any country wishing to participate in the APRM process need to notify the chairperson of the NEPAD heads of state and Government Implementation Committee. This will entail undertaking to submit to periodic peer reviews, as well as to facilitate self-reviews, and be guided by agreed parameters for good political, economic and corporate governance. The context to which NEPAD evaluation process is made need some assessment to determine whether the standards and codes mentioned in the NEPAD evaluation process is project- or organisation-driven.

An analysis of the NEPAD evaluation process and its provisions tend to focus on issues of codes and standards, and the African Peer-Review Mechanism. In view of its recommended processes and operational procedures, APRM seems to be an outstanding idea. It has the potential to be considered a credible instrument, if undertaken by independent monitoring and evaluation experts, with specific terms of reference, drawn from a transparent process, and if it involves a good number of development stakeholders. Its credibility will also be enhanced if appointments of the operatives are driven by non-governmental organisations.

The terms 'monitoring' and 'evaluation' are often not distinctly understood. Monitoring is seen as the routine, regular assessment of ongoing activities and programmes. In contrast, evaluation is seen as the periodic assessment of overall achievements and challenges facing the day-to-day activities. As monitoring looks at what is being done, evaluation examines what impact has been achieved. Within the context of NEPAD, monitoring and evaluation are based more on the identification of coordination and control strategies that would assist in dealing with functional control and coordination issues. Monitoring and evaluation shouldn't be seen as 'political opposition', but as constructive measures against failures in performance; aimed at discouraging inefficiency and encouraging action-based development practice.

Benchmarking the NEPAD Evaluation Process

It is widely acknowledged that the evaluation challenge faced by NEPAD is critical to the implementation of its initiatives. NEPAD is a multi-dimensional and multi-level process; it is not only about development in a narrow sense, and therefore should not be seen exclusively in terms of development aid either.

Throughout the world, Africa's wealth in natural resources is unmatched. However, the continent contributes only 1% of global domestic product and participates in a mere 2% of international trade. The challenge lies in unlocking the continent's economic potential and enhancing the capacity of African countries to effectively participate and compete in the global economy. Furthermore, in order to realise the vision of poverty alleviation and people's ownership, NEPAD needs to:¹⁸

- accelerate implementation of programmes in the regional economic communities
- mobilise resources from the private sector in Africa and elsewhere
- move international development agencies from research to implementation
- build and strengthen international partnership beyond the G-8 countries, especially South-South cooperation
- facilitate common African position in multi-lateral (e.g. WTO) meetings
- deepen ownership and participation in other Pan-African development initiatives.
- the level of domestic and foreign direct investments (separating those influences by the NEPAD initiative and those that are not influenced by NEPAD)
- the rise and fall of trade and capital flows, since market access is a key NEPAD goal
- African standard of living as measured by Human Development Index e.g. the use of NEPAD as an election issue in African states
- number of states subscribing to the APRM or those failing in the review process
- level of corruption, political freedom in African countries
- an assessment of democratisation of government and whether or not there is human rights abuse
- progress in the consolidation of the existing regional economic communities from seven to five as envisaged under the NEPAD framework.

Following the above strategies, however, there is a need to develop independent monitoring and evaluation mechanisms – supported by several institutions – to ensure that the NEPAD implementation process is neither used as a political tool for canvassing elections, nor as support of the tyranny of big corporates gaining all the benefit at the expense of the poor.

As NEPAD itself did not provide any benchmarks to measure its performance, it may be difficult to assess commitments against actual performance of the G8, OECD countries and other partners. It is also difficult to assess the NEPAD value system of a genuine new partnership based on mere mutual accountability and trust, although in general African leaders have demonstrated high level of commitment to Africa's development and therefore can be held accountable for failure or success of the initiative. It would be useful to develop a set of NEPAD indices aimed at monitoring actual (as opposed to rhetorical) improvements in the African quality of life. These indices could be used in line with the targets and goals of the Millennium declaration.

The following benchmarks may serve as a starting point for assessing progress or failures in the NEPAD initiative:¹⁹

The benchmarking tools identified above could give impetus for developing a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation techniques aimed at achieving the NEPAD objectives.

There is a need to further assess the utilisation of some monitoring and evaluation techniques to actively jump-start the NEPAD monitoring and evaluation process. Currently the emphasis is on the external encumbrances to effective performance; evaluation processes such as APRM focuses more on the countries' and governments' performance, without first determining how the internal processes of the NEPAD initiatives would be monitored or evaluated.

Using the Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA) Technique for NEPAD Evaluation

In contrast, the standard method employed by economists in evaluating NEPAD programmes

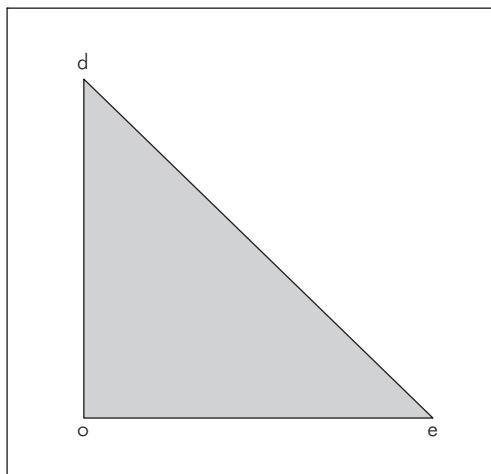
and projects is the Cost-Benefits Analysis (CBA) method; the central criterion of which is simply that the benefits of a programme must outweigh its costs. Compared to the general approach of management and administration scientists, the economists' analysis has focused much more on the environment external to the organisation, taking as the key determinant of public performance the concept of consumer surplus.²⁰ Consumer surplus is basically a representation of the degree to which program clients/consumer value goods and services and can be defined as the excess of the amount a consumer is willing to pay for a given product or service over the amount actually paid.²¹

Graphically, consumer surplus is an area under the demand curve that is specified by (or a function of) the demand curve, price, quantity demanded, and marginal and average costs.

Demand Curve and Consumer Surplus

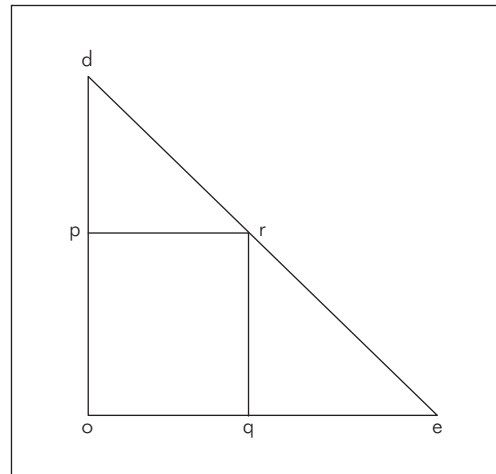
The demand curve for consumer goods and services is a function of many variables and includes; (i) income distribution, (ii) consumer tastes, and (iii) the prices of substitute and complementary

Figure 1



Source: Mishan, 1976, p 27

Figure 2



Source: Mishan, 1976, p 27

goods. When graphed, the demand curve shows the maximum amount consumers are willing to pay for the goods or service in question. Therefore, it can be seen that any point below (to the right of) the demand curve would represent a loss to consumers, and any point below (to the left of) the demand curve represents a price that is below what consumer is willing to pay at that given quantity and is thus a gain to consumers. In the limiting case of a free public service to consumers, the entire area under the demand curve (the shaded area of Figure 1) is equal to or less than the maximum amount consumers are willing to pay for the services, and thus the entire shaded area represents consumer's surplus.²²

Measuring the Consumer Surplus Society of NEPAD

In evaluating the NEPAD service, there is a need to shift the focus of the analysis from that of the consumer surplus of projects' and programmes' clients/beneficiaries, to measuring the consumer surplus society of African

countries as a whole. Similarly, it is important to understand how the intended beneficiaries of a project or programmes are being served, but since many of the costs for providing these services are borne by taxpayers and donor agencies and development partners, the cost-benefit analysis must be considered from the broader societal perspective.

Thus the notion of 'no free lunch' comes to mind. The demand curve for society then can be represented as the cumulative demand of all of society for that specific government program as determined by the median-voter. With this demand curve specified, Figure 2 shows that:²³

- a given quantity (q) of service desired by society
- the price (p) is the price level at which government will provide the NEPAD service
- total expenditure of society is simply price times quantity that is graphically equivalent to the vector op times the vector oq , and thus also equivalent geometrically to the area $oprq$
- the area $qodr$ represents total gain to consumers at quantity (q)
- subtracting programme expenditure $oprq$ from total gain to consumers' $qodr$ leaves the area pdr , which is defined as consumer surplus^{24,25}
- consumer surplus, once determined, must be included as a benefit in the cost-benefit analysis.

Measuring the Net Social Benefit (NSB) of NEPAD

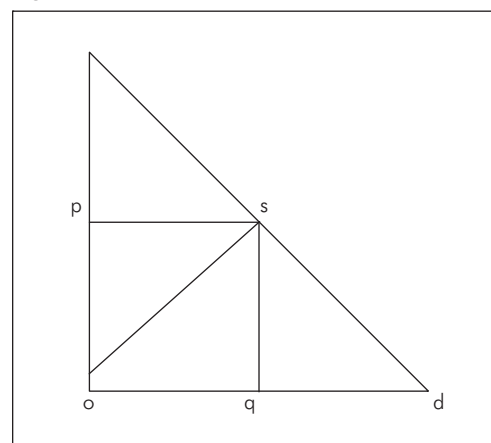
The consideration of cost-benefit analysis may include the concept of net social benefit (NSB). As opposed to the cost-benefit evaluations that take consumer surplus to be most pertinent measure of social benefit, NSB includes the

benefits and costs of both producers and consumers.²⁶ In measuring the NSB, the entire area under the demand curve up to point (q) comprises consumer and producer benefit, and the entire area up to the same equilibrium point (q) under the supply curve represents consumer and producer cost. Thus, subtracting the area under the supply curve from the area under the demand curve specifies the area considered NSB, which is therefore equal to consumer surplus producer surplus.

Net Social Benefit to Consumers and Producers

For those who argue that government constitutes the collective will of society and that costs incurred by government are in actual fact costs to taxpayers and citizens; to equate government costs of providing public services with producer costs would amount to double-counting that which has already been estimated as consumer costs. Thus, this rationale would lead to the conclusion the gains and a loss of two sets of stakeholders only; either private producers and private consumers, or government (as producer) and private consumers, or government (as producer) and private producers (as the consumer).²⁷

Figure 3



Source: Prato, 1998, pp 127, 269

Moeti goes further to assert that a more complete and perhaps more legitimate cost-benefit comparison would be to consider separately the gains and losses of consumers, producers, and government in contrasting the evaluation methods of cost-benefit analysis with the basics-needs approach. In his analysis, a government subsidy simultaneously causes a loss for government and gain for both producers and consumers, or a loss for government and either producers or consumers gain.²⁸

Government Cost-Benefit and Price

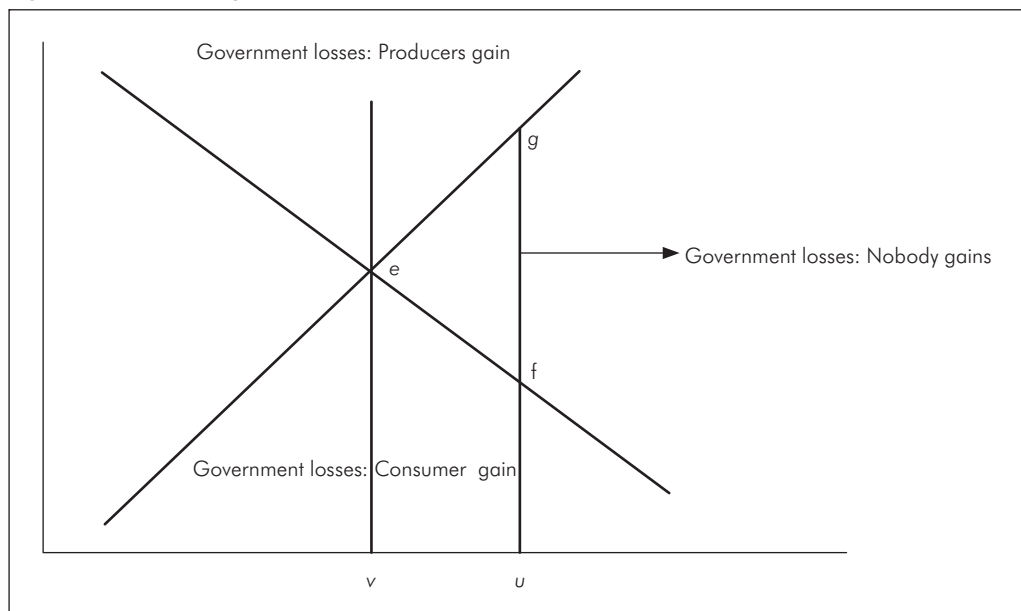
One may see how the interest of each of these three stakeholders – the government, producers and consumers – can be considered together graphically, from Figures 4 and 5 below.

This graphic representation shows the cost-benefit results of changes along the price axis.

The total cost to government of the subsidy is given the area egf and the proportion of this subsidy that is a benefit to producers is given by the area gef while the benefit to consumers is depicted by pge . Alternatively, the basics-needs approach considers the same problem but from the vantage point of the axis as shown in Figure 5. Both approaches lead to the same result in this simplified example.²⁹

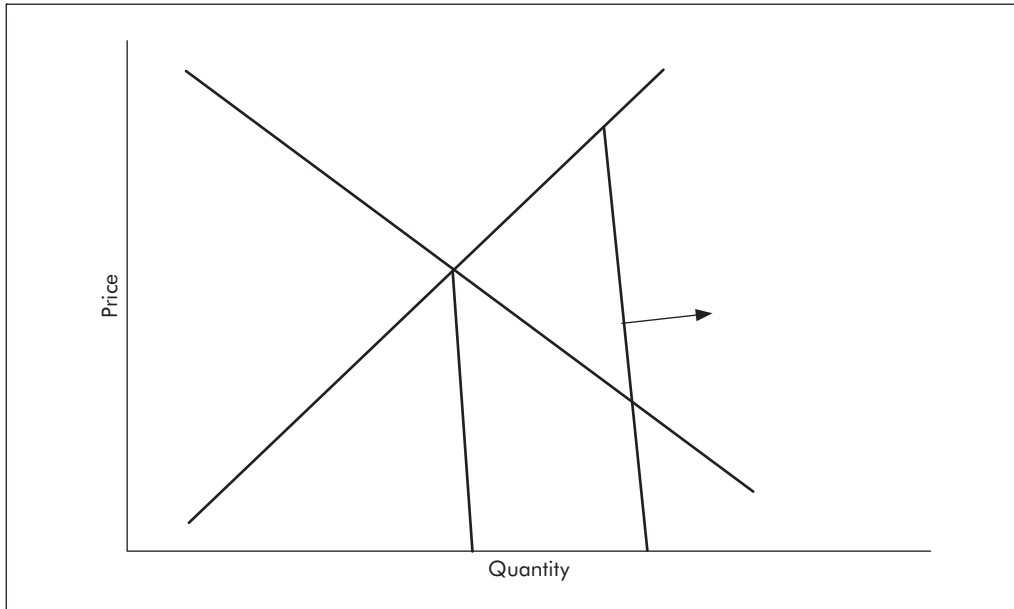
The value of a graphic representation of cost-benefit analysis is that it requires pragmatic application using a real world numerical example. This would entail a three-stage process of; (i) identifying and listing all benefits and costs, (ii) converting them to their present values, and (iii) comparing these by ratio or net benefit. The first two stages of the process will be addressed here, as they are more important and complex compared to the final stage (which simply requires a comparison of costs and benefits either by subtracting the

Figure 4 Benefit Analysis that Includes Government



Source: Haveman and Margolis, 1983, p 115

Figure 4 Cost-Benefit Analysis that Includes Government



Source: Haveman and Margolis, 1983, p 115

former from the latter or by taking the ratio of benefits to costs).

Benefits and Costs of the NEPAD Organisational Performance

Answering the question as to which costs and benefits must be included in CBA of NEPAD requires a consideration of society's gains and losses in general, as well as requiring a definition of the relevant primary stakeholders to be included in the CBA. For example, it can be considered whether or not a project to widen a road can be evaluated in the same way as a programme that provides welfare benefits to the elderly.

African government agencies, the programmes they oversee, and the services they provide can best be understood and evaluated in terms of the following three basic function

of government; allocative, distributive, and regulatory.⁵⁰

Allocative expenditure programmes are those that simply allocate funds for the provision of public services at the national and sub-national, regional and continental level, such as national defence, police services and fire protection. This category also includes physical investment programmes, which are those programmes which services involve the provision of some capital construction such as infrastructure (roads, bridges, and dams). By their very nature, physical investment projects will undoubtedly effect change upon the environment and may thus require a unique set of evaluation tools (within the cost-benefit model) manifestly different from those required of other types of programmes. An excellent example of this is the environmental impact assessment required of most physical investment projects. Comparatively, evaluation of other allocative programme categories such as

those listed above (police, fire and national defence) may require instead the inclusion of such quantitative measures or statistics as number of reported cases and their direction of growth or change.³¹

Distributive expenditure programmes attempt to change the income distribution in society. These programmes are usually carried out through government's taxing function, welfare and human investment programmes. A progressive system that imposes a proportionately greater tax burden on the richer members of society than a poor can be thought of as being a distributive programme because it attempts to provide for a more equitable distribution of society's wealth. In general, the object of welfare programmes is the provision of basic needs to those members of society who are unable to 'adequately' sustain themselves. A common approach to evaluating the efficiency of welfare programmes uses the measure defined as the welfare ratio; which is a family's total realised income (including welfare benefits received) relative to its level of need (based on family size, age and location).³² When this ratio is found to be less than 1, the family is determined to be in poverty for that year. When this ratio is between 1 and 1.25, the family is considered near poverty, and when the ratio is above 1.25, the family is considered non-poor. Simply stated, the object of this approach is to balance redistributive gains to programme recipients against losses incurred by programme contributors. The question to be answered is, 'by how much does society gain in transferring income from contributing to recipient families?'

True to their name, *regulatory programmes* regulate the activities of government placed on private sector enterprises concerning what to do and what not to do.³³ Programmes of this nature can be assessed by weighing the compliance costs of private producers of goods

and services, similarly, consumers are also assessed by way of higher costs and prices for the regulated goods with the benefits accruing to the society at large.

Monitoring and Evaluation: Results for NEPAD

Effective evaluation would assist NEPAD in taking control of its projects and programmes in many ways. Apart from the monitoring and evaluation of internal functional linkages among its staff, NEPAD is expected to link with all relevant stakeholders and other development institutions, including the African Union, regional economic communities, United Nations Agencies, the African Development Bank (AfDB), World Bank, Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA), the G8 countries and their respective agencies.

By establishing M&E processes, NEPAD will:

- be in the position to facilitate its projects' and programmes' life cycles at all levels
- be able to work with development and non-governmental organisations across the continent towards providing neutral policy guidelines on Africa's development issues
- ensure that operatives adapt relevant international development codes and standards to the NEPAD implementation process
- ensure that the NEPAD initiative is not used as a 'political tool'; rather, it should be a platform for socio-economic transformation of all the African countries and people
- begin to provide objective and independent views on common African development issues without being influenced by any external organisations and governments
- be in a position to advice African governments and development institutions on possible development alternatives available in African countries and regions.

Conclusion

NEPAD holds high hopes for poverty alleviation and regional integration in Africa, but issues of inadequate delivery strategies could render its projects and programmes ineffective in the end. In recent years, the focus on monitoring and evaluation of development projects and programmes has dominated public debate around the world, with a view to holding politicians and public sector practitioners responsible and accountable in their professed efforts to render better social services.

It is important to recognise that monitoring and evaluation is imperative for systematically appraising progress during and after the implementation of NEPAD projects and programmes, to confirm whether or not the projects are on track. It has also become imperative that national monitoring and evaluation experts and their regional counterparts take up their responsibility to assist

NEPAD in developing monitoring and evaluation culture in its implementation process. This will ensure a reasonable level of professionalism and result-oriented implementation, without unnecessary external interference.

It is recommended that the emphasis shift from the present traditional approach – where monitoring and evaluation issues are left in the hands of the donor agencies – to adopting a simplified Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA) approach and its imbedded Net Social Benefits (NSB), that would have an organisational focus on the day-to-day running of the NEPAD Secretariat, its projects and programmes. Similarly, the techniques for benchmarking the NEPAD evaluation process proposed in the paper may serve as introductory interventions towards influencing monitoring and evaluation decisions and assist in making informed judgments on the impact of the development projects and programmes of NEPAD.

Notes and References

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