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OF SCIENCES AND LITERATURE

**Efficiency and Effectiveness in Public Policies
in Africa: Compared Analysis of Emerging
Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020.**

By Lucien Alphonsine Guesse Ndong

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List Of Abbreviations

AEP	Africa Energy Portal
AFCFTA	The African Continental Free Trade Area Agreement
AI	Artificial Intelligence
APIX	Senegal's Investment Promotion Agency
BOS	Operational Monitoring Office
BPS	Botswana Public Service
CFEE	Certificate of End of Elementary Studies
CPN4	Prenatal Consultation 4
CSPIP	Civil Service Performance Improvement Programme
CU	Coordination Unit
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EMR	Electronic Medical Records
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICOR	Incremental Capital Output Ration
JDC	Joint Delivery Committee
MINEDUC	Rwandan Ministry of Education
MINICAAF	Ministry of Cabinet Affairs
NPM	New Public Management
OCDE	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OFNAC	National Office for Combating Fraud and Corruption
PEMANDU	Performance Management and Delivery Unit
PM	Public Management
PMDU	Prime Minister's Delivery Unit

PMS	Public Management Strategy
PSE	Emerging Senegal Plan
RGBPIP	Reference Group for the Botswana Performance Improvement Project
Rwanda's OAG	Rwanda's Office of the Auditor General
SPU	Strategy and Policy Unit
USAID	The United States Agency for International Development
VAT	Value-Added Tax

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Abstract

The research study's objectives are as follows:

- Measure the efficiency and effectiveness of public policies in 2 development programmes in Africa: The Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020.
- After comparing these 2 programmes, identify the most efficient and the most effective.
- Define and understand the elements of public management that have prevailed to produce greater efficiency and effectiveness in one of the programmes compared with the other.
- Question public management in sub-Saharan Africa, in Senegal and Rwanda, in terms of efficiency and effectiveness.

Regarding the methodology, I used inductive reasoning as a research method, mixed methods combining both quality and quantitative research, a collection of primary data through exchanges and interviews with public policy stakeholders, and secondary data from several sources.

Considering the key findings, it can be concluded that a compared study of the Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020, as public policies in Africa, through efficiency and effectiveness; in the areas of governance, agricultural mechanisation, primary education, mother and child health and access to water and electricity, leads to the following conclusion: Rwanda Vision 2020 has been more efficient and effective than the Emerging Senegal Plan.

Finally, this research's implications are:

- The obtaining of a compared analysis in public management of two major modern socio-economic development programmes in two countries, Senegal and Rwanda, by two African political leaders.
- The originality of questioning the Dakar-Kigali axis, which differs in almost every way: geographical and economic affiliation, language, peoples, internal and international political orientations and national history.

- The contribution of data and conclusions that are accurate, fresh and specific to public management in Africa.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

Contextualisation

Considering the Emerging Senegal Plan, and according to the Agence Nationale de la Statistique et de la Démographie (National Agency for Statistics and Demography), 2022, pp. 47-50, the gross enrolment rate at the primary level in 2020 is 85.9%. The transition rate from CM2 to the 6th grade is 72%. About Rwanda Vision 2020, the rate of access to drinking water, assessed by the Global Water Partnership, 2022, p.1; Unicef Rwanda, 2022, p. 5 and the DHS Program, 2020, is 80% (national), 77% (rural) and 96% (urban) respectively.

This research study is of the utmost importance insofar as it aims to question the principles of efficiency and effectiveness in applied public policies, drawn from two major socio-economic development programs in Africa: The Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020. The comparison of these programs, which are very different in some respects, is more than interesting as a major contribution to studies or research into public management practices in Africa today.

Problematic

The research topic is based on the following questions:

- Have the Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020 public policies on governance, agricultural mechanisation, primary education, mother and child health, and access to drinking water and electricity, designed and effectively implemented over almost a decade, been effective because they are efficient?
- Which of the two socio-economic development programs relating to the areas of study mentioned above has been the most effective and efficient?
- Finally, if one was more effective and efficient than the other, what public management approaches, theories, principles, or practices prevailed and produced such success?

The resolution of such a problem provides interesting answers to several concerns or questions in public management:

- The relationship between two principles of public management, efficiency, and effectiveness, and their application in an African environment.
- The ranking of two African socio-economic development programs from the point of view of efficiency and effectiveness, based on a comparison between the two.
- The public management approaches, theories, principles, and practices that have prevailed to be more efficient and effective.

Research objectives

The objectives of this research are as follows:

- Measure the efficiency and effectiveness of public policies in 2 development programs in Africa.
- After comparing these 2 programs, identify the most efficient and effective.
- Define and understand the elements of public management that have prevailed to produce greater efficiency and effectiveness in one of the programs.
- Question public management in sub-Saharan Africa, in Senegal and Rwanda, in terms of efficiency and effectiveness.

The research methodology used is:

- An inductive reasoning as a research method.
- Mixed methods combining both quality and quantitative research
- A collection of primary data through interviews and discussions with public policy stakeholders, and secondary data from several sources.

Structure of the thesis

The drafting plan for this research was shaped in this way:

Chapter 1. Introduction

Chapter 2. Literature review

Chapter 3. Materials and methods

Chapter 4. Contents and results
Chapter 5. Discussion
Chapter 6. Conclusions

Chapter 2. Literature review

2. Overview

This literature review on the evaluation of public policies according to certain criteria, including efficiency and effectiveness, aims to provide an adequate overview of the thinking, analysis, and writing done or written by experts, specialists, academics, theoreticians, national and international organisations, governments and states, or simply senior civil servants practicing public policy. It should therefore be seen as the basis of the scientific literature on which this thesis will be vigorously rooted. It assesses a range of public policies, using the criteria of efficiency and effectiveness, in Africa, through two national programmes in Senegal and Rwanda, in the decade 2010-2020.

The objectives of this chapter 2 are:

- Identify and summarize the scientific literature relevant to the subject of the thesis: the efficiency and effectiveness of public policies.
- Elucidate a certain number of concepts, principles, practices, functions, instruments, areas, or fields interacting with public policy, public management and administration, governance and accountability, delivery, etc.
- Provide an appropriate forum for critiquing this body of opinion on the subject.

2. 1 Literature relating to Public Policy, Monitoring and evaluation

Public Policy

UHC 2030 (n. d.) defines public policy as a set of decisions aimed at solving a problem that the government considers to be a priority. Public policy is developed by a public entity - sometimes with the participation and contribution of other stakeholders and may be implemented by a range of public and private actors. The choice of instruments to be used to implement such a policy depends on the objectives pursued.

On the same subject, Turgeon (n. d., p. 1) argues that public policy is a document drawn up by government players setting out their vision of an issue on which public action may be taken and, incidentally, the legal, technical, practical and operational aspects of that action. Public policy can also be defined as the process during which

elected representatives decide to take public action on an issue on which certain governmental or non-governmental players demand action.

Monitoring

Questioning public policy monitoring and which indicators must be constructed for the purpose, Cipriano and Fastré (2014, p.1) consider that indicators are increasingly being positioned at the heart of public policy monitoring processes. Further, according to them, they must be viewed as tools serving diagnostic and decision-making and revealing the state of progress of public action. Detailing their sought, Cipriano and Fastré (2014, p.1) add that monitoring the implementation of public policies is an important decision-making tool. It aims to present, systematically and continuously, the state of progress of a public policy, in terms of resources allocated (human, material, financial, etc.), achievements, and results obtained. It helps to ensure the coherence of actions, both within a policy and about other public policies.

Moreover, comparing monitoring with public policy evaluation, Cipriano and Fastré (Jacob, 2010 cited in Cipriano and Fastré 2014, pp.1- 2) state that monitoring is distinct from public policy evaluation. The latter consists of a systematic and objective examination, at one or more specific points in time, of the processes, products, or effects of a public policy, making a judgment about it using precise assessment criteria (e.g.: effectiveness, efficiency, sustainability, relevance, etc.) (Jacob, 2010). The evaluation draws in part on information provided by monitoring but also makes use of complementary studies, analyses, surveys, and interviews. Evaluative work is generally carried out by external actors, mandated to implement the public policy in question. Monitoring itself requires setting up an information system. The information has to be tailored to the needs of each actor in public policy implementation and rightly targeted. As for operational monitoring of public policy, it is usually carried out by the administration responsible for its implementation. This is to ensure its coherence and provide information on any necessary adjustments.

Dunn (2018, pp. 251-252) declares that monitoring fulfills several functions in public analysis. These are:

- Compliance: monitoring helps determine whether the actions of program managers comply with norms, values, and standards mandated by legislatures, regulatory agencies, and professional associations.
- Auditing: monitoring helps discover whether resources and services intended for target groups and beneficiaries reach them.
- Accounting: Monitoring produces information that helps account for social and economic changes that follow the implementation of policies.
- Description and explanation: monitoring also yields information that helps to explain why the outcomes of public policies and programs result in particular outcomes.

Additionally, Dunn (2018, p. 254) comments on policy outcomes monitoring, accounting for variations in policy outputs, outcomes, and impacts, connecting them with policy inputs and activities. Then, upon these, the author explains the causal mechanism. In the end, he throws light on target groups, beneficiaries, organizational and political activities, and attitudes within policy processes. To be more explicit, on policy outcomes monitoring, he argues that in monitoring policy outcomes there are several kinds of policy-relevant effects. Policy outcomes are the goods, services, and resources actually received by target groups and beneficiaries as an effect of the policy or program.’ As for the other ingredients of policy and causal mechanisms, Dunn (2018, p. 254) alleges, ‘To account for variations in policy outputs, outcomes, and impacts, it is necessary to trace them back to prior policy inputs and activities. The relation between inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes, and impacts may be visualized as a complex causal mechanism (Figure 6.1).¹⁵ Policy inputs are the human and material resources—time, money, personnel, supplies, technology—used to produce activities, outputs, outcomes, and impacts. A good example of policy inputs is the program budget, which is a systematic set of accounts that allocate the resources needed to carry out program activities. Policy activities, in turn, are the functions of planning, administration, research and development, budgeting, human resources, and training performed in order to produce outputs, outcomes, and impacts. The entire causal mechanism is illustrated in Figure 6.1. Although the figure shows a linear

relation, in practice, there are feedback and feedforward loops and short circuits.’ Considering target groups and beneficiaries, Dunn (2018, pp. 254-255) asserts, ‘In monitoring elements of the causal mechanism, it is important to distinguish between target groups and beneficiaries. Target groups are individuals, organizations, communities, regions, or states and provinces on whom policies and programs are designed to have an effect. However, beneficiaries are groups for whom the effects are beneficial or valuable.’ Dunn (2018, p. 255) ends his comments on organizational and political activities and attitudes professing, ‘Policies and programs may be characterized in terms of the organizational and political activities and attitudes that shape the transformation of policy inputs into policy outcomes and impacts. For example, conflicts among agency staff and management, dissatisfaction with working conditions, or inflexible decision-making procedures may explain why programs that the same resource inputs have produce lower levels of output. The important point is to distinguish between inputs, activities, and outputs, on the one hand, and outputs and impacts on the other.’

Dunn (2018, p. 257) also examines the approaches related to monitoring. He distinguishes a set of identifiable approaches:

- Social systems accounting.
- Social auditing.
- Policy experimentation.
- Research and practice synthesis.
- Meta-analysis.
- Case studies.

As well, for six of them: policy experimentation and social auditing, social systems accounting, research and practice synthesis, meta-analysis and case studies, Dunn (2018, pp. 258- 259) warns that they have common features:

- Each of them is concerned with monitoring policy-relevant outcomes and impacts. In addition, social auditing seeks information about whether the resources/inputs reach the intended beneficiaries. Each of these approaches deals with variables that are relevant to policymakers because they are indicators of policy inputs and activities.

- A second common feature of these approaches is that they are goal-focused. This means that policy outcomes are monitored because they are believed to enhance the satisfaction of some need, value, or opportunity—that is, outcomes are seen as ways to resolve a policy problem. At the same time, some policy outcomes are monitored because they may inhibit the satisfaction of some need, value, or opportunity.
- A third feature common to these approaches is that they are change-oriented. Each approach seeks to monitor change, by analysing changes in outcomes over time; by comparing such changes across two or more programs, projects, or localities; or by using some combination of the two. While some approaches (social systems accounting) are oriented toward macro-level changes in societies, states, regions, and communities, other approaches (social auditing and social experimentation) are primarily oriented toward micro-level changes in programs and projects.
- Finally, each approach is concerned with objective as well as subjective measures of policy actions and outcomes.

Furthermore, Dunn (2028, p. 259- 261) defines these approaches and expresses their relevance, timeliness, and requirement, ‘Social systems accounting is an approach and set of methods that permit analysts to monitor changes in objective and subjective social conditions over time... The major analytic element of social systems accounting is the social indicator. While there are various definitions of this term, the most useful is one that defines social indicators as “statistics which measure social conditions and changes therein over time for various segments of a population. By social conditions, we mean both the external (social and physical) and the internal (subjective and perceptual) contexts of human existence in a given society...In using social indicators for purposes of monitoring, it is frequently necessary to make assumptions as to why a social indicator has changed over time.’ Dunn (2018, p. 262) adds ‘The use of social indicators has several advantages. First, efforts to develop indicators appropriate for monitoring policy outcomes may alert us to areas where there is insufficient information...Second, when social indicators provide reliable information about the impacts of policies on target groups and beneficiaries, it becomes possible to modify policies and programs. Social indicators also provide information that helps

define and structure policy problems and modify existing alternatives.’ Dunn (2018, pp. 262-263) also identifies social indicators limitations ‘Social indicators also have various limitations. The choice of certain indicators (e.g., percent of households below the poverty line) reflects particular social values...Given that policy problems are dynamic, artificial, and subjective, it is doubtful that any social indicator can be totally free of the values of those who develop and apply the indicator for purposes of monitoring. Finally, social indicators provide little information about the various ways that policy inputs are transformed into policy outcomes. Claims about variations in policy outcomes and impacts are based on correlational data, rather than on knowledge about the causal processes by which inputs are transformed into outcomes and impacts.’ Referring to Policy experimentation, Dunn (2018, p. 263) views, ‘By contrast, policy experimentation is the process of systematically manipulating policies and programs in a way that permits corrigible answers to questions about the sources of change in policy outcomes. Policy experimentation, of which there are many varieties—for example, randomized controlled trials in laboratory and field settings, quasi-experimentation, regression-discontinuity analysis, panel studies—is advocated as a way to find solutions for social problems by deliberately maximizing the differences of policies and programs and assessing their consequences prior to making large-scale investments in untested programs.’ Dunn (2018, pp. 268- 269) points out ‘ Social auditing explicitly monitors relations among inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes, and impacts in an effort to trace policy inputs “from the point at which they are disbursed to the point at which they are experienced by the ultimate intended recipient of those resources...In monitoring policy processes, social auditing provides important information about what goes on inside the “black box.” The processes monitored in a social audit are of two main types: resource diversion and transformation. In resource diversion, original inputs are diverted from intended target groups and beneficiaries as a result of the passage of resources through the administrative system.’ On research and practice synthesis, Dunn (2018, p. 263) asserts, ‘Social auditing and social experimentation require the collection of new information. Social systems accounting, while based chiefly on available information, also requires new data insofar as information about subjective social conditions is out of date or unavailable. In contrast to each of these approaches, research and practice synthesis is a method of

monitoring that involves the systematic compilation, comparison, and assessment of the results of past efforts to implement policies and programs.' Finally, as for systematic reviews and meta-analyses, Dunn (2018, p. 273) thinks, 'The systematic review is an evaluation methodology that summarizes the best available evidence on a specific question using standardized procedures to identify, assess, and synthesize policy-relevant research findings. Systematic reviews investigate the effectiveness of programs and policies through a process that is designed to be accurate, methodologically sound, comprehensive, and unbiased.'

Evaluation

Conseil d'Analyse Economique (2013, pp. 2- 5) warns on the pitfalls of evaluation which are:

- Identifying the causal impact of the policy, i.e. identifying the causal relationship between a policy and a result.
- The question of impact, as the final beneficiary of the policy is not necessarily the one targeted.
- The multiplicity of effects, as multiple effects can occur in the same field of public action.
- Practical implementation: in some cases, it may be tempting to dismiss as ineffective a scheme that has only been applied in inappropriate conditions.
- The random experiment: a major difficulty in evaluation is linked to the fact that the individuals or companies targeted by a public policy are not drawn at random from the population.

Conseil d'Analyse Economique (2013, p. 5) adds that a good evaluation should, in principle, be carried out before a public policy is implemented, for three reasons: to anticipate the expected impacts and, if possible, to carry out experiments; to determine in detail the implementation procedures; and to establish the procedures for evaluating the policy after the event.

Conseil d'Etat (2020) declares that to guarantee its legitimacy and reliability, a public policy evaluation must combine 4 major principles:

- Independence: the person who evaluates is not the one who pays for it; the person who makes the policy cannot be the evaluator; the evaluation process is supervised by an independent steering committee.
- Competence: the evaluation must be steered and carried out by people with methodological expertise to ensure the accuracy of the information collected and the validity of their diagnosis.
- Transparency: the evaluation must present its methods, criteria and results, as well as any limitations.
- Pluralism: the evaluation must cover the diversity of public policy outcomes and stakeholders, drawing on a wide range of profiles and relevant multi-disciplinary skills.

Trosa (2003, p. 11) draws up the history of evaluation, which emerged in the early 1960s in Anglo-Saxon countries. This is due to a combination of factors:

- the influence of a positivist tradition, manifested in the desire to analyse and legitimise the conduct of public policies based on knowledge of their quantitative and qualitative results.
- the importance attached to the implementation of public policies, which contrasts with the attention paid by Latin countries to the definition of these policies.
- strong pressure from Parliament, which is keen to become involved in examining the activities of government departments; very early on, for example, the General Accounting Office became involved in the evaluation of public policies in the United States.

Trosa (2003, pp. 25- 26) pursues by contrasting French participatory evaluation with Anglo-Saxon evaluation. Participatory evaluation involves a large number of stakeholders with heterogeneous interests. The strength of participatory evaluation is that it produces a truly democratic deliberation on the meaning of public policies. Its

weakness is that, taken to its limit, it leads to complete scientific relativism. Managerial evaluation, on the other hand, takes an operational approach from the outset, and its recommendations are more likely to be heeded and implemented. However, the fact that it is steered solely by the administration casts doubt on its ability to investigate seriously and, *a fortiori*, to call into question the aims, procedures, and tools of public policies.

Trosa (2003, p. 28) adds the opposition between French internal evaluation and Anglo-Saxon external evaluation. The internal evaluation favors the mobilization of administrative players and social partners, while the external evaluation focuses more on independent studies or commissions, so as not to hesitate to ask the tough questions.

Trosa (2003, pp. 33-34) concludes that the current trend is towards a rapprochement between these two approaches to evaluation.

Further on, Trosa (2003, p. 29) states that the evaluation of public policies is at the service of decision-making and learning. In Anglo-Saxon countries, evaluation is placed at the service of a decision-making process and is used directly to modify or even cancel programs. In France, evaluation is valued above all for the effect it has on the players involved, particularly through the learning processes that can develop even in the absence of a formal decision.

Dunn (2018, p. 332) mentions the evaluation's main functions in policy analysis:

- First, and most important, evaluation provides reliable and valid information about policy performance, that is, the extent to which needs, values, and opportunities have been realized through public action. In this respect, evaluation reveals the extent to which particular goals (e.g., improved health) and objectives (e.g., a 20 per cent reduction of chronic diseases by 1990) have been attained.
- Second, evaluation contributes to the clarification and critique of values that underlie the selection of goals and objectives. Values are clarified by defining and operationalizing goals and objectives. Values are also critiqued by systematically questioning the appropriateness of goals and objectives with the problem being addressed.

- Third, evaluation may contribute to the application of other policy-analytic methods, including problem structuring and prescription. Information about inadequate policy performance may contribute to the restructuring of policy problems, for example, by showing that goals and objectives should be redefined. Evaluation can also contribute to the definition of new or revised policy alternatives by showing that a previously favoured policy alternative should be abandoned and replaced with another one.

The OCDE- Development Assistance Committee (2021, ch. 1), to evaluate development programmes, has established six criteria. The key concepts for each of the criteria are defined as follows:

- The first one, relevance entails examining the extent to which the intervention's objectives and design respond to beneficiaries' needs and priorities, as well as alignment with national, global, and partner/institutional policies and priorities.
- The second one, coherence – the new criterion – examines the extent to which other interventions (particularly policies) support or undermine the intervention and vice versa. This includes internal coherence (within one institution or government) including compatibility with international norms and standards, and external coherence (with other actors' interventions in the same context). Coherence includes concepts of complementarity, harmonisation and coordination, and the extent to which the intervention is adding value while avoiding duplication of effort.
- The third one, effectiveness looks at the extent to which the intervention achieved, or is expected to achieve, its objectives and its results, while considering the relative importance of the objectives. The new definition encourages analysis of differential results across groups and the extent to which the intervention contributes to or exacerbates equity gaps. Effectiveness is the most commonly evaluated criterion and is often used as an overall measure of success.
- The fourth one, efficiency helps evaluators ask questions about the extent to which the intervention delivers, or is likely to deliver, results in an economical

and timely way. “Economic” is the conversion of inputs (funds, expertise, natural resources, time, etc.) into results, in the most cost-effective way possible, as compared to feasible alternatives in the context. The new definition includes the dimension of “timely delivery”. This criterion is an opportunity to check whether an intervention’s resources can be justified by its results, which is of major practical and political importance. Many stakeholders, including beneficiaries, care about efficiency because it can support better use of limited resources, to achieve more.

- The fifth one, impact is the extent to which the intervention has generated or is expected to generate significant positive or negative, intended, or unintended, higher-level effects. Impact addresses the intervention’s ultimate significance and potentially transformative effects – holistic and enduring changes in systems or norms. The impact criterion goes beyond effectiveness and encourages consideration of the big “so what?” question. This is where evaluators look at whether or not the intervention created change that matters to people.
- The sixth one, sustainability is the extent to which the net benefits of the intervention continue or are likely to continue. Depending on the timing of the evaluation, this may involve analysing the actual flow of net benefits or estimating the likelihood of net benefits continuing over the medium and long term. While the underlying concept of continuing benefits remains unchanged, the new definition encompasses several elements for analysis – financial, economic, social, and environmental – and attention should be paid to the interaction between them.

Indicators

Cipriano and Fastré (2014, p. 2) also distinguish quantitative and qualitative indicators based on data. They clarify that those can be disseminated via dashboards enabling stakeholders to possess a warning system to manage and adjust their actions.

They add that these indicators serve to monitor the implementation of public policies in terms of:

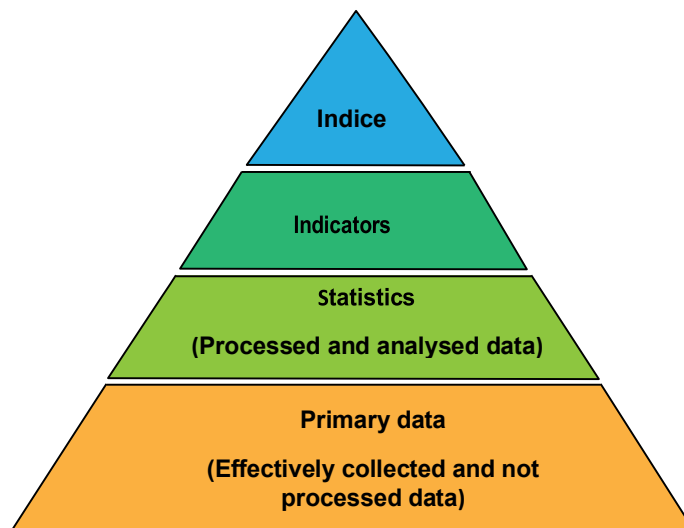
- Objectives to be achieved.
- Achievements and results observed.

Finally, on indicators, Cipriano and Fastré (2014, p. 2) declare that they aim to deliver information easily communicable and make public action more understandable.

Cipriano and Fastré (2014, p. 2) argue that management by indicators was alleged by them as the result of NPM's impact. This permits the measure of organisations' performance by peculiar monitoring indicators; making it possible to relate the resources made available (inputs) to the services provided (outputs). However, Cipriano and Frastré (Peters, 2020 cited in Cipriano and Fastré 2014, p. 2) warn that these measurement tools or indicators are not perfect even though they do at least allow a form of assessment of the tasks performed by the administration (Peters, 2020) and respond to the public's desire to be informed about the use of public funds.

Cipriano and Fastré (European Commission, 2014 cited in Cipriano and Fastré, 2014, p. 2) define indicators in the field of management and beyond as a variable providing quantitative and qualitative information about a given phenomenon. It normally includes a value and a unit of measurement (European Commission, 2014). It gives one or more salient features of a complex reality that we are trying to grasp, in a synthetic, communicable, and consensual format.

Additionally, Cipriano and Fastré (Bauler et al., 2004 cited in Cipriano and Fastré, 2014, p. 3) explain the process of data aggregation (Bauler et al., 2004) by the Aggregation Data Triangle:



Source: Bauler et al., 2004

On the subject of indicators used to monitor public policy- referring to the literature, Cipriano and Fastré (European Commission, 1999 cited in Cipriano and Fastré, 2014, p. 3) distinguish two categories of indicators:

- Programme indicators.
- Context indicators.

Each indicator responds to a specific need for information. Programme indicators are connected to public policy's purpose and include resource indicators, outputs, results and impacts. They focus on people or organisations that are actors in or are affected by the programme. The quantification of resource and output indicators is carried out by the administrations responsible for implementing the public policy. If these same administrations can also measure the immediate results of the public policy they manage, they quantify the result indicators (European Commission, 1999).

According to Cipriano and Fastré (2014, p. 3), indicators of the impact of a public policy provide information about the effects that can be attributed to it by applying evaluation

methods, which go beyond the implementation of the public policy. Measuring the impact on target audiences therefore requires public policy evaluation. This scientific approach makes it possible to establish a causal link between the changes observed and the public policy analysed. Impact indicators are therefore not measured by those involved in implementing a policy.

Context indicators in their view, are positioned to understand the socio-economic reality and inform decision-making. These provide information about the social, economic and environmental context in which public action is implemented and evolves. They thus present the initial context and the changes in this context that may influence the implementation of public action and its results. They apply to the territory as a whole, to a population or a category of people. Context indicators provide diagnostic and framing information. They make it possible to interpret or qualify the information provided by the programme indicators, which is why they should be used in conjunction with the latter.

However, Cipriano and Fastré (2014, p. 3) sensitize on indicator limits and assert that even if an indicator provides a valid representation of reality, it must not be confused with that reality; it remains a hook, a signal. Indicators present a partial view of a situation; they provide part of the information.

Consequently, we must not lose sight of the risks and limitations of indicators in monitoring public policy. The major risk of governance by indicators is that the indicator becomes the objective to be achieved, to the detriment of the reality it represents.

Cipriano and Fastré (2014, p. 5) deepen their reflection indicating how monitoring indicators should be chosen and constructed. The sole criteria for choosing them must be:

- The type of information we want to communicate.
- The type of information the selected indicator will communicate.

Then for this purpose, it is important to establish a clear and direct link between the indicator and the operational and strategic objective of the public policy in question, the expected result. It is relevant and necessary to specify what you intend to measure, ultimately, with this monitoring indicator.

They theorize the construction and the choice of an indicator that involves a rigorous analysis of the public policies to be monitored and the existing data on the subject. In the existing data, many administrative data are already collected by various public institutions. However, this data often needs to be harmonised before it can be used to monitor public policies. Often collected for administrative purposes, these data are not recorded and encoded in the same way from one entity to another. As a result, they can be disparate and lack the harmonisation needed to monitor a public policy.

In Cipriano and Fastré's view (2014, p. 6), the choice of monitoring indicators inevitably involves a trade-off between the desire to have the "best" indicators and constraints in terms of data production. The choice of the figures to be monitored must also be the subject of a consensus between the players involved. Given the constraints and the specific methodologies used to construct the indicators, the stakeholders must agree on the interpretation to be given to this information. They must agree on the dimensions of reality that the monitoring indicators will represent and on the use that will be made of them.

Finally, that requires to be selective in the number of indicators we monitor. A balance needs to be struck between oversimplification and information overload. Long lists of indicators make the information difficult to understand and discourage its collection and analysis. It is therefore important to identify the relevant indicators according to the information sought and the constraints mentioned above. To achieve this, it is advisable to involve data producers and users from the outset in the construction and selection of monitoring indicators. This is all the more important as these players will analyse and update them.

2. 2. Literature relating to Efficiency and effectiveness in Public Policy

Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Public Policy's efficiency and effectiveness

Duberry (Sharma, Yadav and Chopra, 2020, cited in Duberry, 2022, p. 14) theorizes the contribution of Artificial Intelligence to foster the efficiency and effectiveness of public services. He argues that 'AI can help in freeing up the government labor by its implementation in automating the repetitive tasks resulting in increased transactions speed in the provision of government services and also accurately assessing the

outcomes of policy options. AI has a huge potential in different government sectors such as education, physical infrastructure, transportation, telecommunication, data security and management, finance, healthcare, research and development, policymaking, legal and justice system, etc.’ Considering the benefits of AI for public action, Duberry (Milano, O’Sullivan and Gavanelli, 2014, cited in Duberry, 2022, p. 26) adds, ‘Moreover, AI can contribute to improving the efficiency and inclusiveness of the policy-making process through optimizing decision-making processes, data and opinion mining, game theory, and agent-based simulation. These capabilities and applications could also play a significant role in various governmental tasks related to policymaking.’ On data’s benefits, Duberry (Martens, 2018, cited in Duberry, 2022, p. 26) declares, ‘Data plays an increasing role in the delivery of public services. Martens (2018) identified three phenomena to consider: the automation and lowering of data collection costs (price effect), the massive increase of available data (quantity effect), and the shift of many face-to-face human activities to the digital domain (substitution effect), have put data sharing at the heart of modern public services and allowed for more efficient and cost-effective delivery.’ Duberry (2022, p. 27) concludes by listing the benefits in terms of increasing efficiency and effectiveness in government’s operations and services ‘...AI presents many benefits for governments to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of their operations and services, such as:

- Improving the knowledge management capacity (e.g. assist in the browsing and finding of relevant data in Slovakia);
- Mapping and predicting risks (e.g. predict burglaries in Switzerland);
- Automating data collection and analysis (e.g. process satellite imagery in Estonia);
- Automating data collection and analysis (e.g. process satellite imagery in Estonia); some services (e.g. self-driving snowploughs in Norway), decision-making (e.g. nursery child recruitment system used in Warsaw), and the communication with citizens (e.g. Chatbot to answer frequently asked questions in Latvia)’ – P.27

IA’s contribution to public actions comprises risks- related to data, which are highlighted by Duberry (2022, p. 26) ‘On the other hand, data sharing has its dangers. These include the risk of losing some or all of the data; the possibility of identifying an

individual through the combination of many data sources, despite the anonymization of the data; and some negative impacts from the reuse of the data in other contexts to which the owner did not want it disclosed.'

To prevent these risks guidelines, documents and principles were provided by universities, think tanks, and governmental and non-governmental organisations for the adoption of AI by governments and administrations in the EU and the OECD. On the subject, Duberry (OECD, 2020 cited in Duberry, 2022, p. 31) cites the OECD, 'The latter proposes five principles that should guide the adoption of AI:

- Inclusive growth, sustainable development, and well-being
- Human-centred values and fairness
- Transparency and explainability
- Robustness, security, and safety
- Accountability

The OECD AI principles also include five recommendations for policymakers:

- Investing in AI research and development.
- Fostering a digital ecosystem for AI.
- Shaping an enabling policy environment for AI
- Building human capacity and preparing for labour market transformation
- International cooperation for trustworthy AI.'

Efficiency and effectiveness

Deloitte (2013, p. 6) defines efficiency as 'Efficiency is about doing more for less. It involves maximizing outputs such as the volume of services provided, minimizing inputs such as the amount of resources or capital required to produce those services and maintaining or improving quality. Efficiency can be measured by how much it costs to deliver a program compared to previous years or compared to peers, or the relative outcomes that governments obtain from a certain level of expenditure.' Further, Deloitte (2013, p. 13) advises an approach which fulfils systematic efficiency in the government, 'With different paths to efficiency, there are four key drivers to systematic efficiency in government:

- Innovate: there needs to be a constant process of innovation. Leading practices need to be identified, adapted and implemented.
- Scale: there needs to be an ability to mandate or provide clear direction for scaling up innovations. Without a governance structure that is responsive to innovative and leading practices, good ideas fail to make an impact.
- Measure: there needs to be a clear focus on measurement and analysis. Without an analytical capability, inefficient practices tend to persist, and efficient practices are less likely to be scaled appropriately.
- Incent: Governments need tighter sanctions and clearer incentives to drive efficiency at the highest levels.

This model can be applied both to programs introduced as well as to the government as a whole.’ On the other hand, Deloitte (2013, p. 12) warns about a set of inefficient practices in the government, ‘Recent efficiency advisory experience suggests a number of inefficient practices commonplace in government:

- Senior managers are sometimes responsible for tasks that could be handled by more junior personnel.
- Managers have narrow spans of control or 1:1 reporting relationships.
- There are a large number of reporting layers.
- Managers have overlapping responsibilities.
- Personnel are engaging in unnecessary or inefficient planning activities.
- Fragmented delivery models exist causing redundancy across departments.
- Inefficient and overly complex business processes that do not add value.
- Overly complex business applications and IT infrastructure.
- Activities delivered in-house that would be less costly and /or more effective if outsourced.
- Redundant facilities/offices (across geographies and departments)
- Manual processes that could be automated.’

Mihaiu, Opreana and Cristescu (2010, p. 132) regarding efficiency and effectiveness assert, ‘In general sense, the efficiency can be achieved under the conditions of maximizing the results of an action in relation to the resources used, and it is calculated by comparing the effects obtained in their efforts. Measuring the effectiveness requires:

- a) estimating the costs, the resources consumed the effort, in general, found in the literature as the input;
- b) estimating the results, or the outputs;
- c) comparing the two.'

Mihaiu, Opreana and Cristescu (Drucker, 2001, p. 147 cited in Mihaiu, Opreana and Cristescu, 2010, p. 136) note a close relationship between efficiency and effectiveness, 'Peter Drucker believes that there is no efficiency without effectiveness because it is more important to do well what you have proposed (the effectiveness) than do well something else that was not necessarily concerned (Drucker, 2001, p.147). The relationship between efficiency and effectiveness is that of a part to the whole, the effectiveness is a necessary condition to achieving efficiency.'

Przygodzka (2017, pp. 137-138) regarding evaluation versus the efficiency of public policy, distinguishes a set of five classical types of assessment:

- First, the economic evaluation, aiming at planning activities; ensuring the effectiveness of using resources, and implementing the effectiveness of assessing methods.
- Second, the evaluation of realizing public activities, concentrates on providing documentation confirming the effectiveness of realizing the goals and using the methods that enable specification of the criteria of success of public activities.
- Third, the formative evaluation concentrates on improving the management of public activities and uses methods enabling monitoring interventions and making current changes.
- Fourth, the causative evaluation aims at explaining the mechanisms of more extensive social change and concentrates on providing knowledge on the conditionings and ways of realizing public activities; it implements methods enabling the isolation of factors explaining the results and greater impact of intervention.
- Fifth, the evaluation of social participation enables the assessment of institution development, which is related chiefly to the formation of stable relations with its social environment; this evaluation uses methods that enable the specification of participation of public communities or stakeholders in public activities.

Przygodzka (Vedung, 2017 cited in Przygodzka, 2017, p. 139) comments on models of evaluation referring to Vedung who identifies two fundamental models of evaluation upon the needs of contractors:

- The models that concentrate on the material effects of government interventions.
- The models considered by Vedung as the concept of government interventions.

Always referring to Vedung, Przygodzka affirms that the substantive models include efficiency models, effectiveness models and professional models. They mainly consider the effects of intervention and are oriented towards the assessment of the realization of goals, results system elements, and expectations of customers or stakeholders, while the economic are oriented towards the assessment of productivity and effectiveness.

Przygodzka (2017, p. 140) clearly defines public policies such as the intervention addressed at a certain group of recipients and aiming at either the solution or elimination of the existing problem. Furthermore, Przygodzka (Stiglitz, 2004; Przygodzka, 2017, pp.140- 141) depicts ten issues related to effective public policies, 'In the first stage, ten issues crucial for creating effective public policies should be taken into consideration, such as [Stiglitz, 2004]³:

- Justification of the purposefulness of a particular policy-...
- Specification of the types of market unreliability that the policy ought to counteract-...
- Assessment of the existing solutions alternative to the designed public policy-
...
- Detailed description of the construction of designed public policy which means mostly the specification of the "access criteria".
- Analysis of the effects of the policy in terms of its effectiveness-...
- Assessment of the impact of designed public policy on the redistribution of income – in this situation, specifying who gains profits from the policy, has lost or bears the burden of the policy is of importance.
- Analysis of dilemmas observed in the designed policy and concerning the selection between equality and effectiveness.
- Assessment of the designed public policy about the objectives of state policy.

- Assessment of the designed public policy through the prism of the mechanism of making political decisions existing in the country.'

Beyond the fact of considering crucial issues to creating effective public policies, Przygodzka (2017, pp. 143-144) indicates the limits of evaluating public policies by economic models, 'In practice, evaluation research of public policies conducted on the basis of economic models for many reasons encounter numerous difficulties. Firstly, the quantification of the effects of implemented policies is particularly complex, as these effects cannot be measured in financial terms. Secondly, the effects occur with considerable time delay that exceeds the time limits specified for evaluation. Thirdly, these effects may have various side effects, not always positive ones. Fourthly, positive effects from the perspective of one group of recipients or perceived in one sector do not necessarily need to be viewed in the same way by another group.' Consequently, Przygodzka (2017, p. 144) suggests that ' In order to be effective, policy needs to conform not only to the postulate of efficiency and rationality but should also generate as little external effects as possible and be characterized by the low level of alternative costs.'

On the other hand, despite the relevancy of policy's evaluation and assessment, Wallner (2008, p. 421) defends that to not be a failure, it must be accompanied by legitimacy, and then claims, 'In substantive terms, policy content should align with the dominant attitudes of the affected policy community and, ideally, the broader public. Procedurally, factors such as policy incubation, the emotive appeals deployed to gain support for an initiative, and the processes of stakeholder engagement shape the legitimacy of public policies and the governments who promote them.'

Mukherjee, and Bali (Wu et al, 2017; Howlett and Ramesh, 2016 cited in Mukherjee and Bali, 2019) throw light on the design's relevance to policy effectiveness and capacity, 'However, developing effective policies requires designers and those involved in implementation to have the requisite skill-sets and competencies. Studies about the formulation and implementation of policy in general have concluded that an essential condition for success in policy design activities rests on the interplay of analytical, managerial, and political capacities on the part of individual policy actors, regulatory organizations, and the general policy system (Table 1) (Wu et al. Citation2017). These policy capacities (understood as skills and competencies) rest on the availability of a

variety of governance capabilities. First, analytical proficiencies are needed to match policy goals to existing policy means. Second, managerial abilities are required to marshal state resources toward policy priorities. Third, the effective design of policy is contingent upon political endowments which allows policymakers and administrators to coordinate, create, and implement their policy plans (Wu et al. Citation2017; Howlett and Ramesh Citation2016).’ Further, Mukherjee and Bali (Chindarkar, Howlett, and Ramesh, 2017; Compton and Hart, 2019; Bovens and Hart, 1996; McConnell, 2010 cited in Mukherjee and Bali, 2019) examine effectiveness, ‘ Some studies offer a meta-view of effectiveness. For instance, Chindarkar, Howlett, and Ramesh (Citation 2017) argue that effectiveness relates to the extent to which a policy achieves both technical goals (i.e. addresses the substantive problem at hand) and advances the political goals of the government (e.g. retain political office or strengthening legitimacy). The overarching lesson for practice from their analysis is that both political and technical feasibility are necessary conditions for effectiveness. In similar vein, Compton and Hart (Citation2019), building on Bovens and Hart (Citation1996) and McConnell (Citation2010), examine policy effectiveness (success) in four dimensions. These are *programmatic* (the degree to which a policy achieves its stated goal), *process* (the extent to which the design process is socially appropriate and perceived as being just), *political* (the extent to which there is widespread political support), and *temporal* (the extent to which a policy sustains its performance in the face of changing circumstances).’ Dynamism in policy effectiveness is another principle outlined by Mukherjee and Bali (2019), ‘There also exists the notion of “dynamic” policy effectiveness, i.e. ensuring that the designs are able to adapt to changing policy conditions and circumstances. This requires designers to accommodate for uncertainty and policy “surprises” in the operating environment. Examples of these include the use of procedural policy tools that allow for automated or semi-automated calibrations to be made. This in turn requires designs that not only address routine policy errors in implementation but also accommodate unpredictable policy situations.’ Finally, Mukherjee and Bali (Capano and Woo, 2017; Howlett et al., 2018 cited in Mukherjee and Bali, 2019) conclude about policy in these terms, ‘Formulating and implementing policy processes and programs that promote agility, anticipation, resilience, and address contemporary uncertainties is not automatic, however, but requires care and

forethought. Designers must be able to understand the types of uncertainty characterizing a particular problem in order to recommend and design strategies and policy options to manage it effectively (Capano and Woo, Citation2017; Howlett et al. Citation2018). (Ch. 2).'

2. 3. Literature relating to Public Management and Public Administration

Public Management and Public Administration

Pollitt (2016, p. 6) points out the difference between Public Administration and Public Management. About Public administration, he argues that it is Old-fashioned, traditional, introverted, statistical hierarchies and procedures, focus on Focus on following rules- compliance and performance accountability, on machinery of government. With Public management, he states that it is modern, outward-looking, dynamic- leadership, innovation; focus on managing resources- efficiency and focus on multi-stakeholder governance

Further, Pollitt (Rainey, 1997, pp. 73–74 cited in Pollit, 2016, p. 11) describes the characteristics of public management's characteristics:

ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS:

Not a market environment – revenue comes from a budget, not from sales.
The presence of elaborate formal legal constraints
The presence of intense political influences

ORGANIZATION/ENVIRONMENT TRANSACTIONS:

Public organizations produce “public goods” in situations where there are large “externalities” (effects on others beyond those who directly consume the service)
Public services are often monopolistic and/or coercive.
Public activities tend to have a broad impact on society and often have high symbolic value.
Public managers are subject to intense public scrutiny.
Public managers are expected to display higher degrees of fairness, honesty, openness, and accountability.

ORGANIZATIONAL ROLES, STRUCTURES AND PROCESSES

Goals are often multiple, vague and conflicting; they may well be unmeasurable/intangible
Lower decision-making autonomy and lower authority over subordinates
General management involves more political activity and more crisis management

More red tape, more organizational complexity, more processual requirements
Strategic decision-making more vulnerable to interventions by external groups
Fewer extrinsic incentives (such as high pay/benefits packages); weaker link between performance and pay.

Public service ethos- more community public interest- oriented work value Greater caution/ greater reluctance to innovate.

Besides, Pollitt (Ranson and Stewart, 1994, p. 262 cited in Pollitt, 2016, p. 14) mentions public managers' distinctive issues:

- *Managing in a socio-political system.* The need to understand the political process and work with elected politicians.
- *Working with public pressure and protest.* These are necessary and healthy parts of the democratic process – normal, not exceptional.
- *A sense of accountability.* The democratic context implies that openness needs to be not merely accepted, but actively promoted.
- *Understanding public behavior.* Citizens are not only customers but also citizens, taxpayers and voters. This makes their relationships with public managers more complex and multi-dimensional than would be usual in a private sector commercial setting.
- *The management of rationing.* Many public managers are in a position where they are obliged to ration – to say who comes first in the queue, who qualifies and who doesn't (for example, for hospital treatment, school places, social housing accommodation and so on). Rationing, while not unknown, is less common in commercial contexts, where the answer to excess demand is usually to make more of the product/service – and to increase profits.
- *The management of influence.* Rather than competing with other organizations, public managers are frequently required to build partnerships and/or guide cooperative relationships.
- *Assessing multi-dimensional performance.* The performance of public sector organizations can seldom be reduced to simple indicators such as “profit” or “efficiency”. Public sector managers need to be able to construct and use more complex and multi-dimensional measures of performance and, indeed, sometimes to live with conflicting goals and targets (for example, speed up decisions on cases/make fewer mistakes).

- *Understanding a wider responsibility to a changing society.*

NPM Reforms in Africa

Decentralization

Analysing new public management reforms in Africa, Tshombe and Dassah (2018, p. 20) admit that 'Implementation of NPM reforms within government institutions bring higher quality service and effectiveness.'

Considering its implementation's history, Tshombe and Dassah (2018, p. 20) locate the second period of reform in the 1990s to early 2000. This reform accompanies political reform in many countries in Africa and it aims to transform African public service into more efficient and effective services for the benefit of citizens.

However, Tshombe and Dassah (Mucio and Mauri, 2012, p. 7 cited in Tshombe and Dassah 2018, p. 21) warn that in most of the African countries involved in the reform initiatives, NPM reforms were driven by international institutions and came with recommendations provided by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. And over the two past decades, the modernization of public administration has developed similar reform efforts that are strongly related to the principles of efficiency and effectiveness promoted by the NPM approach and, more recently, good governance.'

Tshombe and Dassah (Ekpo, 2008 cited in Tshombe and Dassah 2018, p. 22) also note the advent of decentralization as one of NPM's components. They allege that one major reform that took place in most sub-Saharan countries was the implementation of decentralization of the government. In many countries, power was highly centralized. Decentralization was undertaken for the government to become not only more responsible and accountable to the people but also closer to the people. Citing Ekpo (2008), they define decentralization as a kind of vertical power sharing within the political system, whereby competencies are distributed across different spheres of government.

NPM implementation in Africa: the cases of Botswana and Ghana

Botswana, as a developing country, has also faced new public management issues. On the subject, Molefhe and Molokwane (2018, p. 41) appraise, 'Unlike in many other developing countries, Botswana's public service is relatively efficient, staffed with well trained and well-paid officers..., there is evidence in Botswana's public service of considerable 'institutional capacity.' Molefhe and Molokwane (2018, p. 41) add 'Beyond the 'luck' of mineral wealth, political and bureaucratic leadership are also credited with contributing to Botswana's economic and social success. Molefhe and Molokwane (Hope, 1995; Washington and Hacker, 2005 cited in Molefhe and Molokwane 2018, p. 42) justify Botswana's public service efficiency and effectiveness by certain factors and stakeholders' alignment 'The public service, in particular, become a mechanism through which the state achieved its developmental, objectives/ goals. Importantly, the partnership between politicians and the bureaucracy worked remarkably well. The civil service enjoyed sufficient space to operate without interruption from its political counterparts, avoiding the political influence and intimidation common in other African countries. Botswana's public service was generally regarded as of unusually high quality, with one of the most effective public sector management in Africa, and indeed, developing countries, more generally.'

Nevertheless, Botswana's public service success wasn't complete and permanent. It encompasses some failures. Molefhe and Molokwane (2018, p. 42) outline declining public sector productivity and service delivery combined with well-publicized episodes of corruption and mismanagement by political leaders and senior bureaucrats threatened the capacity for effective public sector management. Which creates further imperatives for greater public service efficiency. In Molefhe and Molokwane's view (2018, p.44), the Botswana government reacts to these issues, by setting up reforms in the public sector:

- First, the implementation of PMS was linked with the broader national policy goals. The aim was for the performance plans of all organizational units to be designed to contribute to the national development plan, vision 2016, while all individual performance plans were to contribute to the organizational plans.
- Second, implementation at the ministry and department levels was strongly coordinated by a hierarchy of committees, the apex of which was the Reference

Group for the Botswana Performance Improvement Project (RGBPIP) which reports to the permanent secretary of the office of the President, and ultimately to the Cabinet.

- Third, the adoption of PMS was decided at the highest level of the BPS, and it applied to the whole public service.
- Fourth new stakeholders were participating in the entire program cycle that had not played a big part in previous Botswana reforms, in particular, consultants from overseas and from within Botswana with a much deeper and more extensive role to play. They contributed significantly to the organizational and institutional capacity of the public service; they also created some new problems as well.

Molefhe and Molokwane (2018, p.47) conclude, 'More specifically, the relatively successful adoption and implementation of NPM reforms in Botswana was characterized by:

- The absence of any fundamental economic or political crisis
- The voluntary adoption of NPM reforms, in contrast to their imposition in many other developing countries by international agencies
- Significant domestic support for the reforms amongst political and public sector leaders
- The institutional capacity, at least amongst senior public servants in the central organization, to plan a major NPM reform.
- A reasonable comprehensive plan to implement the PMS across the public service, which broadly anticipated the process and resources required for success.'

The Ghana Republic, located in West Africa, has experienced the design and implementation of New Public Management. Dassah (Mensah and Yeboah, (n.d.), p. 6 cited in Dassah 2018, pp. 98- 99) traces this process:

- The stabilisation phase (1983- 1986)
The reform initiatives undertaken in this phase included the devaluation of the local currency, the cedi, a devaluation of more than 3, 272 per cent. Other initiatives were the removal of price controls on goods; a moratorium on wage

increases; introduction of a foreign exchange auction, revamping of socio-economic infrastructure, restoration of saving and investment culture; controlling inflation; encouraging export and relaxing import controls; and stopping the trading of the local currency on the black market.

- The adjustment phase (1987- 1991)
Economic growth was the government's main preoccupation during this phase.
- The oscillation reform phase (1992- 1996)
This phase focuses on inflation reduction, privatization, and efficient allocation of resources (1994-1996), GDP Growth (1995- 1997), and stabilizing the macro-economic environment and supporting economic growth (1998- 2000).
- The restabilisation and adjustment (1997- 2002)
In this phase, investment confidence-building measures were taken, including reducing inflation, introducing a value-added tax (VAT), which covered the service and retail sectors, to increase revenue and create a central Revenue Authority; reducing the budget deficit; and increasing the domestic primary budget surplus.

Dassah (Ohemeng et al., 2012, p. 7; pp. 30- 31 cited in Dassah, 2018, p. 105) also puts forward the agencification as one of the milestones of the PM reform in Ghana. On it, he theorizes that owing to a dysfunctional civil service, Ghana adopted the executive agency model to revitalize the public sector under the CSPIP in the early 1990s, which sought to separate policy from operational issues to achieve operational effectiveness and efficiency. Agencies were created for two main reasons: first the inability of the government to discharge its mandates (arising from a shortage of well-trained and professional personnel, compressed wage scales low salaries, and lack of incentives for increased productivity) and enable agencies to overcome problems plaguing the public service by breaking them off from parent ministries and allowing them to determine their wages and term of employment. However, such autonomy creates compliance and differential wage problems.

Functions of General Management

Regarding administration and management, Hughes (2003, p. 45) acknowledges, 'It was argued earlier (Chapter 1) that management is different from administration in meaning. Essentially, administration means following instructions and management means the achievement of results and taking personal responsibility for doing so.' Concerning the functions of general management, Huges (Allison, 1982, p. 17 cited in Hugues, 2003, pp. 45-46) describes them as follows:

STRATEGY

1. Establishing objectives and priorities for the organization (on the basis of forecasts of the external environment and the organization's capacities).
2. Devising operational plans to achieve these objectives

MANAGING INTERNAL COMPONENTS

3. Organizing and staffing: in organizing, the manager establishes structure (units and positions with assigned authority and responsibilities) and procedures for coordinating activity and taking action). In staffing, he tries to fit the right persons in the key jobs.
4. Directing personnel and the personnel management system: the capacity of the organization is embodied primarily in its members and their skills and knowledge. The personnel management system recruits, selects, socializes, trains, rewards, punishes, and exits the organization's human capital, which constitutes the organization's capacity to act to achieve its goals and to respond to specific directions from management.
5. Controlling performance: various management information systems – including operating and capital budgets, accounts, reports, and statistical systems, performance appraisals, and product evaluation – assist management in making decisions and in measuring progress towards objectives

MANAGING EXTERNAL CONSTITUENCIES

6. Dealing with 'external' units of the organization subject to some common authority: most general managers must deal with general managers of other units within the larger organization above, laterally, and below to achieve their unit's objectives.

7. Dealing with independent organizations: agencies from other branches or levels of government, interest groups, and private enterprises that can affect the organization's ability to achieve its objectives.

8. Dealing with the press and public whose action or approval or acquiescence is required.

Further, Hughes (2003, p. 50) points out public management reforms, 'Instead of there being reforms to the public sector, new public management represents a transformation of the public sector and its relationship with government and society.'

Then, Huges (2003, pp. 54- 59) states its more relevant transformations- reforms:

- A strategic approach

Applying a strategic approach, governments have aimed to develop better methods for long-term planning and strategic management. This means deciding the organization's mission, looking ahead to the achievement of goals and objectives, including how the organization fits its environment, and the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats in that environment. These techniques offer better utilization of resources, by tying outcomes to resources, especially when combined with programme budgeting. Only by knowing what government organizations do, what they aim to do in the future and how they have progressed towards declared objectives, can the political leadership decide which programmes or even agencies or departments are worth retaining.

- Management not administration

Public management now requires professional management whereas administration does not. Public organizations do things: governments now want to know what they do; how well they do it; who is in charge and taking responsibility for results. Managers are now involved in matters of policy; they are also involved in matters of strict politics;

they are more often personally responsible for matters and will pay by losing their jobs if something goes wrong. They are, in other words, responsible for achieving results.

- A focus on results

The organization must focus on outcomes or outputs, instead of inputs. Managerial reforms have stressed performance by individuals and by agencies. Public Management and Administration Agencies are expected to develop performance indicators as a way of measuring the progress made towards achieving declared objectives. The performance appraisal system aims to measure the performance of individual staff, even to the extent of defining the key contributions expected over the year, which are then compared with actual achievement at the end of the year. This can extend to rewarding or sanctioning staff according to progress towards objectives. There is a general aim to monitor and improve the progress of staff and agencies towards achieving objectives.

- Improved financial management

Financial management has been one of the more successful of the public management reforms. The most important change in this area has been performance and programme budgeting systems to replace the older line-item budget and accounting systems. The focus was formerly on inputs rather than outputs, or on what the agency actually does. A programme budget allocates money according to specific programmes of the agency with all costs listed at programme, subprogramme and even lower levels. Instead of staffing being determined by a separate, independent central agency for personnel, it becomes part of the programme budget. The line-item system of budgeting was precise in a control sense but, in practice, governments had little information on actual programme delivery. To take account of changes in the value of assets and to be more like private sector practice, accrual accounting has replaced cash accounting in some countries.

- Flexibility in staffing

At the next level of senior management, there has been a consistent trend away from position classification towards flexibility in arrangements for filling Public Management senior positions. The aim is to improve overall efficiency by improving the service's management capability. At all levels, personnel changes have improved flexibility. It is

now easier to redeploy or even sack staff. Inefficient staff can now be dismissed quite quickly, with protection against arbitrary or politically motivated dismissal.

- Flexibility in organization

One aspect of organizational flexibility is disaggregation, which means splitting large departments into different parts by setting up agencies to deliver services to a small policy department.

- A shift to greater competition

Introducing competition is a feature of public management. It is argued by proponents that if services are 'contestable' they should be put out to tender. Public Management and Administration OECD refers to 'provision for client choice through the creation of competitive environments within and between public sector organizations and non-government competitors' (1998, p. 13)

Competition for provision through contracting, sometimes within government, is seen as reducing costs compared to bureaucratic provision. While part of this is to simply cut costs, another motivation is the need to specify the service or good which is to be the subject of competition.

- The new contractualism

As part of this move to contracting, there can be individual performance contracts for staff, contracts with the minister and the government as a whole and contracts in the form of 'charters' with clients and the public.

- A stress on private sector styles of management practice

This includes staffing changes designed to better fit staff for their positions, to appraise their performance and to reward them accordingly with merit pay. The Public Management emphasis on performance also leads to short-term appointments by contract and being able to terminate staff who are not performing. It is by no means unusual for staff to be hired on contracts or to be appointed to the highest levels from outside. These changes derive from the private sector where staffing and budgeting flexibility has long been a source of some envy.

- Relationships with politicians

In the traditional model, the relationship with the political leadership was narrow and technical, of master and servant, of those giving the orders and those carrying them out. Under the public management model, the relationship between politicians and

manager is more fluid and is closer than before. It is not a narrow and technocratic form of management, as political authority still exists. Public managers are now involved in matters of policy, they are also involved in matters of strict politics, and they are more often personally responsible for matters and will pay by losing their jobs if something goes wrong. Public management has become a form of political management and the relationship with political leaders has changed. In other words, there is no unrealistic formula for the relationship between a politician and a manager, there is interaction and the skills required are somewhat intangible.

- Relationships with the public

There is recognition of the need for direct accountability between managers and the public, as the result of demands for a 'client focus' and for greater Public Management and Administration responsiveness to outside groups and individuals. This is another big difference from the traditional model. Even if the government is involved in an activity, it does not need to be the final provider. It is possible to separate the purchaser from the provider; the purchaser being the party who decides what will be produced and the provider the party who delivers the agreed outputs and outcomes.

Roles and instruments of a government

Additionally, Hughes (2003) identifies the roles and the instruments of a government. Amongst a government's roles, there is governance. On the subject, Hugues (Minogue, Polidano and Hulme, 1998, p. 6 cited in Hugues, 2003, p. 77) argues, 'The concept of governance is appropriate for public management as opposed to the narrower concept of government. Good governance tries to do more than 'mere efficient management of economic and financial resources, or particular public services; it is also a broad reform strategy to strengthen the institutions of civil society, and make government more open, responsive, accountable and democratic.' Providing public goods is another role of a government. This legitimate role is confirmed by Hugues, (2003, p. 78) in these terms, 'Public goods are quite different as they benefit all users whether or not they have paid the price. They are 'non-excludable', that is, if provided to one, they are available to all. There seems to be no way except for government to provide such public goods, although the dividing line between public and private goods is often rather blurred... The literature also points to merit goods.

These are services, such as education and health care, that are socially desirable, but which markets may not provide optimally. The market may provide them in a technical sense – they are excludable – but there are benefits to the whole society by some government involvement.’ As for government instruments, Hugues (2003, p. 81) first mentions government provision, ‘Direct provision by government through the budget forms the major part of its operations. The budget sector includes those areas of government funded by taxation rather than user charges: that is, which provide non-market goods and services – roads, defence, education, health, and some social welfare schemes. The budget sector includes transfer payments where the government does not finally spend money but redistributes it from one class of taxpayers to another. Most government activities occur through direct provision and are set out in the budget.’ Hughes (2003, p. 81) also refers to subsidies, ‘Subsidies vary widely but could include subsidies to farmers or industry, or to private bus companies or private schools. The private sector provides a particular good or service, but with some assistance from the government. Although part of the funding is public, the detailed administration takes place in the private sector with governments mainly involved in monitoring to ensure their money is being spent in approved ways. In practice, it is hard to separate the category of government subsidy from that of government provision. The amount of subsidy appears in the budget just like provision.’ Furthermore, Hughes (Musgrave and Musgrave 1989, p. 9 cited in Hugues, 2003, p. 82) considers production as another instrument of government, ‘According to Musgrave and Musgrave (1989, p. 9), a clear distinction must be made between public provision for social goods and public production. Unlike The Role of Government provision, production takes place away from the government budget, and users are charged in the same way as if the items were provided by the private sector. For example, electricity supply or rail services are government-owned in some countries. These services are sold to consumers and use is precluded if consumers are unwilling to pay.’ Finally, Hughes (2003, p. 82) retains regulation, ‘Regulation essentially involves allowing or prohibiting activities in the economy through the legal system, for example, setting tariffs, granting licences or permits and regulating the labour market. A government has coercive power, and this is the fundamental difference between it and the private sector. The power of law, reinforced in the final analysis by the police and

the army, can be used for many purposes, including intervention in the economy. Regulation can vary from minor and non-intrusive – the collection of statistics, for example – to blanket prohibition with very high penalties such as for smuggling illegal drugs. Regulations can be either economic or social with the former aimed at encouraging business and other economic actors to undertake certain activities and to avoid others. Social regulation is usually seen as attempting to protect the interests of citizens and consumers, especially in regard to quality standards, safety levels and pollution controls. Regulation of the business sector is widespread: there is financial regulation which can include interest rates, exchange rates, foreign investment as well as broader corporate regulation, including rules for company registration.’

Hugues (Lynn, 1987, p. 28; Hogwood and Gunn, 1984 cited in Hugues, p.114) defines public policy, ‘ Definitions of public policy found in the literature range from ‘declarations of intent, a programme of goals, and general rules covering future behaviour to important government decisions, a selected line or course of action, the consequences of action or inaction, and even all government action’ (Lynn, 1987, p. 28). The word ‘policy’ could refer to: the intentions declared by parties in an election; a rather more precise programme than an intention; general rules such as ‘foreign policy’; government decisions in a policy document; and to even larger things such as everything the government does. One work finds ten separate meanings (Hogwood and Gunn, 1984).’

2. 4. The literature relating to Governance and Accountability

Governance

Bevir (2007, Intro.) describes governance as patterns of rule or practices of governing. Moreover, Bevir (2007, Intro.) adds, ‘The term governance can be used specifically to describe changes in the nature and role of the state following the public-sector reforms of the 1980s and ’90s. Typically, these reforms are said to have led to a shift from a hierarchic bureaucracy toward a greater use of markets, quasi-markets, and networks, especially in the delivery of public services.’ Bevir (2007, Chap.2) also throws light on public sector reforms, ‘Public-sector reform occurred in two principal waves. The first wave consisted of the new public management (NPM), as advocated by neoliberals; these reforms were attempts to increase the role of markets and of

corporate management techniques in the public sector. The second wave of reforms consisted of attempts to develop and manage a joined-up series of networks informed by a revived public-sector ethos. They were in part responses to the perceived consequences of the earlier reforms.' Further, Bevir (2007, Chap.2) clarifies, ' The first wave of public-sector reform was the new public management (NPM). It was inspired by ideas associated with neoliberalism and public choice theory. At first, NPM spread in developed, Anglo-Saxon states. Later it spread through much of Europe—though France, Germany, and Spain are often seen as remaining largely untouched by it—and to developing and transitional states.' On the subject of NPM, Bevir (2017, Chap. 2) affirms, ' NPM has two main strands: marketization and corporate management. The most extreme form of marketization is privatization. Privatization is the transfer of assets from the state to the private sector. On the other hand, Bevir (2017, chap. 2) defends two relevant ingredients that foster social inclusion and efficiency in public policies, 'Partnerships and joined-up governance are often advocated as ways of promoting social inclusion as well as increasing efficiency. Ideally, they increase citizen involvement in the policy process. Citizen groups participate as partners in aspects of policymaking and policy implementation. The second wave of public-sector reforms sought to activate civil society. Partnerships and joined-up governance were supposed to provide settings in which public-sector bodies could engage stakeholders—citizens, voluntary organizations, and private companies—thereby involving them in democratic processes. It was also hoped that involving stakeholders in the policy process would build public trust in government.' As for public policy, Bevir (2017, Chap. 5) explains, 'Public policy generally consists of the set of actions—plans, laws, and behaviours—adopted by a government. Concern with the new governance draws attention to the extent to which these actions are often performed now by agents of the state rather than directly by the state.' Planning remains a fundamental prerogative and tool of a government. On it, Bevir (2017, Chap. 5) considers, 'Although planning remains an integral feature of government, there has been much debate over how the state should implement its plans and policies. Neoliberals want the state to concentrate on steering, not rowing, and they have sometimes argued that a focus on steering would enable the state to plan more effectively: when state actors step back from the delivery of policies, they have more time to consider the big picture....Nonetheless, if some

neoliberals appear to think that market mechanisms can ensure that non-state actors will do as the state or citizens wish (or should wish), others recognize that the state still has to structure and oversee the policy process. The state still has to set the goals for other actors, and it has to audit and regulate these actors in relation to these goals.’ Additionally, Bevir (2017, Chap. 6) points out democratic governance, ‘Questions about public policy are partly normative. Policy processes should ideally reflect the values of the citizenry. Today these values are generally democratic ones. However, the new governance raises specific problems for our democratic practices. Democracy is usually associated with elected officials making policies, which public servants then implement. The public servants are answerable to the elected politicians who, in turn, are accountable to the voting public. However, the rise of markets and networks has disrupted these lines of accountability. In the new governance, policies are being implemented and even made by private-sector and voluntary-sector actors. There are often few lines of accountability tying these actors back to elected officials, and those few are too long to be effective. Besides, the complex webs of actors involved can make it almost impossible for the principal to hold any one agent responsible for a particular policy. Similar problems arise for democracy at the international level. States have created regulatory institutions to oversee areas of domestic policy, and the officials from these institutions increasingly meet to set up international norms, agreements, and policies governing domains such as the economy and the environment.’

Accountability

Castiglione (n.d., chap. 1) defines accountability as ‘...*Accountability* as an abstract noun therefore refers to both the capacity of and the obligation on someone to produce an account. Yet, it was not in political or legal discussions that *accountability* first developed as a term of art or as a fully developed and self-standing concept. In politics and administration, *responsibility* was the technical term that was preferred to indicate the duty that persons in public authority had to “respond” in their conduct and actions as public officials. In law, liability was (and is) preferred to indicate that by doing a certain action (or entering into a certain contract) a person has put himself under an obligation and is therefore answerable for the consequences following from that action

(or from entering into that contract). Castiglione (n.d., chap. 2) deepens his thought, 'To understand the original applications of accountability, some distinctions may be in order. The first set of distinctions refers to the areas to which the idea of accountability may apply. Normally, accountability is said to apply to positions of public office. These comprise both political positions, where representatives or people covering other institutional roles deal with public affairs in the name and interest of the citizens, and administrative positions, where the link with the citizens is mediated by the government... The second set of distinctions regards the process of accountability. This is concerned with three different questions: who is accountable, to whom, and for what?' However, Castiglione (n.d., chap. 2) mentions administrative responsibility's challenges, 'When dealing with administrative responsibility, the questions of who is accountable and to whom are rather complex. They suffer, respectively, from the problems that come from "many hands" and "many eyes." It is indeed often difficult to identify with precision where responsibility lies in decisions taken about complex problems in complex organizations. No single person would have been involved, and it is not easy to apportion either praise or blame if not in the most obvious instances. The principle of ministerial responsibility, often invoked in many constitutional systems, would suggest that responsibility moves upward and that some degree of knowledge and intervention by people higher in the decision-making hierarchy would put on them, rather than on their subordinates, the onus of responsibility and accountability. This is, of course, the theory. The practice of modern governments rarely conforms to such a standard, relying on the obvious (and occasionally self-serving) justification that too many hands were involved and that higher officials should not take the blame for operational mishaps.'

2. 5 The Literature relating to Delivery

The Prime Minister's Delivery Unit (PMDU)

Challenges of effective delivery in developing countries

Considering the common challenges of African countries and beyond, related to the effective delivery of development priorities driven by the centre of the government, Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 2) notes:

- Weak political authority to utilize for escalation, problem-solving, and incentives, either because priorities don't reflect the leader's vision, or they are competing political interests on leaders' time. Constant delays in decision-making.
- Delivery is highly politicised. Positive and negative incentives aren't designed and applied. The top priority is political survival for line ministers and administrations.
- Poor coordination cross-government. Lack of joined-up working across different departments and weak communications, stubborn and territorial institutions that are unwilling to collaborate and work with others.
- Failing to prioritize rigorously and strategically. Most of these units end up monitoring too many inconsistent and vague priorities.
- Misallocation of resources with poor revenue that leads to priorities and plans without allocation of adequate resources.
- Inability to build capacity and support implementation caused by the limited capacities of the delivery units themselves or by not establishing the right relationship between the centre and ministries. Failure to get the right people into the right roles or positions at the right time.
- Lack of accountability and ownership of responsibilities with over-reliance on committees and external staff/ consultants to get things done.
- Limited data collection, analysis, and interpretation capacity to make informed decisions.

Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 2) also insists on the relevancy of delivery to obtaining effective results coping with the designed objectives of public policies for the benefit of stakeholders and people. He defines delivery as a specialised approach to designing, managing, and monitoring the implementation of government

priorities that are intended to have a significant effect on development outcomes. As for its mechanisms, they can be understood as systems that perform the functions of delivery organised in a form that suits the capability and the structural needs of government.

Furthermore, Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 2) questions political leaders' views on the relevance and purpose of delivering. Akin Adesina, African Development Bank President, retains five key lessons for delivering faster and better results:

- Nothing gets done without a clear vision.
- Publish your expectations for delivering on your vision.
- Establish a culture of accountability.
- Develop a rigorous way to measure results.
- Ensure sustainability and minimize policy reversals.

Uhuru Kenyatta, former president of Kenya proposes 3 lessons from Kenya's President Delivery Unit (PDU) in the Big 4 Agenda:

- Delivery to bridge the "Missing- Middle" between political promises and government action.
- "Tier- approach" to decision- making & communication to close gap between leaders and citizens.
- Existing delivery structures and systems of regular intra- cabinet & and cross-sectorial high-level were critical in COVID-19 management.

Tony Blair recommends 4 critical 'Ps' in the science of delivery for governments:

- Prioritize a small number of delivery outcomes areas linked to the overarching goal.
- Policy reform to complement and reinforce priorities.
- Plan to translate priorities to near-term actions and budget.
- Performance management to track delivery performance and create a culture of accountability.

Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 3) also advocates prioritization and argues that it is key to focus on securing tangible results. He explains that prioritization matters because:

- Genuine policy trade-offs exist which the Government must confront.
- There aren't enough resources to do everything.
- Donors often push the government to adopt multiple, sometimes politically unrealistic agendas, and then prioritization is crucial to ensure all actors are working together on the same priorities.
- The takes are right.

Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 3) finally stresses that the key characteristics of the right priorities are:

- Less is more- a small number of objectives is likely to lead to success.
- Technical and political- given that the ideal priority should align with the government's political needs and objectives.
- Right ambition where targets stretch government but should also be feasible, given resource constraints.
- Right scope- typically, an entire sector is too broad, but a specific project to narrow.
- Measurable, which means the best priorities are measurable so that the government can monitor progress and state results.

Problem- solving

Additionally, Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 4) suggests problem-solving as a structured approach to provide results, outcomes; impact and first asks how we know there is a problem. The answers are:

- Consistent red flags on the dashboards.
- Divergence between projected delivery trajectory and performance.
- Observation (site visits, discussions, general observations)

Then Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 4) theorises 7 steps to problem-solving:

1. Define the problem
2. Structure the problem
3. Prioritize the issues
4. Develop a work plan
5. Conduct critical analysis

6. Synthesise
7. Develop recommendations

Planning

Furthermore, Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 5) professes planning as the second key step to setting up a high-performing delivery culture. He indicates the key principles for effective planning and resourcing processes.

Key principles for an effective planning and resourcing process

	<u>Description</u>
Realistic, consistent and flexible plans <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 	Assure that trajectories to results are planned and technically and financially feasible For each milestone in the plan, define a clear (sensible) deadline and an individual responsible Define the capacity (human and organisational) and financing needed for implementation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure steps within the plan are consistent with one another and are coherently linked to sub-plans • Build in contingencies connected to risky or problematic activities
Establish ownership of the plan <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • • 	Relevant stakeholders are involved in the planning process and are agreed on who is responsible for what Implementing institutions use the plan to guide their daily work Progress against the plan is routinely monitored against the evidence/data and acted upon <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The plan is reviewed regularly and updated. Updating the plan does not mean that people aren't held to account for failing to deliver

Source: Tony Blair Institute for Global Change, Delivery training for CIV, DRC, SN, WAHO And Power Africa Teams, Abidjan, December 1- 2, 2022.

The mechanisms/ tools to apply are:

- The delivery lab-intensive workshop that brings together relevant actors to problem solve and plan.

- Trajectories help you know if you are on track, to understand performance and to create an early warning mechanism when something is not working to enable mitigating action.
- Performance contracts binding agreements between the Leader and implementing institutions on expected delivery targets.

Besides, Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 5) emphasizes four elements that characterize successful delivery labs:

- Clear mandate from the top.
- Respected leader with access to top leadership
- Key people from key institutions including private sector players.
- Link across the delivery chain – from policymakers to end users.

Again, on planning Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 5) argues that for its success, it requires:

- Focus on process and not on results.
- Start early.
- Keep it simple- Focus on what, when and who.
- Follow the money- funding is often where the best-made plans come unstuck.

Performance management

Finally, Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 6) affirms that performance management is more than relevant in the whole process of delivering the results projected. In its view, performance management is the most important step to setting up a high-performing delivery culture and regular performance routines provide consistent traction that drives progress. Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 6) states that the key principles for an effective performance management system are:

- Regular, frequent and transparent monitoring and reporting routine
- Functioning incentive scheme
- Forward-looking problem-solving and implementation support
- Keep the public and stakeholders engaged

The mechanisms and the tools to apply are:

- Dashboards- provides at-a-glance executive views of the performance of projects against targets.
- Performance contracts assessed regularly, serve as basis for performance evolution and incentivisation.
- Performance reporting- progress reporting to the leader.
- Problem-solving- routines/ Frameworks: standard mechanisms for joint and routine problem-solving.
- Communication grid: a tool to plan and coordinate delivery coms across government.

Deliverology: From idea to implementation

On the subject of delivering from idea to implementation, McKinsey (2011), quoting Sir Michael Barber literally, recommends an approach to managing reform initiatives with three critical components

- Establishing a small team focused on performance, a delivery unit—a small group of dedicated individuals focused exclusively on achieving impact and improving outcomes. The delivery unit constantly challenges performance and asks difficult questions, taking any excuses off the table. While a delivery unit should acknowledge competing priorities and unexpected situations, it should also consistently push for faster progress, knowing full well that the tendency of any system is toward inertia.

The delivery has to function with respected leadership. The unit should designate a full-time (or nearly full-time) delivery leader who reports directly to the leader of the public-sector organization or system. The delivery leader must have the trust of the system leader and the system leader's top team, and the respect of others in the field.

The unit also copes with limited size. The delivery unit should be small to preserve flexibility, allow selectivity in hiring, and promote a cohesive culture.

Moreover, the delivery unit uses Top talent. In screening candidates for the delivery staff, leaders should look for five core competencies: problem-solving, data analysis,

relationship management (sensitivity, empathy, fairness, and humility), feedback and coaching, and a delivery mindset (a “can do” attitude).

Finally, the unit functions with the system in a non-hierarchical relationship way. The delivery unit should reside outside the system’s line-management hierarchy. It should not be managed by any of the people or organizations it is trying to influence, nor should it directly manage those people or organizations. This independence will allow the unit to be a “critical friend” that delivers difficult messages but also sustains trust and credibility with actors in the system

- Gathering performance data to set targets and trajectories. Deliverology focuses a public-sector system on its most critical outcomes and discourages “firefighting.” Among Deliverology’s most effective tools are targets—a prioritized set of measurable, ambitious, and time-bound goals—and trajectories, a projected progression toward these goals that creates a tight link between planned interventions and expected outcomes.
- Using routines to ensure a focus on performance. One of the most important contributions that a delivery unit can make is to establish and maintain routines: regularly scheduled and structured opportunities for the system leader, delivery-plan owners, and others to review performance and make decisions. Routines work because they create deadlines, which in turn create a sense of urgency. Monthly notes, stocktakes and delivery reports are part of these routines.

Performance Management and Delivery Unit (PEMANDU)

Center for Public Impact (n. d.) argues that Performance Management and Delivery Unit - is shaped by the belief that methods and approaches used in the private sector can be applied successfully to the public sector. On stakeholder engagement, the Center for Public Impact affirms that PEMANDU was given a mandate by the Malaysian prime minister to initiate change in the country. As for political commitment, PEMANDU has the continued support of the prime minister and the government of Malaysia, and the government that proposed the setting up of PEMANDU is still in power. Considering measurement, PEMANDU has adopted several measurement models:

- PEMANDU grounds its work on the Big Fast Results method, an approach that was originally developed in the private sector. The method helps monitor the progress of large-scale interventions.
- PEMANDU identified which parts of the public sector to target by conducting a series of extensive consultations, including several public surveys, as well as analyzing Malaysian media to identify.
- PEMANDU also convenes an international panel of experts from the World Bank, IMF, Transparency International, and other governments from around the world to review progress on an annual basis.
- To test the ... impact captured internally, PEMANDU has commissioned the consultancy Price Waterhouse Coopers to undertake an external review of progress.

2. 6 Synthesis

Subjects of agreement

Some researchers have the same understanding of efficiency and effectiveness - doing more for less. This is the case of Deloitte (2013, p. 6) and Mihaiu, Opreana and Cristescu (2010, p. 132). Mukherjee, and Bali (Wu et al, 2017; Howlett and Ramesh, 2016 cited in Mukherjee and Bali, 2019) are in the nuance and throw light on the design's relevancy to policy effectiveness and capacity.

Pollitt (2016), Rainey (1997) and Ranson and Stewart (1994) have a convergent view of public management: its links, characteristics, and problems.

Subjects of disagreement

Public policy monitoring and evaluation, in terms of definitions and approaches, are not unanimously accepted by many researchers in public management or related sciences. While, for example, Cipriano and Fastré (2014) and Jacob (2010) make a clear distinction between the monitoring and evaluation of public policies, this is not the case for Dun (2018 pp. 251-252), who is more nuanced and sometimes confuses monitoring with evaluation, particularly when monitoring has the function of public auditing and reporting (accounting). The latter, moreover, has a very different connotation from evaluation. For Dunn (2018, p. 332) evaluation as functions can

provide reliable and valid information about policy performance; the extent to which needs, values, and opportunities have been realized through public action or contribute to the clarification and critique of values that underlie the selection of goals and objectives.

Furthermore, international organisations such as the OECD (2021, ch.1) envisage the evaluation of public policies, more specifically development programmes, according to a certain number of criteria, six in total.

On delivery, even if the PMDU, the PEMANDU and Michael Barber agree on the benefits of the delivery unit to improve delivery, their approaches, from planning to performance monitoring, are nuanced and even different.

Theories

Dun (2018, p. 254) develops the causal mechanism with a causal relationship, from a public policy point of view, between inputs, activities and outputs, outcomes, and impacts, with his exact conception of Policy inputs and Policy activities. In monitoring the elements of the causal mechanism, Dun (2018) adds that a distinction must be made between target groups and beneficiaries, as one is different from the other.

Cipriano and Fastré (Bauler et al., 2004 cited in Cipriano and Fastré, 2014, p. 3) theorize the process of data aggregation (Bauler et al., 2004) by the Aggregation Data Triangle.

Tony Blair Institute for Global Change (2022, ch. 2) theorizes an approach relating to delivery with the following components: designing, managing, and monitoring the implementation of government priorities that are intended to have a significant effect on development outcomes.

As for the deliverology of Sir Michael Barber, the managing reform initiatives encompasses three critical components: establishing a small team focused on performance- a delivery unit, gathering performance data to set targets and trajectories, and using routines to ensure a focus on performance.

Finally, PEMANDU, grounds its work on the Big Fast Results method, an approach that was originally developed in the private sector. The method helps monitor the progress of large-scale interventions

Chapter 3. Materials and methods

The materials and methods used to carry out this compared study of two programmes in specific areas can be defined as follows.

Primary objective

Firstly, it should be emphasised that it was necessary to define the primary objective of this research study which is, through the comparison of specific areas of 2 development programmes in 2 African countries, with the public management principles of efficiency and effectiveness, to reach meaningful conclusions and contribute significantly to the field of public management.

Inductive reasoning

Based on the clear objective of my research study, the consistent research approach or method is simply inductive reasoning. However, to carry it out successfully, I designed an appropriate data collection with strategies and methodologies that aim to elevate the quality and impact of my research.

Data research

The data research was an intelligent combination of quantitative and qualitative data. Starting from a consideration of the 5 areas of study of the 2 programmes- governance, primary education, mother and child health, access to drinking water and electricity, and based on their planned objectives in terms of results, I collected quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data consisted of rates, statistics and other monitoring and evaluation data. They are mainly secondary data taken from reports and publications by government institutions or agencies in Senegal and Rwanda; articles, accounts and publications by international organisations, NGOs, civil society associations and foundations, publications or articles by researchers, newspapers and magazines.

Qualitative data was obtained through exchanges with resource public managers mainly involved in the implementation of these 2 programmes. The qualitative data is also secondary data taken from articles and publications.

Data triangulation

Finally, to ensure the collected data's accuracy, relevance, and reliability, I used data triangulation by utilizing multiple data collection methods or sources. This means gathering data from different perspectives or using different methods to validate findings. For example, for the same data, I collected it from several sources, compared its reliability and validated it from the most reliable source. Moreover, with an estimate, a rate of measurement from a governmental institution in Rwanda or Senegal that I judged to be biased, partisan and propagandistic, I preferred choosing the estimate, rate of measurement from sources such as the World Bank, the UN, UNESCO, civil society organisations and NGOs.

Chapter 4. Contents and results

4.1. Preamble

The estimated budgets back the planned objectives and expected results of these 2 major programmes are as follows.

For the Emerging Senegal Plan, the financing budget is estimated at:

- CFAF 9,685.6 billion.

This budget is financed by:

- The State: CFAF 4,202.6 billion (43.4%).
- Technical and Financial Partners: CFAF 3,909 billion (40.4%).
- The private sector through Public-Private Partnerships: CFAF 1,574 billion (16.3%).

The financing acquired amounts to CFAF 5,737.6 billion and comes from three (03) sources :

- The State for CFAF 3,218.6 billion (56.1%).
- The Technical and Financing partners for CFAF 2,056 billion (35.8%).
- The Private sector for CFAF 463 billion (8.1%).

By strategic axis of the Emerging Senegal Plan, the breakdown of the Priority Actions Plan financing is as follows:

- Structural transformation of the economy and growth: CFAF 6,439.266 billion or 66.5%.
- Human capital, social protection and sustainable development: CFAF 2,520.487 billion, i.e. 26.0%.
- Governance, Institutions, Peace and Security CFAF 725.972 billion or 7.5%.

Source : République du Sénégal, 2014, pp. 108, 111.

As for Rwanda Vision 2020, this is the financing plan:

- The population growth rate is assumed to average 2.7% until 2020.
- To transform into a middle-income country – with a per capita income of about 900 USD- Rwanda will need to achieve above 7% GDP annual growth rate over the period.
- Based on the ICOR approach, the country needs to annually invest 30% of GDP to achieve the targeted economic growth of 7%.
- Initially, agriculture is the major engine of growth representing more than 45% of GDP until 2010 whilst industry and services represent 20% and 37% respectively. Afterwards, the industrial and services sectors take over so that by 2020, services will contribute 42%, industry 26% and agriculture 33% of GDP.
- Private investment would account for an average of 20% of GDP and public investment 8%.
- The public capital expenditure is assumed to increase to Rwf 605 billion.

Source: Republic of Rwanda, 2000, p.26

4.2. Emerging Senegal Plan

4.2.1. Intended Outcomes.

4.2.1.1. Governance

- **Priority Actions Plans 1 : 2014 – 2018**

Governance, Institutions, Peace and Security

Table 1: Governance, Institutions, Peace and Security, based on République du Sénégal, 2014, p. 86.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Governance, institutions, peace and security 	<p>05 development process management rules.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peace, democracy and security. • Virtuous management of public resources. • Alignment of the structure of public spending with development priorities. • Ethics, transparency, continuous attention to accountability and the effectiveness of public spending. • Functional frameworks for dialogue on public policy.
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- **Priority Actions Plans 2 : 2019 – 2023**

Governance, Peace and Security

Table 2: Governance, Peace and Security based on République du Sénégal, 2018, p. 84.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Governance, peace and security 	<p>05 strategic objectives :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improve the quality of public service. Strengthen citizenship and the rule of law. Promote gender equity and equality. Strengthen peace and security. Strengthen territorial governance.
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4.2.1.2. Agriculture: mechanisation

. 01 agropole ramp-up: 2017 - 2020

Table 3 : Agropoles, based on République du Sénégal, 2014, p.141.

	Intended Outcomes 2017-2020
Agropoles	01

- **Setting up 150 - 200 micro-projects to support family farming: 50 projects by 2015- 2018 and 100 - 150 projects by 2018- 2023.**

Table 4, Micro-projects to support family farming, based on République du Sénégal, 2014, p. 139.

	Intended Outcomes 2015-2018
Micro-projects to support family farming	50

4.2.1.3. Education: primary education

• Priority Actions Plans 1: 2014 – 2018

Primary education's outcomes intended.

Table 5: Primary education's intended outcomes, based on République du Sénégal, 2014, pp. 77- 78.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary Education's outcomes intended 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Setting up a 10-year basic education cycle by supporting alternative structures, training elementary school "chalk-in-hand" teachers, rigorously targeting educational provision, improving the school environment and the Daraas, consolidating basic subject knowledge and providing pupils with the textbooks they need. • Develop effective, efficient and inclusive governance of the education system, by improving the efficiency of public spending, decentralising and devolving the management of education programmes, making supervisory staff more accountable, constantly assessing the quality of teaching at all levels, building and equipping academy and departmental inspectorates in the new regions and supporting private education structures.
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Gross enrolment rate, completion rate, number of pupils in classrooms

Table 6: Gross enrolment rate, completion rate, number of pupils in classrooms, based on République du Senegal 2014 - 2018, 2014, p. 135.

	2018 Intended outcomes
Gross enrolment rate in elementary education (%)	98%
Primary completion rate (in %)	96%
Number of learners enrolled in classes.	>120 000

- **Priority Actions Plans 2: 2019 – 2023**

Access to quality education for all

Table 7: Access to quality education for all, based on République du Sénégal , 2018, p. 77.

	2014	2017
Gender parity index at the primary level		1,16
Percentage of Year 6 pupils with a minimum level in reading and maths	61% and 59%	

4.2.1.4. Health: maternal and infant health

- **Priority Actions Plans 1: 2014 – 2018**

Mother and child health, nutrition, governance

Table 8: Mother and child health, nutrition, governance, based on République du Sénégal, 2014, pp. 79 – 80.

<p>Mother and child health, nutrition, governance</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Health and nutrition policy aims to ensure the provision of quality healthcare at affordable prices. • Achieve 80% of children aged 0-11 months fully vaccinated by 2017. • Reduce maternal and child morbidity and mortality. • Improve the governance of the sector. • Improve mothers' and children's health, by promoting childbirth in approved health structures, in particular, assistance at childbirth by qualified personnel, improving access to care for women in rural areas, care for newborn babies, promoting family planning and improving vaccination coverage for children. • Improve the nutritional status of mothers and children by promoting dietary diversity, increasing the coverage of children benefiting from nutrition services and promoting nutrition among vulnerable groups (children under 05, pregnant women and nursing mothers). • Strengthen the community health system, using local strategies to bring services closer to the people. • Improve health governance, by strengthening the efficiency and effectiveness of public spending on health and the system for monitoring and evaluating sectoral policies, as well as the medical surveillance system.
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CPN4 coverage rate, Rate (in %) of births attended by qualified personnel, Proportion (in %) of children aged 0-11 months fully vaccinated, Percentage of children aged 0-5 years benefiting from nutrition services.

Table 9: CPN4 coverage rate, Rate (in %) of births attended by qualified personnel, Proportion (in %) of children aged 0-11 months fully vaccinated, Percentage of children aged 0-5 years benefiting from nutrition services based on Plan Sénégal Emergent 2014- 2018, 2014, p. 135.

	2018 intended outcomes
Rate (in %) of CPN4 coverage	78%
Rate (%) of births attended by qualified personnel	88%
Proportion (%) of children aged 0-11 months fully vaccinated	85%
Percentage of children aged 0-5 receiving nutrition services	85%

- **Priority Actions Plans 2: 2019 – 2023**

Reduce morbidity and mortality, improve the population's nutritional status, and strengthen the health sector governance system.

Table 10: Reduce morbidity and mortality, improve the population's nutritional status, and strengthen the health sector governance system based on Plan Sénégal Emergent: PAP2 2019- 2023, 2018, p. 76.

	2017
Reduction in the maternal mortality rate	42 deaths per 1000 live births
Infant and child mortality rate	56 deaths per 1000
Prevalence of stunting in children aged 0-59 months	17%
Percentage of children under 5 who are underweight	14,4%
Prevalence of acute malnutrition in children under 5 years of age	9%
Number of doctors per 1000 inhabitants	0,079

4.2.1.5. Access to drinking water

- Priority Actions Plans 1: 2014 – 2018

Access to drinking water

Table 11: Access to drinking water, based on République du Sénégal, 2014, pp. 82-83.

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Optimising access to water 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve the access rate to drinking water and sanitation, with the following targets: reach 100% in urban areas from 2015 and 98% in rural areas by 2017, for drinking water. • Improve access to drinking water for people in urban and rural areas, through the construction and rehabilitation of boreholes and water storage and supply facilities in rural and peri-urban areas, as well as improving water quality, particularly in the Central regions, and extending access to and strengthening the supply of drinking water in urban areas. • Promote the integrated and sustainable management of water resources, through the construction of collective excreta disposal facilities in rural areas, the protection and conservation of strategic water reserves and the assessment of the hydraulic potential in the Maastrichtian geological layer. • Promote good governance in the drinking water and sanitation sub-sector, by promoting eco-citizenship at the community level, rationalising water consumption, strengthening the logistical and human resources of hygiene brigades and reviewing the tariff system in urban areas. • Encourage the involvement of the private sector to play a major role in the sub-sector and guarantee the financial viability of the sub-sector, particularly through the pricing system.
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- Rate of access to drinking water

Table 12: Drinking water access rate based on République du Sénégal, 2014, p.135.

	2018 intended outcomes	
Rate (%) of access to drinking water	Urban	100%
	Rural	100%

- **Priority Actions Plans 1 2019 – 2023**

Access to water in quantity and quality

Table 13: Water access in quantity and quality, based on République du Sénégal 2018, p. 80.

	2017
Access to water in rural areas	91%

4.2.1.6. Access to electricity

Table 14: Access to electricity, based on République du Sénégal, 2014, p. 134.

	2020 Intended Outcomes
Rural access	60% (2017)

4.2.2. Achieved outcomes versus intended outcomes.

4.2.2.1. Governance

Table 15 : Governance, based on République du Sénégal, p. 39

	2020 intended outcomes	Achieved outcomes
Governance, Peace and Security	<p>Improve the quality of public service</p> <p>Strengthen citizenship and the rule of law</p> <p>Promote gender equity and equality.</p> <p>Strengthen peace and security.</p> <p>Strengthen territorial governance</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ratification of international human rights instruments. • Promoting freedom of association and the press via a new code and adopting a national strategy for good governance. • Substantial efforts to protect the country's people and property and secure Senegal's borders. • Senegal's military and civilian security services are among the most effective in West Africa.

Remaining challenges:

- Peace in Casamance- one of Senegal's regions has still not been fully achieved.
- Senegal's borders are long and porous, and its neighbours: Mali and Mauritania generally have fragile security institutions.
- Senegal has maritime borders which are difficult to monitor and police.
- Senegal is vulnerable to transnational threats such as terrorism, drug trafficking, and organised crime.
- Huge gaps noted in the virtuous management of public resources, the alignment of the structure of public spending with development priorities, the ethics, transparency, continuous attention to accountability and the effectiveness of public expenditures.
- Poorly integrated and hierarchical governance institutions of the Emerging Senegal Plan

Sources: US Department of State, 2020, p. 6. ; Senplus.com, 2022 ; Bureau Opérationnel de Suivi du Plan Sénégal Emergent, 2023.

4.2.2.2. Agriculture : mechanisation

Table 16 : Senegal's mechanised agriculture outcomes, based on Ministère de l'Agriculture et de l'Équipement Rural, 2021, p. 4; Fo4 ; and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, 2021; République du Senegal, 2023.

	2020 Intended Outcomes	Achieved outcomes
• integrated agropoles	• 01	• 00
• Micro-projects to support family farming.	• > 50	• 00
• Agricultural households rate with a lifter		• 11,9% (2019/2020)
Agricultural households' rate with ridge, sprayer, motor pump, motor cultivator, tractor and huller		• 1,5% (2019/2020)
• Motorized equipment		• Barely 3 % of plots (2020)

Other achieved outcomes :

- The Senegalese government has implemented a policy supporting producers in acquiring agricultural equipment. This policy includes tax exemption for farm equipment and 40 per cent state subsidies for the purchase of agricultural equipment.

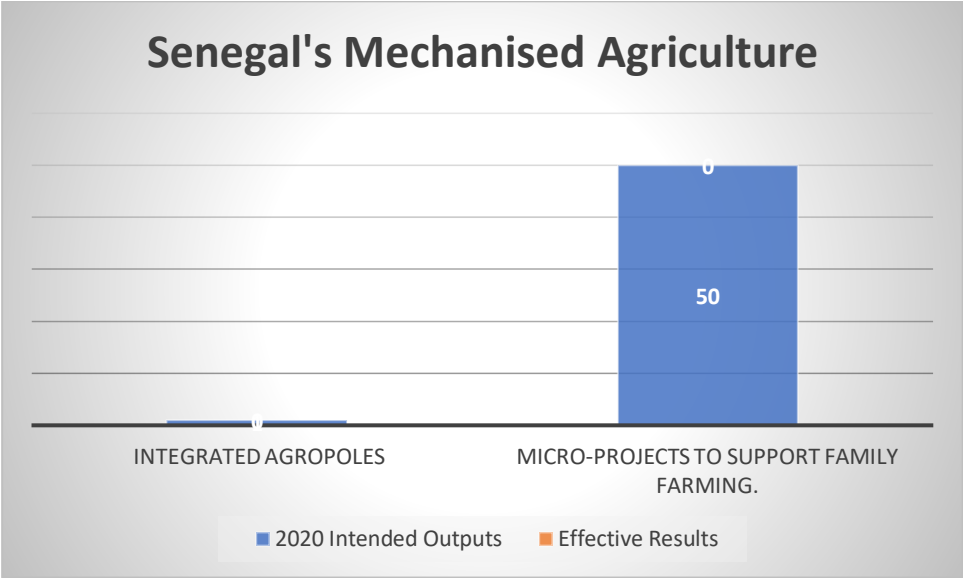
Source : Inter- Réseaux, Développement rural, 2022.

Remaining challenges:

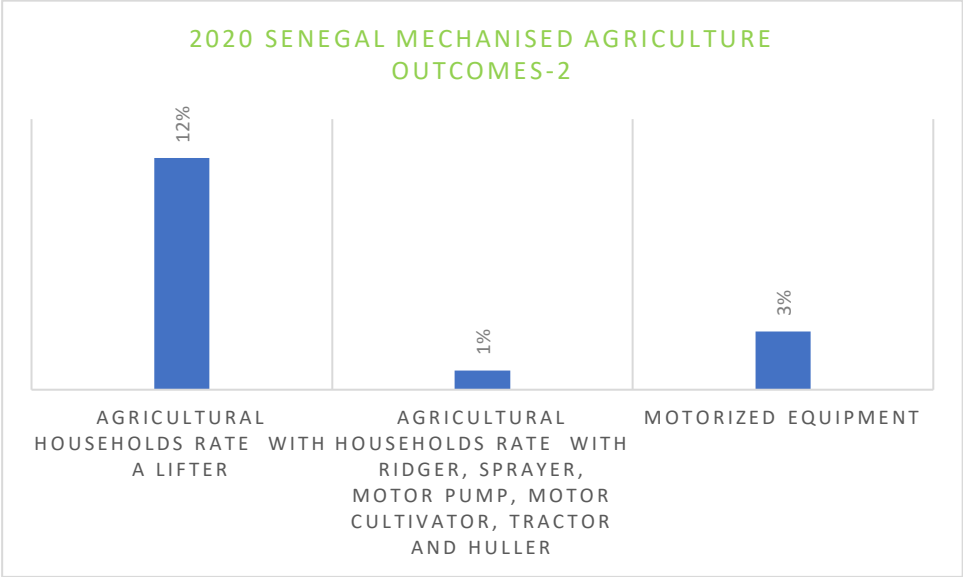
- The level of mechanisation of agriculture remains very low with the dominant use of small materials and equipment harnessed at all stages of cultivation.
- Motorization mainly concerns rice cultivation in the irrigated areas of the Senegal River valley and the Anambé basin.
- Animal traction is the most widely adopted technology.
- Landowners are generally old, illiterate people who resist mechanised farming.
- Farm plots are small and family-owned.
- The current agricultural cooperatives are neither well-structured nor functional and cannot support agrarian mechanisation.
- Banks are unwilling to take the risk of financing agricultural mechanisation.
- Politicisation of the agricultural sector with farmers receiving state assistance: grants and subsidies

Sources : Inter- Réseaux, Développement rural, 2022 ; Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations, 2021 ; Ministère de l'agriculture et de l'équipement rural, 2024.

Graph 1: 2020 Senegal's Mechanised Agriculture Outcomes- 1, based on Table 16.



Graph 2: 2020 Senegal Mechanised Agriculture outcomes- 2, based on Table 16.



4.2.2.3. Education : Primary Education

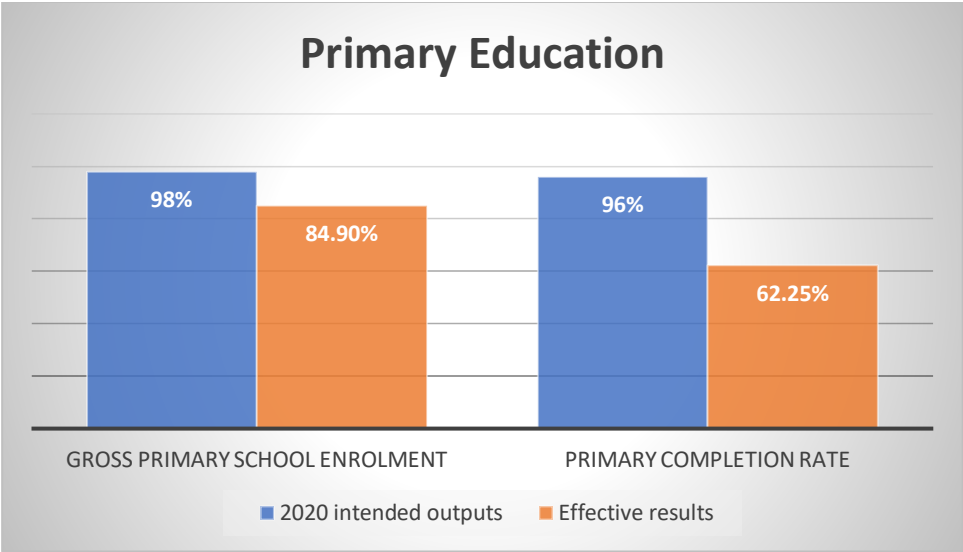
Table 17 : Senegal’s Primary Education Data, based on Agence Nationale de la Statistique et de la Démographie, 2022, pp. 47- 50.

	2020 Intended Outcomes	Achieved outcomes
Gross primary school enrolment (%)	98% (2018)	85,9%
Primary completion rate	96% (2018)	62.25%
Gross admission rate		98,8% (2019)
The CM2-6th grade transition rate		73,9% (2018-2019)
The success rate for the Certificate of End of Elementary Studies (CFEE)		72 % (2020)

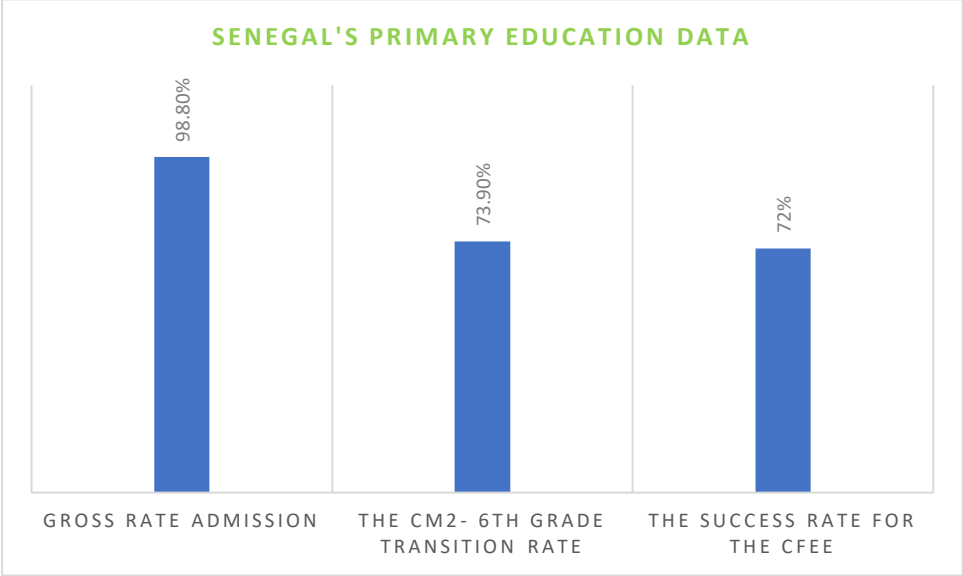
Remaining challenges:

- The performance of the sector is hampered by strong disparities between academies, between areas (rural, urban) and between populations, in terms of access, retention and success of learning and courses.
- The challenge of 10 years of basic education and the success of everyone’s journey.
- The implementation of a basic education curriculum is to be finalized.
- A significant number of students drop out before the end of elementary school, 39% do not complete it; a very high proportion does not achieve the expected skills: 40%, almost 44% for the CFEE.
- The consolidation of an integrated information and monitoring system and its uses.
- The challenges of supporting and professionalising teachers.
- Development of establishment projects, definition of performance contracts, establishment of performance evaluation frameworks and quality circles
- Only 2.6% of expenditure by the Ministry of National Education is devoted to investments (2018)
- Low quality of teachers
- Low quality of student learning
- The absence of a harmonised system for measuring the level of learning, and of a policy relating to the use of assessment results
- A low level of access to preschool education and a fall in the primary school enrolment rate.

Graph 3: Senegal's Primary Education Data, based on Table 17.



Graph 4: Senegal's Primary Education Data, based on Table 17.



4.2.2.4. Health: maternal and infant health

Table 18: Maternal and infant health data, based on USAID From the American People, 2021; The World Bank IBRD- IDA, (n.d.); Global Nutrition Report, 2022.

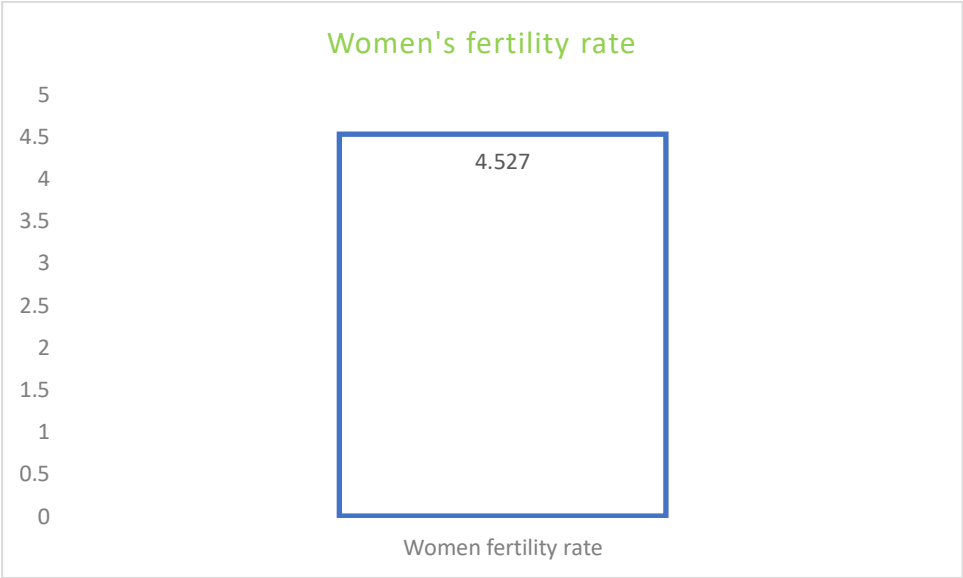
	2020 Intended Outcomes	Achieved outcomes
Women fertility rate		4.527 (2020)
Infant mortality rate per 1,000		30 (2020)
Maternal mortality rate per 100,000		261 (2020)
Under Five Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)		40 (2020)
Child Malnutrition		
Acute malnutrition (wasted) %		8.1% (2020)
Chronic Malnutrition (%)		18% (2019)
Child Stunting (as a % of under 5s)		17.3% (2020)
Underweight of children under 5 (%)		14% (2019)
Proportion (%) of children aged 0-11 months fully vaccinated	85% (2018)	66.8% (2019)
Rate (in %) of deliveries attended by qualified personnel	88% (2018)	80% (2019)
Doctors per 100,000 inhabitants		10 (2020)
Nurses and midwives per 100,000 inhabitants		40/100000 (2020)

Remaining challenges:

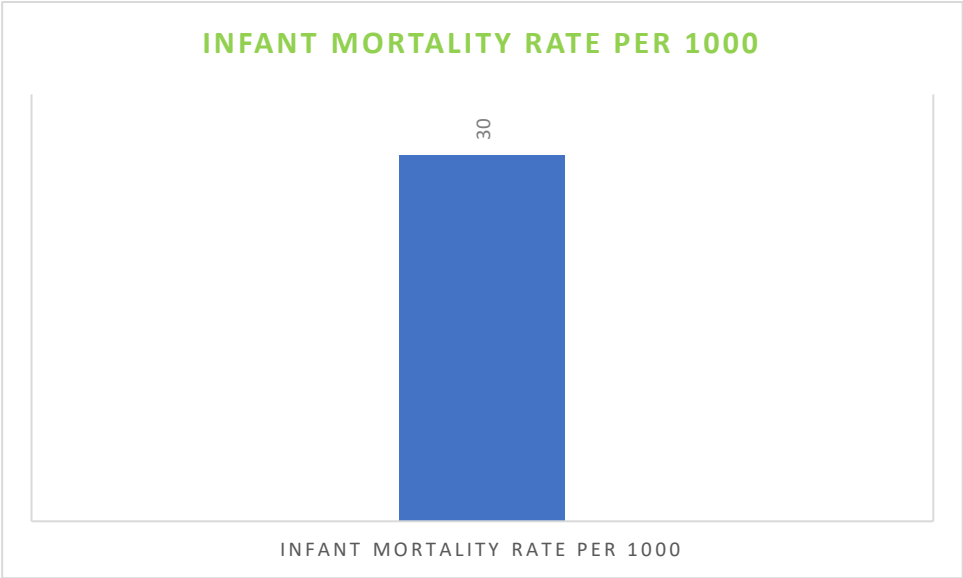
- Develop new strategies to reduce maternal and neonatal mortality or update existing ones.

- Centralise management and information on health human resources which are dispersed across several entities.
- Having the right information on healthcare professionals will save training resources.
- Implement retention policies for healthcare professionals in remote areas.
- Increased staffing, professionalisation of birth care and health promotion by community health workers.
- Low availability of quality data to guide strategies.
- Donor dependence and lack of diversity of funding sources undermine financial resilience.
- Heavy dependence on imports can create supply risks.

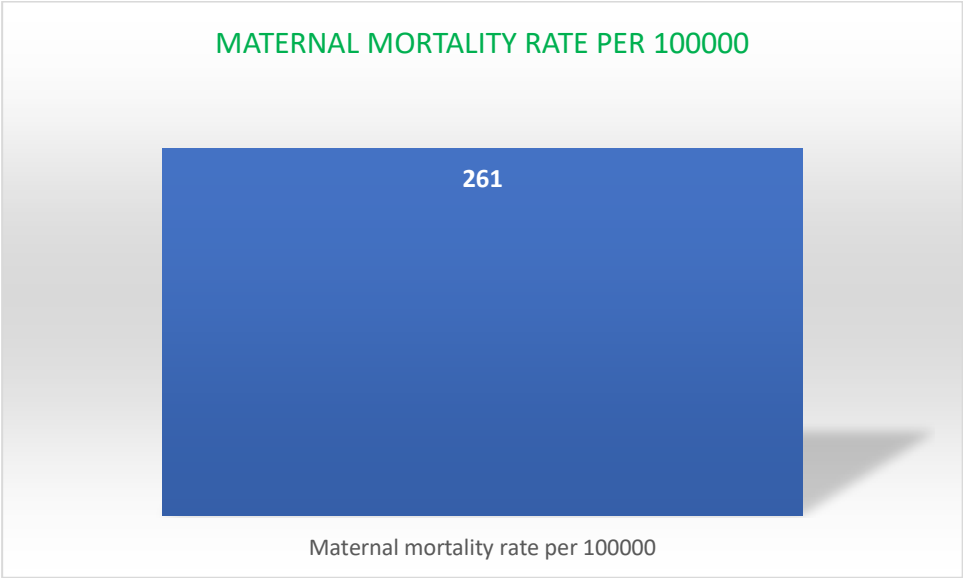
Graph 5: Women’s fertility rate, based on Table 18.



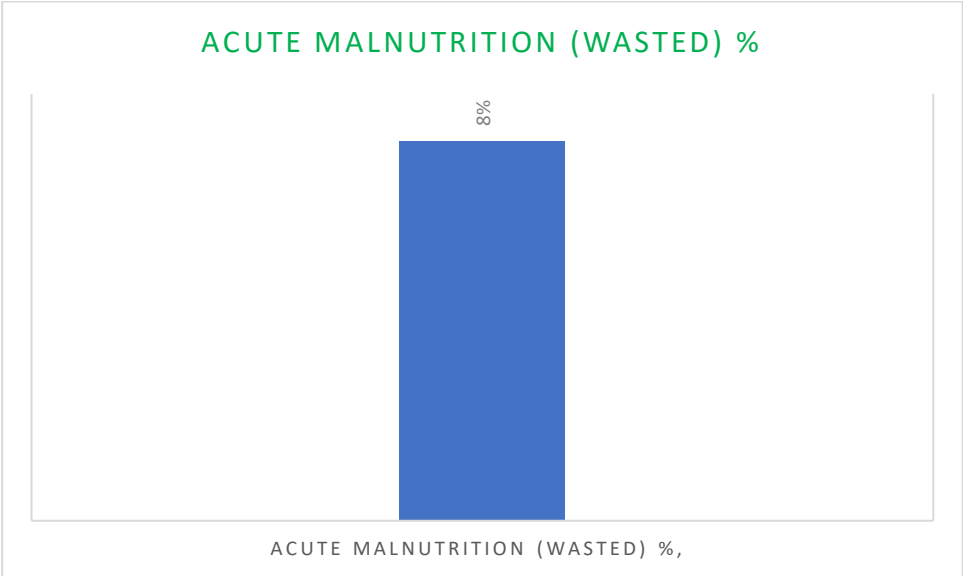
Graph 6: Infant mortality rate per 1000, based on Table 18.



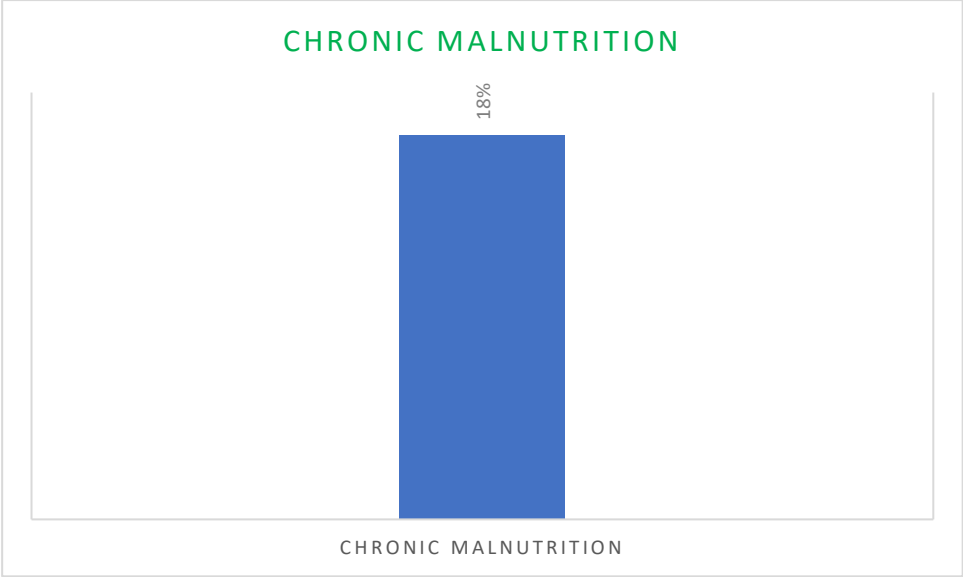
Graph 7: Maternal mortality rate per 100000, based on Table 18.



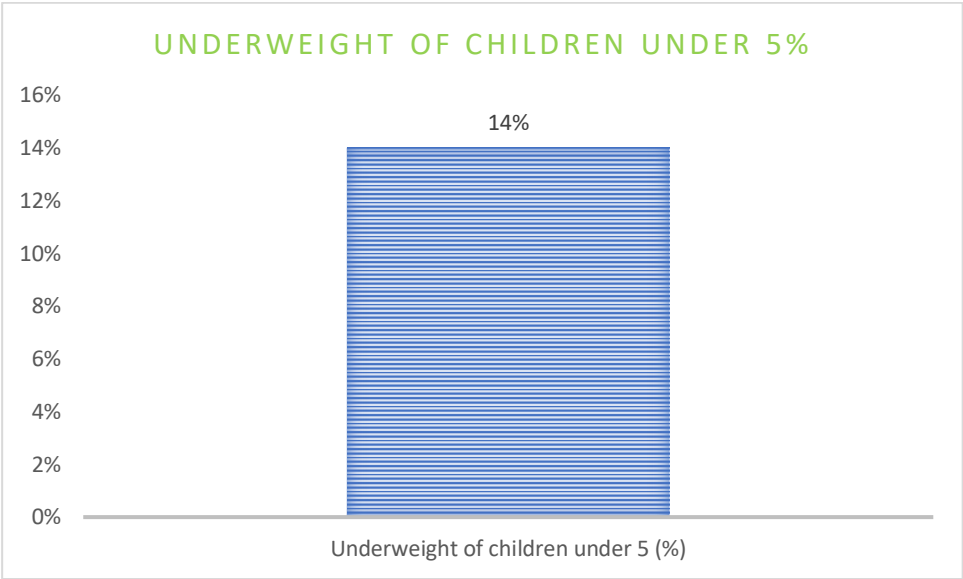
Graph 8: Acute malnutrition (wasted) %, based on Table 18.



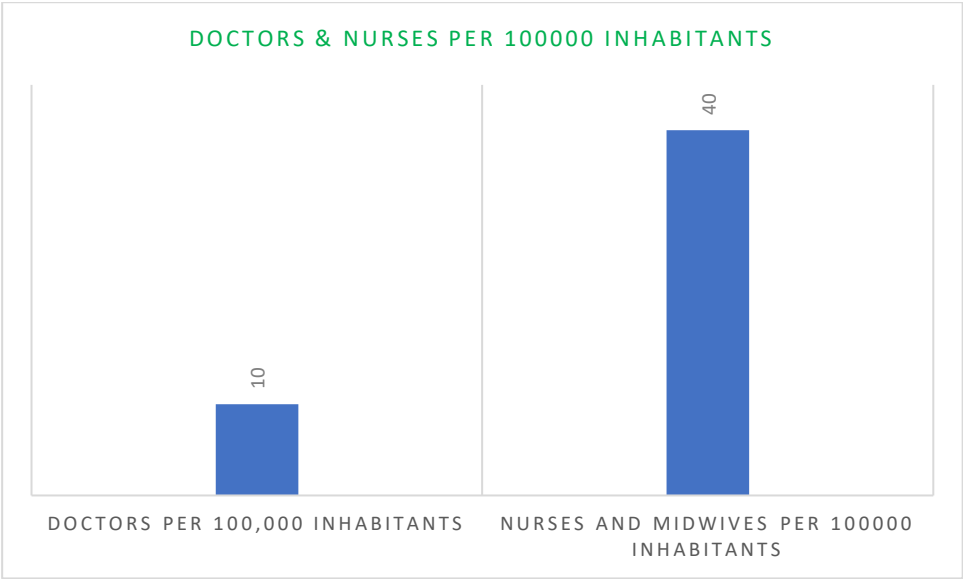
Graph 9: Chronic malnutrition, based on Table 18.



Graph 10: Underweight of Children under 5 %, based on Table 18.



Graph 11: Doctors & nurses per 100000 inhabitants, based on Table 18.



4.2.2.5. Access to drinking water

Table 19: Access to drinking water, based on Agence Nationale de la Statistique et de la Démographie (ANSD), 2022; ps-Eau, 2022.

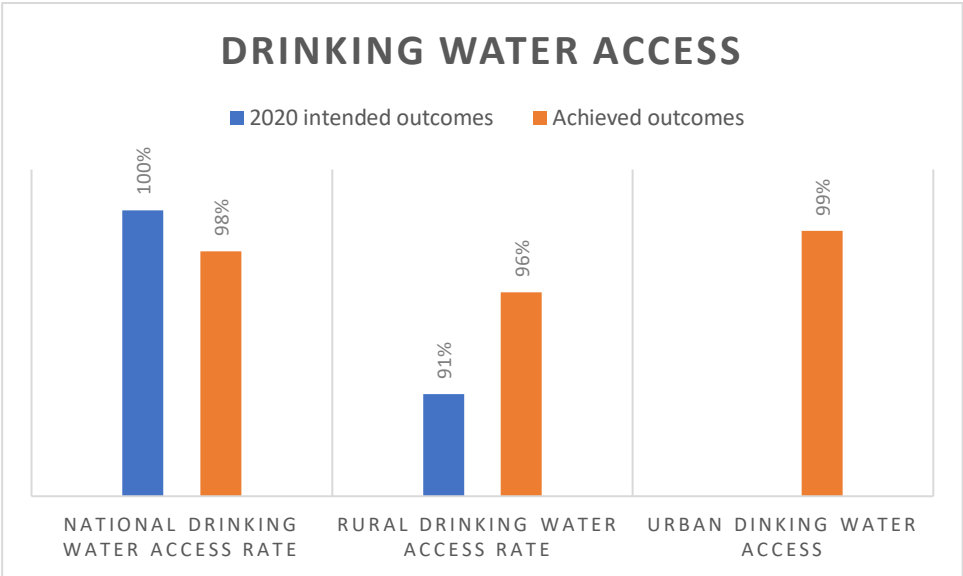
	2020 Intended Outcomes	Achieved outcomes
Rate (in %) of access to drinking water	100% (2018)	97,6%
Rural Water access rate	91% (2017)	96,5%
Urban Water access rate		98,8%
Total renewable freshwater resources per capita		3,459 m3
The rate of households obtaining their drinking water from an improved water source		86.2% (2019)
The rate of households in rural areas obtaining their drinking water from an improved water source		76.5% (2019)
Water points with unprotected wells and unimproved water points		99.5% (2019)
Improved sources with a domestic tap in urban areas		8 out of 10 households (2019)
Improved sources with a domestic tap in rural areas		Smaller proportions (2019)
Bottled water as an improved water source.		6.4% (2019)
Collection time and type of water point		71.5% obtain water near their residence. 18.7% take less than 30 minutes, The queue included to collect water. (2019)
Collection time and place of residence		9 out of 10 urban households obtain their water supply on-site. More than 5 out of 10 households have a source of water at home in rural areas and more than 1/4 get their water near their home. 17.3% of rural households take at least 30 minutes to collect water for drinking compared to less than 2.4% in urban areas. (2019)
Collection time and standard of living		Households in the poorest quintile, the lowest proportion of those obtaining drinking water on site: 29.5% (2019)

Remaining Challenges :

- Salinization, nitrate pollution, and eutrophication linked to irrigation, agricultural runoff, and untreated wastewater from urban centres threaten surface water quality.
- Aquatic plant invasions in large areas of the Senegal River and Lake Guiers limit biodiversity, fishing potential, and usage for irrigation and drinking.
- Low funding, limited data collection, and sector coordination challenges have impeded the implementation of water management plans. In contrast, the lack of comprehensive data hinders understanding water resources' quality and availability.
- Invasive aquatic plant growth has reduced the flow and oxygenation of surface waters and is impacting Lake Guiers, a key drinking water source.
- High fluoride concentrations in central western and northwestern Senegal increase dental and skeletal fluorosis risks.
- In Thiès, Diourbel, Fatick, Kaolack, Kaffrine and Tambacounda, the populations face a recurring lack of water but also a questionable quality of the water served.
- The Professionalization of water management by 4 public service delegates: Seoh (Notto-Ndiosmone-Palmarin/Gorom Lampsar), Aquatech (Thiès et Diourbel), Flexeau (Kaffrine et Kaolack), Soges (Tambacounda) did not achieve the expected outcomes.

Sources : USAID, (n.d.) ; Lequotidien, 2022.

Graph 12: Access to drinking water, based on Table 19.



4.2.2.6. Access to electricity

Table 20: Access to electricity, based on Africa Energy Portal (AEP), (n.d.); République du Sénégal, 2014, p. 134.

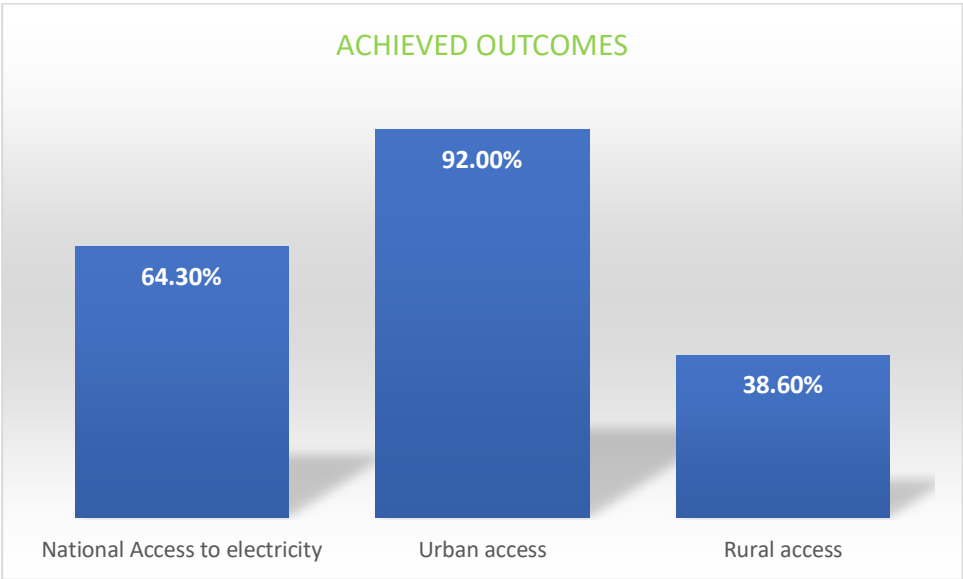
	2020 Intended Outputs	2020 Effective outcomes
National Access		64.3%
Urban Access		92.0%
Rural access	60% (2017)	38.6 %

Remaining challenges:

- Diversifying the country’s energy sources and modernizing the energy sector.
- Addition of generation capacities to meet growing demand, regional energy integration, a shift from heavy fuel oil to domestic natural gas, and increased energy access in rural areas.
- Insufficient generation and storage capacity.
- High generation costs.
- Heavy dependence on imported petroleum fuels and low use of resources
- Insufficient coverage of the transmission and distribution grid, particularly in rural areas.
- Outdated production, transmission, and distribution infrastructure; and Low public awareness of the importance of energy efficiency in electricity use.

Sources: International Trade Administration, (n.d.); USAID, 2021.

Graph 13: Access to electricity, based on table 20.



4.2.3. Efficiency By Effectiveness

Considering the close relationship between efficiency and effectiveness, I adopt the view of Drucker (2001, p. 147) affirming that 'the latter being a prerequisite for obtaining the first.' Furthermore, as Mandl, Dierx and Ilzkovitz (2008) argued, I acknowledge that efficiency cannot be considered in absolute terms as the only input required to obtain the desired results, as there are also exogenous factors.

Table 21: Efficiency versus Effectiveness, based on The World Bank, 2024; US Department of State, 2020; World Justice Rule of Law Index, 2020; Transparency International, 2020; Gan integrity, (n.d.); Freedom House, 2020; PEFA, (n.d.); Sénégal Numérique; (n.d.); PNUD, 2022; Ministère de l'Economie Numérique et des Télécommunications, (n.d.); Open Data Watch, 2024; Le Quotidien, 2021.

Efficiency By Effectiveness	Achievements (+)	Challenges (-)
Economic and Corporate Governance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One of the most stable countries in Africa. • Sustained economic growth rates, averaging 6.5% from 2014 through 2019. • The World Bank's Doing Business index improved from 141 in 2018 to 123 in 2019. • Operationalizing the new Commercial Court, prioritising the resolution of business disputes • Policies Toward Foreign Direct Investment • Business Facilitation- the entry point for business registration is Senegal's Investment Promotion Agency (APIX), www.investinsenegal.com. • Member of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and the African Continental Free Trade Area Agreement (AFCFTA) • Legal System and Judicial Independence. • Laws and Regulations on Foreign Direct Investment • Bankruptcy Regulations • Investment Incentives • Foreign Trade Zones/Free Ports/Trade Facilitation • Real Property • Intellectual Property Rights • Capital Markets and Portfolio Investment • Money and Banking System • Sovereign Wealth Funds • Responsible Business Conduct 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Companies continue to report problems with corruption and opacity. • Senegal lacks established procedures for a public comment process for proposed laws and regulations. • Common complaints include excessive and inconsistently applied bureaucratic processes, non-transparent judicial processes, and an opaque decision-making process for public tenders and contracts. • The government often did not enforce the law effectively, and officials continued to engage in corrupt practices with impunity. • Cumbersome and unpredictable tax administration, bureaucratic hurdles, opaque public procurement, a weak and inefficient judicial system, inadequate access to financing, and a rigid labour market as obstacles. • High real estate and energy costs and high factor costs driven by tariffs undermine Senegal's competitiveness.
Rule of law	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2020 Senegal overall score: 0.55 • Global Rank: 52/128 • Regional Rank: 7/31 (World Justice Rule of Law Index, 2020) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The country must prioritise judicial independence
Anti-corruption, transparency and accountability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Levels of perceived public sector corruption in 180 countries and territories worldwide: Score: 45/100 Ranking: 67/179 (Transparency International, Index de perception of corruption, 2020) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderate risk of corruption in Senegal's court system. • Moderate corruption risks when dealing with Senegal's police. • Moderate chance of experiencing corruption when dealing with Senegal's public services.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After adhering to several international anti-corruption instruments, Senegal set up OFNAC, by law n°2012-30 of December 28, 2012- this institution investigates cases and regularly submits reports to the public prosecutor implicating certain individuals. • Senegal's Penal Code is the primary law that criminalizes corrupt activities, with extortion, active and passive bribery, bribery of foreign officials and money laundering all illegal under the Code. • Senegal's Constitution and law provide for freedoms of speech and press. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fairly high risk of corruption in Senegal's land administration. • Moderate risk of corruption when dealing with Senegal's tax administration. • High risk of corruption in Senegal's customs administration. • high risk of experiencing corruption in Senegal's procurement process. • high risk of corruption in Senegal's natural resources sector. • the government occasionally limits the rights to freedoms of speech and press
Democratic governance	<p>Ranking: 71/100 Political Rights: 29/ 40 Civil Liberties: 42/ 60 Electoral Process A: 0-4 pts: 3/ 4 Political Pluralism and Participation B: 0-4 pts: 3/ 4</p> <p>Functioning of Government C: 0-4 pts: 2.66/4</p> <p>Freedom of Expression and Belief D: 0-4 pts: 3.66/4</p> <p>Associational and Organizational Rights E: 0-4 pts: ¾</p> <p>Rule of Law: F: 0-4 pts: ¾</p> <p>Personal Autonomy and Individual Rights G: 0-4 pts: 2.75/4</p> <p>(Freedom House, 2020)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Politically motivated prosecutions of opposition leaders and changes to the electoral laws have reduced the competitiveness of the opposition in recent years. • Defamation laws continue to constrain press freedom. Other ongoing challenges include corruption in government, weak rule of law, and inadequate protections for the rights of women.
Efficient allocation of public resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good performance in terms of revenue generation • Timely presentation by the Executive of the State budget to the National Assembly and its vote before the start of the financial year • Improved access for taxpayers to information on their rights and obligations. • The impact of budgetary adjustments made during the year is no longer significant. • Daily consolidation of cash balances on accounts managed by the Treasury with the implementation of the first-generation CUT. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Improving the accuracy of revenue and expenditure forecasts . Improving the completeness and transparency of the budget . Strengthening the budget framework. . Implement the programme budget. . Improve the presentation of budget documents. . Modernise tax administration. . Improve tax revenue collection. . Generalise the automation of administrative and customs procedures. . Implement the strategy of decentralising expenditure authorisation. . Reform the State's accounting system. . Improve the State's accounting and financial reporting system. . Improve public procurement procedures. . Strengthen internal audit mechanisms.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Ensure effective control by the Court of Audit. . Strengthen the institutional capacity of the National Assembly.
Administration and Processes digitalisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Digitalisation of certain public services via certain partner platforms : Payment of tax stamps and passport receipts. Payment of fixed fines. Payment of electricity bills. Buying transport tickets: bus, train and transport ships Payment of water bills • Senegal's good connectivity ranks it 9th in Africa, ahead of Algeria and Rwanda, according to the Network Readiness Index 2021 report. • The "Digital Senegal 2025" strategy (SN2025) was drawn up in 2016 as part of the the implementation of the Senegal (PSE) to act as a catalyst for the modernisation. of the economy and improve competitiveness. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only 31.7% of households had access to the Internet in 2018-2019 • Only 15.9% of people living in rural areas have access to the internet, compared with more than one in two (56.9%) in the Dakar urban area and just over a third in other urban areas. • difficulties in implementing the SN2025, linked in particular to the lack of funding and delays in setting up the establishment of governance bodies.
Data's international standards of openness	<p>ODIN SCORE: 49 GLOBAL RANK: 90 out of 187 Coverage score: 50 out of 100 OPENNESS SCORE: 49 out of 100</p> <p>Global out of 187:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coverage: 84th • Openness: 101st • Overall: 90th <p>Western Africa out of 16:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Coverage: 2nd . Openness: 4th . Overall: 4th <p>(Open Data Watch, 2020)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Address data gaps. • Adopt an open data license for the data portal. • Publish more data in machine-readable formats. • Publish more comprehensive metadata. • Publish more historical data. • Publish more recent data. • Publish more subnational-level data.
Quality of public service delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The determination of the country's highest authorities to modernise the public administration in line with the guidelines of the Emerging Senegal Plan. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bringing the government closer to the public, to provide an urgent response to users' pressing concerns
Participation and inclusiveness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reforms to the Electoral Code following recommendations from Senegal's disabled community. • Implementation of a social protection system for disabled people based on the equal opportunities card. • The existence of several national institutions for the exercise of citizenship authority: National Assembly, High Council of Territorial Collectives, and Economic and Social Council. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Civil society has to monitor and advocate more for effective government services. • Increase citizen participation in decision-making. • Build citizen capacity to advocate for responsive and fair government policies
Strategy, Policy and Delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishment of the Senegal Emerging Plan's Ministry • Establishment of the BOS (Operational Monitoring Office) to support the Senegal Emerging Plan's implementation. • Establishment of a Delivery Unit within the BOS 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The monitoring, in conjunction with ministerial departments and other structures concerned, of the execution of the flagship Senegal Emerging Plan's projects and reforms, the periodic evaluation of their progress, and technical support to the execution structure have been ineffective. • Duality conflict between the Senegal Emerging Ministers and BOS directors

		<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Instability in the positions of Minister of the Senegal Emerging Plan and director of the Bos: 4 ministers and 3 directors from 2014 to 2020.• Questionable skills and abilities of the BOS team to set up and optimise a delivery unit.• Less than optimal data collection and analysis.• Evaluation according to the intended objectives of programs and projects not complete.
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4.3. Rwanda Vision 2020 (Revised 2012)

4.3.1. Intended Outcomes.

4.3.1.1. Governance

Good governance and a capable state

Table 22: Good governance and a capable state, based on Rwanda Vision 2000 (Revised 2012), pp. 9-10.

<p>Good governance and a capable state</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The country is committed to being a capable state, characterized by the rule of law that supports and protects all its citizens without discrimination. • The State will ensure good governance, this includes accountability, transparency and efficiency in deploying scarce resources
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4.3.1.2. Agriculture

A Productive high-value and market-oriented agriculture

Table 23: Productive high-value and market-oriented agriculture, based on Rwanda Vision 2000 (Revised 2012), p.16.

<p>Productive high-value and market-oriented agriculture</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote intensification to increase productivity, promoting value addition, and modernization. • Improve the quality of livestock to achieve an average annual growth rate of 8.5%. • Replace subsistence farming with a fully, commercialised agricultural sector by 2020
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Table 24: Mechanised agriculture, based on Rwanda Vision 2000 (Revised 2012), p. 26-27.

	Status in 2000	Current status	Proposed new Target
Agricultural production kcal/day/ person	1612	2,385	2,600
Percentage of agricultural operations mechanised	None	7	40%

4.3.1.3. Education: primary education

Table 25: The quality of education, based on Rwanda Vision 2000 (Revised 2012), p. 10.

The quality of education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rwanda will continue to focus on challenges in quality of education, matching of skills to labour market needs and entrepreneurial mindset shift
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Table 26: literacy rate, gross primary enrolment, pupils qualified teacher ratio, based on Rwanda Vision 2000 (Revised 2012), p. 29.

	Status in 2000	New target
Literacy rate (%)	48	100
Gross primary school enrolment (%)	None	100
Pupils – qualified teacher ratio	None	40-1

4.3.1.4. Health: maternal and infant health

Health and population

Table 27: Health and population, based on Rwanda Vision 2000 (Revised 2012), p. 12.

Health and population	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Eradicate malnutrition amongst children. Addressing the shortage of specialized health personnel and improving the quality of health care will be the focus of health policy.
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Table 28: Mother and Child Health statistics, based on Rwanda Vision 2000 (Revised 2012), p. 28.

	Status in 2000	Proposed new Target
Women fertility rate	5.8	3
Infant mortality rate per 1,000	107	27
Maternal mortality rate per 100,000	1071	200
Acute malnutrition (wasted) %	None	0.5
Underweight (%)	None	8

Table 29: maternal and infant health data, based on Rwanda Vision 2000 (Revised 2012), p. 29

	Status in 2000	Proposed new Target
Chronic Malnutrition (%)	None	15
Doctors per 100,000 inhabitants	1.5	10
Nurses per 100,000 inhabitants	16	100

4.3.1.5. Access to Drinking Water

Water drinking access.

Table 30: Drinking water access, based on Rwanda Vision 2000 (Revised 2012), p. 15.

Access to clean water	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rwanda will continue to invest in the protection and efficient management of water resources, as well as water infrastructure development to ensure that by 2020 all Rwandans have access to clean water
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Table 31: clean water access, based on Rwanda Vision 2000 (Revised 2012), p. 28.

	Status in 2000	Proposed new Target
Access to clean water (% of population.)	52	100

4.3.1.6. Access to Electricity

Table 32: Electricity access, based on Rwanda Vision 2020 (Revised 2012), p. 14.

	2020 Intended outcomes
Population access	75% (By 2020)
Decreasing wood consumption	From 86.3% To 50% (By 2020)

4.3.2. Achieved outcomes versus intended outcomes

4.3.2.1. Governance

Good governance and a capable state

Table 33: Governance, based on the European Research Centre for Anti-Corruption and State-Building Hertie School of Governance, 2020, pp. 2- 4.

	2020 intended outcomes	Achieved outcomes
Good governance and a capable state	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The country is committed to being a capable state, characterised by the rule of law that supports and protects all its citizens without discrimination. • The State will ensure good governance, this includes accountability, transparency and efficiency in deploying scarce resources. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can be considered as a leader to transition towards good governance. • Considerable reduction of corruption. • The country’s internal administration was reformed. • Recruitment practices have been digitalised, anonymised, and effectively based on merit. • Performance-based contracts were introduced and, in 2012, the Government approved the National Policy to fight against corruption, formalizing a zero-tolerance approach. • The bureaucracy has become more efficient and transparent, the discretionary space for corruption has been reduced and the capability of delivering results increased.

Remaining challenges:

- Authoritarian regime.
- Rwanda almost depends entirely on foreign aid.
- International donors have a major influence on the executive and are capable of influencing the Government’s actions

4.3.2.2. Agriculture: mechanisation

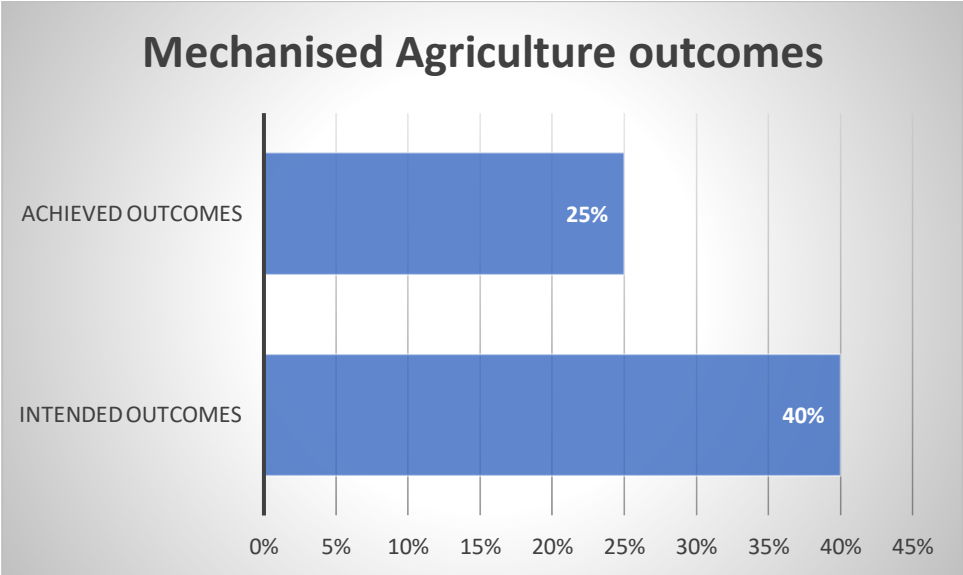
Table 34: Mechanised agriculture outcomes, based on the Republic of Rwanda, 2012, pp. 26-27.; Rwanda Agriculture Board (RAB), 2023, p. 103.; Nimusima, Karuhanga, Mukarutesi, 2018, p. 14.

	2020 Intended Outcomes	Achieved outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mechanised farm operations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 40% 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> < 25 % in 2020
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Land coverage with various mechanisation activities 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Over 40,000 ha of farmland tilled. 11000 ha for seeding. 9000 ha of crop treatment 6000 ha of harvesting countrywide through public and private hiring services (2019 – 2020)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Agricultural mechanization 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expanded and used on 7,253.5ha versus planned 6,500ha. 458 tonnes of baling of hay produced. 82.6 tonnes of Irish potatoes harvested with the use of mechanized machinery. 780ha of Irish potato planted using mechanization. 557 tonnes dried after harvest. A total of 500 ha sprayed with pesticides using farm machinery tools. (2019- 2020)

Remaining challenges:

- Farming by and large remains non-mechanized; farmers mainly use a simple hoe and other equipment to cultivate.

Graph 14: Mechanised agriculture outcomes, based on Table 34.



4.3.2.3. Education: primary education

Table 35: Primary Education, based on the Republic of Rwanda, 2020, pp. 17-18.

	2020 Intended Outcomes	Achieved outcomes
Gross primary school enrolment (%)	100	98
Pupils – qualified teacher ratio in Primary	40-1	56-1
The proportion of learners achieving at least minimum proficiency in numeracy and literacy in S3 (%)	100	Numeracy Total: 78.8 Male: 81.8 Female: 75.9 Literacy Total: 71.3 Male: 77.6 Female: 65.3 (2017)
Transition rate from primary to lower secondary education (%)		72.2 (2019)
One Laptop Per Child (OLPC) program		75.5% of Rwandan schools (Education Statistics 2018).

Other outcomes:

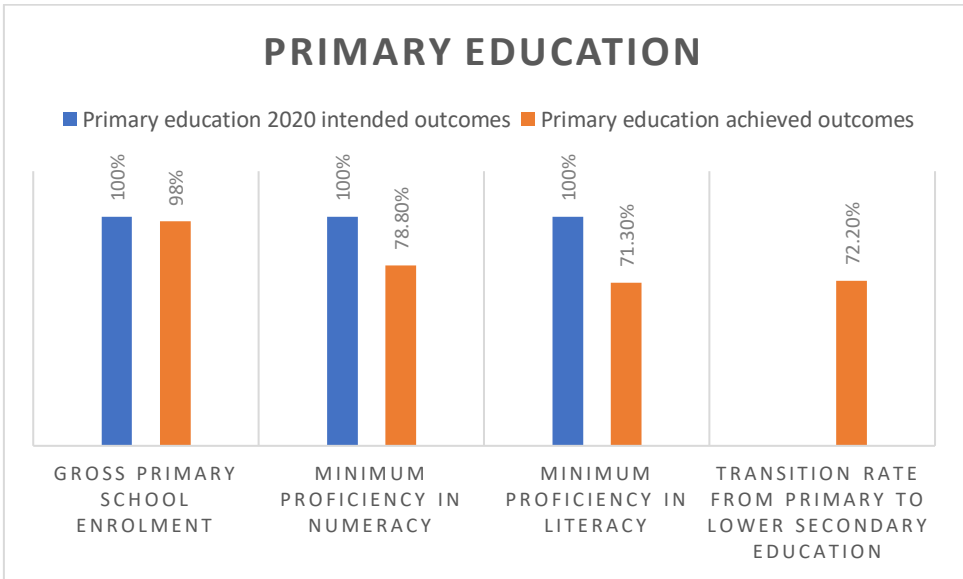
- A special teacher statute was adopted in 2017 and revised in 2019, specifying the aspects of teacher recruitment, promotion and development.

Remaining challenges:

- More than half the population between 4–6 years, 19–21 years and 22–24 years were not participating in education according to the 2017 education statistics publication of the Rwandan Ministry of Education (MINEDUC), equivalent to close to 2.7 million young people in Rwanda out of school.
- Lack of quality education: children in Rwanda can expect to complete 6.5 years of pre-primary and basic education by age 18. However, when this is adjusted for learning it translates to only about 3.8 years, implying that children in Rwanda have a learning gap of 2.7 years.
- Rwanda’s education has deficiencies in teachers’ knowledge of subject content and of pedagogy as well as gaps in practical teaching skills in Rwanda.
- The Rwandan education sector has not succeeded in achieving convergence in outcomes between children from different socio-economic backgrounds: transition rates between primary and lower secondary education is 53% in urban areas, and 33% in rural areas; 52% among the richest quintile, compared with just 26% in the poorest. (2017).

Source : Ingabire, 2019, pp.8, 23- 26.

Graph 15: Primary education, based on Table 35.

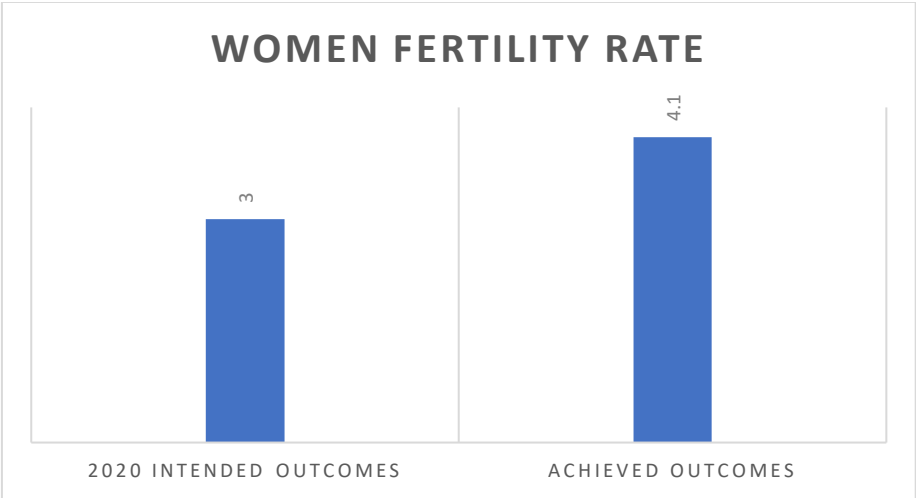


4.3.2.4. Health: maternal and infant health

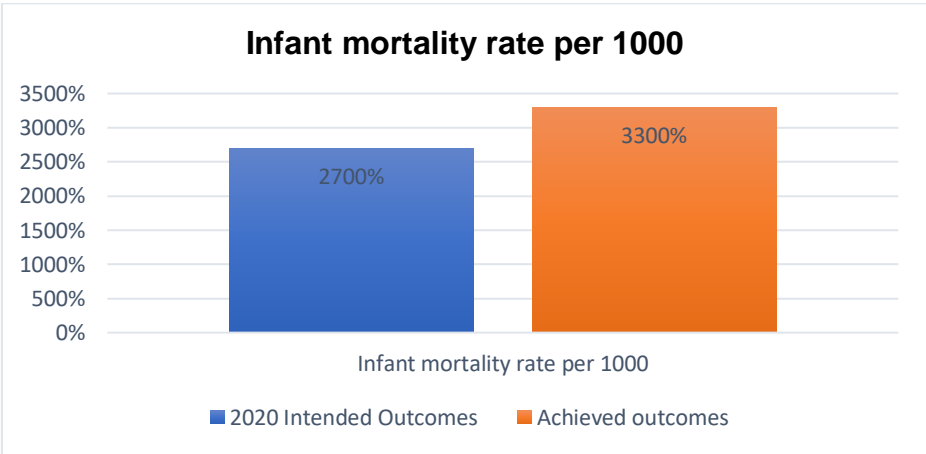
Table 36: Maternal and infant health, based on the Republic of Rwanda, 2012, p. 28.; the Republic of Rwanda, 2020, p. 18; MIGEPROF, 2024; Scaling Up Nutrition Movement, (n.d.); The World Bank- IBRD- IDA, (n.d.).

	2020 Intended Outcomes	Achieved outcomes
Women fertility rate	3	4.1
Infant mortality rate per 1,000	27	33
Maternal mortality rate per 100,000	200	203
Under Five Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)		45
Child Malnutrition		
Acute malnutrition (wasted) %	0.5	1
Chronic malnutrition (%)	15	33.1
Child Stunting (as a % of under 5s)		33
Underweight of children under 5 (%)	8	7.7
Child vaccination		98% of children vaccinated against 12 antigens
Doctors per 100,000 inhabitants	10	12/100000 (2019)
Nurses per 100,000 inhabitants	100	90/100000 (2019)
Midwives per population ratio		1/4,064 (2017)
Number of primary health care services		1,497 (2017)
Average time, in minutes, to reach the nearest health facility		49.9 minutes (2017)
Medical innovations		Use of medical drones to supply life-saving medical products, such as blood and vaccines
Medical digital systems		Electronic Medical Records (EMR), Mobile community-based information systems (RapidSMS)

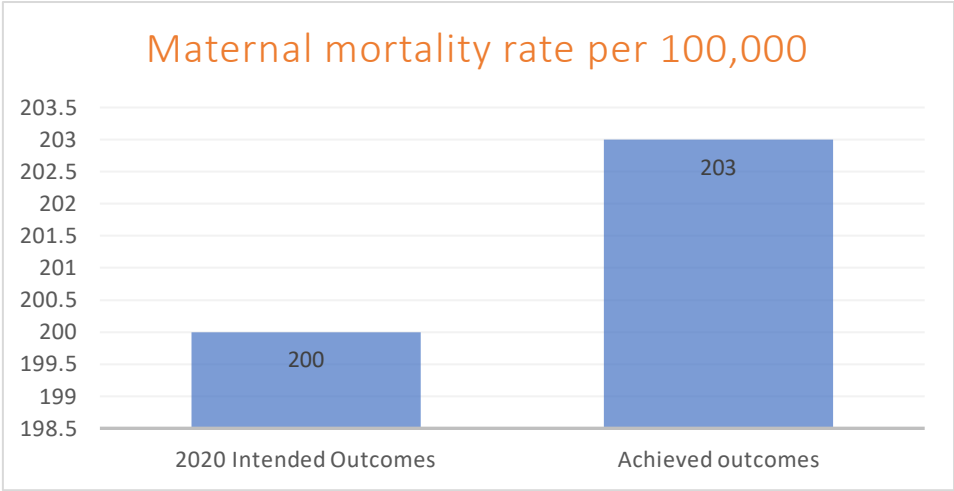
Graph 16: Women’s fertility rate, based on Table 36.



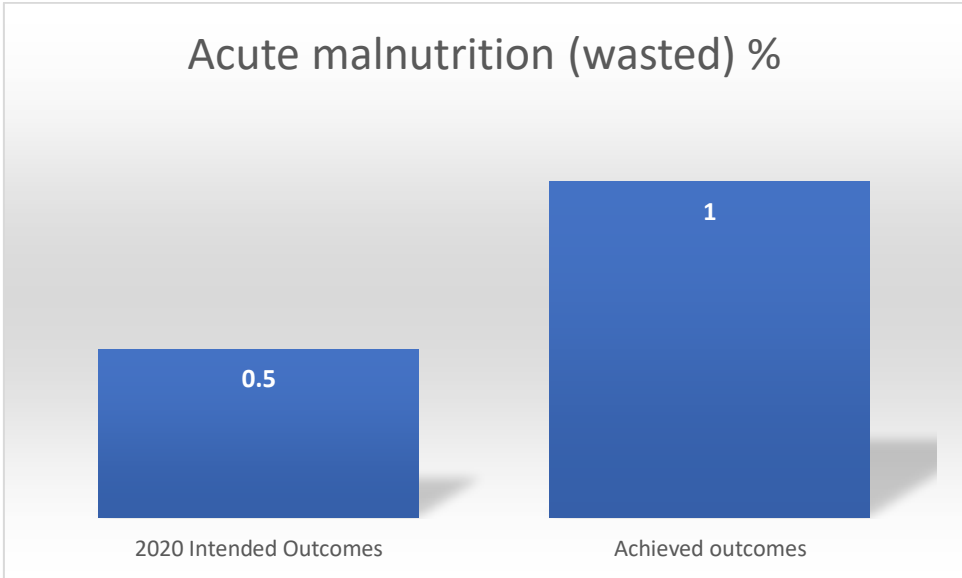
Graph 17: Infant mortality rate per 1000, based on Table 36.



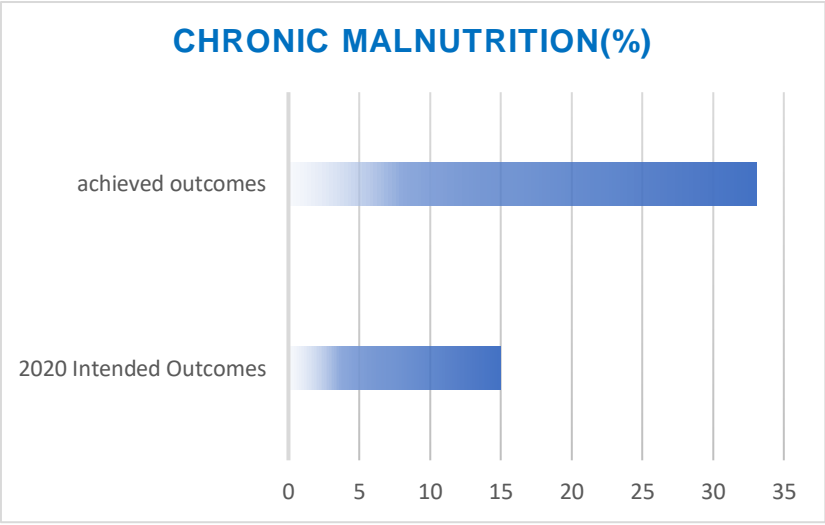
Graph 18: Maternal mortality rate per 100,000, based on Table 36.



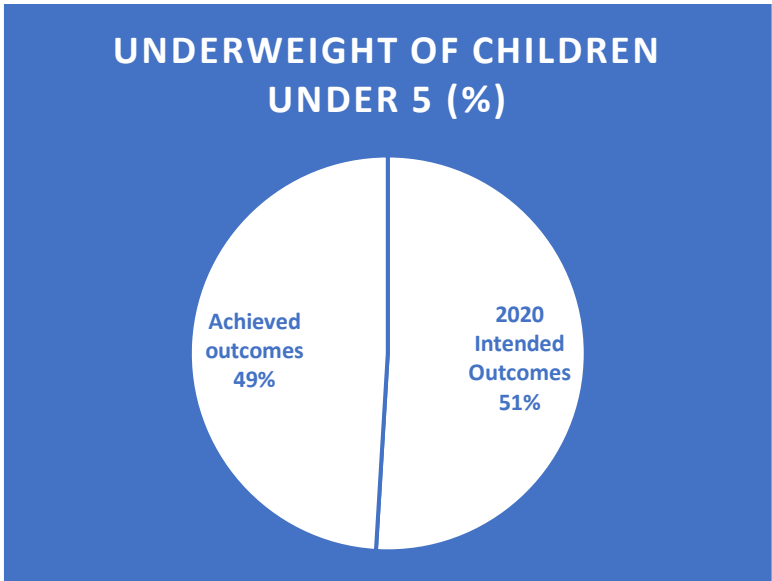
Graph 19: Acute malnutrition (wasted) %, based on Table 36.



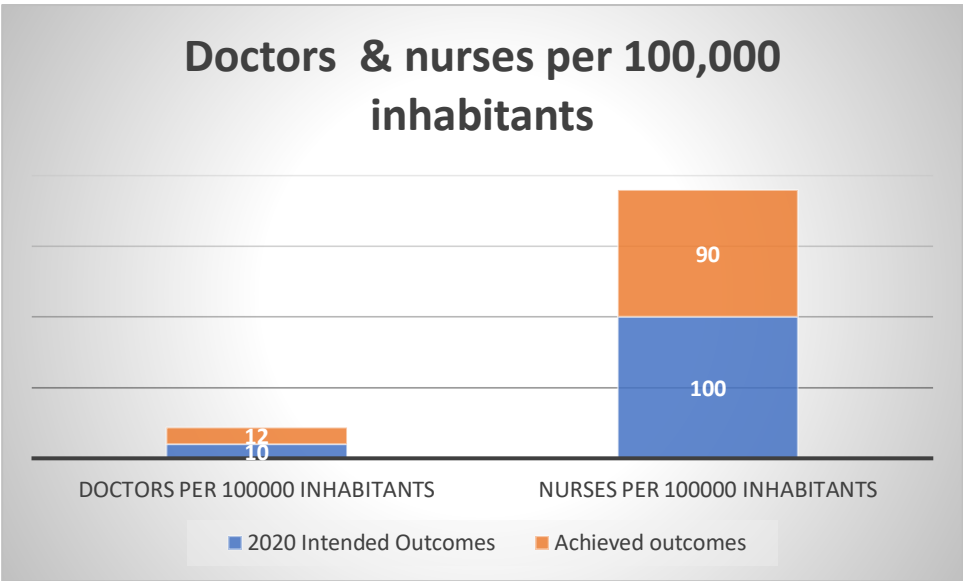
Graph 20: Chronic malnutrition, based on Table 36.



Graph 21: Underweight of Children under 5 %, based on Table 36.



Graph 22: Doctors & nurses per 100000 inhabitants, based on Table 36.



4.3.2.5. Access to Drinking Water

Table 37: Access to drinking water, based on Global Water Partnership, 2022, p. 1.; UNICEF Rwanda, 2022, p. 5.; The DHS Program, 2020.

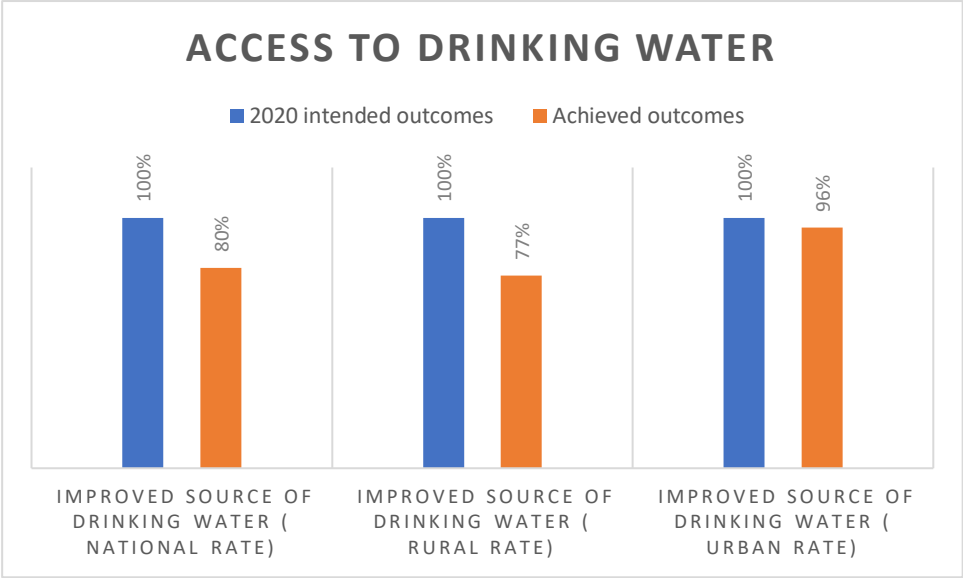
	2020 Intended Outcomes	Achieved outcomes
Water per capita per year		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 670 m³ of water per capita per year (2017)
Drinking water access and water quality levels (% of Population)	100%	<p>TOTAL:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improved source of drinking water: 80% Limited drinking water access: 25% Basic drinking water access: 54% Use of appropriate water treatment methods: 35% <p>RURAL:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improved source of drinking water: 77% Limited drinking water access: 28% Basic drinking water access: 48% Use of appropriate water treatment methods: 32% <p>URBAN</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improved source of drinking water: 96% Limited drinking water access: 10% Basic drinking water access: 85% Use of appropriate water treatment methods: 52%

Remaining challenges:

- Rwanda benefits from abundant rainfall (average 1,200 mm/ annum) but is still characterized as water-scarce due to the high population and limited water storage infrastructures, with only 670 m³ of water per capita per year (Ministry of Environment, 2017).

Source: Global Water Partnership, 2022, p.1.

Graph 23: Access to drinking water, based on Table 37.



4.3.2.6. Access to Electricity

Table 38: Electricity Access, based on Rwanda Vision 2050, p. 21; International Energy Agency; (n.d.); The World Bank IBRD-IDA, (n.d.).

	2020 Intended outcomes	Achieved outcomes
National Access	75% (By 2020)	45.2%
Rural access		34.9%
Urban access		93.9%
Clean cooking		Less than 5%

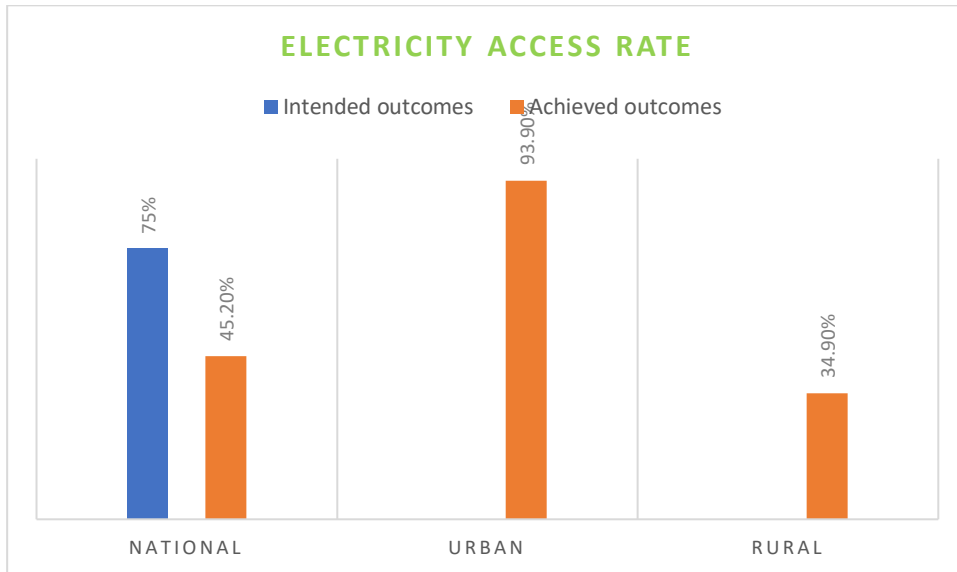
Remaining challenges:

- Regulations, incentives, and financing mechanisms: the absence of regulations for demand-side management, concrete fiscal incentives, and dedicated and stable public funding sources creates barriers to launching energy efficiency measures at scale.
- Agency coordination: Rwanda currently does not have a dedicated energy efficiency agency to coordinate, appraise, and implement energy efficiency-related activities at the national level. This results in a lack of vision and coordinated action.
- Technical capacity: Engaging effectively in the energy efficiency market requires strong technical capacity. The shortage of energy service companies in Rwanda necessitates government support for implementing pilot projects for new technologies.

- Data and information on energy consumption: The lack of granular data for various economic subsectors hinders effective planning. A comprehensive and reliable energy data and information system is recommended to monitor final energy consumption by different end users in the country.

Source: World Bank Blogs, 2024.

Graph 24: Electricity access, based on Table 38.



4.3.3. Efficiency By Effectiveness

Table 39: Efficiency versus Effectiveness, based on UNDP, 2020; USAID (n. d.); Deutsch Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2024; International Monetary Fund. Fiscal Affairs Dept., 2023; Rwanda Governance Board, 2021; Rule of Law Index, 2020; Corruption Perception Index, 2020; Ibrahim Index on African Governance, 2020; World Bank, 2020; Open Data Watch, 2020.

Efficiency By Effectiveness.	Achievements (+)	Challenges (-)
Economic and Corporate Governance	<p>74.65% (Rwanda Governance Board, 2021)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengthen corporate governance especially in the private sector to promote accountability and inclusiveness for economic sustainability.
Rule of law	<p>87.08% (Rwanda Governance Board, 2021)</p> <p>37th/128 (Global), 2nd (Sub Saharan), 61/1 (Score) (Rule of Law Index, 2020)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inadequate access to justice for all. Inadequate access to legal aid and legal services. Time, distance and cost to access the justice system. Low awareness of legal rights and justice services. Inadequate detention conditions for inmates. New and emerging crimes.
Anti-corruption, transparency and accountability	<p>86.77% (Rwanda Governance Board, 2021)</p> <p>49th/180 (Global), 4th (Sub Saharan) 54% (Score) (Corruption Perception Index, 2020)</p> <p>zero-tolerance policy for corruption.</p> <p>Every public servant is required to sign an annual performance contract under Imihigo (“promise” or “pledge”).</p> <p>Office of the Auditor General (Rwanda’s OAG) with good operational independence, no reports of interference from the government, favourable reviews from Transparency International, and winning awards for the quality of its analysis.</p> <p>First and foremost, ownership (and accountability) is promoted through an annual Umushyikirano (National Dialogue).</p> <p>Rigorous monitoring and assessment of policies and programs.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Strengthen citizens’ mobilization and institutions to increase their role in the fight against corruption. Enhance efforts within institutions to ensure compliance and accountability in public finance management to achieve and sustain efficiency in the use of scarce resources. Concerned institutions to devise strategies to mobilize the general public in strengthening the culture of transparency and accountability. Civil society organisations and the media could play a more active role in the democratic process.

<p>Democratic governance</p>	<p>11th /52 (Africa) 60.5% (Score) (Ibrahim Index on African Governance, 2020)</p> <p>A strong advocate for gender equality. The rights of women to own land, to inherit property, to divorce and to be protected against gender-based violence are legally enshrined.</p> <p>The higher proportion of women in parliament than any other country in the world, with 61 per cent of seats held by women.</p> <p>Women hold important positions in the government and the private sector.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Highly centralized political power, nonexistent political opposition, weak civil society, and limited media freedom. • Women, youth, and other marginalized groups have low participation rates in government processes. • Enhance data collection mechanisms to effectively capture diverse citizen needs • Civil society organisations and the media could play a more active role in the democratic process. • Political Rights: 8/ 40 Civil Liberties: 14/ 60 Not free: 22/100 (Freedom in the World, Freedom House, 2022) • Freedom of opinion, freedom of the media and freedom of association are severely restricted, and the space for civil society and parliamentary opposition is limited.
<p>Efficient allocation of public resources</p>	<p>Compared to other sub-Saharan countries and emerging market economies, Rwanda performs well in the design and effectiveness of public investment management institutions.</p> <p>Rwanda is powerful in planning and coordination institutions.</p> <p>Rwanda's planning institutions are powerful, with a comprehensive strategic framework for investment and tight integration of sub-national government investment plans. While the budget is comprehensive and well-unified.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure budget credibility from a technical perspective, rather than a governance perspective. • Reinforce existing monitoring systems to track whether disbursed expenditures are closely aligned with the agreed-upon policy and budget orientations. • Conduct a cost-benefit analysis of some of public spending • Rwanda performs well, though more strongly on design than on effectiveness • Mixed results in allocation and implementation. • Challenges in multi-year budgeting.
<p>Administration and Processes digitalisation</p>	<p>40% of administrative services were available in digital form. (World Bank, 2020)</p> <p>Pioneer in digital technologies in Africa.</p> <p>Irembo citizen e-service portal's created in 2014 to help citizens submit applications and make payments for various services: more than 96 services are just a button push away for more than nine million subscribers and thousands of others.</p> <p>Digital adoption increase.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bringing more Rwandans online, increasing the use of digital services and crowding in the private sector. • Do more to secure online transactions and protect users according, through the expansion of digitally enabled trust services, balanced data protection provisions and stronger cybersecurity capabilities.

Data's international standards of openness	Rwanda ranks 42nd in the Open Data Inventory 2020 with an overall score of 65. Global out of 187: 45 th (Coverage), 39 th (openness), 42 nd (Overall) Eastern Africa out of 16: 1st (Coverage), 1st (Openness), 1st (Overall) (Open Data Watch, 2020)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Address data gaps. • Adopt an open data license for the data portal. • Publish more data in machine-readable formats. • Publish more comprehensive metadata. • Publish more historical data. • Publish more recent data. • Publish more subnational-level data
Quality of public service delivery	81.86% (Rwanda Governance Board 2021)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve delivery of services in Agriculture to satisfy the needs of citizens, particularly focusing on post-harvest management and improvement of the agriculture produce distribution chain. • Enhance access to IT infrastructure and fast-track the use of ICT in service delivery. • Promote a culture of quality service delivery in all sectors.
Participation and inclusiveness	84.19% (Rwanda Governance Board 2021) First and foremost, ownership (and accountability) is promoted through an annual Umushyikirano (National Dialogue) Decentralising power to foster local participation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Civil society has to monitor and advocate more for effective government services. • Increase citizen participation in decision-making. • Build citizen capacity to advocate for responsive and fair government policies.
Strategy, Policy and Delivery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishment of the Ministry of Cabinet Affairs (MINICAAF) whose mission is to help ministries identify a limited set of priorities they could realistically achieve and prepare policy and option papers for the president and ministers. • Establishment of the Strategy and Policy Unit (SPU), located in the President's Office whose main function is to help ministries set achievable objectives and prepare policy documents for the cabinet. • Establishment of The Coordination Unit (CU), part of the Prime Minister's Office, whose role is to increase coordination between government bodies regarding policy and intergovernmental initiatives and to monitor policy implementation. • Establishment of the Presidential Advisory Council, a team of experts from Rwanda and abroad who advised the president on domestic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Despite these relevant strategy, policy and delivery's resources or instruments, issues related to a right design, an effective implementation or an appropriate budgetisation remain.

	<p>issues and promoted a positive image of Rwanda internationally</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishment of a Joint Delivery Committee (JDC) to enable the centre of government to drive the delivery of goals by focusing on a small number of priority projects that could produce high-profile results relatively quickly and demonstrate the effectiveness of the system. • Establishment of the National Leadership Retreat- Umwiherero one of Rwanda's Homegrown Initiatives. 	
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4. 4. Efficiency and effectiveness in Public Policies in Africa: compared analysis of the Senegal Emerging Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020

The compared analysis of these two programmes concerns only a few areas:

- Governance
- Agricultural mechanisation.
- Primary education.
- Mother and child health.
- Access to drinking water.
- Access to electricity.

In addition, the period covered by the study is from 2012 to 2020. Although Rwanda Vision 2000 was launched in 2000, it was revised in 2012. As for the Emerging Senegal Plan, even though it was launched in 2014, it is the synthesis of three (3) Senegalese development strategy documents that predate the Emerging Senegal Plan: the Accelerated Growth Strategy, the National Economic and Social Development Strategy and the Senegal 2035 Prospective Study.

Finally, the compared analysis of the areas identified in these two programmes involves difficulties inherent in their design or evaluation - especially for the Emerging Senegal Plan:

- Some of its outcomes not designed in 2014 are assessed.
- Other outcomes formulated in 2014 are not included in the 2020 evaluation.
- Further, the assessment time of some outcomes has been scheduled by 2020.
- Finally, at the halfway stage, other outcomes have been added to the programme with an achievement exceeding 2020.

4.4.1. Governance

The sole criterion considered is 'Good Governance' with the principles of Accountability, Leadership, Integrity, Stewardship and Transparency, advocated by the Office of the Auditor General Of British Columbia, (n.d.). Furthermore, pieces of information from Tables 15, 33 and the remaining challenges will cement the comparison between the 2 programmes in terms of governance.

Table 40: The Compared Governance based on Tables 15 and 33.

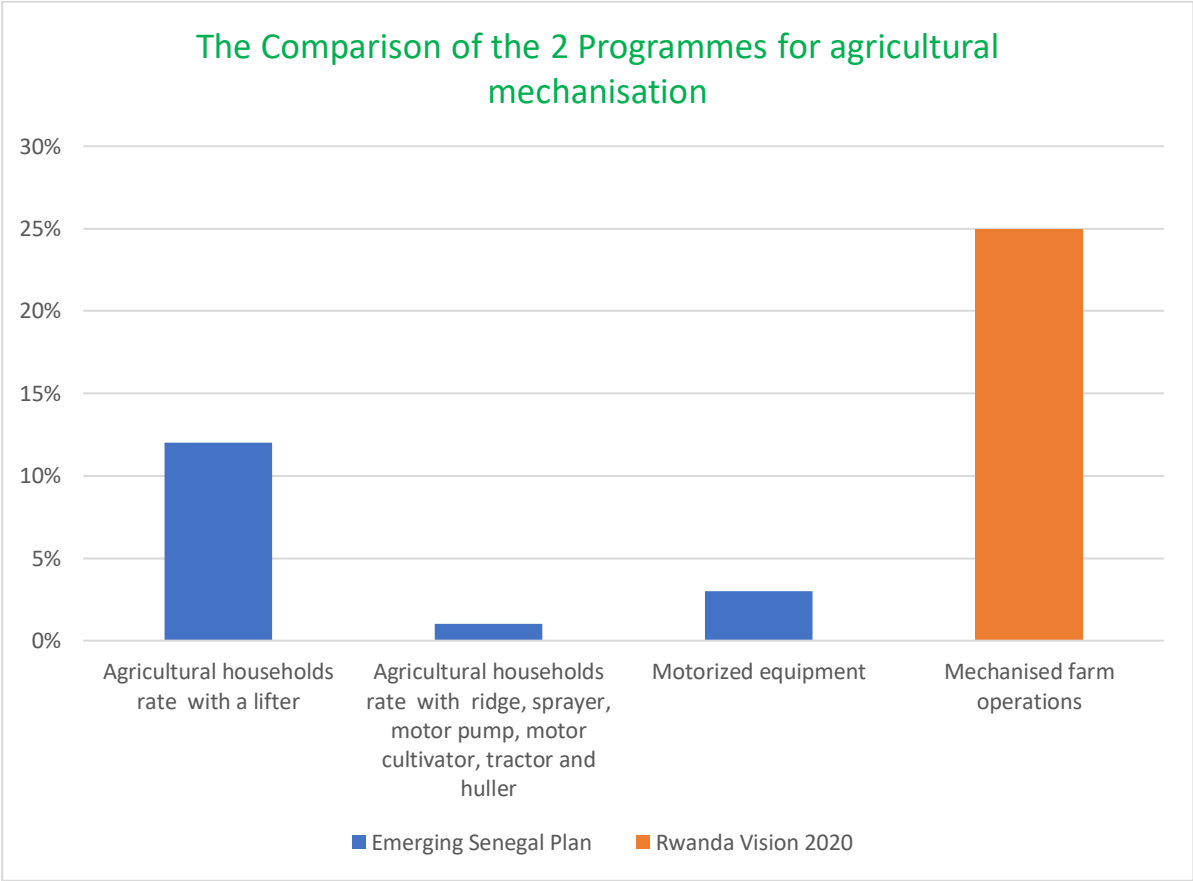
	The Emerging Senegal Plan (PSE)	Rwanda vision 2020
Accountability	-	+
Leadership	-	+
Coherence and coordination	-	+
Integrity	-	+
Stewardship	-	+
Transparency	-	+
Reforms	-	+
Performance-based contracts	-	+
Staff recruitments	-	+
More efficient and transparent administration	-	+

+ = Upper than

- = Lesser than

4.4.2. Agriculture: Mechanisation

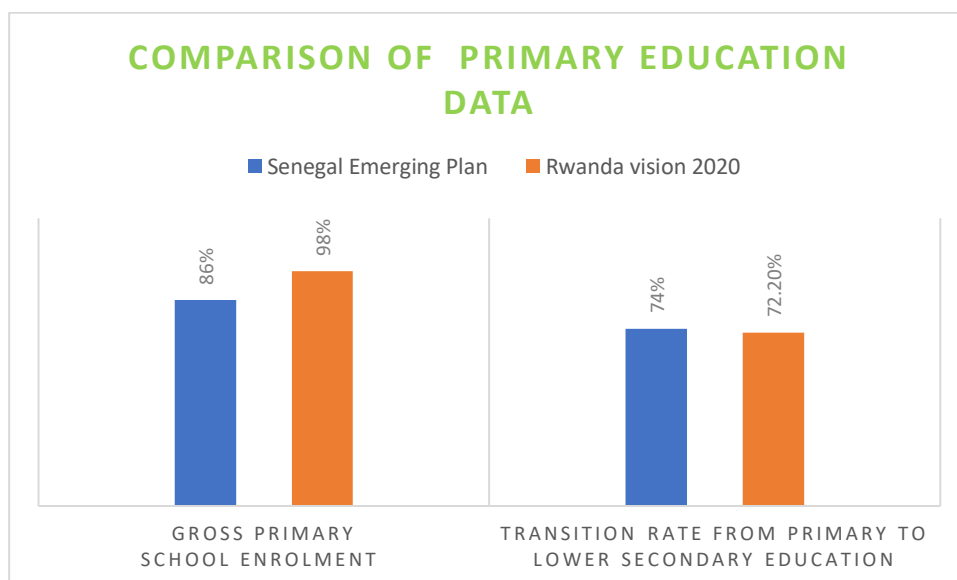
Graph 25: The Comparison of the 2 Programmes for agricultural mechanisation, based on Graphs 2 and 14.



The 4 elements evaluated in the mechanisation of agriculture in the 2 programmes hardly allow for an objective, satisfactory or complete comparison, as they are not homogeneous or common to the 2 programmes. However, regarding a clear agricultural mechanisation policy and results, Rwanda Vision 2020 appears to have superior and convincing results, with almost 25% of farms mechanised.

4.4.3. Education: Primary Education

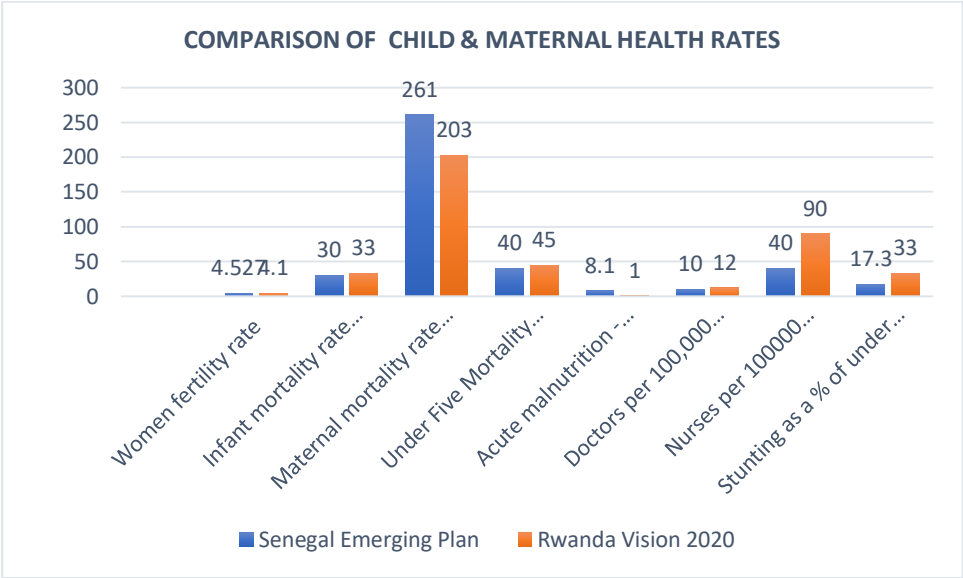
Graph 26: The comparison of Gross Primary School Enrolment and Transition Rate from Primary to lower Secondary Education, based on Graphs 3, 4 and 15.



Regarding the gross primary school enrolment rate, Rwanda Vision 2020 is higher than the Emerging Senegal Plan, with 98% compared to 86%. However, regarding the transition rate from primary to lower secondary education, the Emerging Senegal Plan is superior with 74% compared to 72.2%.

4.4.4. Health: Maternal and infant health

Graph 27: The comparison of Maternal and Infant Health rates, based on Graphs 5 and 16; 6 and 17; 7 and 18; 8 and 19; 9 and 20; 10 and 21; 11 and 22.



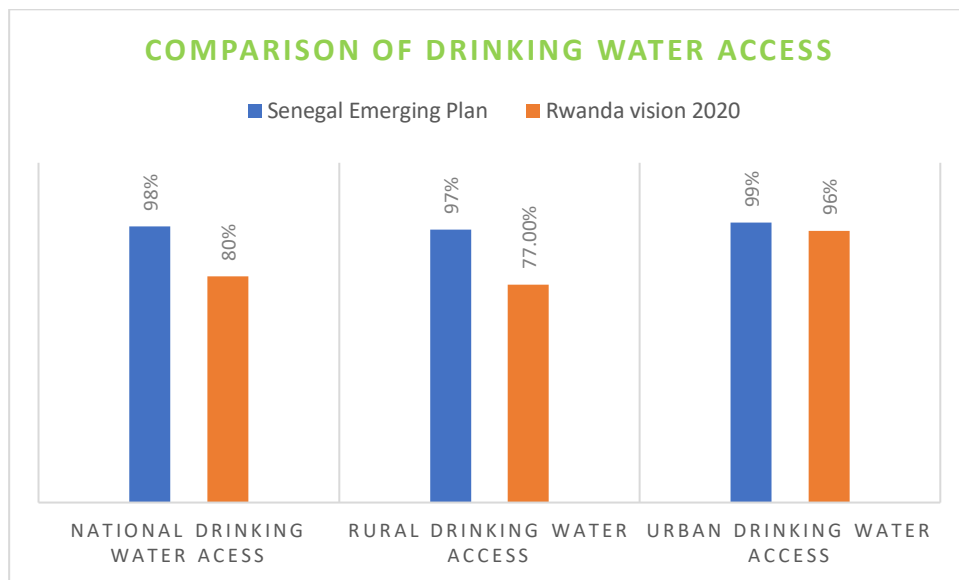
The Compared data on child and maternal health from the 2 programmes give the following indications:

- Women's Fertility Rate: Rwanda Vision 2020 is better than the Emerging Senegal Plan with 4.1 against 4.527.
- Infant Mortality Rate per 1000: The Emerging Senegal Plan is better than Rwanda Vision 2020 with 30 per 1000 against 33 per 1000.
- Maternal Mortality rate per 100000: Rwanda Vision 2020 is better than the Emerging Senegal Plan with 203 against 261.
- Under-five mortality rate per 1000 live births: The Emerging Senegal Plan is better than Rwanda Vision 2020 with 40 against 45.
- Acute malnutrition- wasted: Rwanda Vision 2020 is better than the Emerging Senegal Plan with 1 against 8.1.
- Child Stunting (as a % of under 5s): The Emerging Senegal Plan is better than Rwanda Vision 2020 with a score of 17.3% against 33%.
- Doctors per 100000 inhabitants: Rwanda Vision 2020 is slightly better than the Emerging Senegal Plan with 12 against 10.

- Nurses per 100000 inhabitants: Rwanda Vision 2020 is far superior to the Emerging Senegal Plan with 90 against 40.

4.4.5. Access to Drinking Water

Graph 28: The Comparison of drinking water access, based on Graphs 12 and 23.

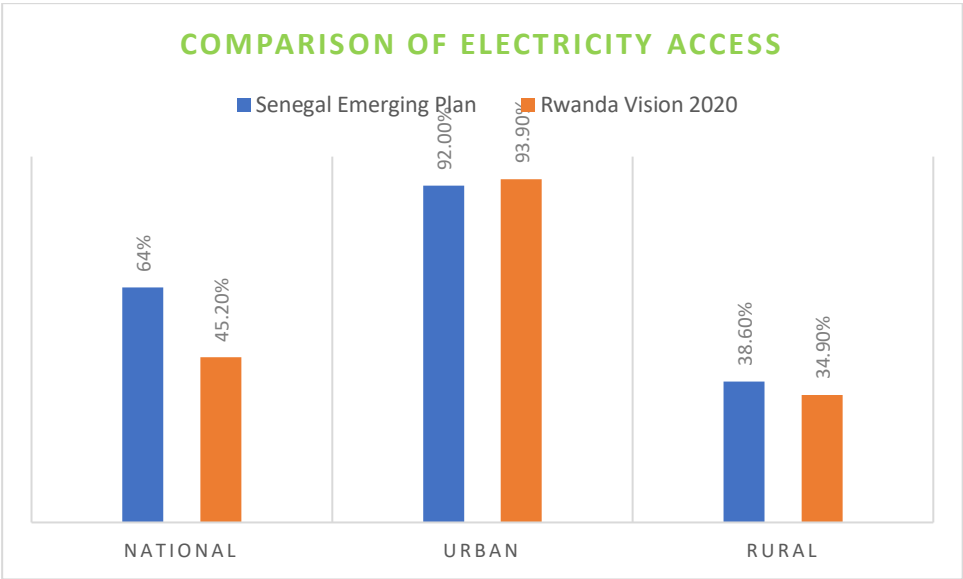


Regarding access to drinking water, national, rural and urban; the Emerging Senegal Plan is superior to Rwanda Vision 2020:

- National: 98% against 80%.
- Rural: 97% versus 77
- Urban: 99% versus 96%

4.4.6. Access to Electricity

Graph 29: The Comparison of Access to Electricity, based on Graphs 13 and 24.



Based on data comparing national, urban, and rural access to electricity, these are the conclusions:

- National: The Emerging Senegal Plan is superior to Rwanda Vision 2020 with 64% against 45.20%.
- Rural: The Emerging Senegal Plan is superior to Rwanda's vision 2020 with 38.60% against 34.90%.
- Urban: Rwanda Vision 2020 is slightly higher than the Emerging Senegal Plan with a score of 93.90% against 92%.

Chapter 5. Discussion

Key Findings summary

The research problem is transcribed in the three questions as follows:

- Have the Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020 public policies on governance, agricultural mechanisation, primary education, mother and child health, and access to drinking water and electricity, designed and effectively implemented over almost a decade, been effective because they are efficient?
- Which of the two socio-economic development programs relating to the areas mentioned above of study has been the most effective and efficient?
- Finally, if one was more effective and efficient than the other, what public management approaches, theories, principles, or practices prevailed and produced such success?

The first question of the research problem is answered by what follows.

Governance

Based on Table 15, about Governance, Peace, and Security, The Emerging Senegal Plan has promoted human rights, freedom of association, and security within the country and its borders against terrorism. However, there are some gaps and remaining challenges:

- The vulnerability to transnational threats such as terrorism, drug trafficking and organised crime.
- Huge gaps in the virtuous management of public resources confirmed by the annual reports of the Senegalese Court of Auditors or the OFNAC (National Office for Combating Fraud and Corruption).
- The alignment of public expenditures with development priorities.
- Defaults in ethics, transparency, accountability, and public expenditures effectiveness.

Based upon Table 33 about good governance and a capable state, the gains of Rwanda Vision 2020 are:

- A leader to transition towards good governance.
- The country's administration was reformed.
- Recruitment practices have been digitalised, anonymised, and effectively based on merit.
- Performance-based contracts are implemented.
- Zero tolerance for corruption is installed.
- Bureaucracy has become more transparent and efficient.
- The capability of delivering results has increased.

The gaps or remaining challenges are as follows:

- An authoritarian regime.
- Rwanda almost depends entirely on foreign aid.
- International donors have a major influence on the executive and can influence the Government's actions.

Agriculture mechanisation

Based on Table 16, The Emerging Senegal Plan has achieved poor outcomes in agriculture mechanisation:

- Integrated agropoles: 00
- Micro-projects to support family farming: 00
- Agricultural households rate with a lifter: 11.9%
- Agricultural households rate with ridge, sprayer, motor pump, motor cultivator, tractor, and huller: 1.5%
- Motorized equipment: Barely 3% of plots

These poor outcomes are accompanied by:

- Landowners who are generally old and illiterate.
- Farm plots that are small and family-owned.

- Current agricultural cooperatives that are neither well-structured nor functional.
- Banks that are unwilling to take the risk of financing agricultural mechanisation.
- The politicisation of the agricultural sector that weakens the sector rather than empowering it.

Based upon Table 34, Rwanda Vision 2020 has achieved almost 25% out of 40% of mechanised farm operations. The ultimate objective wasn't realised- just more than the average. Which means the effectiveness was just above the average. Besides this score, one of the major remaining challenges is that farming by and large remains non-mechanised, farmers mainly use a simple hoe and other equipment to cultivate.

Primary Education

Based upon Table 17, on the Gross Primary School Enrolment Rate and the CM2-6th grade transition rate, The Emerging Senegal Plan has earned highly satisfactory outcomes:

- 85.9% of achieved outcomes, out of 98% of intended outcomes for the Gross Primary School Enrolment Rate.
- 73.9% of achieved outcomes for the CM2- 6th-grade transition rate.

On the other side, based on Table 35, concerning the Gross Primary School Enrolment Rate and the Transition rate from primary to lower secondary education, the outcomes of Rwanda Vision 2020 are outstanding:

- 98% of achieved outcomes out of 100% of intended outcomes for the Gross Primary School Enrolment Rate.
- 72.2% of achieved outcomes for the Transition rate from primary to lower secondary education.

Maternal and Infant Health

Based on Table 18, on the subjects of Women's fertility rate, Infant mortality per 1000, Maternal mortality rate per 100000, Under-five mortality rate per 1000 live births, Acute malnutrition (wasted) and Child stunting (as a % under 5s), the Emerging Senegal Plan has the following mixed outcomes:

- Women's fertility rate: 4.527
- Infant mortality rate per 1000: 30
- Maternal Mortality Rate per 100000: 261
- Under-five mortality rate per 1000 live births: 40
- Acute malnutrition: 8.1%
- Doctors per 100000 inhabitants: 10
- Nurses and midwives per 100000 inhabitants: 40

As for Rwanda Vision 2020, based on Table 36 and the same subjects, its achieved outcomes are excellent except the under-five mortality rate per 1000 live births:

- Women's fertility rate: 4.1 out of 3
- Infant mortality rate per 1000: 33 out of 27
- Maternal Mortality Rate per 100000: 203 out of 200
- Under-five mortality rate per 1000 live births: 45.
- Acute malnutrition: 1 out of 0.5
- Doctors per 100000 inhabitants: 12 out of 12
- Nurses and midwives per 100000 inhabitants: 90 out of 100

Access to drinking water

Based on Table 19, regarding Access to drinking water, The Emerging Senegal Plan obtained excellent outcomes:

- National access to drinking water: 97.6% out of 100%
- Urban access to drinking water: 98.8%
- Rural access to drinking water: 96.5% out of 91%

Despite these outstanding outcomes, serious gaps and challenges remain:

- The salinisation, nitrate pollution and eutrophication threaten surface water quality.
- Aquatic plant invasions of the Senegal River and Lake Guiers limit the usage for drinking.
- Low funding, limited data collection, and sector coordination challenges have impeded the implementation of water management plans.
- High fluoride concentrations in central western and northwestern Senegal increase dental and skeletal fluorosis risks.
- Recurring lack of water and quality of water.
- The professionalisation of water by 4 public service delegates.

Considering Rwanda Vision 2020, based on Table 37, the outcomes achieved on access to drinking water are more than good:

- National access to drinking water: 80% out of 100%
- Urban access to drinking water: 96% out of 100%
- Rural access to drinking water: 96% out of 100%

Nevertheless, regarding the current challenges of drinking water access, Rwanda still faces water scarcity due to the high population and limited water storage.

Access to electricity

Based on Table 20, with Access to electricity, The Emerging Senegal Plan obtained mixed outcomes:

- National access: 64.3%
- Urban access: 92%
- Rural access: 38.6% out of 60 %

The challenges and gaps of the access to electricity are:

- The energy sources diversifying and the energy sector modernizing

- The storage capacity increasing
- The costs reducing
- The coverage increasing of the grid transmission and distribution
- The production, transmission and distribution infrastructure.

Regarding Rwanda Vision 2020, based on Table 38, the mixed outcomes are:

- National access: 45.2% out of 75%
- Urban access: 93.9%
- Rural access: 34.9%.

Furthermore, the second question of the case study is endorsed by the arguments as follows.

Governance

Based on Table 40, speaking of the concept of good governance with a set of principles cited, Rwanda Vision 2020 has been more effective than The Emerging Senegal Plan.

Agriculture mechanisation

Based on Graphs 25, 2, and 14 despite the 2 programmes' data that are not closely common and homogenous and considering the criterion of a clear agricultural mechanisation policy focused on results, Rwanda Vision 2020 outstrips the Emerging Senegal Plan with almost 25% of mechanised farms.

Primary Education

Based on Graphs: 26, 3, 4, and 15 with the criteria of Gross Primary School Enrolment rate and Transition rate from Primary to Lower Secondary Education, the compared outcomes are as follows:

- Gross Primary School Enrolment rate: Rwanda Vision 2020 is higher than the Emerging Plan with 98% against 86%.
- Transition rate from Primary to Lower Secondary Education: The Emerging Senegal Plan is superior to Rwanda Vision 2020 with 74% against 72.20%.

Maternal and Infant Health

Based upon the Graphs 27, 5, 16, 6 and 17; 7 and 18; 8 and 19; 9 and 20; 10 and 21; 11 and 22, the compared outcomes on Maternal and Infant Health give the following indications:

- Women's Fertility Rate: Rwanda Vision 2020 is better than the Emerging Senegal Plan with 4.1 against 4.527.
- Infant Mortality Rate per 1000: The Emerging Senegal Plan is better than Rwanda Vision 2020 with 30 per 1000 against 33 per 1000.
- Maternal Mortality rate per 100000: Rwanda Vision 2020 is better than the Emerging Senegal Plan with 203 against 261.
- Under-five mortality rate per 1000 live births: The Emerging Senegal Plan is better than Rwanda Vision 2020 with 40 against 45.
- Acute malnutrition- wasted: Rwanda Vision 2020 is better than the Emerging Senegal Plan with 1 against 8.1.
- Child Stunting (as a % of under 5s): The Emerging Senegal Plan is better than Rwanda Vision 2020 with a score of 17.3% against 33%.
- Doctors per 100000 inhabitants: Rwanda Vision 2020 is slightly better than the Emerging Senegal Plan with 12 against 10.
- Nurses per 100000 inhabitants: Rwanda Vision 2020 is far superior to the Emerging Senegal Plan with 90 against 40.

Access to drinking water

Based upon Graphs: 28, 12 and 23, on the subject of drinking water access, The Senegal Emerging Plan is more effective than Rwanda Vision 2020:

- National: 98% against 80%.
- Rural: 97% versus 77
- Urban: 99% versus 96%.

Access to Electricity

Based upon Graphs 29, 13 and 24, on access rate to electricity, the conclusions are as follows:

- National: The Emerging Senegal Plan is superior to Rwanda Vision 2020 with 64% against 45.20%.
- Rural: Emerging Senegal Plan is superior to Rwanda vision 2020 with 38.60% against 34.90%.
- Urban: Rwanda Vision 2020 is slightly higher than the Emerging Senegal Plan with a score of 93.90% against 92%.

The third question concerning if one was more effective and efficient than the other, what public management approaches, theories or practices prevailed and produced such success, can be elucidated by the following response.

Based on Table 40 and Graph 25, Rwanda Vision 2020 has been more efficient and effective in Governance and Mechanised agriculture. Additionally, based on Graph 26, Rwanda Vision 2020 is more effective than the Emerging Senegal Plan in Gross Primary School Enrolment. Considering Maternal and Infant Health- based on Graph 27, Rwanda Vision 2020 is more effective than the Emerging Senegal Plan in 5 comparison criteria out of 8. Finally, based on Graph 28, while the Emerging Senegal Plan is more effective in drinking water access, Rwanda Vision 2020 is less effective in electricity access except for urban access. Overall, Rwanda Vision 2020 is more efficient and effective than the Emerging Senegal plan in 3 areas of comparison out of 5; and challenges the Emerging plan in access to electricity.

The following theories, principles, models and practices of public management can be used to analyse and explain Rwanda Vision 2020's success of the Emerging Senegal Plan.

One of the features of Rwanda Vision 2020's success is the good public leadership exercised first and foremost by President Kagame and by all the public managers at every stage of the programme's design and implementation. Analysed according to the Public Service Leadership Model advocated by the Partnership for Public Service, and

proven by the public management of this socio-economic programme, this has resulted in the creation, implementation and coherence of several public institutions:

- The Presidential Advisory Council, a team of experts from Rwanda and abroad who advised the president on domestic issues and promoted a positive image of Rwanda internationally.
- The Ministry of Cabinet Affairs (MINICAAF) is under the control of the Prime Minister's Office.
- The Strategy and Policy Unit is located in the President's Office and its main function is to help ministries set achievable objectives and prepare policy documents for the cabinet
- The Coordination Unit was part of the Prime Minister's Office, and its role is to increase coordination between government bodies regarding policy and intergovernmental initiatives and to monitor policy implementation.
- The Joint Delivery Committee (JDC) to enable the centre of government to drive the delivery of goals by focusing on a small number of priority projects that could produce high-profile results relatively quickly and demonstrate the effectiveness of the system
- The Africa Governance Initiative (AGI), a nonprofit organization founded by Tony Blair, embedded staff members to help coach and ease the work of the Government's organizational transition.
- The Government's retreats- Umwiherero in Rwanda's official language, Kinyarwanda, bring the government's senior leadership together to set priorities for the year ahead and discuss the country's progress toward achieving the goals of Vision 2020

Then the four core values they prioritise, and the critical competencies they demonstrate, to make this programme's areas successful were:

- **Becoming self-aware** with the following sub-competencies: Self-reflection, Authenticity, Emotional intelligence, Integrity and Continuous learning.

- **Engaging Others** with the following sub-competencies: Relationship building, Empowering Others, Collaboration, Conflict management, Diversity, Equity and Inclusion.
- **Leading Change** with the following sub-competencies: vision Setting, influence, Innovation and Creativity, Embracing Risk and Uncertainty, and Adaptability.
- **Achieving Results** with the following sub-competencies: Accountability, Evidence-based Decision-making, Systems Thinking, Tech Savviness and Customer Experience.

Furthermore, the success of Rwanda Vision 2020 in the areas studied depends on good practice in public governance. Public governance is the strategic formulation and implementation of innovative, relevant and timely public policies that respond to the needs of citizens and are the effective expression of the Government's commitments to them. The managerial approach of the Rwandan Government under Kagame, which, starting with government retreats, creates a dialogue between the nation's driving forces, prioritises, plans, implements, monitors and evaluates, in a rational and coordinated management of all available resources of various kinds, is a perfect illustration of this. Rwanda Vision 2020 was designed and implemented entirely by Rwandans. From the outset, this gave it the popular legitimacy and citizen ownership needed to make it easy to implement.

Moreover, Rwanda Vision 2020 owes its success to the effective use of public administration - the machinery of the state, responsible for implementing policy through the daily activities and logistics required at each level, such as putting out and tracking tenders, and monitoring the projects. For Rwanda Vision 2020, it has been a good counterpart to the Government and a good relay for the successful implementation of a vision.

In contrast to Rwanda Vision 2020 and Kagame's good political and public leadership, the Emerging Senegal Plan and President Sall have made many public leadership mistakes:

- The creation of institutions: the Ministry of the Emerging Senegal Plan and the Operational Monitoring Office (BOS), which are incapable of working together in synergy, especially after the departure of Minister Mahammed Boun Abdallah Dionne.
- The inability of the Operational Monitoring Office (BOS) to carry out its work of supporting the various ministries and gathering information from them in real-time, due to a lack of resources, prerogatives and full support from the hierarchy.
- The inability to coordinate the contributions of the various ministries to the cross-cutting projects of the Emerging Senegal Plan - in particular, the creation and implementation of agropoles.
- The lack of virtuous and efficient management of financial resources for certain major projects, such as the agropoles.
- The commissioning of the American international consultancy firm McKinsey to design the Emerging Senegal Plan, at an estimated cost of FCFA 2.5 billion, made the legitimacy and ownership of this programme problematic and posed a problem of rationalisation of resources. What's more, the Senegalese government had to mount major campaigns - committing additional financial resources - to publicise the programme and make it known to the Senegalese people, with the programme being over-politicised by President Sall's party, the Alliance for the Republic (APR).

Furthermore, towards the end of his first seven-year term and at the start of his second term, President Sall politicised his government and administration to a great extent. As a result, they were unable to play their proper role as partisan and incompetent actors who put into practice the public management principles of efficiency and effectiveness to produce convincing and planned results.

Interpretations

The duly referenced data catalogued, compared and led to reasoned conclusions are closely interrelated. The study plan bears this out in abundance. First, the data on expected results in terms of efficiency and effectiveness are discussed, followed by the data on actual results, and then, based on the results, the compared data and conclusions.

And it's fair to say that I welcome and appreciate the results and conclusions of this study. Part of the reason for this research was my desire to assess the impact of the principles and practices of efficient and effective public management on public policies in Africa, in a compared scenario. The Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020 provided more than satisfactory answers.

This is good news in terms of questioning the practice of public management in Africa. This study is timely; it enriches the literature in this field and opens up an interesting gap in the study of public management in general in Africa and more specifically in its application to public policy. Based on the literature I have reviewed in the field, the studies and publications are more the work of leading American researchers, economists, socio-economists or simply senior officials in African ministries of the economy and finance. Moreover, the literature on the subject concerning Africa is much more abundant in English-speaking East and Southern Africa - certainly because they were trained and practised in public management earlier and more than the French-speaking countries, due to the influence of the United States or the United Kingdom. Still, on the subject of this study, I was surprised to note that for the Emerging Senegal Plan, despite very average or even mediocre public management practices at times, this programme in the areas of access to water and electricity outshines Rwanda Vision 2020 and challenges it in the area of mother and child health. The explanation could be Senegal's stability, the great support of its technical and financial partners - Senegal being one of their beloved children - or the long tradition of the State or public administration, even if these need to be reformed.

Implications

The relevance of my research is to be considered and analysed according to several aspects:

- The obtaining of a compared analysis in public management of two major modern socio-economic development programmes in two countries, Senegal and Rwanda, by two African political leaders Kagame and Sall.
- The originality of questioning the Dakar-Kigali axis, which differs in almost every way: geographical and economic affiliation, language, peoples, internal and international political orientations and national history.
- The contribution of data and conclusions that are accurate, fresh and specific to a compared public management in Africa.

As for the implications of this study, they lie in the possibility of transferring its conclusions to their application in the management of public policies in Africa - given that sometimes or often, these are formulated and implemented in a way that does not conform to public management. This also means that this study is an invitation to formulate and implement more appropriate public policies in Africa - a guarantee of success. This requires a mastery of Public Management in its theories, principles, practical concepts or articulations; and the permanent effort of African States to learn, assimilate and practice and to question themselves in this field.

The conclusions that can be drawn from this study are as follows:

- The ability of the public policies studied in these 2 programmes to produce the expected results depends largely on the application of the management principle of efficiency.
- Rwanda Vision 2020, which has applied the principle of efficiency and other public management principles such as leadership and public governance more effectively, together with good public administration, has produced better results than the Emerging Senegal Plan.

- A government content with the administrative management of yesteryear and disdaining the practice of public management in the conduct of its public policies will find it difficult to produce good results.

Limitations

I must confess, however, that I had to deal with several difficulties and limitations in carrying out this study:

- The difficulty of obtaining relevant, fresh, accurate and complete data - especially concerning the Emerging Senegal Plan, since such data is fragmented, often incomplete or produced by partisan and non-neutral institutions.
- The polite refusal of certain senior government officials to respond favourably to my request to administer a questionnaire for my information gathering - the case of certain senior officials in the ministries involved in the study in Rwanda.
- The lack of diverse and reliable sources of neutral information obliged me to resort either to government sources that were sometimes highly politicised and partisan, or to those of the donors who finance and evaluate.

But beyond these limits and difficulties, the data obtained has a certain content and reliability, the approach used is indeed scientific and the results obtained are trustworthy. Therefore, I can safely say that this research's conclusions are very valid.

Recommendations

The conclusions and implications of this study naturally lead to several recommendations that can be implemented in the context of public management in general and the management principles of efficiency and effectiveness.

In practical terms, effective and efficient public policies require good strategic planning and execution, which means explicitly:

- Identifying the social problem to be solved: education, health, water, electricity, housing, mobility, etc.
- Drawing up strategic objectives.

- Developing policy options, evaluating them and choosing the most optimal one.
- Implementing the public policy(ies) designed.
- Monitoring and evaluating them.

Never lose sight of the fact that, from start to finish, the principles of efficiency and effectiveness must permeate the various stages of the process.

The efficiency and effectiveness of public policies in Africa, the compared cases of the Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda 2020, can be considered as a preamble or introduction to other research topics:

- The problem of good planning and implementation of public policies or development programs in Africa.
- The African contribution to public management, based on certain successful experiences on the continent.
- Experimentation with the principles of efficiency and effectiveness in an environment of scarce resources in Africa; in its quest for development.

Chapter 6. Conclusions

The first question asks whether the Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020 have been efficient and effective in the areas of governance, mechanisation of agriculture, primary education, mother and child health, and access to water and electricity, and the right and appropriate answers are:

- Concerning governance, while Rwanda Vision 2020 has been efficient and effective, the Emerging Senegal Plan hasn't.
- Regarding the mechanisation of agriculture, Rwanda Vision 2020 has been more than moderately efficient and effective. As for the Emerging Senegal Plan, with mediocre results, it has been neither efficient nor effective.
- On the subject of primary education, in the specific areas of gross primary school enrolment and transition rate from primary to lower secondary education, the 2 programmes - the Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020, have been highly efficient and effective.
- Considering mother and child health in the areas of women fertility rate, infant mortality rate per 1000, Maternal Mortality Rate per 100000, Under-five mortality rate per 1000 live births, acute malnutrition, doctors per 100000 inhabitants, Nurses and midwives per 100000 inhabitants, the 2 programmes have mixed results.
- Speaking of access to drinking water at national, rural and urban levels, Rwanda Vision 2020 and the Emerging Senegal Plan have been very efficient and effective.
- With access to electricity, the Emerging Senegal Plan at national and urban levels has produced very satisfactory results in terms of efficiency and effectiveness. As for Rwanda Vision 2020, except for the urban access rate, which is excellent, the national and rural access rates are below average.

The second question asks which of the two socio-economic development programmes relating to the areas of study mentioned above has been the most effective and efficient; the answers to it are:

- Concerning governance, Rwanda Vision 2020 has been more efficient and effective than the Emerging Senegal Plan.
- About the mechanisation of agriculture, Rwanda Vision 2020 has been more efficient and effective than the Emerging Senegal Plan.
- Regarding primary education, while for gross primary school enrolment, Rwanda 2020 was more efficient and effective than the Emerging Senegal Plan, with the transition rate from primary to lower secondary education the Emerging Senegal Plan was more efficient and effective.
- As for mother and child health, in the infant mortality rate per 1000, the under-five mortality rate per 1000 live births, and child stunting (as a % of under 5 s), The Emerging Senegal Plan was more efficient and effective than Rwanda Vision 2020. However, with the women's fertility rate, the maternal mortality rate per 100000, acute malnutrition- wasted, doctors per 100000 inhabitants and nurses per 100000 inhabitants, Rwanda Vision 2020 was more efficient and effective than The Emerging Senegal Plan.
- Considering access to drinking water, The Emerging Senegal Plan was more efficient and effective than Rwanda Vision 2020 at national, rural and urban levels.
- On the subject of access to electricity, except for the urban access rate, The Emerging Senegal Plan has been more efficient and effective than Rwanda Vision 2020.

The third question is whether one was more effective and efficient than the other; what public management approaches, theories, principles or practices prevailed and produced such success. Based on the data comparing the Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020, the latter has been far more efficient and effective. Rwanda Vision 2020 had better political and public leadership from President Kagame and its public managers. There has also been the creation, implementation and coherence of good and timely public institutions. Finally, Rwanda Vision 2020 has seen good

practice in public governance and appropriate use of public administration. This was not the case with the Emerging Senegal Plan, which, under President Sall, made many public and political leadership mistakes, especially at the end of his first term and the beginning of his second term - over-politicised his government and administration.

The research process encompassed these following components:

- The identification of the research study's primary objective which is, through the comparison of precise areas of 2 development programmes in 2 African countries, by the principles of efficiency and effectiveness, to reach meaningful conclusions relating to effectiveness and efficiency, and to contribute significantly to the field of public management.
- Based on this clear objective, the consistent research approach or method chosen has been inductive reasoning.
- The data research was a combination of quantitative and qualitative data. Starting from a consideration of 5 areas of study of the 2 programmes: governance, primary education, mother and child health, access to drinking water and electricity, and based on their planned objectives in terms of results, I collected quantitative and qualitative data.
- Finally, to ensure the collected data's accuracy, relevance, and reliability, I used data triangulation by utilizing multiple data collection methods or sources.

Solving the problem of this thesis introduces or is the preamble to other burning issues of public management in Africa:

- The problem of good planning and implementation of public policies or development programs in Africa.
- The African contribution to public management, based on certain successful experiences on the continent.
- Experimentation with the principles of efficiency and effectiveness in an environment of scarce resources in Africa.

My contribution through this research study in public management can be envisaged as follows:

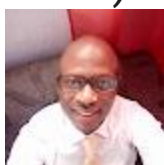
- The provision of relevant, reliable and fresh data from a compared study of two major African development programmes, in crucial areas such as public governance, education, health, agriculture, and access to water and electricity.
- The provision of reliable conclusions, based on reliable and relevant data; appropriate study methodology, efficiency and effectiveness, in the implementation of two African development programmes.
- A significant contribution to the study of the practice of public management in sub-Saharan Africa through the sole sovereign will of African leaders and not imposed by international organisations such as the World Bank to satisfy market needs, as has been the case in the past in many African countries.
- The extension of this study to other key research topics in public management in Africa: The problem of good planning and implementation of public policies or development programs in Africa; the African contribution to public management, based on certain successful experiences on the continent; experimentation with the principles of efficiency and effectiveness in an environment of scarce resources in Africa.

A compared study of the Emerging Senegal Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020, as public policies in Africa, through efficiency and effectiveness; in the areas of governance, agriculture mechanisation, primary education, mother and child health and access to water and electricity, leads to the following conclusion: Rwanda Vision 2020 has been more efficient and effective than the Emerging Senegal Plan.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: EMAIL TO RWANDA AGRICULTURE MINISTER

Data on Rwanda's agriculture (Vision 2020, revised 2012)



Lucien Ndong <lucienndong@gmail.com>

mer. 3 avr.
13:19

À info

Dear Dr. Ildephonse Musafiri

I am Lucien Ndong; I am from Senegal, and I work at the Tony Blair Institute in Senegal as a Senior Advisor in Digital Health. At the same time, I am pursuing a PhD in public management, at Selinus University, the subject of which is 'Efficiency and effectiveness of public policies in Africa: compared analysis of Senegal Emerging Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020 - revised 2012.'

Then I do need your staff's support to gather Rwanda's agriculture data from 2012 to 2020.

Below, are the questions:

- . On the transformation of agriculture into a productive high value and market-oriented agriculture, were there any targets related to fertiliser production? If so, what results have been achieved in terms of quantities produced or production infrastructure?
- . Were there farms dedicated to family farming? If so, how many were built between 2012 and 2020? What contribution have they made to the country's agricultural production or the goal of food self-sufficiency?
- . Have any agropoles been created? If so, how many have been created? And what contribution have they made to national agricultural production?
- . What results have been achieved in mechanising agriculture?
- . If agriculture performed well between 2012 and 2020, what were the key success factors in terms of financial, human and material resources, etc..?

Best regards

Lucien Ndong

+ 221781266719

APPENDIX 2: EMAIL TO RWANDA HEALTH MINISTER

Rwanda vision 2020 (Revised 2012): data on health



Lucien Ndong <lucienndong@gmail.com>

mer. 3 avr.
13:45

À info

Dear Dr Dr. Sabin Nsanzimana,

I am Lucien Ndong; I am from Senegal, and I work at Tony Blair Institute in Senegal as a Senior Advisor in Digital Health. At the same time, I am pursuing a PhD in public management, at Selinus University, the subject of which is 'Efficiency and effectiveness of public policies in Africa: compared analysis of Senegal Emerging Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020 - revised 2012.

Then I do need your staff's support to gather Rwanda Vision 2020 (revised 2012) on health achievements, 2012 - 2020:

- . Women's fertility rate?
- . Infant mortality rate per 1,000?
- . Maternal mortality rate per 100,000?
- . Child Malnutrition?
- . Acute malnutrition (wasted) %?
- . Underweight (%).
- . What were the success factors?
- . How have you efficiently managed resources to have effective results?

In return, I will send you a copy, once the thesis is defended in June- September 2024.

Best regards

Lucien Ndong

+ 221781266719

APPENDIX 3: EMAIL TO RWANDA EDUCATION MINISTER

Rwanda vision 2020 - Revised 2012: education data



Lucien Ndong <lucienndong@gmail.com>

mer. 3 avr.
13:34

À info

Dear Minister,

I am Lucien Ndong; I am from Senegal, and I work at Tony Blair Institute in Senegal as a Senior Advisor in Digital Health. At the same time, I am pursuing a PhD in public management, at Selinus University, the subject of which is 'Efficiency and effectiveness of public policies in Africa: compared analysis of Senegal Emerging Plan and Rwanda Vision 2020 - revised 2012.'

Then I do need your staff's support to gather Rwanda Vision 2020 (revised 2012) on education achievements, 2012 - 2020:

- . Primary school literacy rate %?
- . Gross primary school enrollment %?
- . Pupils qualified teachers ratio in the primary?
- . What were the success factors?

In return, I will send you a copy, once the thesis is defended in June- September 2024.

Best regards

Lucien Ndong

+ 221781266719

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