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**AN ASSESSMENT OF RECENT TRENDS IN THE USE OF
EXPATRIATE TECHNICAL EXPERTS IN SELECTED
COUNTRIES IN SSA**

by

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TECHNICAL EXPERTS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES IN SSA**

Study conducted for the African Capacity Building Foundation, Harare Zimbabwe

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(Second DRAFT)

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Abbreviations

| | |
|---------|---|
| ACBF | African Capacity Building Foundation's |
| ANSD | Agence Nationale de la Statistique et de la Démographique |
| BCEAO | Banque Central des Etas de l'Afrique de l'Ouest |
| BEAC | Banques des Etats de l'Afrique Centrale |
| CAPES | Center of Analysis of the Economic policies and Social |
| CASC | Central Administrative Support Center |
| CCIMA | Cameroon Chamber of Commerce, Industry, Mines and Crafts |
| CEPOD | Centre d'Etudes et de Politique Pour le Développement |
| CESAG | Centre d'Etudes Supérieur Africain en Gestion |
| CESAG | National Agency for Statistics and Demography, the African Center of Higher Studies in Management |
| CMAP | Collaborative Master's Program in Economics |
| CREED | Christian Relief and Development Organization |
| DFID | Department for International Development |
| DPSM | Directorate of Public Service Management |
| ECA | Economic Commission for Africa |
| ENA | Ecole Nationale d'Administration |
| ENA | National School of Administration |
| ENAM | Ecole Nationale d'Administration et de Magistrature |
| EPM | Economic Policy Analysis and Management Programs |
| ETE | Expatriate Technical Experts |
| FTE | Forgien Technico Expert |
| FTES | Foreign Technical Experts |
| GIS | Geographical Information Systems |
| IAPM | Institut Africain de Professionnalisation en Management. |
| IDEP | Institut des Nations Unies pour le Développement et la Planification |
| IMF | International Monetary Fund |
| IOM | International Organization for Migration |
| MDG | Millennium Development Goals |
| MEFMI | Macroeconomic and Financial Management Institute |
| NDP-1 | First National Development Plan |
| NDP3 | National Development Plan Three |
| NPTCI | New Program of Third Inter-University Cycle |
| NPTCI | Nouveau Programme de Troisième Cycle Interuniversitaire |
| ODI | Overseas Development Institute |
| OECD | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| PACT | Partnership for Capacity Building in Africa |
| PARECAP | Projet de renforcement de l'Interface Etat –Secteur Privé et Société civile |
| PNDP | Programme National de Développement Participatif |
| PNDP | National Community-driven Development Programme |

| | |
|-----------|---|
| PRSP | Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers |
| PTCI | La Programme de Troisieme Cycle Inter Universitaire en Economie |
| REPOA | Research on Poverty Alleviation |
| SUP de Co | Ecole Supérieur de Commerce |
| TA | Technical Assistance |
| TANGO | Tanzania Association of Non-Governmental Organizations |
| TC | Technical Cooperation |
| TCCIA | Tanzania Chamber Of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture |
| TSPF | Tanzania Private Sector Foundation |
| UNAM | University of Namibia |
| UNDP | United Nations Development Programme |
| WAIFEM | West African Institute for Financial and Economic Management |
| WB | World Bank |

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1. INTRODUCTION

Weak capacity and not too successful attempts at previous capacity building efforts have been highlighted as critical problems in Africa's development (Ahmed and Hanson, 2011). Governments and donors recognise the harmful effects of capacity constraints on the development process. In a bid to address the issue of capacity, many development partners intensified the use of foreign technical experts both as a means of building local capacity and executing results oriented development projects. Technical assistance was conceived as a conduit for transferring skills to local people, strengthening organisations and improving the functioning of systems such as financial management and healthcare systems in developing countries (Berg, 2002). A recent World Bank study reveals that in 1997, technical assistance represented about one-quarter of bilateral assistance to Africa with estimates from multilateral assistance in excess of this figure. Thus technical assistance has become one of the largest components of official development assistance to Africa (World Bank, 2000).

However, fears have been expressed about the overall impact of technical assistance in Africa. The use of foreign technical experts is often anchored on the expectations that as much as possible, technical experts should build local capacity and utilise domestic expertise for national development. This is critical for indigenous ownership and hence sustainability of the development process. The development process is indigenous when it is locally owned and utilises local skills and institutions. The sustainability of the process is also enhanced when institutions and skills are owned by nationals. Ownership of the development process gained acceptance in the development community in the late 1990s because of its focus on long term development¹.

Since inception, the need to build local capacity and thus ensure a sustainable development process has formed the bedrock of the African Capacity Building Foundation's (ACBF) intervention in the African development process. From its establishment in 1992, ACBF embarked upon funding policy institutes and training programs both to strengthen the capacity of recipients and increase the supply of local expertise in development policy analysis and management. Since 1992, ACBF has committed over US\$400 million in support of some 246 programmes and projects in 44 Sub-Saharan African countries most of them higher education and policy research and training institutions. Beneficiaries of ACBF interventions now man positions of responsibilities in Finance, Economic planning and development, Central banks, National treasuries, Universities, Statistical bureaus, Foreign affairs, and Regional, bilateral and multilateral organizations in Africa.

The expectation is that a sustained presence by the Foundation would eventually mitigate the flow of foreign technical experts and build sustained capacity. The questions however remain:

¹ The Comprehensive Development Framework (CDF) was popularized by the World Bank in the late 1990s as a means of ensuring comprehensive, results-oriented development agenda.

- To what extent has ACBF interventions reduced or mitigated recourse by national governments to the use of expatriate technical staff?
- Why do SSA countries still rely on Non-African experts for the realisation of their developmental goals?

1.1 Goals and Objectives of the Study

This study seeks to assess recent trends in the recruitment of foreign technical experts vis-à-vis local professional staff, and the extent to which local or regional training programs — including those funded by ACBF — have mitigated the demand for expatriate technical experts in SSA. Specifically, the Study seeks to:

- (i) Characterize recent trends in the flow of expatriate technical experts to SSA Africa, notably their numbers, origins, nationalities and the organizational frameworks under which they are supplied.
- (ii) Describe recent trends in the recruitment of nationally or regionally trained local technical experts — including graduates or former staff of ACBF-funded training programs and policy units — capturing their numbers, gender composition, and sectoral destinations.
- (iii) Investigate the key socio-economic factors influencing the flow of foreign technical experts to SSA, including the rising influence of China, India and Brazil; the burgeoning African diaspora; and the transition to budget support in a good number of African countries.
- (iv) Prescribe a framework for the judicious deployment of foreign technical experts in a manner that does not undermine sustainable capacity building in Africa.

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Institutional Assessment Impact Vs. Policy Impact Assessment

We attempt to clarify here two theoretical constructs that may have implications for our analysis in this study. While *policy impact assessments* may be targeted at evaluating economic and activity impacts, the analysis here focuses on *institutional assessment impact*. The institutional assessment impact in our context focuses primarily on evaluating the effectiveness of the tool ACBF and other regional interventions have used for capacity building especially training and secondarily whether in particular, ACBF is fully using its available resources to achieve capacity building. But it goes beyond this. The evaluation will also assist in giving some insight into the transactional and transformational impact of the capacity for economic management in the countries covered by our study. Transactional impact will refer to the success recorded in “bridging capacity constraints in order to achieve operational goals” while transformational impact relates mainly to “countries capacity in the longer term” (DFID, 2006). While this may not be the major focus of this study, it becomes difficult to address the issue of ownership especially the long-term goal of sustainability if these are not broached at least tangentially. Thus, this study is comprehensive as an institutional capacity evaluation in the sense that it does not simply focus on training and

resource utilisation by ACBF but also asks question whether these have a transformational impact by reducing capacity constraints in the long-run. The objectives of this study as outlined in the earlier section assumes that once ACBF implements training and devotes its resources towards this end, the result will be an increase in the number of local technical experts and a decline in the inflow of foreign technical experts to Africa.

Thus, the analysis will attempt to gauge the ability of countries to own and sustain their development efforts. This line of thinking is informed by the new consensus or paradigm in capacity building. The emerging consensus on capacity building is that the process should be endogenous, strongly led from within the country with donors playing a supportive role (OECD, 2006). This will allow policy makers at the national level to tune national laws and policies to better meet development challenges.

Underlining this framework is the general recognition of capacity building in the form of creation and transmission of knowledge and current attention being paid to the role of institutional capacity building as a positive attraction for the creation of sustainable development. The challenges of policy-making under the new conditions of economic liberalisation and globalisation calls for more support in capacity building for managing the path towards good policies. Domestic professions and technical skills have become increasingly important for the design of policy and reform and equally important for the generation of critical thinking to foster domestic debate and encourage ownership. Thus, the need here goes beyond the attainment of selected quantitative macroeconomic targets (as is most often the case with impact assessments) which may be possible with or without domestic skills but may not be sustainable over the long term. The capacity for undertaking such policy development needs to be built, hence the focus of capacity building in the past on technical assistance. However, it must be understood here that the old concept of technical assistance which relied heavily on the transfer of skills from individual experts to the local counterparts or organisations is quickly changing to knowledge sharing.

2.2 Operational concepts

Some of the other operational concepts employed in this study will need some clarifications. *Expatriate (foreign) technical experts* as used in this study refer primarily to North-South skills transfer. However, efforts will also be made to try and document the trend in the flow of experts under the South-South framework including the flow from other African countries although it must be mentioned from the onset that the sparse nature of data in this regard may hinder a deep analysis. Given the preoccupation of ACBF with *economic management* especially poverty reduction objectives, the institutions surveyed are those whose activities centre on economic policy decision making (macroeconomic policy formulation), planning and budgeting and financial management systems.

The concepts *technical cooperation (TC)*, *technical assistance (TA)*, and *expatriate technical experts (ETE)* are often used interchangeably in the literature although they have slightly different meanings. TC is broadly defined as all resources which support the development

and utilization of services, skills, knowledge and technology in the form of training, advisory services, human resources development and service delivery. This include both long-and short term expertise from national and foreign resources, plus training, supporting materials and equipment, consultancies, study visits and seminars—development assistance to national governments (aimed at helping them implement national policies in pursuit of poverty reduction) (Baser and Morgan (2001). In brief, TC as defined by the OECD-DAC refer to the totality of actions aimed at strengthening individual and organisational capacity whereas Technical Assistance (TA) focuses on the **personnel involved** in the implementation of technical cooperation services. The TA concept aligns more with the concept of expatriate technical experts as defined in this study and may be used interchangeably. ACFB uses the two concepts expatriate technical experts and foreign technical experts in the TOR to this study and we have attempted in most cases to adhere to this usage.

Finally, in this study, local experts are defined as nationals or residents of sample countries who possess specialist skills and know-how, employed or contracted to work in local institutions/organizations as consultants, researcher, trainers, advisors or regular employees.

2.3 Technical Assistance and Capacity Building for Sustainable Development

Expatriate technical expertise, a component of technical cooperation, is at a crossroads. The 1993 UNDP Human Development Report reveals that sending experts to developing countries in Africa is an 'expensive and outmoded' way of using aid money. Donor countries often respond to capacity challenges of the developing world by dispatching their own experts. Economists and civil servants reorganize government working methods, doctors join developing health services, and scientists advise on agriculture or industry. However, the provision of expatriate technical expertise has fallen short of expectations in terms of building capacity and resolving the developmental issues of the recipient countries. Although it was intended to fill in the perceived capacity gaps, the review of its impact on recipient countries shows that international expatriate expertise has been mostly ineffective, costly, and donor-imposed.

Many factors have been advanced for this failure in the literature. Technical assistance has been excessively reliant on one model of delivery—the resident expatriate –counterpart model which in most cases fail to build long-term capacity. Moreover, the donor –or supply rather than demand-driven nature of technical cooperation often led to inefficient allocation of resources and weak local ownership with concomitant limited commitment by recipient countries. Other causative factors include poor incentives and working conditions in recipient countries' public sectors which lead to low local staff job motivation and high turnover with the result that capacity building efforts fail to take hold and the wide disparity between compensation for expatriate technical staff and local staff trained to hold the same positions. The result is that in recent years, the use of expatriate technical experts from developed economies and institutions has not abated in a number of African countries.

2.4 South-South Cooperation (SSC)

The not so impressive outcome in the performance of North-South technical assistance has manifested in a spate of alternatives among which is the intensification of South-South cooperation in the area of technical cooperation.² Aside from the poor level of performance indicated above, a more serious issue is the relative decline in North-South development cooperation. This has made a shift to South-South cooperation imperative. The Bogota High Level Event on South-South Cooperation and Capacity Development (March 2010) acknowledged the role of SSC in building capacity for development in Africa given the shortfalls of the North-South cooperation in this regard. Following immediately after the Accra High-Level Forum in 2008, the statement emphasised the need to build capacity with emphasis on ownership and sustainability and the role of mutual learning among Southern partners as a means of sharing knowledge for economic development. The UNDP has also emphasized the importance of South-South support as a basis for *knowledge sharing* compared to an exclusive focus on *knowledge transfer* from the North (Fukuda-Parr et al, 2002). For instance, Argentina, Chile, Egypt, Singapore and Tunisia have made substantial and long-dated contributions on technical cooperation. China and India have for long provided technical assistance often as part of projects. Official Chinese development assistance to Africa rose from USD 462 million in 2006 to about US\$616 million in 2007 accounting for close to 44 per cent of total Chinese Development Assistance in 2007 (Kilimani, 2010). As of 2008, India is estimated to have provided over US\$3 billion of technical assistance to 156 developing countries (DFID, 2008). The Republic of Korea, Thailand and Turkey have also significant technical cooperation programmes³. However, while noticeable improvements have been observed in recent years with bilateral cooperation, technical cooperation remains a relatively small component of assistance provided by Southern multilateral institutions⁴.

African countries should closely monitor this new dynamics, as it could be fraught with the same pitfalls of the traditional North-South provision of expatriate technical expertise. Studies have highlighted the fact that South-South development projects are implemented faster and at lower costs. Thus, they yield better value for money. Concerns have been raised, however, about the environmental impacts of many of the infrastructure projects undertaken under such arrangements. It has also been questioned whether when it comes to capacity building, such projects have not been unduly skewed towards building capacity at the level of the unskilled living critical managerial and technical capacity untouched. Slightly related to this is the observation that such efforts tend to be more in infrastructure and production and less on technical cooperation (see Table 2.1)⁵. For instance, 33 per cent of Chinese infrastructure finance to sub-Saharan Africa over the period 2001– 2007 went to

² See for instance the statement issued at the High Level Event on South-South Cooperation and Capacity Development, Columbia 2010.

³ The largest Southern contributors, in terms of resource flows, are China, India, Saudi Arabia and Venezuela followed by the Republic of Korea and Turkey.

⁴ It is sometimes difficult to separate flows in respect of technical assistance from other flows in most South-South cooperation agreements and hence the figures provided here could only be indicative.

⁵ India is the major exception here. It provides training to African countries through the Indian Technical and Economic Cooperation programme established in 1964 and the Special Commonwealth Assistance for Africa Programme.

electricity, 33 per cent to transport, 17 per cent to ICT, 14 per cent to general projects and 2 per cent to water (UNCTAD, 2010). There are also concerns in recent times about the lack of interest by most South-South contributors in governance and human rights violation of most recipient countries especially in Africa. Evidence abounds of some of the service providers in these economies flouting national labour laws and engaging in uneven treatment of workers.

Table 2.1: Focus of most South-South cooperation

| Donor | Sectoral Focus |
|--|--|
| Republic of Korea | Health, education, rural development, ICT, governance, industry and energy, environment and disaster relief |
| Turkey | Education, health and Water |
| Arab countries (Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates) | Transportation and telecommunication, energy, agriculture, industry and water |
| China | Infrastructure, agriculture, industry, health and education |
| India | Agriculture, infrastructure and energy, ICT, SMEs, human resources and institutional capacity development |
| Brazil | Agriculture, livestock, environment, energy, health, education, culture, urban development, professional training and information technology |

SOURCE: UNCTAD 2010

2.5 Policy relevance

The finding in this study should have at least two uses for the ACBF. First it will be helpful in the allocation of resources to capacity building by ACBF. Second, it can also be used as an argument for more resources for capacity building in needy countries that have committed to improving their policy environment. Overall, it will contribute to the debate on the use of technical assistance in Africa.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Sample and Coverage

The study employs mostly a qualitative approach to the study of trends in the employment and utilisation of foreign technical experts in selected Anglophone (Botswana, Namibia, Tanzania and Uganda) and Francophone (Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Mali, Senegal, and Gabon) countries. Each of the countries selected by ACBF for the study falls within the hinterland of at least one of the following ACBF-funded training programmes, to wit:

- The Collaborative PhD program in Economics, hosted by the AERC in Kenya and covering Anglophone sub-Saharan African countries
- The Collaborative Master's Program in Economics (CMAP), hosted by AERC in Kenya and covering Anglophone sub-Saharan African countries.

- La Programme de Troisieme Cycle Inter Universitaire en Economie (PTCI), the equivalent of CMAP, based in Burkina Faso and covering Francophone Central and West Africa
- Economic Policy Analysis and Management Programs (EPM, at Kampala, Abidjan, and Yaoundé) covering, respectively, Eastern and Southern Africa, Francophone West Africa, and Central Africa
- Banque Central des Etas de l’Afrique de l’Ouest (BCEAO), based in Senegal
- Banques des Etats de l’Afrique Centrale (BEAC), based in Cameroon
- Macroeconomic and Financial Management Institute (MEFMI), based in Zimbabwe and covering Eastern and Southern Africa.
- The West African Institute for Financial and Economic Management (WAIFEM), based in Nigeria and covering Anglophone West Africa; and
- University of Namibia’s Master’s Degree Programme in Public Policy and Administration (UNAM)

Thus, the study provides an opportunity for the evaluation of these programmes vis-à-vis their ability to mitigate dependence on foreign technical assistance.

The period covered by the study is 2000-2008. Again, the researchers did not influence the choice of period of study but we infer that the period coincides with the maturation of ACBF interventions in these economies and the possible manifestation of the results of the training support in provided by ACBF.

3.2 Analytical Framework

Basically, the purpose of the study is to establish the linkage between local capacity building (especially ACBF interventions) and the use of foreign technical experts in Africa A priori, we posit an inverse relationship. We expect that with ACBF interventions, the dependence of these economies on foreign technical experts in the identified fields should decline. Thus, the main hypothesis we are testing in this study is that there is a positive relationship between ACBF and other regional interventions and the fall in the employment of foreign technical experts in the sample countries.

It should be noted from the onset that what is at stake here in terms of research methodology is at best a *construct* (an abstract concept created to represent some form of behaviour) not any formalised body of theory. Rigorously, while we expect ACBF interventions should lead to a decline in the use of expatriate technical experts, there could also be a number of reasons why the trend may not have changed over the years. More importantly, the inference we make in this study will at best be indirect since we have no proof that most of the local experts who have replaced the foreign experts were trained by the ACBF.

3.3 Method of Analysis

The approach adopted in the study is a mix of desk research, field survey and events study. The desk research will focus on inventory of policy documents/State and donor policies with respect to technical assistance, statistical analysis of flow of technical assistance, inventory of policy initiatives through questionnaire distributed to stakeholders, and interviews. An in-country survey using administered questionnaire as a tool for data collection is employed to access recent trends in the recruitment of expatriate technical assistance vis-à-vis local professional staff and the extent to which local or regional training programmes-including ACBF-funded programmes-have over the years mitigated the demand for professional and technical expertise in the study countries. The survey will focus on interviews of donor organisations related to SSA countries, major participants in ACBF-funded programmes, and end-users of graduates of ACBF-funded programs.

A modified form of an events study methodology will complement our analysis of the survey results. Three main steps are identifiable in studies of this nature. First is the need to identify the event we are interested in. The focus in our case is the flow of technical experts. The next step is to specify a “benchmark” model for normal behaviour. However, it may not be feasible to establish such a base trend scenario in this case. Finally we analyse changes around the event date. The research design is some form of longitudinal (non-experimental) research as we investigate changes in the same event with the passage of time. Thus, questions on how foreign technical experts contribute to development (gauged by quantitative macroeconomic data) or efficiency will not be addressed by this study.

Our findings are presented in the form of graphs, tables, and other relevant statistical tools as an attempt to validate generalizations from surveys conducted in these countries by our in-country researchers. The qualitative data generated will be the product of a process of interpretation of information from the surveys by the country researchers. In interpreting the results, emphasis will be on flows of people and not volume of resources. As much as possible, we have designed the study to collect similar data across study countries over a period of time. Be that as it may, the consultants did not have a leeway in the control of the output from the country researchers and so variations in terms of coverage and depth of analysis occur in the reports submitted.

3.4 Challenges encountered in this study

Before summarising the country specific challenges as presented by the country researchers, we briefly discuss in this session a major methodological defect identified in carrying out this study. The selection of countries institutions and interviewees in this study followed mainly a purposive sampling procedure. The process was handled by ACBF in the concept notes handed down to the researchers. Understandably, ACBF relied on her experience to deliberately obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample could be deemed as being representative of the relevant population. This is essentially a non-probability sampling technique and the extent to which generalisations from such sampling process could form valid conclusions could be suspect. However, non-probability sampling

has its own merits. First it is quite economical and less complicated. Moreover, for a pilot study of this nature, it does serve its main goal-it is indicative of the direction of use of foreign technical experts in the sample countries.

We summarise some of the challenges by country below:

BOTSWANA

- The major challenge encountered was getting the target institutions to participate in the study given the timing of the survey (end of year). Most were preparing end of year reports and annual budgets, including National Development Plan preparation (in the case of the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning).
- Other important target institutions could not be interviewed due to a variety of reasons. Bank of Botswana cited sensitivity surrounding the operations of the Bank as one of the reasons they could not participate. The Department of Economics, University of Botswana could not participate due to their tight schedule.
- The Directorate of Public Service Management (DPSM) could not be interviewed for reasons that the letter (from the ACBF office) asking them to participate was delayed.

TANZANIA

- There was a challenge in collecting data from the Ministries because within a Ministry, there are number of clusters/departments and sometimes they share experts. Getting all the people from all the departments was a challenge. I ended up interviewing one or two departments.
- Some places like the Ministry of Finance and the Central Bank were too busy and rather elusive in terms of providing an appointment date.
- Most of the CSOs were engaging neither local nor foreign technical experts (FTES but have strong internal team. This makes their responses to certain sections of the questionnaire irrelevant.

UGANDA

- The study has been delayed due to the response rate from the targeted institutions. Some institutions' heads were busy winding up annual reports.
- Some respondents complained of poor timing as it was nearing the festive season
- Some respondents like NGO Forum complained of lack of commitment by ACBF in terms of engagement of foreign experts versus local experts. They pointed out that engagement of foreign experts should not be imposed as conditional donor support, but instead, donor support should be directed towards building local capacity (i.e. local experts) based on institutions' strategic and development plans.
- The questionnaire design looked unclear to some respondents (institutions) like EPRC who actually do not engage experts but they instead have research collaborators or institutional linkages. In this case, we considered core researchers to be experts.
- Some institutions like president's office were not keen on releasing information but eventually responded to the interview after being assured that such information is for policy guidance and capacity building but nothing else.

4. PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FIELD SURVEY

4.1 Institutions surveyed

It is observed that there is a wide variation in the numbers of institutions interviewed in each country for obvious reasons. First, the institutions selected in each country depended on the guidance given to the country researchers by the ACBF. This should be expected given the fact that the intensity of ACBF's activities in sample countries vary. Secondly the short time frame for the field work dictated that researchers may not have been able to cover uniform grounds given local conditions.

Like the selection of institutions, the selection of respondents did not follow any scientific sampling procedure. That then leaves us with the question as to whether we can generalise our findings or characteristics like we have done in most part of this study. Generally, the authors did not have a control over the selection of countries and respondents. We however, believe that the findings could be indicative in respect of our research questions.

A: Profile of Institutions

In the Francophone countries, the survey questionnaire was submitted at sixty-nine (69) institutions of the five countries –Burkina Faso (30), Senegal (16), Cameroon (10), Gabon (8) and Mali (5). In the English speaking countries 32 institutions were visited: Botswana (4), Namibia (7), Tanzania (10), and Uganda (11). The profile of the respondents in terms of gender shows that 82 per cent and 76 per cent respectively were men in the Francophone and Anglophone countries. Since we do not have any information to the contrary, we assume that both sexes had the likelihood of being selected for the interview. Thus the figures reported here could be a reflection of the lop-sidedness (in favour of males) of the employment structure at the managerial levels in these economies.

The interviewees' have a long professional experience in their sphere of activity in all the countries covered by the survey. On the average, most of the people interviewed had spent 5-10 years on their positions. There are minor variations between the two groups and within each group. While in the Anglophone economies most respondents had spent close to ten years (with the exception of Namibia) in their present positions, the periods are slightly shorter in the Francophone countries (with the exception of Gabon). In all, most respondents were fully equipped to deal with issues raised in our questionnaires.

B: Key Functions of Institutions

As mentioned earlier, the institutions surveyed are mainly those involved in economic management and governance. A wide range of public sector activities can be described as economic management. This falls under two categories: management of the public sector and the way the public sector reacts with the rest of the economy (public sector management) and regulation of the private sector (DFID, 2006). The nature of public sector

management may also vary from country to country depending on history, tradition, and economic philosophy originating from the culture of that society. Foreign Technical Experts may be used to reinforce this philosophy in recipient countries. Thus, we may find a wide variety of activities or functions in the institutions we have surveyed all claiming to perform economic management functions. This has made accurate classification difficult across countries and may account for the inchoate nature of the summary in Appendix A and Tables 1 and 2.

Appendix A summarizes the list of institutions surveyed. Attempts were made also to identify the core functions of these institutions. . In the Francophone countries the institutions surveyed consist of formulation and management of economic policies (29), research and reinforcement of capacities (23) and institutions that deal with governance issues (16). Country-wise, there were 13 institutions in statistics and economic policies in Burkina Faso, five each in Cameroon and Gabon, and four each in Senegal and Mali. In research and policy formulation, Burkina Faso had ten institutions, Senegal seven, Cameroon 3, Mali 2, and Gabon 1. The distribution of the institutions in the reinforcement of the capacities show that 11 are in Burkina Faso, 7 are in Senegal, 4 in Cameroon, 2 in Gabon and 1 in Mali.

In the selected Anglophone economies, the institutions surveyed consist of mainly the formulation and implementation of economic policies (15), research and capacity building (11) and governance institutions (8). The distribution by countries shows that in Botswana the survey covered policy formulation and implementation (3), research and capacity building (2) and governance institutions (2). In Namibia, the distribution showed policy formulation and implementation (4), research and capacity building (2), and governance institutions (1). For Tanzania, the institutions included policy formulation and implementation (3), research and capacity building (4) and governance (3). Finally for Uganda, 5 institutions were in policy formulation, 3 in research and capacity building and 3 in governance issues. It should be noted that in addition to institutions that deal with arbitration, most NGOs surveyed in this study are grouped under the sub-category Governance since they deal mainly with policy advocacy.

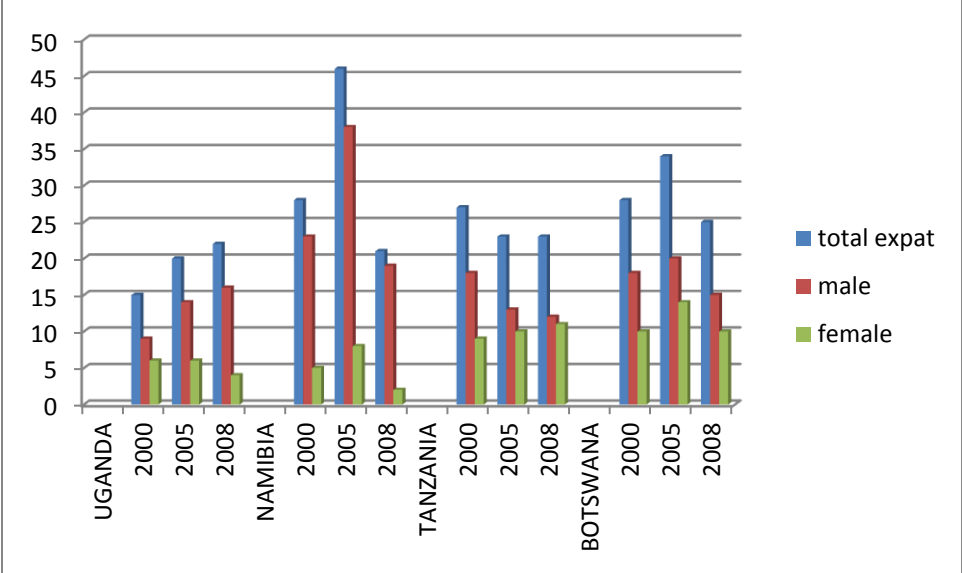
4.2 Recent trends in the recruitment of foreign technical experts

Generally, the trend in the recruitment of expatriate technical experts has shown a rather irregular pattern across the institutions surveyed and the countries covered by the study.

In Botswana, the institutions visited during the survey indicated that since 2000, they have at some point during the study period engaged the services of foreign technical experts either as employees, independent consultants, volunteers or supplied in the context of an aid program. Of all the institutions interviewed however, 50% indicated that the flow of experts over the study period has been decreasing, while 25% indicated that the trend has been increasing.

Responses from Namibia indicate that most of the interviewed organizations have engaged foreign experts in their activities. It is also important to indicate that only 1 out of 7 organizations interviewed did not use foreign technical experts during the period under review. However, this institution has used local experts extensively. Analysis of responses indicates that the recruitment of foreign experts increased from 28 people during the period 2000-2004 to 46 within 2005-2007. This represents an increase of 60.9 per cent. The results also indicate that between 2000 and 2004, 18 foreign experts out of 28 experts came from Europe and 1 came from India. Appendix A also indicates that recruitment of foreign experts has fallen between 2007 and 2008. The number of foreign experts engaged fell from 46 to 21, about 45.7 per cent decrease.

Figure 4.1: Trends in the recruitment of foreign experts in Selected Anglophone countries



Source:

The decline in the recruitment of foreign technical experts in Namibia after 2007 is attributable to a number of reasons – increased transfer of skills to the nationals, strict requirements for aid to be tied to technical assistance, the stoppage in the funding of statistical operations at country level by donors such as SIDA, completion of projects such as participatory poverty assessment, rural poverty reduction programme, and the national development plan three (NDP3). Moreover, most expatriates are funded on short-term basis by the UNDP, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Where occasionally long-term consultants are engaged over a period of three to five years, local institutions do not have resources to cater for new technical assistants during such periods. Most foreign technical experts have been supplied in the context of an aid programme. In some organizations, departments find it difficult to support much needed experts in specialized fields such as information technology, strategic planning, fiscal and financial analysis, and financial intelligence, and regulations.

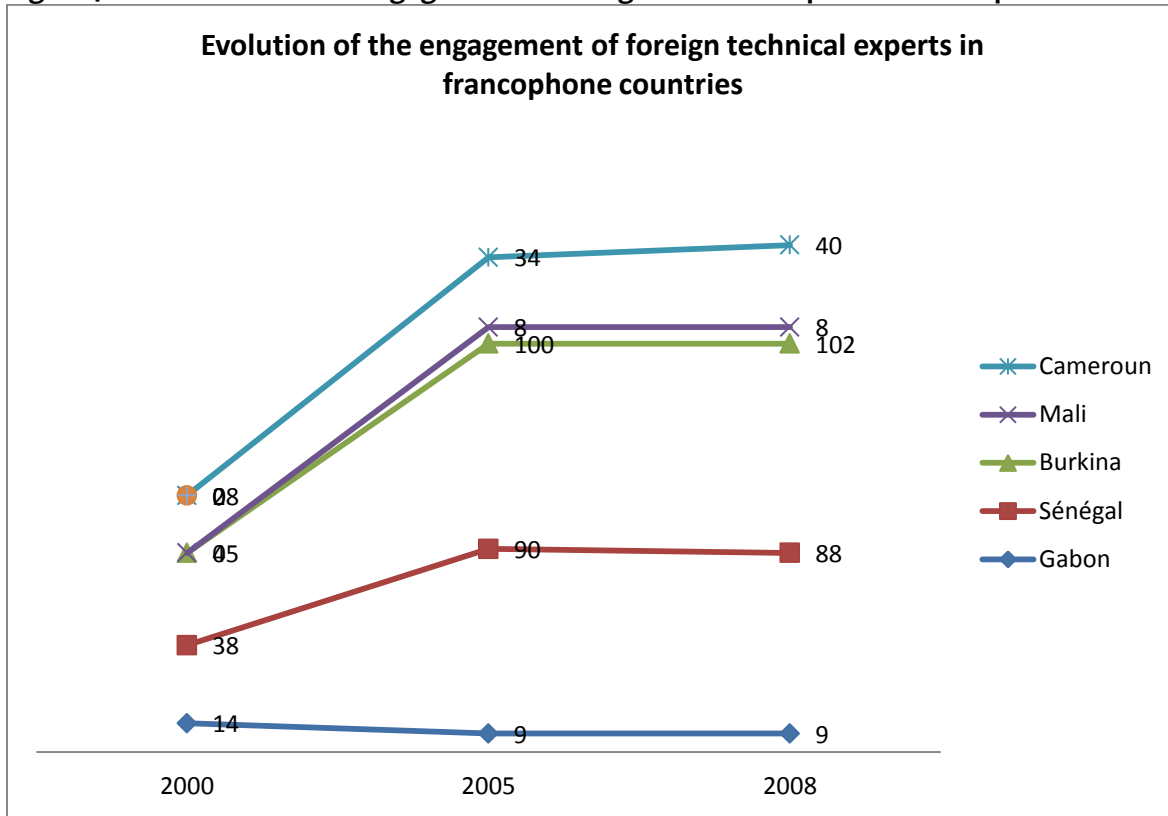
In Tanzania, out of 9 institutions surveyed, two-the Economic Research Bureau of the University of Dar es Salaam and the Policy Forum- have not engaged the service of expatriate technical experts. Of the remaining 7 institutions, three- the Tanzania Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture (TCCIA), Research On Poverty Alleviation(REPOA) and the Tanzania Private Sector Foundation (TSPF)-showed an increase in the engagement of foreign technical experts during the period. The Tanzania Association of Non-Governmental Organizations (TANGO) and the Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs reported that the engagement of foreign experts had remained at the same level during the period. The Economics department of the University of Dar es Salaam and the President's Office – Planning Commission's Macro Economic Division, Social Service and Demographic Clusters, indicated that the trend has shown a decline during the period.

Ugandan results indicate an increasing trend in the number of foreign based experts engaged during the period of the study rising from 15 through 20, and 22 in the years 2000, 2005 and 2008 respectively. Thus, the general trend of flow of experts is seen to be increasing. Of the 57 experts, 41 (71.9%) of them were males as compared to 16 (28.1%) females. While there was an increase in the resort to the use of male experts, female experts' engagement showed a decline during the period (Figure 4.1).

In the Francophone countries, 53 out of the 69 institutions visited indicated that they had used foreign technical experts since 2000 Only 16 institutions claimed they had not used foreign technical experts. Our distribution by countries shows that Burkina Faso (24), Cameroon (8), Senegal (9), Mali (4) and Gabon (8) had all used foreign technical experts during the period under study. The institutions which did not use foreign technical experts by countries are: Burkina Faso (6), Cameroon (2), Senegal (7) and Mali (1). The distribution per country does not necessarily reflect the intensity of usage per country but rather the number of institutions under study in each country.

Irrespective of the trend that may be suggested in the distribution above, overall, the recruitment of foreign technical experts almost doubled in the selected Francophone economies between 2000 and 2008 rising from 125 (2000) through 241 (2005) and finally hitting 247 in 2008. On the average women constituted about 15 per cent of the figure reported in 2008. Burkina-Faso and Senegal accounted for almost half of the figures reported. In Cameroun, the number of FTE recruited rose from 28 in 2000 to 48 in 2008 while in Gabon and Mali the number recruited has been relatively low when compared to the figures for Burkina Faso and Senegal. Cameroon has also showed some fairly rising trend though low by the standards reported in the two reference countries. This number has risen from 28 in 2000 to 40 in 2008 (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4. 2: Evolution of the engagement of foreign technical experts in Francophone countries.



Broadly similar patterns were observed for all Francophone countries in terms of the institutions that engaged the FTEs. In Cameroun, the economics Faculty at the University in Yaoundé, the ministry for small and medium-sized industries, and the Program National Participative Development (PNDP) had recourse to FTEs during the period 2005-2008. In 2005 and 2008, these institutions engaged 28 and 34 out of a total of 34 and 40 respectively. In Senegal, the MEF and the higher educational institutions engaged most of the FTEs. In 2005 and 2008, the institutions engaged 89 and 88 out of 90 and 88 FTEs respectively. These institutions were closely followed by the National Agency for Statistics and Demography, the African Center of Higher Studies in Management (CESAG), the CEPOD, the National School of Administration (ENA), the UN Institute for Development and Planning (IDEP), the New Program of Third Inter-University Cycle (NPTCI) and the Higher School of Trade (Co Sup).

In conclusion, we can deduce from our survey that the demand for foreign technical aspects has only fallen in two out of the eight economies surveyed. Between 2000 and 2008, the demand for FTEs doubled in the Francophone countries. In the Anglophone economies, while all the countries have continued to utilize the services of foreign experts, the growth trend in the recruitment of experts has fallen in Tanzania, Botswana and Namibia. An upward trend was observed only in Uganda.

4.3 Common countries of origin of FTEs and the major organizational arrangements for the supply of expatriate technical experts

Traditionally, the European countries have been the major suppliers of FTEs in Africa. This is to be understood against the background of ODA flows to African economies especially with tied aid. In Namibia, the survey indicates that between 2000 and 2004, foreign experts from Europe represent about 64.2 per cent while African foreign experts represent 32.1 per cent. In Tanzania, the country researcher indicated that most FTEs came from Europe (Norway, Netherlands, and the UK). The USA also featured strongly in the supply of FTEs while the others came from Africa mainly Nigeria and Kenya. For Uganda, the experts came from various countries with most 10 (17.5 per cent) of them coming from United Kingdom, and the least 1 (1.7percent) each coming from India and Ireland respectively. In Botswana, experts come from a broadly more dispersed arrangement Asia (India), Europe (UK and the Netherlands), North America (Canada and the USA) and Africa (Nigeria, Cameroon, Malawi, Zimbabwe, Ghana, South Africa, Ethiopia and Kenya).

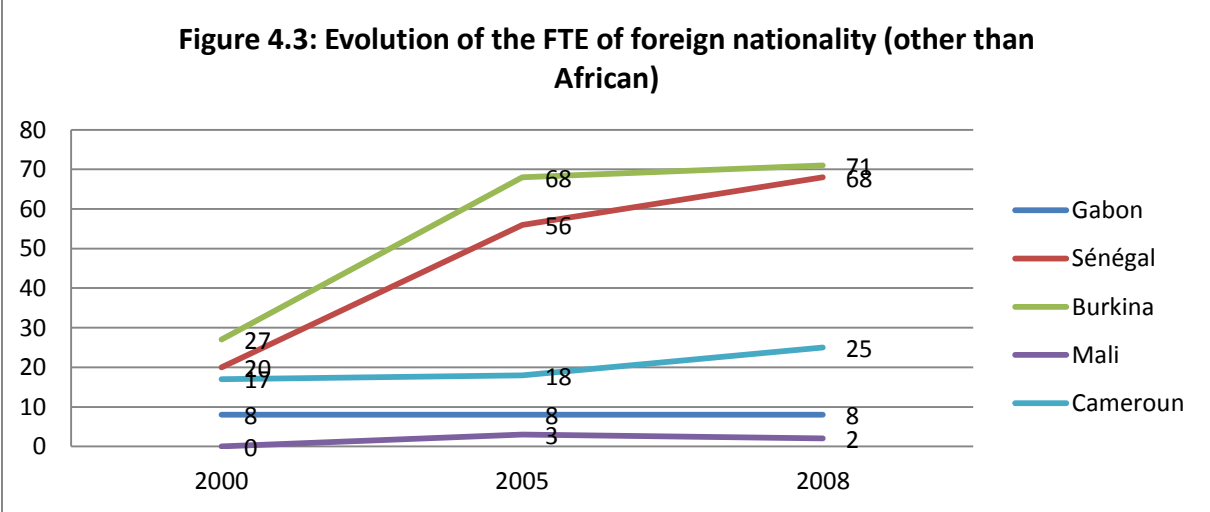
Table 1 presents details of the countries of origin for foreign-based nationals across the study countries. The details for the distribution of experts across countries for Anglophone countries was reported only for Namibia and Uganda as contained in Appendix B (Tables 3 (a) and 3 (b)). As indicated in these tables, foreign based experts are predominantly from countries other than Africa except for Tanzania where the country researcher reported that about 50 per cent of expatriates came from other African countries during the period.

Table 4.1: Countries of Origin of FTEs in the selected Anglophone countries

| <i>Botswana</i> | <i>Namibia</i> | <i>Tanzania</i> | <i>Uganda</i> |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <i>Common Countries:</i> | <i>Common Countries:</i> | <i>Common Countries:</i> | <i>Common Countries:</i> |
| Cameroon | Zambia | USA | Australia |
| Canada | Gambia | Nigeria | Canada |
| Ethiopia | Uganda | Kenya | Denmark |
| Ghana | Netherlands | South Africa | European Union |
| India | Sweden | Ivory Coast | Germany |
| Kenya | Finland | Norway | IMF |
| Malawi | Kenya | UK | India |
| Netherlands | Canada | Netherlands | Ireland |
| Nigeria | Italy | | Kenya |
| South Africa | Nigeria | | Mauritius |
| United Kingdom | Egypt | | Netherlands |
| USA | Nepal | | Saudi Arabia |
| Zambia | India | | South Africa |
| Zimbabwe | South Africa | | United kingdom |
| | Belgium | | USA |
| | Luxemburg | | World Bank |
| | Malaysia | | |
| | Sri-Lanka | | |
| | IMF | | |
| | Australia | | |
| | Mauritius | | |

In the selected Francophone economies, most FTEs also came from the EU-2000 (78), 2005 (145, 2008(168). Burkina Faso and Senegal had more recourse to the use of non-African FTEs. The number of non-African FTEs rose from 27 to 68 between 2000 and 2005 in Burkina Faso. In Senegal during the same period the number rose from 20 to 56. Between 2005 and 2008, the number of non-African FTEs rose in Burkina Faso and Senegal from 68 to 71 and 56 to 68 respectively. These countries were followed by Cameroon where the number of non-African FTEs rose from 17 in 2000 to 18 in 2005 and thereafter to 25 in 2008. Gabon and Mali experienced slightly lower figures during the same period. Figure 4.3 below shows the evolution of foreign FTEs in the selected Francophone countries.

Figure 4.3: Evolution of the FTE of foreign nationality (Other than African)



The major organizational arrangements for the supply of these experts in many of the economies were as independent consultants, visiting fellows in locally based research institutions and Universities, employees of foreign consulting firms, and in most cases as part of tied aid.

4.4 Trends in the nationals of other African Countries taking up work as FTEs in the sample countries and organizational framework through which the trend occurred

Botswana witnessed a significant influx of African FTEs in the early part of the decade starting 2000. Most of these experts were absorbed by the public sector reflecting the increasing capacity needs of the sector. The number of experts from Africa engaged significantly increased from 1 in 2000 to 12 in 2008. These experts came from Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe. In Namibia, the trend followed the experience of Botswana. The number increased from 6 in 2000 to 10 in 2005 slightly rising to 11 in 2008.

There is also a high level of significance of nationals of other African countries taking up work in Tanzania. Of the total foreign technical experts engaged by organizations/institutions in Tanzania that were surveyed in this study, slightly more than 50% were nationals of other African countries. Most of these came from Eritrea, Nigeria, Ivory Coast, Zimbabwe, Kenya, Senegal, Ghana, Ethiopia, Namibia, Zambia, Uganda, and South Africa. In Uganda, the study also reported an increasing trend of experts who are nationals of other African countries rising from 3 in 2000 to 8 in 2008. The experts came from various African countries.

The major organizational frameworks for the supply of these experts across the surveyed countries include: Regional Exchange programmes /sabbatical leave for Universities or Research Institutions, others came as an influence from the relevant funder or as independent consultants, or supplied as part of an aid program. Other factors included the increasing complexity of policy reforms which increased the demand for foreign capacity, changing business environment, the need to upscale services due to increasing demand for skills especially in tertiary institutions and insufficient local capacity.

African FTEs rose from 34 through 57 and finally 66 in 2000, 2005 and 2008 respectively in the selected Francophone countries during the period of study. A comparison of the FTEs of other African countries and the non-Africans shows that the former represents less than half of the latter. The use of Diaspora expertise was slightly more noticeable in the Francophone than Anglophone countries. The number reported by our survey fell from 23 in 2000 through 20 in 2005 and finally 13 in 2008. Slightly related to this is the issue of nationals who have taken up jobs in foreign countries as FTEs. The numbers reported by the survey showed that they are less than one-third of the non-African FTEs. The number has also been falling over the years from 32 per cent in 2000 through 14 per cent in 2005 and 8 per cent in 2008.

4.5 Factors underlying the recent trends in the flow of FTEs in the sample economies

The reasons underlying the trend in the flow of expatriate technical experts were diverse across the countries. In some economies, there were deliberate domestic policies aimed at indigenizing the skills base. While in others, constraints posed by domestic skills shortage in the face of developmental challenges overtook such domestic policies.

In Botswana, increasing complexity of policy problems and therefore need for experts comes to the fore. Other reasons identified include the changing business environment, need to improve on quality and refine systems, insufficient local capacity and the need to upscale services to meet client demands.

In Namibia, the inflow of technical experts has been affected by various developments that have taken place in various organizations. It is indicated that Namibia after independence needed a lot skills and know-how that would enable her to build her capacity in terms of human resources and become more competitive in the global market. The mid-term review

of the First National Development Plan (NDP-1: 1995 - 2000) pointed out that one of the fundamental factors that constrained the effective implementation of NDP1 was the shortage of skills in some critical areas of planning and project execution. (NPC: 1998). As a result there was a direct correlation between the low delivery of development programmes implemented under the plan and weak human resource capacities. The need to build critical skills in the long-term thus became a major policy goal. However, in the short-term, the use of technical assistance was given prominence.

In addition to this, the need to conform to specific international conventions forced the nation to recruit FTEs needed for the implementation of such agreements. Our field survey results indicated that the ratification of the United Nations Convention against transitional organized crime which compelled Namibia to: (i) criminalize money laundering, (ii) establish regulatory regimes to date and detect all forms of money laundering including customer identification, record keeping and reporting of suspicious transactions, (iii) authorize the cooperation and exchange of information among administrative, regulatory, law enforcement and authorities both domestically and internationally and establish a financial intelligence centre to collect, analyse and disseminate information and (iv) promote international cooperation exerted some pressure on the nations thin skills base. Projects such as geographical information systems (GIS) and preparation of 2011 Census required external expertise, thus influencing the inflow of foreign technical experts. Lack of expertise in the information related fields has also affected movement of the expatriate technical expertise. In some cases inflow of foreign experts was affected by the agreement with overseas development institute (ODI) fellowship. It is further indicated that some organizations have rigid policies in terms of promotion and this forces local technical experts to resign and leave the country. Other factors that influence the flow of expatriate technical experts include: competitive salaries, critical mass of intellectual capacity and exposure to regional and international research environment.

In Tanzania, the increasing trend in some institutions has been due to the increasing number of projects in the organizations, and pressure from donors to engage foreign based experts in the programmes that are funded by them. For example, in some projects, donors insist that Tanzanians must get experience (learning best practice) from foreign based experts. The declining trends in other institutions is attributable to such factors as decrease in the number of collaborative research programmes, lack of knowledge on the local context of Tanzania for foreign based experts, deliberate initiative by the Government of Tanzania to build capacity and increase job opportunity for local consultants against foreign based consultants, enforcing the National Consultants Policy of 2006 which specifically aims to promote local consultants and actively building capacity of local experts by engaging them in Ministry's assignments .

In Uganda the reasons underlying the trend in the flow of expatriate technical experts to the organization were given with six out of seven (85.7%) institutions indicating; to bridge the skill gap, followed by restructuring of human resource power (57.1%) and creating

institutional linkages (57.1%). Other reasons stated were shortage of funds-domestically, regular review of performance and increased mandate of the institution.

4.6 Recent trends in the recruitment of local experts since 2000

Overall, there has been a major boost in the recruitment and utilization of local expertise in our sample countries even when the use of FTEs has not considerably shown a decline. The major developments which influenced this movement include:

- The emergence of African expertise
- South/South co-operation
- The decline in Development assistance especially from the North
- Political good-will of the countries of the South to promote the national expertise
- Expansion of the facilities for quality training especially at the tertiary level in the sample countries (see below on Institutions that have trained local experts)
- The general discontent with technical assistance
- The adjustment made by donors to provide more efficient technical cooperation

The present study showed that generally, the recourse to FTEs in Anglophone economies is falling. There are two classes of explanation for this. First, is the availability of local experts who are able to undertake quality assignments previously engaging FTEs. This is fallout of the several initiatives to reinforce capacity both at regional and national levels in the past decade. The second is due to a strategy voluntarily encouraged by development partners as a response to the huge cry for ownership and sustainability of the development process. Slightly related to this is the fact that most recipient countries are beginning to encounter donor fatigue with the onset of declining resources.

With regard to the few institutions in our survey which reported low use or increasing use of FTEs, the explanation centered on the relationship the institutions had with donors which sometimes put conditionalities on aid disbursement. We also observed that in some exceptional cases, in the absence of national expertise in some fields, projects are compelled to use FTEs.

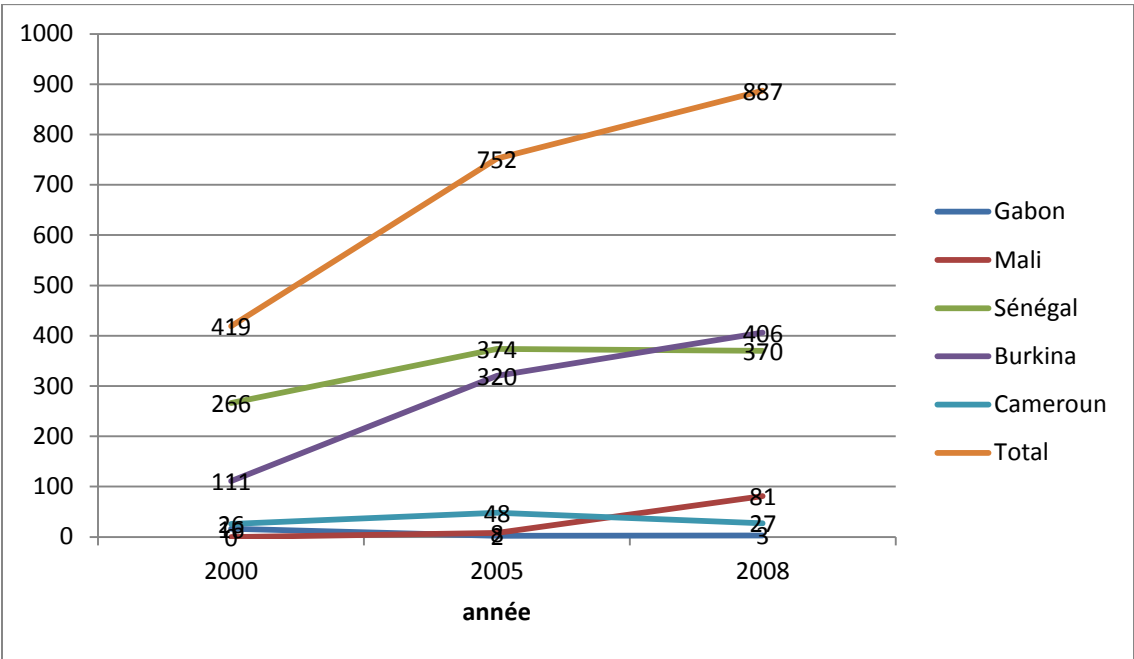
In Botswana, all the institutions interviewed during the survey indicated that they have over the study period engaged the services local experts. Of all these institutions, 50 per cent indicated that the recruitment of local experts has been increasing over the years, while the other 50 percent indicated that the numbers have been constant. In all the institutions interviewed, the number of local experts engaged increased from 5 in 2000 to 17 in 2008.

Generally in Tanzania, the trend in the recruitment of local experts has been the combination of the above. Half of the respondents said the trend has been increasing while another half of the respondents said the trend has remained the same. None of the institutions agreed that the trend in the recruitment of local experts had declined. One institution did not respond because they have not engaged local experts since 2000.

In Uganda, the institutions were required to state whether they have engaged the services of local experts, either as researchers, trainers, consultants, advisors or regular employees and the results indicate that all the institutions have recruited local experts since the year 2000 - 90% of the institutions had an increasing trend in the use of local experts.

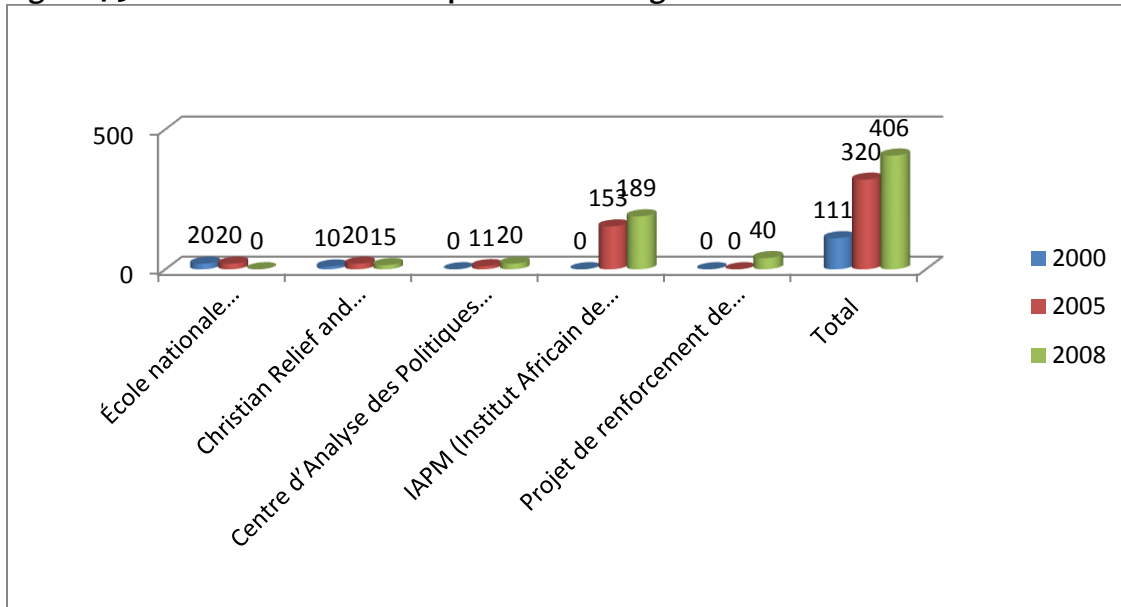
Between 2000 and 2008 number of local experts doubled rising from 419 to 887 in the Francophone countries after having nudged 752 in 2005. As before, this strong evolution is ascribable to developments in Burkina Faso and Senegal; the share of the other countries is marginal. Indeed, these two countries employed 377, 696 and 776 local experts respectively in 2000, 2005 and 2008; the other countries together recruited respectively 72, 56 and 111 local experts during the same period.

Figure 4.4: Evolution of the local expertise by country



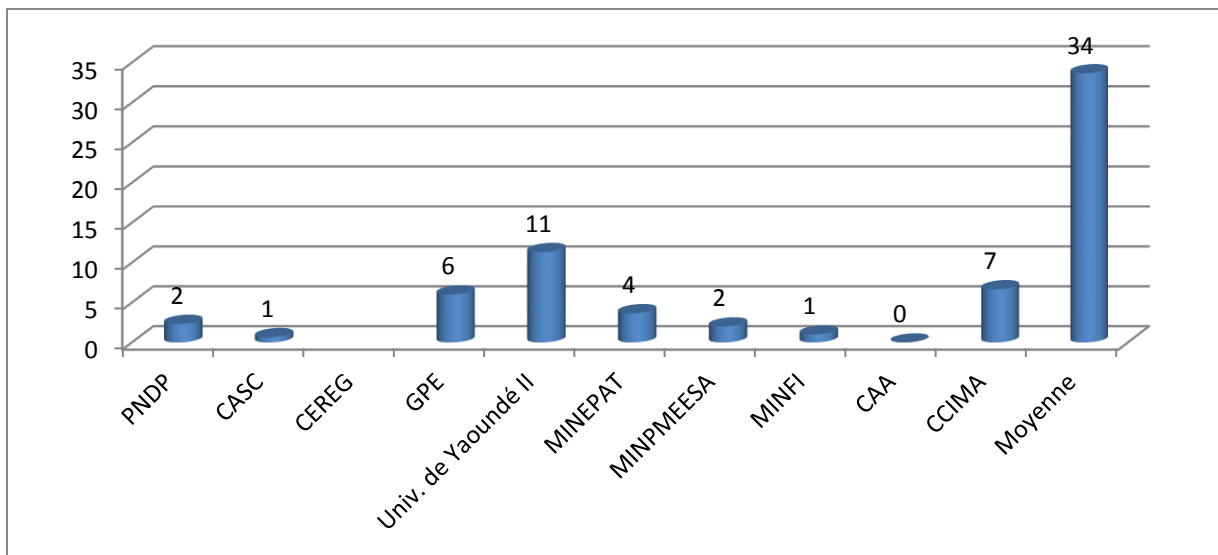
In Burkina Faso, the principal institutions who have recourse to the local expertise are the IAPM PARECAP, of CREED, of the ENAM, CAPES and THESE.

Figure 4.5: Evolution of the local expertise according to institutions' in Burkina



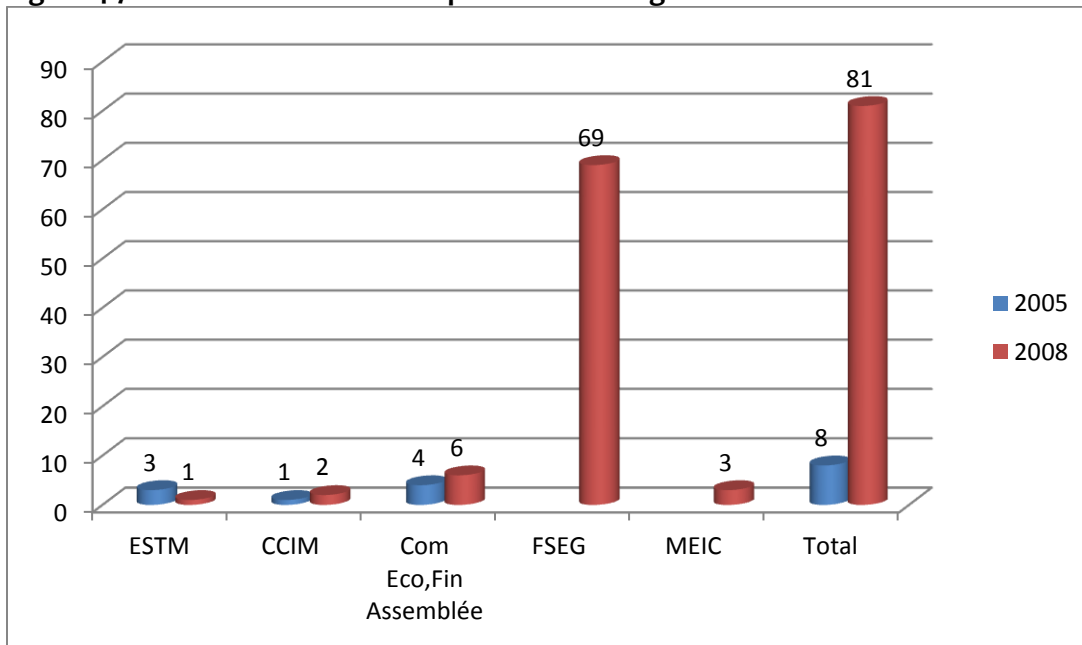
In Cameroun, the increase in the local expertise is ascribable to the strong growth on the recourse to the local expertise at the University of Yaoundé II. The doubling by more than two (133%) of the number of local experts recruited by this institution compensated for the fall of the engagement of local expertise observed with the PNDP, the CASC, the MINEPAT and CCIMA.

Figure 4.6: Evolution of the local expertise according to institutions' in Cameroun



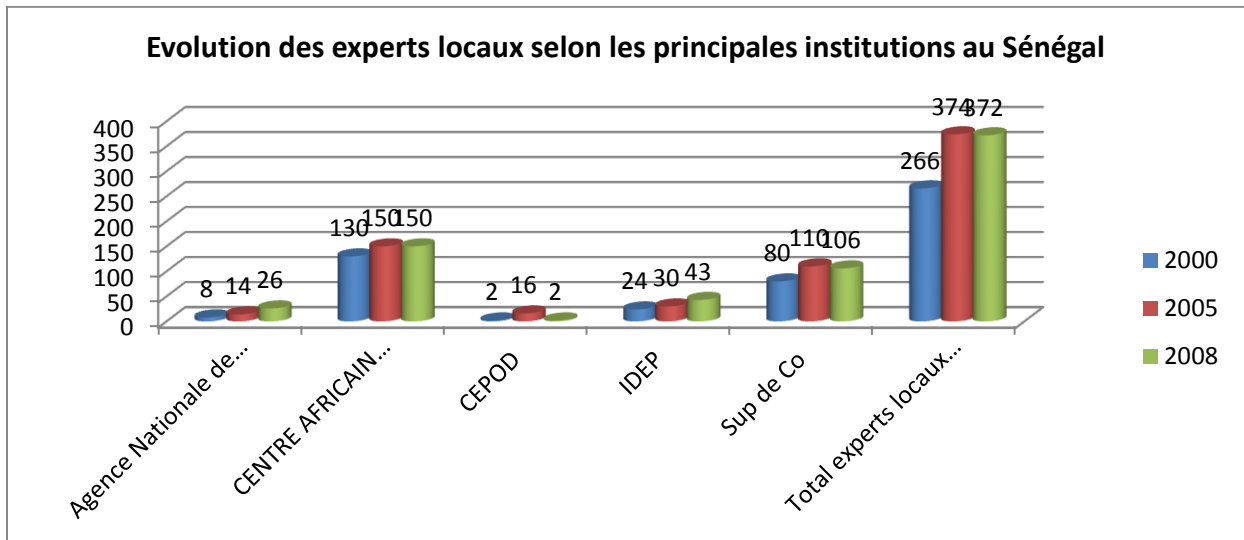
In Mali, the majority of the local expertise is employed by the economics Faculty of Science.

Figure 4.7: Evolution of the local expertise according to institutions' in Mali



In Senegal, the detailed examination of the data shows that the CESAG, Sup of Co, the IDEP and the ANSD employed most of the local experts.

Figure 4.8: Evolution of the local expertise according to institutions' in Senegal



4.7 Institutions that have trained a significant number of local experts

This section attempts to summarize schematically in each country major training programmes, Universities or schools that have trained a significant number of local experts over the years. This follows immediately from our earlier analysis where we demonstrated

that there has been a significant recourse to the use of local experts in most of the countries covered by our survey.

For the Anglophone countries in our survey, the Universities in Namibia, Botswana, Tanzania, and Uganda have benefitted immensely from the Collaborative Master’s Program in Economics (CMAP), hosted by AERC in Kenya and covering Anglophone sub-Saharan African countries and recently the Collaborative PhD program in Economics, hosted by the AERC in Kenya and covering Anglophone sub-Saharan African countries. The ACBF sponsored programme in Economic Policy Analysis and Management (EPM, at Kampala, Abidjan, and Yaoundé) covering, respectively, Eastern and Southern Africa, Francophone West Africa, and Central Africa has also contributed significantly to some of the training programmes in this area. The ACBF has also considerably supported the Masters programme in Public Policy Analysis at the University of Namibia over the years. It was also observed that in Namibia, 2 institutions the University of Namibia and the Bank of Namibia have employed 6 graduates of the African Economic Research Consortium’s collaborative Master’s programme during the periods under review as lecturers and senior researchers.

Table 4.2 BOTSWANA: Local and regional training programmes

| <i>Names of Local or Regional Training Programs</i> | |
|---|--|
| Name of Program | Awarding University/School or Program |
| Computer Science | University of Botswana, Botswana Accountancy College |
| Economics (ACBF, AERC) | University of Botswana |
| Information technology | University of East London |
| Public administration | University of Botswana |
| Statistics | University of Botswana |
| Economics Research (ACBF) | Botswana Institute for Development and Policy Analysis |

Table 4.3 UGANDA: Local or regional training programmes

| <i>Names of Local or Regional Training Programs</i> | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| Name of Program | Awarding University or Program |
| 1. Organizational Development | 1. EASUN |
| 2. MBA-Program-Makerere University | 2. Makerere University |
| 1. Enterprise training program | 1. Makerere University |
| 2. Human Resource development | 2. Makerere University |
| 3. Report writing and editing | 3. Makerere University |

| | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| 4. Public relations | 4. Makerere University |
| 5. Business Development programs | 5. Makerere University Business school |
| 6. Planning and policy | 6. Makerere University |
| 7. Macroeconomic analysis | 7. Makerere university |
| 8. Agriculture | 8. Makerere university |
| 9. CGE modelling | |
| 10. Sampling and Statistical methods | 10. Makerere University |
| 11. Gender analysis | 11. Makerere University |

The most common programs reported were Enterprise training program, Report writing and editing, Business Development programs, Human Resource Development, Macroeconomic analysis among others and the awarding institution of most programs was reported to be Makerere University and Makerere University Business School. Most programs were reported as being very important or increasing in importance to the institutions. In terms of the institution sponsoring the programmes, the African Economic Research Consortium (AERC) and the African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF) have supported the various training programmes at the Makerere University. DAAD, Belgium Technical Cooperation, NORAD (Business School of Makerere University) and SIDA-SAREC have also been cooperating partners in the programs run by the Makerere University.

Table 4.4 TANZANIA: Local or regional training programme

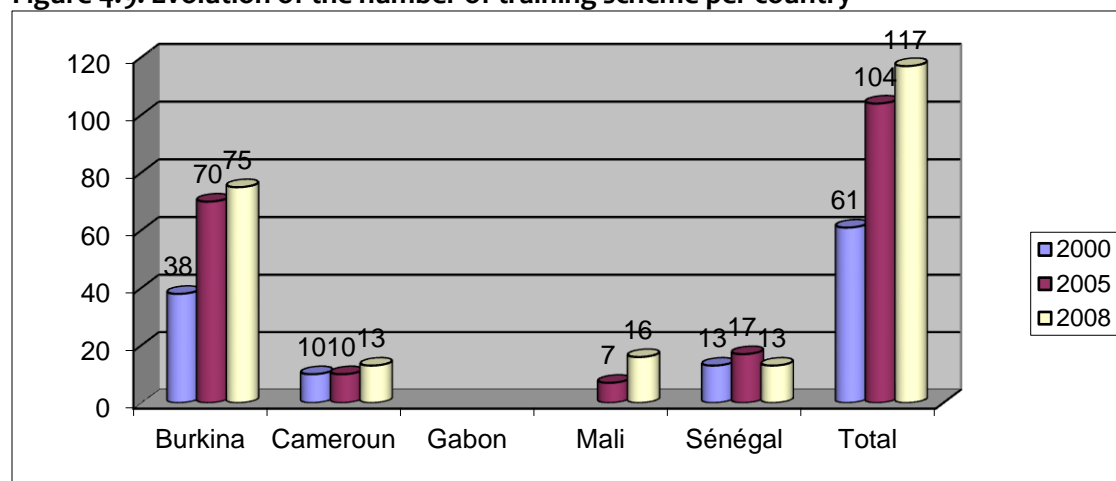
| <i>Names of Local or Regional Training Programs</i> | |
|--|--|
| Name of Program | Awarding University/School or Program |
| Economics, Financial Management, Political Science and, Computer science | University of Dar es salaam |
| Agricultural economics | Sokoine University of agriculture |
| Public Administration and Management courses | Mzumbe University |
| Financial Management, MBA and human resources | ESAMI |

Again in terms of the institution sponsoring the programmes, East African Support Unit for NGOs supported the EASUN centre for organizational learning, Arusha, Tanzania. The Economics, Financial management, Political Science and Computer Science Programmes at the University of Dar es Salaam has benefited immensely from ACBF and AERC support.

In the Francophone economies, the total number of local experts that have benefitted from training schemes in the four countries rose from 61 in 2000 to 104 in 2005 and 118 in 2008. The dominant share came from Burkina – Faso claiming in most instances more than half the

figures reported. This is closely followed by Senegal and Cameroon. However, there has been a decline in the number of participants from Senegal in recent years.

Figure 4.9: Evolution of the number of training scheme per country



Majority of the training schemes in both regions focus on Economic and Financial management, training of instructors for tertiary institutions (teaching in Universities) and researchers for the central bank, the statistical bureaus and other macroeconomic management institutions especially the Finance and Economic planning ministries.

Overall, close to 80 per cent of the participants in the survey considered the training received from the local institutions as very important and relevant. They also harped on the fact that the programmes should be continued while providers and sponsoring institutions should strive to maintain standards.

4.8 Overall trends in the recruitment of women local experts

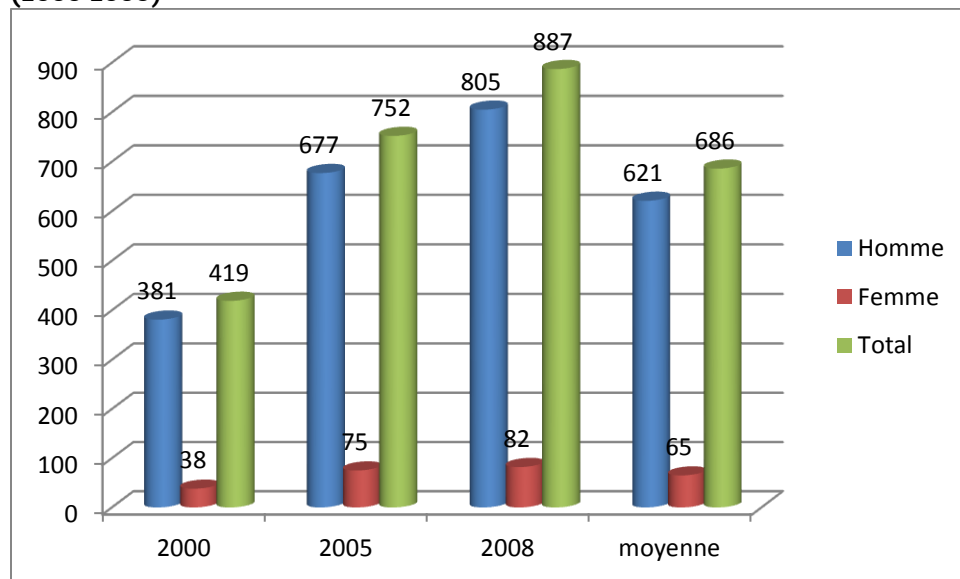
In Botswana the results of the survey indicated that although there have been increases in the recruitment of women local experts, it has not been very significant, with the number being more or less the same between 2005 and 2008. The number of women engaged in all the institutions interviewed only increased from 3 in 2000 to 4 in 2008. In Namibia, our results indicate that engagement of women local experts increased from 5 to within 2000 and 2005, and subsequently declined to 2 in 2008.

In Tanzania, the overall trend in the recruitment of women local experts has been the same. Most of these institutions engage males than females and that trend has been the same since 2000. In Uganda, information obtained shows that local male experts increased from 3 to 40 compared to 2 to 15 for female experts.

The trend in the recruitment of women local experts did not show much variation from the observation in the Anglophone economies. Figure 4.10 shows that the preponderance of local experts are male across the countries surveyed. Between 2000 and 2008, women

accounted for less than 10 per cent of local experts. More worrisome is the fact that after rising from 9.1 per cent in 2000 to 9.9 per cent in 2009, the figure dropped to 9.2 per cent in 2008.

Figure 4.10: Trends in the engagement of female local experts in the Francophone economies (2000-2008)



At various fora and amidst a multiplicity of commitments by African nations to improve gender balance, the issue of constraints to the participation of women in the development process has received a lot of concern. The need to address gender issues such as gender mainstreaming in institutional strategies, programs and plans; gender inequalities and discrimination; gender insensitivity with regard to staff composition and the hiring of consultants; possible gender bias in modes of appointments; and gender insensitive capacity development programmes has been underlined in many meetings. Education and training, the type that are undertaken by institutions such as the ACBF and other regional training bodies will help to reduce the social, economic and cultural discrimination that create the marginalisation of women in the work place. There is no doubt that the marginalisation of women could have been aided more by factors such as a patriarchal practice in most African countries that favour male children, girls dropping out of school, early girl marriages and weak networking among educated and professional females (ACBF, 2008).

While acknowledging that most women in Africa are still employed in the informal sector, thus compounding the statistical problems with adequately accounting for the real contribution of women total output, UNDP summarises the problem with women's employment in the formal sector in Africa thus:

“... women are two-thirds less likely than men to get waged employment, while only 3 out of 10 women in the labour force in sub-Saharan Africa are paid employees. In 1990, about 5 per cent of the female labour force worked in industry, 20 per cent in services, 23 per cent in

sales, and only 6 per cent in professional, technical, administrative or managerial positions”(Africa Review, 1998).

The situation has not changed considerably as women are still likely to face severe constraints in the labour market because of their relative lack of education and training, and the tendency to channel women into certain occupations in many African countries. Under the circumstances, the data reported in this survey may not be far from the true situation of things.

4.9 Reasons advanced by the Respondents for the Recent Trends in the Recruitment of Local Experts

Generally, the results of our survey indicated that the engagement of male local experts has strongly increased with the passage of time. In this section we try to identify some of the factors reported by the respondents as having contributed to this increase.

First there were factors outside the domain of the economies receiving aid in the form of technical assistance. For instance with the reduction in aid from major donor countries, technical assistance as part of tied aid gradually fell and dictated a resort to local experts. Moreover, the high costs of foreign experts compared to local experts even when such local experts could do comparable work forced donors to look into the use of such domestic human resources especially in the face of dwindling resources.

Second, increase in the requirements for the reinforcement of capacities in the management of economic policies in the public and private institutions, institutions of higher learning especially Universities and research institutes and the expansion of the activities of these institutions in recent years created an unmet demand which had to be met by a resort to local expertise. The availability of the local expertise was made possible by the various institutions and capacitated by the ACBF and other agencies to carry out doctoral level training needed for entry into teaching and research in the Universities. The AERC, IDEP and similar institutions have played a key role in this regard. It is hardly conceivable that there exists a Department of Economics in any of the Universities in the surveyed economies that does not have a graduate of the AERC or IDEP programme on her staff. Similarly institutions like the National Development Planning Authorities, Ministries of Finance and Economic Development and central banks also harbour many of the graduates of these interventions by the ACBF.

The third factor has to do with an issue raised at the beginning of this analysis- the foreign technical expert may not always be in a better position to understand local economic conditions in certain projects. Such conditions may call for knowledge sharing and not knowledge transfer, the former being more painstaking and tending to dictate a longer period of engagement. This has been observed to be the case in most agricultural projects requiring experts to work with local farmers.

In Botswana, the increase in the number of local experts engaged has largely been associated with training and skills development of locals which has equipped them with the requisite skills to perform as much as expatriate technical experts would, but at lower cost.

The reasons indicated for the engagement of local experts in Namibia include assisting with the formulation of NDP2 and national human resources framework, providing training on legal and financial oversight, statistics, and data processing. The results of the field survey also indicate that the trend in the recruitment of local experts has been affected by factors such as high competition and strict requirements from the European Union, and local experts gained the needed skills and knowledge from the foreign technical assistance. Other factors include: lack of skilled and professionals in the country, strong competition from private sector, parastatals and international organizations. In Namibia, it is further indicated that some institutions have rigid policies in terms of promotion and this forces local experts to resign and leave the country. In Uganda, 70 per cent of respondents identified cost effectiveness of local experts as the reason for utilizing local source, 60% of the them indicated lack of adequate in-house technical skills and the readily availability of local experts respectively. Other reasons stated include increasing mandate of the institutions, creating institutional linkages and others.

5. POLICY DISCUSSIONS

5.1. Flow of FTEs to Africa

The survey in this study reveals that many of the countries in our sample still have a recourse to the use of foreign technical experts in areas such as economic management and planning, health, agriculture, infrastructure development, central banking, and in research and training institutions⁶.

There are a number of reasons why this observed trend is still high. First, most of the countries involved are growing economies with a high demand for capacity in different spheres to implement special policies like the PRSP and the MDGs. For a majority of countries, TC represents a substantial proportion of resources available for development. This is especially true for some of the countries in our sample where TC has been on the rise and account for close to 2.0 per cent of Gross national Income (Burkina Faso -2.1% in 2006, Senegal -4.1%, Uganda-3% in 2006, and Tanzania-1.67%)(OECD (2009)).

The average rate of GDP growth in the economies in our sample during the period 2000-2007 is put at 3.2 per cent. The sectoral shift from agriculture and rural development towards education, health and population programmes -social infrastructure and services sector- during the last decade in Uganda, Tanzania and Senegal coupled with a strong

⁶ This is confirmed by the flow of technical assistance during the period. For instance, technical assistance flow to SSA has bounced back after a slight decline in late 1990s to close to \$4.8 billion in 2006 representing close to 70 per cent of total flows to Africa.

showing for public service/public administration in Uganda placed a lot of demand on TC for the implementation of policy. The trend towards greater emphasis on education, health and population programmes (which continue to be the dominant expenditure lines under social infrastructure is not surprising), given the current emphasis in the international development community on poverty alleviation (Akinkugbe and Yinusa, 2010). The capacity to plan, manage, implement, and account for results of policies and programs is therefore critical for achieving development objectives.

According to OECD (2006), development efforts in many of the poorest countries in Africa will fail, even if they are supported with substantially increased funding, if the development of sustainable capacity is not given greater and more careful attention. Among the wide range of CD challenges that developing countries seek to address, there are a number of generic capabilities that relate to the core functions of government/ public administration that need to be in place to facilitate effective and transparent management of public resources including those received through development assistance. These core capabilities are commonly referred to as country system capacities and include: public financial management, monitoring and evaluation, statistics and information management, and procurement.

Apart from the demands placed by economic growth on capacity, there is also the pressure exerted on the capacity for public financial and economic management by the private sector. No doubt, a virile private sector is indispensable for growth in the economy. The private sector in most of Africa is better organized and remunerates its workers more than is observed in the public sector. Thus, the private sector has become a major competitor for scarce skills in the economy. FTEs will continue to be needed to implement donor assistance projects in the face of depleted skills in the public sector.

5.2. Mitigating the recourse to the use of foreign technical experts

The results of our survey in the previous section showed that remarkable progress has been made in the training of local technical experts in various fields. This is attributable to the increase in local training institutions. One very prominent intervention in this area is the Partnership for Capacity Building in Africa (PACT). Initiated by the leaders of Africa, PACT is based on the principle of ownership, leadership, and partnership within Africa. In 1999, the World Bank made available up to \$150 million of grant financing implemented by the African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF). Since then the ACBF has played a major role in capacity building on the African continent. At the core of ACBF's work and strategy is "institutional and human capacity development" both crucial elements of the capacity development process in Africa. ACBF's strategy has focused on using its core competency areas as focal points for intervening in capacity building programmes in Africa. Interventions spanning Economic Policy Analysis and Management, Financial Management and Accountability, Public Administration and Management, National Statistics and Statistical Systems, the Professionalization of the Voices of the Private Sector and Civil Society and National Parliaments and Parliamentary Institutions have shown remarkable success in

various countries across the continent. Although it was quite difficult to demarcate statistically the role of ACBF in the observed increase in the use of local technical experts in many of our sample economies, the general view emerging from our surveys is that ACBF interventions has resulted in huge successes in Policy analysis. This is not a coincidence given that close to 60 per cent of the portfolio of ACBF is channelled towards this end.

The expectation, given this scale of intervention, coupled with similar intervention by other capacity building institutions, is that the dependence on foreign technical experts should have fallen. The results of our survey however, do not meet this expectation.

A number of factors could easily explain this phenomenon. First, there is the loss of African experts to the phenomenon now styled “African brain drain”. According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), since 1990, Africa has lost one-third of its skilled personnel, mostly doctors, university teachers, engineers, and other professionals annually to this wave of migration. There are currently over 300,000 highly qualified Africans in the Diaspora, 30,000 of which have PhDs (Onsando, 2009). According to Akinkugbe and Yinusa (2010), about 70,000 highly qualified professionals and experts are recorded to leave the continent every year. As of 2000, 961,037 skilled professionals have emigrated from sub-Saharan Africa to work in America, Europe and Asia/Oceania. It may be argued that the brain drain have resulted in significantly increased inflows of remittances to sub-Saharan Africa (which may in some way help in the poverty reduction efforts), however, its negative impact on performance in such critical arrears as health, science and technology, and economic management can only be imagined (Easterly and Nyarko, 2008). Given this level of migration at a particular (scarce) skills level, it is not unusual that the production of local experts may not be making the desired impact on local skills shortage and that Africa may continue to depend on FTEs for a long time.

A similar development is donor “resistance” to the changing paradigm in technical assistance in Africa. Donors unwittingly compete for scarce skilled workers as well as provide technical assistance that may tend to substitute for recipient countries’ own capacity. This is often packaged as part of aid flows to these low income countries (Brautigam and Knack, 2004). Since most governments in Africa are not able to manage multiple projects which donors on the other hand want to fund, donors resort to setting up of project implementation units (PIUs) that are independent from normal government departments, with off-budget funding. These parallel administrative structures often erode public sector capacity because highly qualified national staff is drawn out of regular civil service structures into donor projects. The implication of this is that the provision of technical assistants who do not transfer skills but simply do the work themselves or the setting up of by-pass units can only serve to limit the ability of governments (central or local) to acquire skills which are prerequisites for effective management of aid projects and delivery of other essential public services. Furthermore, with multiple projects to administer, donors require skilled local staff, which is scarce in many SSA countries. Hence donors tend to bid up the price of capable staff, attracting them away from the (productive) sector and from government (Lise Rakner *et al.*, 2001). A similar phenomenon arises where technical

assistance exists only to bridge capacity constraints to deliver operational outputs. This is what we referred to earlier as transactional impact of the use of TAs. There should be the combination of deepening of local knowledge together with the acquisition of knowledge from other countries if long-term capacity is to be delivered.

Thus the answer to the question whether ACBF intervention has mitigated the flow of FTEs to African countries is a qualified yes. However, the answer to the question if ACBF has built sustainable capacity is an unqualified yes. ACBF interventions especially in the building of sustainable capacity for economic management through institutions like the AERC and IDEP have been hugely successful.

5.3. Framework for the judicious deployment of FTEs

Given that FTEs are still being used on a wide scale by African economies, is there a framework for their judicious deployment? A huge literature on the judicious deployment of FTEs exists (OXFAM, 2008; UNDP 2007; EU, 2008) Here we simply summarize some of the relevant issues in the context of this work. First, the primary focus on the use of TAs should be to build long-term sustainable capacity. One major criticism on the way TAs was delivered in the past had to do with the fact that TA was funded from the budgets of donor countries rather than the budget of countries receiving the aid and was managed according to the regulations and procedures of supplying countries (Morgan, 2002). Thus capacity building was viewed merely as using TAs to transfer knowledge and fill knowledge gaps. A major reorientation that will ensure the judicious deployment of FTEs must necessarily entail a paradigm shift away from this notion of capacity building. Therefore countries must be allowed to take ownership of the process-they must be allowed to lead. Ownership must focus on how to support governments and citizens' efforts to determine how they use aid resources as part of their broader development agenda. Sustainable development means that when technical assistants leave, the development process should not stagnate. Sustainability of projects is threatened if beneficiaries are not actively involved in the project conception, formulation and implementation process. Of equal importance is the need to ensure that programmes are demand –driven and sustainability incorporated into the planning stage.

This will only be the case when people take ownership and local expertise exists to continue where the technical assistants left off. Such a scheme will involve:

- Development assistance that is untied and provided through the government budget-this ensures that resources can be allocated and managed in accordance with national priorities.
- National systems (procurement and budgeting systems) to be strengthened where they are weak so that they can become avenues through which skills and services required by government are procured.
- Where alternative systems are inevitably used, they should be made to operate according to the same principles of national control and planning to avoid undermining capacity.

6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A number of criticisms have been levelled against the use of TAs as a mechanism for building local capacity in Africa. Expectation is that as much as possible, TAs should build local capacity, and utilise African expertise for national development because this is critical for ownership of the development process and hence sustainability. Thus, most TA programmes are unable to build long term capacity and reduce poverty. The philosophy behind ACBF intervention is built around these two pillars: Ownership- development process that is owned locally utilising local skills and institutions; Sustainability- the process should be enduring, able to yield desired results even when the TAs return to their countries of origin. This is enhanced when institutions and skills are owned by nationals. The expectation is that a sustained presence by the Foundation would increase the pool of skilled African professional in development policy analysis and economic management and eventually mitigate the flow of FTEs thus building sustained capacity. Thus, the overall objective of this study is to assess recent trends in the use of FTEs and evaluate their impact on the use of local expertise. Thus an attempt is made to characterise recent trends in the flow of expatriate technical experts to SSA and identify the frameworks under which it operates.

Our results show that the recourse to the use of FTEs has shown a downward trend between 2000 and 2008 in some of the countries in our survey. However, this trend has not been very obvious especially in countries that have embarked on the PRSP process and where foreign aid constitutes a significant proportion of Gross national income. Thus while FTEs as a component of aid has seen a major increase in Senegal, Burkina Faso, Mali, Tanzania, and Uganda, there has been a noticeable downward trend in Namibia, Botswana, Gabon and Cameroon. FTEs are predominantly males in the sample economies.

The downward trend in the use of FTEs in most of the countries, the investigation showed, resulted from the use or engagement of the local experts most of whom were trained in local or regional institutions over the years. The local experts functioned in finance, economic planning and development, central banks, national treasuries, Universities, Statistical bureaus, Foreign affairs and regional, bilateral and multilateral organizations.

Our results showed that most of the local experts especially in economic management and analysis have benefited from ACBF funded programmes either at the national or regional levels. Mention must be made in particular of ACBF interventions through the AERC or IDEP as these programmes have impacted capacity in many Universities and Central banks in Africa.

Though the primary goal of this project was not to evaluate the quality of output of the local training schemes we can surmise from our survey that:

- Local expertise has become increasingly available and provides quality work comparable to what FTEs do in many of the countries. This is evidenced by the several development initiatives and capacity building activities both at the national

and regional level in the past decade coinciding with the establishment of the local training schemes.

- There has been a reduction in the dependence on tied aid in many of the countries. Again this is evidenced by a bolder response to international geopolitical change especially the reduced dependence on North South aid and the gradual improvement in South-South cooperation in some of these economies. Moreover, there is also a gradual relaxation of strict conditionalities and a move towards knowledge sharing as the basis for skills building between donors and recipient countries.
- The rise in manpower has also reinforced institutional capacity building both for economic management and governance thus shaping the ways government and in recent times the private sector does business.
- The resort to local training may have ameliorated the high costs involved in the use of TCs and released funds for other developmental activities while at the same time building enduring local capacity.

The study concludes by examining some of the factors that may have continued to encourage the flow of FTEs to Africa in spite of the huge successes recorded with local training schemes. First and foremost, the study recognises the high demand for experts dictated by rapid economic growth and globalisation. Secondly, the study recognised the role played by brain drain, donor resistance to the reconfigured approach to the deployment of TCs in Africa and finally the low priority attributed to the encouragement of women in senior administrative cadres in many government institutions.

While this study may be indicative, it must be acknowledged that there were a number of challenges. From a methodological perspective, we argued that the non-probability sampling technique employed in the study may affect the generalizability of some of the results. Also, it will be observed that the study did not delve into the issue of the quality of outputs generated by either foreign or local experts although this may have been inferred. The main goal was to examine trends in the employment of FTEs. We believe that the issue of efficiency equally deserves to be studied to complement this study. So at best, this study could only be a pilot study on this topic.

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APPENDIX A

Table 1: Institutions surveyed-Anglophone countries

Table 1 (a): BOTSWANA

| Name of Institution | Core Institutional Function vis-à-vis the development management process of the country | Date Interviewed | Names and positions of officials interviewed |
|---|---|--------------------------------|---|
| Botswana Council of Non-Governmental Organizations | Coordination and facilitation of NGOs work; capacity building and advocacy | 2 nd March 2009 | Mr. M. Simane <i>Executive Secretary</i> |
| Ministry of Finance and Development Planning | Mobilizing and prudently managing available financial and economic resources; formulation of economic and financial policies for sustainable economic development | 13 th January 2009 | Mr. K. Ndobano <i>Deputy Secretary of Macroeconomic policy</i> Ms. E. Richard-Modisa <i>Deputy Secretary for financial policy</i> Ms. K. Gopolang <i>Assistant accountant general</i> |
| Botswana Confederation of Commerce, Industry and Manpower | Advocacy of private sector interests | 15 th December 2008 | Mr. N. Moleele <i>Deputy Director</i> |
| Botswana Institute for Development Policy Analysis | Policy research analysis | 11 th December 2008 | Mr. K. Maroba <i>Programme Coordinator</i> |

Table 1 (b): TANZANIA

| SN | Name of Institution | Core Institutional Function vis-à-vis the development management process of the country | Date Interviewed | Names and positions of officials interviewed |
|----|---|---|----------------------------|---|
| 1. | Economics Department, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences University Of Dar es Salaam | Teaching, Research and advisory services | 4 th March 2009 | Dr Longinus Rutasitara <i>Head of Economics Department</i> |
| 2. | Economic Research Bureau (ERB) University Of Dar es Salaam | Research, Consultancy and Teaching | 5 th March 2009 | Dr Eliab Luvanda <i>Research Fellow</i> |
| 3. | Policy Forum | A network of NGOs/CSO's which brings its members involved in policy processes, | 5 th March 2009 | Semkae Kilonzo <i>The Coordinator</i> |

| | | | | |
|-----|---|---|-----------------------------|--|
| | | enhance and augment the voice of ordinary citizens in national policy processes. | | |
| 4. | President's Office, Planning Commission (POPC) | Facilitation and stimulation of economic activities through analysis and articulation of policies to promote and guide the participation of economic agents | 12 March 2009 | <p>1. Mary Faini: <i>Director Macro-economy cluster</i></p> <p>2. Grace Moshah: <i>Assistant Director Macro-economy cluster</i></p> <p>3. Mr. John Mwinuka: <i>Assistant Director, Social Services and Demographic cluster</i></p> |
| 5. | Tanzania Association of NGOs (TANGO) | Capacity building for member organisation through trainings, exchange visits and knowledge sharing. Facilitation of citizen participation in developmental issues such as policy processes and local government functions and development | 13 th March 2009 | Mr. Zaa Twalangeti <i>Information and Communication Program Manager</i> |
| 6. | Tanzania Chamber Of Commerce Industry and Agriculture (TCCIA) | Advocacy for better business environment and provision of business services to the business community including easy access to business information and advisory services. | 16 th March 2009 | Daniel Mchemba <i>Director of Planning</i> |
| 7. | Research on poverty Alleviation (REPOA) | Undertake and facilitate research, conduct and coordinate training, and promote dialogue and development of policy for pro-poor growth and poverty reduction. | 17 th March 2009 | Erasto Ngalewa <i>Programmes Director</i> |
| 8. | Tanzania Private Sector. Foundation (TPSF), | Advocacy and lobbying for policy changes in the government specifically to private sector development | 23 rd March 2009 | Mr Louis Accaro <i>Programme Director</i> |
| 9. | Ministry Of Finance and Economic Affairs | Mobilization and allocation of financial resources | 31 st March 2009 | Mark Temu <i>Principal economist</i> |
| 10. | Central bank of Tanzania | | Non responsive | |

Table 1 (c); UGANDA

| Name of organization | Key function |
|---|--|
| Uganda Investment Authority | Promotion and Facilitation of Investment and development of industrial parks |
| Private Sector Foundation Uganda | Policy Advocacy, Research and provision of business development services |
| National Planning Authority | Production and management of National development plans |
| Ministry of Finance Planning and Economic development | Formulation of Economic development policies |
| Economic monitoring and Research, Office of the President | Monitoring and evaluation of development programs |
| Economic Policy Research Centre | Research and Capacity building |
| Center for Basic Research | Research, Training and consultancies |
| Uganda National NGO Forum | Policy Advocacy and NGO Policy Engagement Coordination |
| Faculty of Economics and Management- Makerere University | Teaching and Conducting Economic Research |
| Bank of Uganda | Formulation, Implementation and Monitoring of Monetary Policy |

Table 2: Institutions Surveyed - Francophone Countries

Table 2(a): BURKINA-FASO

| | Structure or organization | Contact and addresses | Surveyed people | Date from the investigation |
|---|---|--|--|-----------------------------|
| 1 | Promotion-women/Development Solidarity (PF/DS) | 01 BP 2532 Ouagadougou 01 Such: (226) - 50.36.33.70 Fax: (226) - 50.30.67.67 promo.femmes@river.bf | Mrs OUEDRAGO Clementine Mr OUEDRAOGO Bruno Mrs Ilboudo Chantal | 17/11/2008 |
| 2 | Country confederation of Faso (CPF) | 01 BP 2978 Ouagadougou 01 Telephone fax: (00226) 50 30 18 44 Email: cpf@fasonet.bf www.cpf.bf/ | Mr HAFING L. Augustin Mr CAD Bassiaka Mr SOMDA Kalix Mr OUEDRAOGO Kader | 17/11/2008 |
| 3 | Pan African institute for the /Afrique Development of the West /Sahel (IPD/AOS) | 01 BP 1756 Ouagadougou 01 Tel. (226) 50 36 48 07/50 36 47 62 Fax: (226) 50 36 47 30 e-mail: ipd_aos@cenatrin.bf | Tinder DIOP | 12/11/2008 |
| 4 | Center Studies, of Documentation and | 03 B.P. 7021 or 7164 Ouaga 03 Zogona, Ouagadougou | Professor THIOMBIANO Taladidia | 18/11/2008 |

| | | | | |
|----|--|---|----------------------|------------|
| | Research Economic and Social (CEDARS) | Tel. : (226) 50.31.19.67 Fax: (226) 50.31.26.86 | | |
| 5 | National office of the Foreign Trade (ONAC) | 30, Avenue Léo FROBENIUS 01 BP 389 Ouagadougou 01 Burkina Faso Tel. : (226) 50.31.13.00 /01 Fax: (226) 50.31.14.69 Email: info@onac.bf info@tradepoint.bf http://www.tradepoint.bf | Mr KARAMA J. Paul | 18/11/2008 |
| | | | Mr TOE Baya | |
| 6 | Center Economic and Social Surveys of West Africa (CESAO) | 01 B.P. 305, Sore-Dioulasso 01 20-97-10-17/97-16-84 FAX: 20-97-08-02 Ouagadougou : 50-39-31-15 cesao.bobo@fasonet.bf www.cesao.org | Mr BATIONO Dieudonné | 18/11/2008 |
| 7 | National federation of the Country Organizations (FENOP) | 09 BP 977 OUAGADOUGOU 09 SUCH: (226) 50 36 11 51 E email: fenop@cenatrin.bf | Mr SANOU Issouf | 18/11/2008 |
| 8 | Association Lives Peasant (AVLP) | 05 B.P. 6274, Ouagadougou 05 Tel.: 50-37-34-90 - Saponé: 50-40-56-21 aeugene@fasonet.bf | Mr ILBOUDO Andre | 18/11/2008 |
| 9 | African institute for the Economic and Social Development (INADES Formation) | 01 B.P. 1022, Ouagadougou 01 Tel.: 50-34-28-29 /50-34-03-41 FAX: 50 34 05 19 inadesb@fasonet.bf | Mr BARRY Tinder | 21/11/2008 |
| 10 | Organization for the Reinforcement of the Capacities of Development (ORCADE) | Address: 09 B. P. 675 Ouagadougou 09 Place: Ouagadougou Such: Tel.: 226-7880-0123 Fax: 226-5036-2089 Web site: http://www.orcade.bf/ : | Mr KAMBOU | 21/11/2008 |
| 11 | Group studies and of research on the democracy and the economic and social development (GERDDES/Burkina) | 02 BP 5301 Ouagadougou 02 Such: +226-5030-5575 Fax: +226-5030-5336 gerddes@fasonet.bf | Mr YOUNGBARE | 24/11/2008 |
| | | | Mrs LIEHOUN Mariam | |
| 12 | National institute of the Statistics and Demography (INSD) | 555 Avenue of independence 01 BP 374 Ouagadougou 01 Tel.: (226) 50-32-49-76 Fax: (226) 50-32-61-59 Email : insd@cenatrin.bf Site: www.insd.bf | Mr Bamory OUATTARA | 24/11/2008 |
| 13 | Ministry for the Economy and Finances (Direction of the Regional planning) | | Mr NAMA Roger | 25/11/2008 |
| | | | Mr LOFO Michel | |

| | | | | |
|----|--|--|---------------------------|------------|
| 14 | The Economic and Social Council (THESE) | Economic and Social Council (THESE) Telephone: (226) 50 32 40 90/91/Fax: (226) 50 31 06 54 Email: ces@ces.gov.bf http://www.ces.gov.bf | Mr ILBOUDO | 25/11/2008 |
| | | | Mr CAD | |
| 15 | New Program of Third Inter-University Cycle (NPTCI) | 03 B.P. 7164 - Ouagadougou 03 - BURKINA FASO Tel. (226) 50 30 14 08 - Fax (226) 50 31 55 49 - Email: ptci@fasonet.bf - Web site: ptci-eco.org | Pr KAMGNIA Dia | 27/11/2008 |
| 16 | National school of administration and magistrature (ENAM) | 03 B.P. 7024 Ouagadougou 03 Tel. : (226) 50 31 42 64/65 Telecopier: (226) 50 31 49 98 Email: enam@cenatrin.bf | Mr TRAORE Youssouf | 01/12/2008 |
| | | | Mr SOMDA Honore | |
| 17 | Reciprocity-women and Development of Burkina (MUFEDE) | Address: 01 BP 3291 Ouagadougou 01 Place: Ouagadougou Such: Tel.: 226-5031-3827 Fax: 226-5031-3827 E-mail: | Mrs KY Cécile | 03/12/2008 |
| | | | Mrs SORE | |
| | | | Mr SOMBIE | |
| | | | Mrs OKOHANAKA | |
| 18 | House of the Decentralized Co-operation (MCD) | Tel.. : (00226) 50 38 43 67 Fax: (00226) 50 38 66 37 Mail : 11 BP: 1012 CMS Ouagadougou 11 Burkina Faso E-mail : mcd@mcdburkina.bf Web site : www.mcdburkina.bf | Mr SEMBENE Mamadou | 19/12/2008 |
| 19 | National school of financial controls (ENAREF) | Road of FADA, sector 27 03 BP 7085 OUAGADOUYOU 03 Tel.: / Fax: | Mr SEDOGO Martin | 18/12/2008 |
| | | | Mrs YAMEOGO Rakieta | |
| | | | Mrs ILBOUDO Celine | |
| 20 | Association Tin Killed (ATT) | Association Tin Killed BP 167 Fada Gourma, Burkina Faso Tel.: (226) 40 77 01 26 Fax (226) 40 77 02 08 info@tintua.org www.tintua.org | Benoit OUOBA | 22/12/2008 |
| | | | YARO Anselme | |
| | | | LANKOANDE Abdoul Kader | |
| 21 | CENTER FINANCIAL INNOVATION (CIF) | 06 BP 9324 Ouagadougou Burkina Faso Tel.: 50 33 06 32/50 33 06 33/50 33 06 35 | SAVADOGO Oumar | 28/01/2009 |
| 22 | Trade association of the Institutions of Microfinance to Burkina Faso (APIM) | Avenue Real Charles De Gaulles of Restaurant WEND SOM Offices: 2nd stage 01 BP 5386 Ouagadougou 01 Such: (00226) 50 36 13 78 Fax: (00226) 50 34 71 47 E-mail: apimbf@fasonet.bf http://www.apim-burkina.bf | Mrs BATIONO Pascaline | 30/01/2009 |
| | | | Mrs COULIBALY Perpetuates | |

| | | | | |
|----|--|--|-------------------------|------------|
| 23 | S.O.S the International SAHEL Burkina Faso | 01 - BP 1170 - Ouagadougou Tel. : (00.226) 36 69 52 Fax : (00.226) 36 69 53 email : sossi.bf@liptinfor.bf Web site : S.O.S the International SAHEL Burkina Faso | SAWADOGO Alfred | 05/01/2009 |
| 24 | Christian Relief and Development Organization (CREED) | 01 B.P. 3801 Ouagadougou 01 Burkina Faso Email: credo@fasonet.bj Phon: 226.344.098/347 106 Fax: 226.347.106/371 084 | AVOID Paul S. | 5/01/2009 |
| | | | YANOGO Andre | |
| | | | APPIAH Godstime | |
| 25 | Catholic organization for the development and solidarity (OCADES-Burkina) | 01 BP 1195 OUAGADOUGOU 01 BURKINA FASO Such: (226) 50 37 00 34 Faxes: (226) 50 388361 Email: sen@ocadesburkina.org ocades@cenatrin.bf www.ocadesburkina.org | PODA Etienne | |
| | | | DAMIBA Lucien | |
| 26 | House of company (MEF) | | Mr KARGOUGOU Issaka | |
| 27 | Direction of the forecast and the Macroeconomic analyses (DPAM) | | Antoine-Marie SIE TIOYE | 2/02/2009 |
| 28 | Center of Analysis of the Economic policies and Social (CAPES) | 01 BP 1919 Ouagadougou 01 Tel. : +226 50 36 96 14/ +226 50 36 96 15/+226 50 36 96 32 fax: + 226 50 36 96 33 E-mail: courrier@capes.bf - info@rgcb.org http://www.capes.bf/ | Dr SUMMONS Abel | 05/01/2009 |
| | | | Dr ZONON Abdoulaye | |
| 29 | Project of reinforcement of the interface State private sector - civil company (PARECAP) | | Mr OUEDRAOGO Richard | 09/02/09 |
| 30 | IAPM (African institute of Professionalization in Management) | 09 BP 569 Ouagadougou 09 Burkina Faso Tel.: (226) 50 36 80 00/02 Fax : 50 31 32 85 info@iapmformation.com www.iapmformation.com | Mr SANGARE | 19/02/2009 |

Table 2 (b): CAMEROON:

| ORGANIZATION | Function |
|--|---|
| Program National Participative Development (PNDP) (*) | Local development |
| Program Reinforcement of the Capacities of the Structures of Control (CASC) | Reinforcement of the Capacities |
| Research centre in Economy and Management (CEREG) | Research in economy and management |
| Training in Management of the Economic policy (GPE) | Training in Economic policy |
| Economic Management and Faculty of Science (Univ. from Yaoundé II) | Training and Research in economy and management |
| Divison of the Futurology and Strategic Planning - MINEPAT | Planning of the development |
| Ministry for Small and Medium-sized companies, the Social Economy and Craft industry (MINPMEESA) | Promotion of SME |
| Direction of the Economic affairs - MINFI | Economic forecast |
| Autonomous case of Damping (CAA) | Management of the national debt |
| The Craft industry and Mine, Industir, Chamber of Commerce (CCIMA) | Economic and commercial promotion |

Table 2 (c): GABON

| ORGANIZATION | Function |
|---|--|
| The Economic and Social Council (THESE) | To advise the other Institutions of the country in the fields economic, social and cultural |
| BEAC National Direction | Monetary and led emission of the monetary policy of zone CEMAC |
| SENAREC | Coordination of the activities referring to the reinforcement capacities |
| Cabinet of the Minister for Finance | To lead the economic policy and budgetary government |
| Ministry for the development and the Futurology | responsible for the programming of the development and the investigations economic and social |
| Directorate-General of the Economy | responsible for the development of the policy economic, of the budget general of the State and the economic forecasts in the short run |
| Direction of the Budget | development and followed budgetary execution |
| SYNDUSTRIGAB | to defend the interests of industries of Gabon |

Table 2(d): MALI

| Organization |
|--|
| ESTM (Higher School of Technology and Management) |
| CCIM (Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Mali) |
| Commission Economy, Finance and Plan of the French National Assembly of Mali |
| FSEG (Economic Management and Faculty of Science) |
| MEIC (Ministry for the Economy, Industry and the Trade) |
| Total |

Table 2 (e): SENEGAL

| |
|---|
| Questioned Institutions |
| Arrange Nationale Statistics and Demography |
| Sénégalaise association for the promotion of the Development at base (ASPRODEB) |
| BCEAO |
| Center African Higher Studies In Management |
| Economic Research Center Applied (CREATED) |
| CEPOD |
| CNES |
| National confederation of Employers (CNP) |
| Direction of the Strategies of Development |
| DPEE |
| National school of Administration (ENA) |
| CIVIL FORUM Section Sénégalaise de Transparency International |
| IDEP |
| New Inter-University Programme of Third Cycle in Economy (NPTCI) |
| Economic observatory of the Chamber of Commerce of Dakar |
| Co Sup |

Appendix B: Trends in the recruitment of expatriate technical experts

Table 3(a): Uganda: Recent trends in the recruitment of expatriate technical experts — their numbers, origins, gender distribution, and the organizational frameworks under which they are engaged

| YEAR | Number of foreign-based experts' | Experts countries of origin | No. of males | No. of Females | How many were of recent African origin? | | The organizational arrangement the experts were engaged in | |
|------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|----------------|--|---|--|---|
| | | | | | Nationals of this country | Nationals of other African countries | | |
| 2000 | 15 | Netherlands | 3 | 2 | Foreign-based nationals of this country | | - Context of foreign aid - Employees of a foreign consulting firm - Independent consultant | |
| | | United Kingdom | 1 | | | | | |
| | | India | 1 | | | | | |
| | | Denmark | | | 1 | Nationals of other African countries | | 3 |
| | | Kenya | 1 | | | | | |
| | | South Africa | | | 1 | | | |
| | | USA | 1 | | 1 | | | |
| | | World Bank | 1 | | 1 | | | |
| | | IMF | 1 | | | | | |
| Sub-Total | 15 | | 9 | 6 | | 3 | | |
| 2005 | 20 | Ireland | 1 | 1 | Foreign-based nationals of this country | | - Independent consultant - Context of foreign aid - Employee of a foreign consulting firm | |
| | | Germany | 1 | | | | | |
| | | Mauritius | | | | Nationals of other African countries | | 5 |
| | | Australia | 1 | | | | | |
| | | United Kingdom | 2 | | 1 | | | |
| | | Canada | 2 | | | | | |
| | | Kenya | 1 | | | | | |
| | | USA | 2 | | 2 | | | |
| | | Denmark | | | 2 | | | |
| | | World Bank | 2 | | | | | |
| | | IMF | 2 | | | | | |
| Sub-Total | 20 | | 14 | 6 | | 5 | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|-----------|----------------|-----------|---|--|-----------|---|
| 2008 | 22 | World Bank | 2 | 1 | Foreign-based nationals of this country | 8 | - Independent consultant - Employee of a foreign consulting firm - Context of foreign aid |
| | | European Union | 5 | | | | |
| | | Saudi Arabia | 2 | | | | |
| | | United kingdom | 3 | 1 | | | |
| | | Germany | | 1 | | | |
| | | USA | 3 | | | | |
| | | Kenya | | 1 | | | |
| | | South Africa | 2 | | | | |
| IMF | 1 | | | Nationals of other African countries | | | |
| Sub-Total | 22 | | 18 | 4 | | 8 | |
| Grand-Total | 57 | | 41 | 16 | | 16 | |

Table 3 (b) Namibia: Trends in Recruitment of Foreign Experts

| YEAR | Number | Nationality | Gender | African origin | |
|-----------|--------|--|-----------------------------|--|----|
| 2000-2004 | 28 | Zambia x3; Gambia x1; Uganda x1; Netherlands x1; Sweden x4; Belgium x1; British x2; Finland x2; Germany x3; Tanzania x1; Sri-Lanka x1; Kenya x2; Canada x1; Italy x1; Egypt x1; Nepal x1; Nigeria x1, India x1, | Male = 23 Female = 5 | Foreign based nationals of this country | 0 |
| | | | | Nationals of other African countries | 7 |
| 2005-2007 | 46 | Namibia x1; South Africa x3; Zimbabwe x2; Gambia x1; Uganda x3; Netherlands x1; Malawi x1; Tanzania x2; Zambia x2; Kenya x2; Belgium x1; British x4; Germany x2; Spain x1; Netherlands x2; Australia x1; Canada x1; Malaysia x2; Sri-Lanka x1; Sweden x2; Luxembourg x1; Nigeria x3; Egypt x1; Canada x1; Nepal x1; IMF experts x 6 | Male = 38 Female = 8 | Foreign based nationals of this country | 1 |
| | | | | Nationals of other African countries | 16 |

| | | | | | |
|------|----|--|-----------------------------|--|---|
| 2008 | 21 | Netherlands x1; Germany x4; Italy x1; British x2; Zambia x1; Spain x2; Australia x1; Canada x2; Sri-Lanka x1; Belgium x1; Kenya x1; Nepal x1; USA x2; Mauritius x1 | Male = 19 Female = 2 | Foreign based nationals of this country | 0 |
|------|----|--|-----------------------------|--|---|

Source: Field Survey, 2008/2009.

Table 3(c) Botswana: Countries of origin of foreign experts

| Common countries of Origin (in alphabetical order) | Major organizational arrangements |
|--|--|
| 1.Cameroon | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Supplied as part of aid program |
| 2.Canada | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Supplied as part of aid program |
| 3.Ethiopia | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Supplied as part of aid program |
| 4.Ghana | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Other |
| 5.India | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Independent consultant • Supplied as part of aid program • Other |
| 6.Kenya | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Independent consultant • Supplied as part of aid program |
| 7.Malawi | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Supplied as part of aid program |
| 8.Netherlands | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Other |
| 9.Nigeria | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Supplied as part of aid program |
| 10.South Africa | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Supplied as part of aid program |
| 11.United Kingdom | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Supplied as part of aid program |
| 12.United States of America | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Independent consultant • Supplied as part of aid program |
| 13.Zambia | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee • Independent consultant • Supplied as part of aid program |
| 14.Zimbabwe | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Independent consultant |

Appendix C Trends in the recruitment of local experts since 2000-Francophone Countries

| Table 4(a) Evolution of local expertise according to institutions in Burkina Faso | | | |
|--|------|------|------|
| | 2000 | 2005 | 2008 |
| Promo-Femmes/Développement Solidarité (PF/DS) | 7 | 10 | 12 |
| Confédération Paysanne du Faso(CPF) | 8 | 10 | 4 |
| Institut Panafricain pour le Développement /Afrique de l'Ouest /Sahel (IPD/AOS) | | 10 | 5 |
| Centre d'Etudes, de Documentation et de Recherches Economique et Sociale (CEDRES) | 5 | 5 | |
| Office National du Commerce Extérieur (ONAC) | 4 | 5 | 2 |
| Centre d'Études Economiques et Sociales de l'Afrique de l'Ouest (CESAO) | 6 | | 8 |
| Fédération Nationale des Organisations Paysannes (FENOP) | 10 | 2 | |
| Association Vive le Paysan (AVLP) | 4 | 4 | 2 |
| Institut Africain pour le Développement Economique et Social (INADES Formation) | 6 | 5 | 8 |
| Groupe d'études et de recherche sur la démocratie et le développement économique et social (GERDDES/Burkina) | 2 | 4 | 5 |
| Institut National de la Statistique et de la Démographie (INSD) | | 5 | 18 |
| Ministère de l'Economie et des Finances (Direction de l'Aménagement du Territoire) | 11 | 2 | 5 |
| Conseil Economique et Social (CES) | | 16 | 17 |
| Organisation pour le Renforcement des Capacités de Développement (ORCADE) | | 1 | 1 |
| Ecole nationale de régies financières (ENAREF) | 2 | 1 | 6 |
| Association Tin Tua (ATT) | 2 | 4 | 2 |
| Mutualité-Femmes et Développement du Burkina (MUFEDE) | 1 | | 7 |
| Maison de la Coopération Décentralisée (MCD) | | 3 | 6 |
| Nouveau Programme de Troisième Cycle Interuniversitaire (NPTCI) | 8 | 8 | 8 |
| École nationale d'administration et de magistrature (ENAM) | 20 | 20 | |
| SOS SAHEL International Burkina Faso | | 2 | 2 |
| Christian Relief and Development Organisation (CREDO) | 10 | 20 | 15 |
| Organisation Catholique pour le développement et la solidarité (OCADES-Burkina) | 5 | 6 | 9 |
| Maison de l'entreprise (MEF) | | 3 | 4 |
| CENTRE D'INNOVATION FINANCIERE (CIF) | | 5 | 1 |
| Association Professionnelle des Institutions de Microfinance au Burkina Faso (APIM) | | 3 | 5 |
| Direction de la prévision et des Analyses Macroéconomiques (DPAM) | | 2 | 5 |
| Centre d'Analyse des Politiques Economiques et Sociales (CAPES) | | 11 | 20 |
| Projet de renforcement de l'interface Etat- secteur privé -société civile (PARECAP) | | | 40 |
| IAPM (Institut Africain de Professionnalisation en Management) | | 153 | 189 |
| Total | 111 | 320 | 406 |

Table 4 (b): Evolution of local expertise according to institutions in Cameroun

| | 2000 | 2005 | 2008 |
|---------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| PNDP | 3 | 3 | 1 |
| CASC | 2 | | |
| CEREG | | | |
| GPE | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| Univ. de Yaoundé II | 6 | 14 | 14 |
| MINEPAT | 4 | 6 | 1 |
| MINPMEESA | | 2 | 3 |
| MINFI | | 2 | 1 |
| CAA | | | |
| CCIMA | 5 | 15 | |
| Total | 26 | 48 | 26 |

Table 4 (c) : Evolution of local expertise according to institutions in Mali

| | 2005 | 2008 |
|-----------------------|----------|-----------|
| ESTM | 3 | 1 |
| CCIM | 1 | 2 |
| Com Eco,Fin Assemblée | 4 | 6 |
| FSEG | | 69 |
| MEIC | | 3 |
| Total | 8 | 81 |

Table 4 (d) Evolution of local expertise according to institutions in Senegal

| | 2000 | 2005 | 2008 |
|--|------------|------------|------------|
| Agence Nationale de la Statistique et de la Démographie | 8 | 14 | 26 |
| Association Sénégalaise pour la promotion du Développement à la base(ASPRODEB) | 2 | 10 | 11 |
| BCEAO | 11 | 10 | 2 |
| CENTRE AFRICAIN D'ETUDES SUPERIEURES EN GESTION | 130 | 150 | 150 |
| CEPOD | 2 | 16 | |
| Confédération Nationale du Patronat(CNP) | | 13 | 11 |
| Direction des Stratégies de Développement | | 5 | 2 |
| DPEE | | 2 | 6 |
| Ecole nationale d'Administration (ENA) | | | 1 |
| FORUM CIVIL/ Section Senegalaise de Transparency International | 4 | 10 | 7 |
| IDEP | 24 | 30 | 43 |
| Nouveau Programme Interuniversitaire de Troisième Cycle en Economie (NPTCI) | | | |
| Observatoire Economique de la Chambre de Commerce de Dakar | 5 | 4 | 5 |
| Sup de Co | 80 | 110 | 106 |
| Total général | 266 | 374 | 370 |