Regional Economic Outlook

Sub-Saharan Africa

Navigating Headwinds

APR **15**

World Economic and Financial Surveys

Regional Economic Outlook

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policy considerations are those of the IMF staff and do not necessarily represent the
views of the IMF, its Executive Board, or IMF management.

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Abbreviations

AfDB	African Development Bank
BRIC	Brazil, Russia, India, and China
BVMAC	Bourse des Valeurs Mobilières d'Afrique Centrale
BRVM	Bourse régionale des valeurs Mobilières
CEMAC	Economic and Monetary Community of Central Africa
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
DOTS	Direction of Trade Statistics
DVA	Domestic value added
EAC	East African Community
ECOWAS	Community of West African States
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FDI	Foreign direct investment
FSGM	Flexible System of Global Models
FVA	Foreign value added
GDP	Gross domestic product
GVCs	Global value chains
IDB	Inter-American Development Bank
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IO	Input output
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OLS	Ordinary least squares
REO	Regional Economic Outlook
SACU	Southern African Customs Union
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SWAP	Share of the working age population
UMP	Unconventional monetary policy
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
WAEMU	West African Economic and Monetary Union
WAP	Working age population
WEO	World Economic Outlook
WFP	World Food Programme of the United Nations
WTO	World Trade Organization

Acknowledgments

The following conventions are used in this publication:

- In tables, a blank cell indicates "not applicable," ellipsis points (. . .) indicate "not available," and 0 or 0.0 indicates "zero" or "negligible." Minor discrepancies between sums of constituent figures and totals are due to rounding.

- An en dash (–) between years or months (for example, 2009–10 or January–June) indicates the years or months covered, including the beginning and ending years or months; a slash or virgule (/) between years or months (for example, 2005/06) indicates a fiscal or financial year, as does the abbreviation FY (for example, FY2006).

- "Billion" means a thousand million; "trillion" means a thousand billion.

- "Basis points" refer to hundredths of 1 percentage point (for example, 25 basis points are equivalent to ¼ of 1 percentage point).

Executive Summary

NAVIGATING HEADWINDS

Sub-Saharan Africa's economy is set to register another year of solid economic performance, expanding at 4½ percent in 2015. This said, the expansion will be at the lower end of the range registered in recent years, mainly reflecting the adverse impact of the sharp decline in oil and other commodity prices. The effect of this shock will be quite heterogeneous across the region. The region's eight oil exporters will be hit hard and, with limited buffers, are expected to effect significant fiscal adjustment, with adverse implications for growth. For much of the rest of the region, near-term prospects remain quite favorable, with many countries benefiting from lower oil prices—although, for a number of them, this positive effect will be partly offset by the decline in the prices of other exported commodities. Notable exceptions are South Africa, where growth is expected to remain lackluster, held back by continuing problems in the electricity sector, and Guinea, Liberia, and Sierra Leone, where the Ebola outbreak continues to exact a heavy economic and social toll.

This outlook for solid growth in the face of significant headwinds is, however, subject to a number of risks.

- *Large fiscal deficits in some countries amid tighter global financial conditions.* External financing conditions have tightened, and could tighten further still in the period ahead, especially as monetary policy normalization proceeds in the United States. In that context, the large fiscal and current account deficits that prevail in some countries, especially among frontier market economies, leave them vulnerable to a potential reduction in external financing. Implementation of tighter-than-planned fiscal policies under these circumstances, with cuts to capital spending, would have a negative impact on near- and medium-term growth. But postponing policy adjustments would give rise to macroeconomic imbalances and policy uncertainty, and exacerbate the risk of disorderly capital flows.

- *Uneven global recovery.* Growth could further disappoint, notably in Europe and China, which are among sub-Saharan Africa's main trade partners. Meanwhile, further dollar appreciation, reflecting variations in growth rates and expected monetary policies across major economies, would make imports more expensive in the region, lower investment and growth, and fuel inflationary pressures. It would also increase the debt service burden and could adversely impact balance sheets of banks and private entities.

- *Domestic security-related risks.* Security risks have recently come to the forefront in a number of countries, especially in the Sahel. Should these conflicts escalate, it would not only pose serious fiscal and near-term growth-related risks, but also, to the extent that they cloud the political and business climate, deter domestic and foreign investors. Elections in 2015 in a number of countries could also complicate the implementation of politically difficult policies.

Beyond the current shock, sustaining strong, diversified, and durable growth remains the key policy priority. In the short term, faced with a massive shock and limited buffers, oil exporters will have no choice but to undertake fiscal adjustment. Where feasible, exchange rate flexibility will be important to help preserve scarce external reserves. The current shock is also a unique opportunity for countries to introduce politically difficult energy subsidy reforms, and a reminder of the need to make more rapid progress toward diversification. To that end, addressing the infrastructure gap remains critical to allow new higher-productivity sectors to develop, generate jobs for the rapidly growing young population, and foster integration into global value chains. In scaling up investment to address infrastructure bottlenecks, though, countries will have to remain mindful of the need to preserve debt sustainability.

HOW CAN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA HARNESS THE DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND?

The second chapter of this report considers the implications of the ongoing demographic transition for sub-Saharan Africa. Over the next 20 years, as both infant mortality and fertility rates decline, sub-Saharan Africa will become the main source of new entrants into the global labor force. In fact, by 2035, the number of Africans joining the working age population (ages 15–64) will exceed that from the rest of the world combined. This is a trend with significant ramifications for both the region and the global economy.

Under the right policies, the region could indeed benefit from a substantial demographic dividend, but the magnitude of that dividend will depend critically on the speed of decline in fertility rates and on the strength of accompanying policies. The chapter shows that, for the majority of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa, the demographic transition still has to run its course, and that the region will need to create jobs at an extremely rapid rate for an extended period of time—about 18 million per year until 2035—to absorb a growing labor force. Building on the experience of east Asia and Latin America, it finds that the largest dividend will be gained if policies are focused on a set of interlinked actions, including fostering private sector development to increase the number of non-agricultural jobs, bridging the infrastructure and human capital gaps, tackling labor market rigidities, and supporting stronger trade ties. Mobilizing the increase in domestic savings arising from the transition could also spur higher investment and growth. Implementation of these policies could lift sub-Saharan Africa's GDP per capita by up to 50 percent by 2050.

GLOBAL VALUE CHAINS: WHERE ARE YOU?
THE MISSING LINK IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA'S TRADE INTEGRATION

The third chapter reviews the extent and strength of trade integration of sub-Saharan Africa in the global economy. The mid-1990s ushered in two decades of strong and sustained growth in the region, with both sound macroeconomic policies and favorable external conditions playing a role. Indeed, trade has been a powerful engine for growth, but far less for labor productivity gains. With the global environment turning less supportive, it will be key for the region to build on the growing trade ties of the past 20 years to better leverage its comparative advantages, participate in global value chains, and in the process, support structural transformation.

Substantial opportunities for further regional and global trade integration still remain untapped. The chapter finds that, even after accounting for lower levels of income and economic size, generally longer distances and a larger number of landlocked countries, trade flows emanating from sub-Saharan Africa are still significantly smaller than in the rest of the world. Likewise, the region still has some way to go to better integrate into global value chains—a process that has been associated in other regions with higher growth over time—although there is substantial heterogeneity across countries. Where progress was registered, manufacturing, agriculture and agro-business, tourism, and transport showed the largest potential for deeper integration. To leverage this potential, findings emphasize the need to fill the infrastructure gap, lower tariff and nontariff barriers, and improve the business climate and access to credit.

1. Navigating Headwinds

Sub-Saharan Africa's economy looks set to register another year of solid growth in 2015 (4½ percent). Still, this expansion will be at the lower end of the range by recent standards, and reflects the adverse shock that has hit some of the region's largest economies due to the sharp decline in oil prices (Figure 1.1). The impact of this shock is set to be quite heterogeneous: for the eight oil exporters, it will pose a formidable challenge and, with limited buffers, will require them to undertake significant fiscal adjustment. For most other countries, lower oil prices represent a favorable development which, however, will be partly offset in some cases by lower prices of other commodities that they export.

This major development in commodity prices—plus the increasingly volatile external financing environment and the Ebola outbreak that has been exacting a heavy economic and social toll on Guinea, Liberia, and Sierra Leone—are explored in some depth in this chapter. The next two sections set out the global outlook and, in that context, the outlook for sub-Saharan Africa. The following two sections then discuss the impact of the decline in commodity prices on the region, considering separately oil exporters and the other countries in the region, and assess the implications of tightening global financing conditions for sub-Saharan African frontier markets. The final section reports on the impact of the Ebola outbreak on sub-Saharan Africa.

Chapters 2 and 3 focus on more medium-term trends facing the region. Chapter 2 discusses the challenges and opportunities associated with the forthcoming massive increase in the working-age population of sub-Saharan Africa. To enjoy a dividend from this demographic transition, sub-Saharan Africa will need to create jobs at a hitherto unprecedented rate. This will require policies that favor investment in human capital, tackle the

Figure 1.1. Sub-Saharan Africa: Real GDP Growth, 2008–16

Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.

infrastructure deficit, ensure greater labor market flexibility, and support production in labor-intensive sectors. It will also require sub-Saharan Africa to become more integrated into the global economy, a topic analysed in more detail in Chapter 3. This chapter finds that notwithstanding rapid growth in trade flows over the last two decades, substantial opportunities still lie ahead, and the region has some way to go to better integrate into global value chains. To leverage that potential and ensure in the process strong job creation and durable growth, the chapter highlights the critical need to not only fill the infrastructure gap, but also lower tariff and nontariff barriers, and improve the business climate and access to credit.

GLOBAL BACKDROP: NOT WHAT IT HAS BEEN

Since the summer of 2014, there have been major changes to the global economic environment facing the region. Oil prices have declined by about 50 percent since June 2014, and supply and demand factors have both contributed to these developments (Figure 1.2). Looking ahead, oil prices are expected to rebound but to remain below the level of recent years. There is, however, substantial uncertainty about the evolution of supply and demand. The prices of many key

Figure 1.2. Selected Commodity Prices, Change from June 2014–March 25, 2015
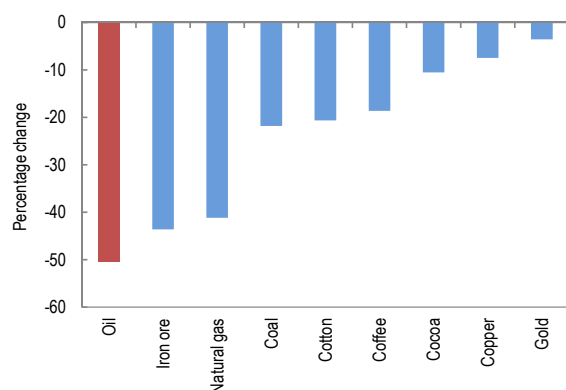
Source: Bloomberg, L.P.

commodities exported by sub-Saharan Africa have also declined since last June—natural gas by 41 percent, iron ore by 44 percent, coal by 22 percent, cotton by 21 percent, copper by 7½ percent, and platinum by 22 percent—although the price of some other exports, such as zinc, has increased.

The prospects for global growth are also weaker than in October, notwithstanding the lower oil prices (Table 1.1). This, however, masks significant differences across regions. The outlook for the United States remains strong, and this has increased the likelihood of exit from unconventional monetary policy (UMP). Among sub-Saharan Africa's main trade partners, prospects in Europe remain lackluster at best. In China, the ongoing transition away from an investment-led growth strategy is also expected to contribute to lower growth prospects and lower demand for sub-Saharan Africa's exports. Finally, the dollar has appreciated substantially against the euro. This has implications for the region, where many countries have formal pegs to the euro, while a few others peg informally to the dollar.

Table 1.1. Sub-Saharan Africa: Real GDP Growth, 2015
(Percent)

	World	United States	Euro area	Emerging markets	China
2015 projection	3.5	3.1	1.4	4.3	6.8
Revision from October 2014	-0.4	0.0	0.1	-0.7	-0.3

Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.

OUTLOOK: GROWING (WITH) PAIN

Outlook

Sub-Saharan Africa enjoyed robust economic growth of 5 percent in 2014 driven by strong investment in mining and infrastructure and by strong private consumption, especially in low-income countries (Table 1.2). However, growth was down slightly from the previous year as oil exporters started to adjust to the lower global oil prices, growth in South Africa decelerated substantially on account of mining strikes and electricity supply constraints, and the countries at the epicenter of the Ebola outbreak were severely impacted by the epidemic.

Activity is expected to decelerate further in 2015, although with growth at 4.5 percent, sub-Saharan Africa will remain among the fastest-growing regions of the world. The slowdown mainly reflects difficulties in the region's oil exporters and the countries impacted by the Ebola outbreak. Excluding these countries and South Africa, growth is projected to be healthy, even if the impact of the oil price decline is largely offset by that of the decrease in other commodity prices.

Oil exporters are facing a challenging environment, and their growth in 2015–16 is expected to average 4¾ percent, substantially marked down from 7 percent expected in October 2014.

• Nigeria, sub-Saharan Africa's largest economy and oil exporter, has been hit hard by the shock. With limited buffers, the authorities are cutting capital spending and have adjusted monetary and exchange rate policies to relieve pressures on the public finances and the currency. Thus, real GDP growth in 2015–16 is expected to average 5 percent, nearly 2½ percentage points below expectations in October 2014. Even this is predicated on an attenuation of the heightened political and financial uncertainty and on an effective policy response. In Angola, real GDP growth in 2015–16 is expected to be 4¼ percent on average, compared with 5½ percent on average over 2012–14. This

reflects significant adjustment and these projections have been marked down by 2¼ percent relative to October, with non-oil growth halved.

- Among sub-Saharan Africa's other oil exporters, average 2015–16 real GDP growth for countries in the Economic Community of Central African States (CEMAC) is expected to be about 4¼ percent, marked down by about ¾ percent relative to October. This reflects some adjustment-related cuts in capital spending which is affecting non-oil growth, increases in oil production, and a combination of drawing on buffers and borrowing. There remains considerable uncertainty about the assumptions underlying the projections and, in view of exchange rate rigidities, the risk of a worse outcome is not inconsiderable.

For much of the rest of the region, the impact of the commodity price decline is small and on average growth projections are broadly unchanged from October 2014 (Figure 1.3). Average real GDP growth in 2015–16 will remain strong, reaching 4¾ percent, and about 6–6½ percent when South Africa is excluded.

- In South Africa, growth was lackluster in 2014, but is expected to pick up a bit and average 2 percent in 2015–16. Even this growth is slower than previously expected, with the net terms-of-trade improvement offset by fiscal consolidation and continuing problems in the electricity sector.

- Among the other middle-income countries, Ghana's fiscal consolidation will impact growth significantly in 2015, which will undershoot

Table 1.2. Sub-Saharan Africa: Real GDP Growth
(Percent change)

	2004–08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Sub-Saharan Africa	**6.8**	**4.0**	**6.7**	**5.0**	**4.2**	**5.2**	**5.0**	**4.5**	**5.1**
Of which:									
Oil-exporting countries	9.2	6.9	8.5	4.7	3.7	5.7	5.8	4.5	5.2
Of which: Nigeria	8.6	9.0	10.0	4.9	4.3	5.4	6.3	4.8	5.0
Middle-income countries[1]	5.0	0.2	4.6	4.7	3.4	3.6	2.7	3.3	3.7
Of which: South Africa	4.8	-1.5	3.0	3.2	2.2	2.2	1.5	2.0	2.1
Low-income countries[1]	7.7	6.6	7.6	7.6	6.1	7.1	7.4	6.5	7.1
Fragile states	2.4	2.1	4.1	3.1	7.4	5.6	5.6	6.1	6.5
Memorandum item:									
World economic growth	4.9	0.0	5.4	4.1	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.7
Sub-Saharan Africa resource-intensive countries[2]	6.9	3.8	6.7	4.8	4.2	4.7	4.5	3.9	4.4
Sub-Saharan Africa frontier and emerging market economies[3]	6.6	4.8	7.1	5.1	4.3	4.9	5.0	4.6	4.9

Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.

[1] Excluding fragile states.

[2] Includes Angola, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Democratic Republic of Congo, Republic of Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia, Mali, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

[3] Includes Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia.

Figure 1.3. Sub-Saharan Africa: Real GDP Growth Projection 2015, Change from October 2014
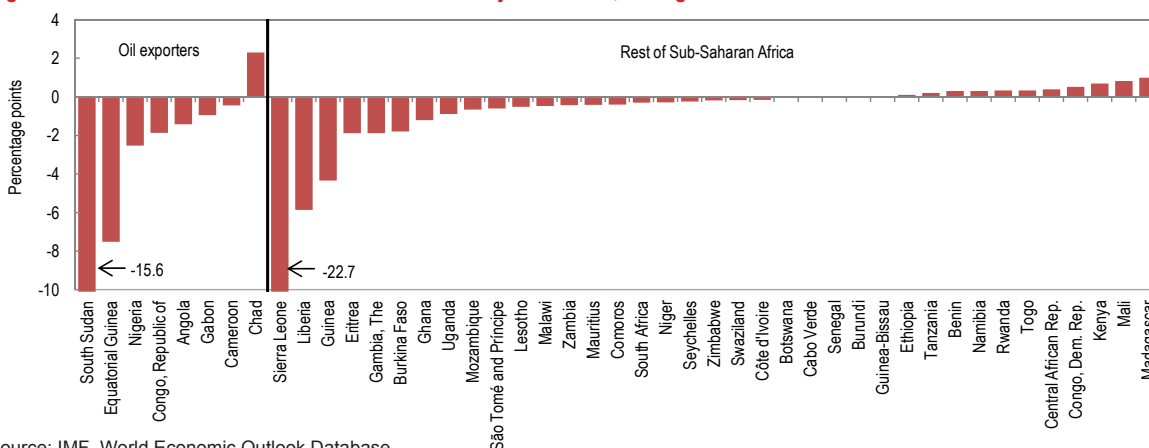
Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook Database.

earlier expectations by nearly 1 percentage point, but growth is expected to recover strongly in 2016, on the back of expanding oil production. In Zambia, lower copper prices and policy uncertainty are acting as a drag on investment and growth; growth rates for 2015–16 have been revised down by an average of about ½ percentage point since October.

- Conversely, strong growth in low-income and fragile countries, notably in Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, and Mozambique, will continue to be driven by investment in mining and infrastructure and by strong consumption, with average growth in 2015–16 of 6¾ percent, in line with earlier expectations. However, growth has been revised down in some countries. In Burkina Faso, growth in 2015–16 is expected to be sharply lower than previously expected, as a difficult situation, on account of lower commodity prices and the impact of the regional Ebola outbreak, is being exacerbated by political upheaval. Growth has also been revised down in Uganda, but this reflects an adjustment following the rebasing of the national accounts and the adoption of a new methodology that increased the level of GDP by about 17 percent but lowered growth by ¾ of a percentage point in 2014.

- As discussed in some detail in the final section, the situation in the Ebola-affected countries remains grim. In October 2014, growth estimates were lowered but a modest increase in real GDP was still projected. By contrast, real GDP is currently estimated to contract in all three countries in 2015. The impact is especially severe in Sierra Leone, where the main iron ore mine has ceased operations and activity is expected to contract by more than 10 percent. Among other countries, The Gambia's 2014–15 tourist season has been badly hit, owing to the Ebola epidemic in the region—its real GDP is estimated to have contracted in 2014 and growth will remain dampened in 2015.

These growth outcomes to a large degree reflect countries' fiscal and monetary policy responses to the shocks.

- Fiscal deficits are set to remain high across the region in 2015. Oil exporters are tightening fiscal policy and this will partially offset the impact of the shock, but fiscal deficits are still projected to widen by about ¾ percentage point of GDP relative to 2014. Government debt, while generally low, is projected to be some 2½ percentage points of GDP higher than before the shock, but with more significant increases in some countries. In most other countries, 2015 fiscal deficits are expected to be broadly unchanged from 2014, remaining at elevated levels (Table 1.3). In the countries affected by the Ebola epidemic, fiscal positions have been badly impacted by efforts to combat the disease.

- Monetary policy has been tightened in some countries, notably oil exporters whose currencies have come under pressure. While most sub-Saharan African countries have seen their exchange rates depreciate against the dollar since August 2014, this is broadly consistent with the experience of other emerging market and developing countries (Figure 1.4).

Table 1.3. Sub-Saharan Africa: Other Macroeconomic Indicators

	2004–08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
				(Percent change)					
Inflation, end of period	8.9	9.2	7.7	10.2	8.2	6.1	6.1	7.4	6.6
				(Percent of GDP)					
Fiscal balance	1.7	0.3	-3.4	-1.1	-1.8	-3.0	-3.3	-3.7	-2.9
Of which: Excluding oil exporters	-0.6	-1.6	-4.3	-3.7	-3.7	-3.9	-4.1	-4.1	-3.6
Current account balance	1.9	0.5	-0.6	-0.7	-1.9	-2.5	-3.3	-4.6	-4.1
Of which: Excluding oil exporters	-4.4	-3.0	-3.9	-4.9	-7.2	-7.7	-7.3	-7.0	-7.1
				(Months of imports)					
Reserves coverage	5.1	3.7	4.2	4.6	5.4	5.2	5.4	...	...

Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
Note: Data for 2015 and 2016 are projections.

Figure 1.4. Sub-Saharan Africa: Nominal Exchange Rate, National Currency to U.S. Dollar, September 2014–March 2015
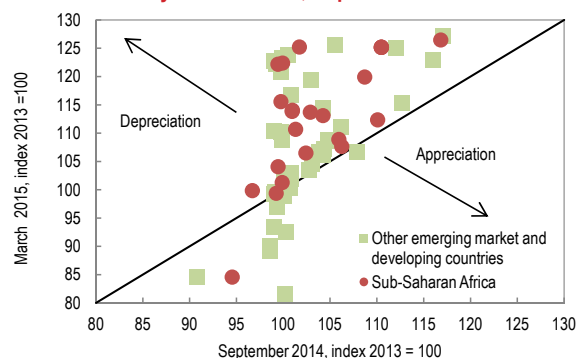
Source: IMF, *International Financial Statistics*.

Inflation in the region, helped by low global food and fuel prices, is expected to remain contained, albeit with a small uptick in 2015, reflecting the pickup in inflation in the two largest oil exporters as the impact of the exchange rate depreciation (Angola and Nigeria) and of cuts in fuel subsidies (Angola) feeds through. But in other oil-exporting countries, little change is expected. Among oil importers, the impact of the decline in oil and commodity prices is expected to drive down inflation marginally in 2015.

Current account deficits are expected to widen substantially for oil exporters relative to October, with large increases in a number of countries. Conversely, among oil importers, current account balances are generally set to improve. However, for a few resource exporters, the decline in other commodity prices could have a larger impact than the decline in oil prices and result in their current account balances worsening.

Implications for Policies

Faced with a sharp decline in oil prices, and in line with projections in the April 2015 *World Economic Outlook*, only a modest recovery in prices is expected and oil exporters must adjust now.

- Undertaking fiscal adjustment is a priority. This is important given the very tight financing conditions they face, the bouts of market pressure experienced in some cases, and the substantial increase in public debt even under current policies in others. Spending cuts should be directed,

to the extent possible, to recurrent spending, but significant cuts in public investment are unavoidable. In this context, efforts to improve the efficiency of public spending, including by eliminating inefficient fuel subsidies, will be essential. If adjustment is delayed—because of political uncertainty or because countries are used to high public spending levels—buffers could quickly be depleted and macroeconomic pressures arise (as elaborated in the next section on Falling Commodity Prices).

- Where feasible (given institutional exchange rate arrangements), exchange rate flexibility will be important, including to preserve scarce external buffers.

- In the medium term, exporters of oil and other natural resources would benefit from encouraging more rapid economic diversification, in particular by addressing the major outstanding infrastructural bottlenecks to private sector activity (including by small and medium-sized enterprises) and improving their business environment.

This is also a unique opportunity for all countries in the region to introduce a politically difficult set of reforms by concomitantly reducing energy subsidies, improving the health of public sector energy producers, and passing through some of the price decline to consumers and companies. In this regard, countries that already have automatic price adjustment mechanisms—and that had therefore adjusted retail prices upward when global oil prices increased—should maintain them, allowing the lower global oil prices to be reflected fully in lower retail prices. Where retail prices are administratively set, authorities should consider passing on at least some of the decline in global prices to consumers while starting the process of establishing flexible fuel and energy pricing mechanisms.[1,2] Only in cases of seriously overstretched public finances should the lower oil prices be used only to improve the fiscal position.

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[1] It is noteworthy that in some countries retail fuel prices have in fact increased as countries seek to eliminate subsidies.

[2] Support measures should be narrowly targeted to the poor and vulnerable groups.

Beyond the current shock, achieving sustained, high, and inclusive growth remains the overarching priority for the region. In this context, addressing the infrastructure gap is critical to create jobs, meet the social needs of a population in the midst of a demographic transition (see Chapter 2), and create the conditions to deepen trade ties with the rest of the world and integrate successfully into global value chains (see Chapter 3). In scaling up investment to address their infrastructure bottlenecks, countries should nonetheless remain mindful of the need to preserve debt sustainability, while avoiding an unsustainable increase in recurrent expenditure. Parallel efforts to improve absorption capacity and the efficiency of investment remain key.

Risks

The large fiscal deficits that prevail in some countries will continue to need monitoring. Given the strong likelihood that global financial conditions will tighten in the period ahead and limited financing opportunities in domestic and regional markets, financing may suddenly become unavailable or financing costs may rise steeply (see the section below on External Financing Conditions). Countries may then have to undertake a deeper-than-planned adjustment with cuts to capital spending likely to bear the brunt. In that context, there would be a negative impact on growth in both the near and the medium term.

As elaborated in the April 2015 *World Economic Outlook*, given the imminent normalization of monetary policy in the United States, a broader reassessment of emerging market risk could occur. Should this risk materialize and financing costs increase sharply, countries that are planning Eurobond issues may need to reconsider their plans. Postponing needed policy adjustments would create macroeconomic imbalances, give rise to policy uncertainty, increase further borrowing costs, and exacerbate the risk of disorderly capital movements.

The ongoing appreciation of the dollar poses a number of risks. The currencies of a number of sub-Saharan African countries have already depreciated significantly against the dollar. In the near term, this will increase the cost of imports, much of which is typically related to investment, with an

attendant adverse impact on growth. A depreciation of the exchange rates will also increase debt service costs where dollar-denominated debts represent a substantial share of total public debt, and will result in worsening balance sheet positions of banks and private sector entities. Finally, there is a risk that, in some countries, depreciation may start to fuel inflationary pressures.

Risks that global growth could slow further are not inconsiderable. In particular, the weakness in Europe and Japan poses downside risks to the world recovery. Similarly, growth in China could slow abruptly in 2015–16. This would lower the demand for sub-Saharan Africa's products, drive growth lower, and widen fiscal deficits.

Some sub-Saharan African countries are also facing risks that are specific to the region.

- Important security-related risks have recently come to the forefront in a number of countries, in particular associated with Boko Haram's increased activities in Cameroon, Chad, Niger, and Nigeria, but also with other instances of violence in the Central African Republic, Mali, and South Sudan. Such developments not only pose serious fiscal risks, but also, if exacerbated, would surely impact growth, especially in agriculture, cloud the political climate, and deter domestic and foreign investors.

- Elections in 2015, including in Burkina Faso, the Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Guinea, Nigeria, Tanzania, and Togo, will also complicate the implementation of politically difficult policies.

- While there are some indications of the Ebola epidemic coming under control, the situation remains fragile and the risk of infection increasing out of existing hotspots is not insignificant.

FALLING COMMODITY PRICES: A TALE OF TWO AFRICAS

The sharp decline in commodity prices is impacting the region in a highly heterogeneous manner. As indicated in Table 1.4, oil exporters are most hard-hit. In other countries in the region, the

Table 1.4. Sub-Saharan Africa: Terms of Trade
(Weighted averages)

	Change 2014–15	Change 2014–16
Oil exporters	-27.5	-21.0
Middle-income countries	1.4	0.0
Low-income countries and fragile states	2.5	-4.6

Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.

impact is more muted, or even slightly positive. Past experience with similar shocks bears out the heterogeneous nature and large size of the impact on the region (Box 1.1). This section seeks to identify some of the channels through which countries are being impacted.

Oil Exporters

Oil exporters are facing a formidable adverse shock

Oil production in sub-Saharan Africa is highly concentrated in eight countries together comprising more than one-fourth of the region's population and about half the region's GDP. Within this group, oil production is further concentrated in two countries (Angola and Nigeria, the largest and the third-largest economies in the region), which supply nearly three-fourths of the region's oil output. Gross oil exports alone account for nearly one-fourth of oil exporters' GDP, and (except in Cameroon) for a large share of total exports. As regards public finances, with the exception of Cameroon, net oil exporters derive more than 50 percent of their revenues from oil-related activities (Figure 1.5).

The initial impact of the shock will therefore be felt directly on the fiscal and current account balances (Figures 1.6 and 1.7). Thereafter, as countries undertake fiscal adjustment, near- and medium-term growth will also be adversely affected. Under unchanged policies, fiscal deficits in 2015 would worsen by at least 5 percentage points of GDP in most countries, and significantly more in some. Only in Nigeria, whose economy is more diversified, and in Cameroon, which is a relatively minor oil producer, is the deterioration in fiscal balances smaller. Similarly, current account balances would deteriorate by about 8 percentage points of GDP, turning to deficit in most countries under unchanged policies.

Figure 1.5. Sub-Saharan African Oil Exporters: Fiscal Oil Revenue versus Oil Exports Share, 2013
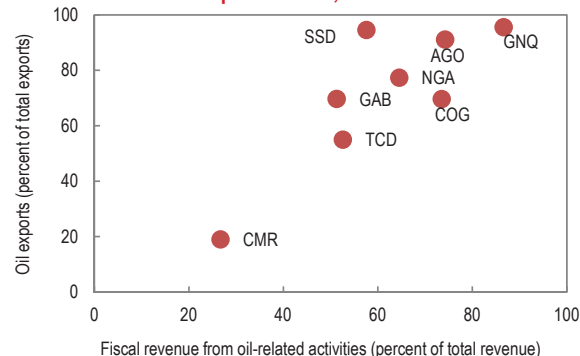
Sources: IMF, African Department database; and World Economic Outlook database.
Note: See page 70 for list of country acronyms.

Figure 1.6. Sub-Saharan African Oil Exporters: Fiscal Balance, 2014–16
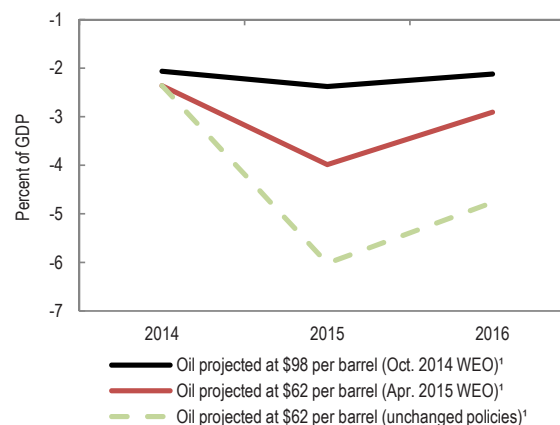
Sources: IMF World Economic Outlook (WEO) database; and IMF staff estimates.
[1] Projected oil prices are an average of 2015 and 2016.

Figure 1.7. Sub-Saharan African Oil Exporters: Current Account Balance, 2014–16
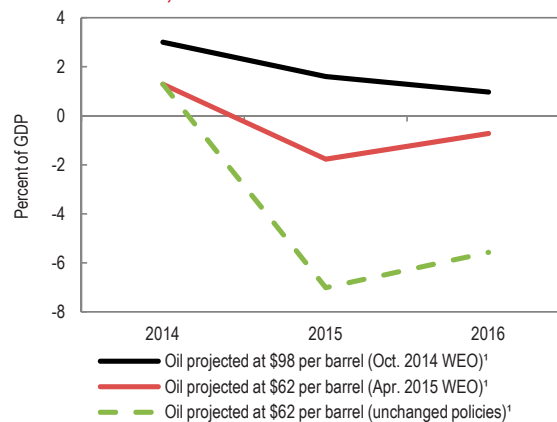
Sources: IMF, World Economic Outlook (WEO) database; and IMF staff estimates
[1] Projected oil prices are an average of 2015 and 2016 prices.

Oil exporters have started to adjust

Net oil exporters have started to adjust their policies in response to the shock, recognizing its multi-year nature and its impact thus far.

- As the oil price has plunged, countries have revised down substantially the oil price implicit in their 2015 budgets. These adjustments, however, are still partial in many countries, with budgetary oil prices remaining significantly above projected international oil prices (Figure 1.8).

- Together with lower budgetary oil prices, countries have introduced plans to reduce expenditure, most notably for public invest-ment, and to increase non-oil revenue. Nigeria has announced about 1.8 percent of GDP in expenditure measures (mainly cuts in capital expenditure). Meanwhile, in its revised budget for 2015, the government of Angola is targeting an improvement of about 9½ percentage points of GDP in the non-oil primary balance, mainly through spending cuts in goods and services, in fuel subsidies, and in public investment, with the latter accounting for a significant share of the fiscal adjustment. The authorities in CEMAC countries, too, have expressed intentions to implement a set of strong and simultaneous fiscal consolidation measures.

- Some oil exporters are also making efforts to lower costly subsidies, notably for fuel (Box 1.2). In Angola, gasoline and diesel prices

Figure 1.8. Sub-Saharan Africa: Budgetary Price of Oil, 2014–15

Sources: Bloomberg, L.P.; and IMF staff estimates.
Note: WEO = World Economic Outlook database.

have been raised by about 50 percent in the second half of 2014 and subsidies on other fuels have been reduced or eliminated. Meanwhile, Nigeria is considering options to reform permanently its subsidy scheme—it has lowered retail fuel prices somewhat, but with lower global oil prices, the amounts budgeted for fuel subsidies have nonetheless declined. In the CEMAC, Cameroon embarked on a reform of its fuel pricing system in mid-2014, and Gabon has announced the phasing out of gasoline and diesel subsidies.

Monetary and exchange rate policies have also been adjusted in response to the shock. In Nigeria, the exchange rate has been under sustained pressure since the fourth quarter of 2014. The Nigerian authorities initially devalued the official exchange rate (that is, the rate in the foreign exchange auction window) and later took the step to abolish the window. The naira has depreciated by more than 25 percent since October 2014. In addition, to support the naira the Nigerian authorities have spent reserves, raised the policy rate by 100 basis points, and increased reserve requirements by 5 percentage points. In Angola, the authorities are using their international reserves to permit a more gradual devaluation of the kwanza. Since end-September 2014, the currency has depreciated by about 8½ percent, while monetary policy has been tightened, with an increase in the policy rate by 25 basis points and in reserve requirements by 2½ percentage points. The depreciation of the CFA franc—pegged to the euro—against the dollar has smoothed some of the shock for CEMAC oil exporters.

The adjustment is impacting real GDP growth

As noted previously, real GDP growth of oil exporters is set to decline substantially as fiscal adjustment in response to the shock will dampen economic activity.[3] Stylized simulations using a multicountry model incorporating most sub-Saharan African economies—the IMF's Flexible System of Global Models (FSGM)—illustrate the trade-offs between spreading out the adjustment in

[3] In some countries, changes in oil GDP also reflect the natural cycle of production, which is not related to the decline in oil prices.

Figure 1.9. Sub-Saharan African Oil Exporters: Fiscal Adjustment and Impact on Real GDP Following the Oil Shock, Cumulative Decline Over 2015–16 under Different Scenarios
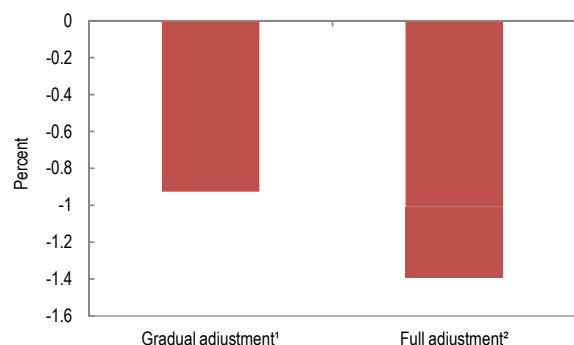
Sources: IMF, World Economic Outlook database; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: The scenarios are computed using the Flexible System of Global Models (FSGM), which is a multiregion, general equilibrium model of the global economy consisting of 22 blocks. Of these 22 blocks, 11 represent sub-Saharan African regions.
[1] Gradual adjustment assumes that the fiscal adjustment is spread over four years.
[2] Full adjustment assumes that the fiscal adjustment is fully front-loaded in 2015.

Figure 1.10. Sub-Saharan Africa: Real GDP Growth during Episodes of Oil Price Declines
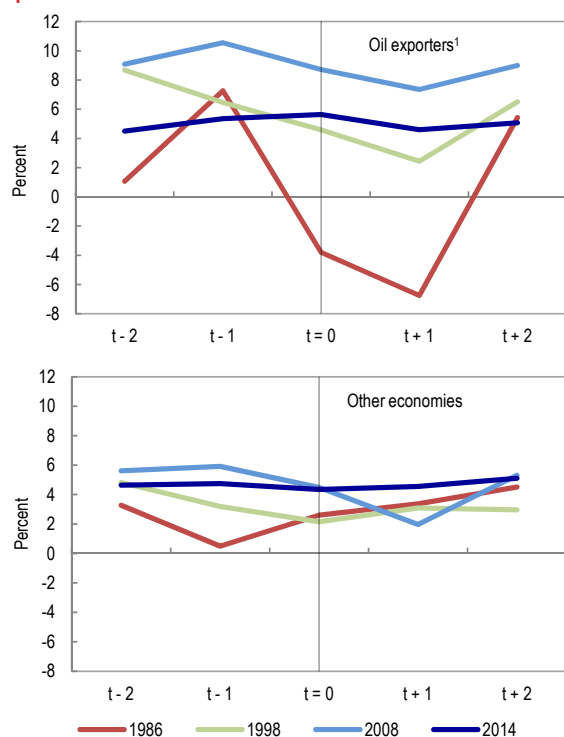
Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
[1] The aggregation does not include South Sudan, whose figures are subject to large swings.

spending over time and adjusting fully in one year.[4] In particular, preliminary results indicate that a gradual adjustment spread over four years reduces the adverse impact on growth cumulatively by 0.5 percentage point of GDP in 2015–16 relative to adjusting fully in one year (Figure 1.9). Slower adjustment would, however, lead to higher public debt and, as discussed below, increase vulnerability to financing shocks.

Comparing the fiscal adjustment planned in response to this shock with past oil shocks is instructive in this regard (Box 1.1). In particular, in response to the current shock, which is expected to be long-lasting, policy actions contain the deterioration in the fiscal deficit in 2015 and over the medium term. By contrast, growth is projected to hold up better than in previous instances, reflecting progress in economic diversification, integration in global trade, fiscal consolidation, debt reduction, and financial sector access (Figure 1.10).[5] Should the required fiscal adjustment, however, not be sustained, there is a significant risk of serious macroeconomic repercussions. Conversely, the required fiscal adjustment may itself have a larger-than-expected adverse impact on growth.

One concern, and a key consideration in deciding to front-load adjustment, is that the availability of adequate fiscal buffers is generally limited. Fiscal deficits are projected to remain sizable even after the planned adjustment. In most cases, resources in stabilization funds and government deposits in the central bank at end-2014 were small in relation to combined 2015–16 fiscal deficits (Figure 1.11). In this situation, real GDP growth is exposed to the risk of a sharper adjustment, should suitable levels of financing to smooth the adjustment to the shock not be available or inflationary pressures disallow running down government deposits. On the external side, the concern is that, as countries smooth their adjustment in the face of depleted buffers, macroeconomic pressures could arise (Figure 1.12).

[4] The properties and structure of the Flexible System of Global Models (FSGM) are presented in Andre and others (2015).
[5] Some oil exporters in 1986 and 1998 were experiencing civil unrest, or had just gone through a period of rapid expansion of the oil sector—which magnified the impact of the oil-price decline.

Figure 1.11. Sub-Saharan African Oil Exporters: Fiscal Deposits and Projected Deficits, 2015–16
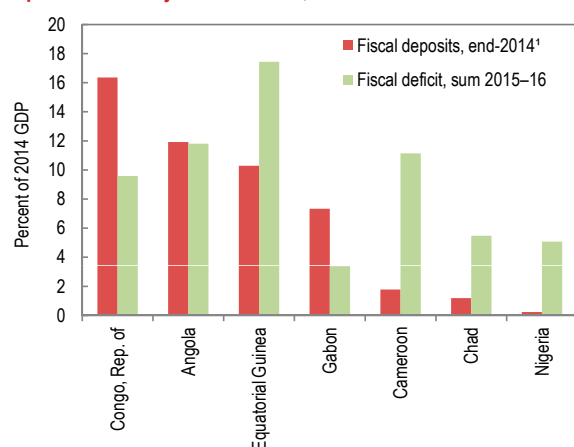
Sources: IMF, *International Financial Statistics*; World Economic Outlook (WEO) database; and IMF staff estimates.
[1] Fiscal deposits include government deposits at the central bank and stabilization funds.

Figure 1.12. Sub-Saharan African Oil Exporters: External Reserve Assets and Projected Deficits, 2015–16

Sources: IMF, *International Financial Statistics*; World Economic Outlook (WEO) database; and IMF staff estimates.

In particular, an exchange rate depreciation could put pressure on the fiscal and current accounts by raising foreign-currency-denominated debt-service costs, offsetting in part the benefits of a smoother adjustment.

Public investment is expected to bear the brunt of the adjustment in most oil exporters and hurt medium-term growth prospects, although to the extent that it has a large import content, the impact on near-term growth will be more muted.[6] Lowered prospects for real GDP growth will also act as a disincentive for private investment, and weaken countries' capacity to diversify away from oil-related sectors. This will reinforce the direct effect of lower investment in the sector stemming from depressed oil prices over the medium term, as well as the possible impact of exchange rate depreciation on private sector balance sheets, and hence on investment.

Financial stability will bear watching

Should significant exchange rate depreciation or a sharp increase in interest rates materialize, it could have implications for financial stability.

- Commercial banks' foreign liabilities are relatively small and net foreign asset positions at 2.1 percent of GDP on average have remained broadly stable since 2005, albeit with some variation across countries. However, gross foreign liabilities have increased sharply and there is a high concentration of loans to the energy sector in some countries.[7] Should exchange rates come under pressure, the relatively high levels of loan dollarization (albeit extended in part to the dollarized formal sector) are also risk factors.

- Fiscal adjustment in such countries could lead to a buildup of government arrears to suppliers. Their resulting liquidity problems could translate into problems for banks.

- The rapid expansion of pan-African banks—some of which have significant assets in oil-exporting countries—may pose some risks (IMF 2015a). Specifically, should such a pan-African bank experience financial difficulties, it could

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[6] In 2015, capital expenditure in Nigeria is budgeted to decline by 25 percent in nominal terms from its 2014 level to about half of its level in 2012–13. In Angola, cuts to capital expenditure are expected to bear about half of the burden of the sizable fiscal adjustment. Among CEMAC countries, significant adjustment in capital spending is expected to bear the brunt of the adjustment, although some countries have had difficulties in articulating the needed measures.

[7] This is also flagged as a risk in the April 2015 *Global Financial Stability Report*, which notes that Nigeria had the highest such exposure of the 21 frontier and emerging markets it examines.

impact countries where the group operates. Given the known weaknesses in cross-border supervision, there could be considerable delays in detecting these problems.

Oil Importers

Sub-Saharan Africa has 37 countries that are net oil importers. In a number of them, other commodity exports play an important role in the economy. This is borne out by the map in Figure 1.13, which indicates countries for which non-oil commodity exports account for more than 25 percent of goods exports on average over 2009–12. Countries with such large non-oil commodity export sectors account for about 40 percent of both the sub-Saharan African population and its GDP.

Sub-Saharan Africa's oil importers stand to benefit substantially from the decline in oil prices. For the average country, oil imports are equivalent to 20 percent of imports and 7 percent of GDP, and a price decline in excess of 50 percent represents savings that are not insignificant. In particular, countries that do not have large resource exports will enjoy a significant windfall.

However, the 15 countries in sub-Saharan Africa that have significant non-oil commodity exports are also dealing with a substantial decline in commodity prices in 2014.[8] The export of these commodities constitutes more than 30 percent of combined exports and about 8 percent of the combined GDP of all oil importers. Within the group of countries that have large non-oil commodity export sectors, commodities are still more important, representing over 55 percent of their total exports and about 15 percent of GDP.[9]

The relative importance of oil and commodities in the trade of sub-Saharan Africa's oil importers is reflected in a muted impact of the shocks on oil importers' terms of trade, which are projected to improve by less than 2 percent in 2015, although there are differences across countries (Figure 1.14).

[8] These countries are Botswana, Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Guinea, Liberia, Mali, Namibia, Niger, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

[9] Aggregate values for the entire group of countries (equivalent to weighted averages).

Figure 1.13. Sub-Saharan Africa: Commodity Exporters
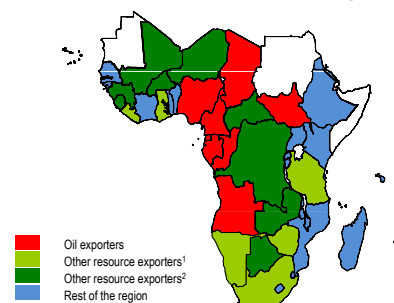
Source: IMF, African Department database.
[1] Countries for which nonrenewable resource exports are between 25 and 50 percent of goods exports.
[2] Countries for which nonrenewable resource exports are over 50 percent of goods exports.

On the whole, the impact on oil importers' trade balance in 2015 is also expected to be muted, remaining broadly unchanged compared to 2014.

The direct impact of the change in oil and commodity prices on fiscal balances is more difficult to predict as it depends on each country's tax structure and on the authorities' policy response:

- On the revenue side, the price decline will reduce import duties and other ad valorem taxes on fuel products, and because demand for fuel is typically inelastic, revenue will also decline.[10]

- Where the decline in prices is passed on to consumers (for instance in Ethiopia, Kenya, South Africa, Tanzania, and Uganda), consumption will increase to the extent that households and firms spend part of these savings; this, in turn, would increase revenue from taxes on goods and services.

Figure 1.14. Sub-Saharan Africa: Change in Terms-of-Trade Index, 2015 versus 2014
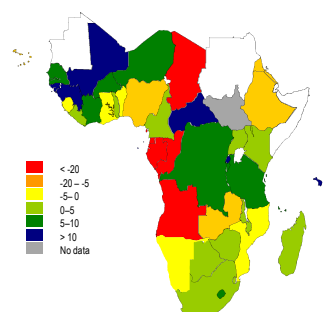
Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.

[10] Ad valorem taxes are set as a percentage of the price of the product; specific taxes are fixed in proportion to the quantity.

Figure 1.15. Sub-Saharan Africa: Selected Other Non-Oil Commodity Exporters, Fiscal Revenue Breakdown, 2013
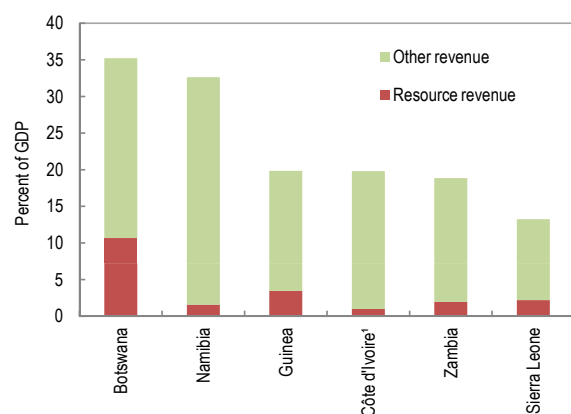
Sources: IMF, African Department database; and IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
[1]Côte d'Ivoire is not part of the group of 15 non-oil, nonrenewable commodity exporters discussed earlier in this section. It does, however, have significant agricultural commodity exports (cacao).

- The decline in other commodity prices will reduce the revenue of commodity exporters, but the impact will be milder than among oil exporters, as in these countries, the share of revenue derived from natural resources is comparatively small (Figure 1.15).

- On the expenditure side, lower fuel prices should translate into a lower public energy bill and, where fuel prices are subsidized and governments take this opportunity to reduce these subsidies, in lower current transfers.

Reflecting the muted near-term impact on key macroeconomic aggregates, the growth of oil importers is expected to be only marginally impacted by the commodity price decline. In addition, oil importers are not expected to be affected by direct spillovers from oil exporters on account of the latter's limited trade linkages with other countries within sub-Saharan Africa (see Chapter 3). However, a subset of sub-Saharan African countries have good prospects to develop interests in the energy sector, especially in east Africa. The lower oil prices could lead to a postponement of such investment with an impact on near- and medium-term growth.

EXTERNAL FINANCING CONDITIONS: THE TIMES THEY ARE A-CHANGIN'?

Following a period when they remained low and stable, emerging and frontier market spreads, including for sub-Saharan African frontier market economies, have increased back to the levels last seen at the time of the May 2013 "taper tantrum" and have become more volatile. In particular, spreads began to increase in October 2014 as oil prices started to decline, and since December have spiked several times by up to 200 basis points (Figure 1.16). Spreads for countries in the region remain at elevated levels, but with 10-year U.S. bond yields still low, sub-Saharan African frontier market yields are not high by historical standards.

The most recent evidence suggests that investors appear to be discriminating more carefully among sub-Saharan Africa frontier markets, with spreads increasing more sharply in countries facing an uncertain economic outlook in the period ahead. For example, spreads for Gabon and Nigeria, which are dealing with the oil shock, for Ghana, which is adjusting from a difficult fiscal situation, and Zambia, which is impacted by low copper prices, fiscal strains, and some uncertainty regarding future policies, are now above even the peaks of the taper tantrum period (Figure 1.17). In a few frontier markets, spreads have retreated, in some cases close to their pre-taper tantrum lows.

Figure 1.16. Emerging Market Spreads: 2013–15 (as of March 25)
(Basis points)
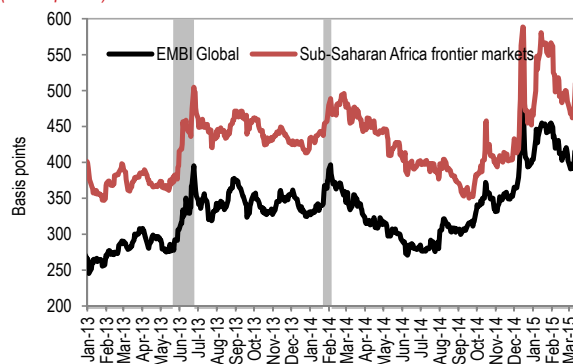
Source: Bloomberg, L.P.
Note: EMBI = J.P. Morgan Emerging Market Bond Global Index.
The sub-Saharan Africa frontier markets simple average includes the spreads of Côte d'Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal, Tanzania, and Zambia. Shaded areas correspond to "taper tantrum" periods May 21, 2013–June 24, 2013 and January 21–February 4, 2014.

Figure 1.17. Selected Economies: Change in Sovereign Spreads since June 2013 and Fiscal Balance over 2015
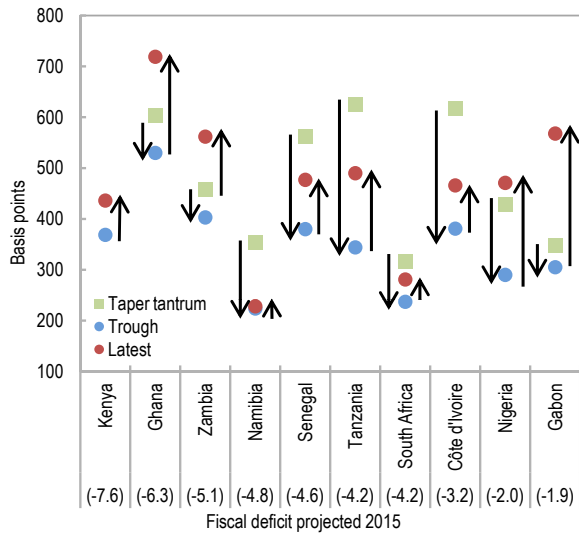
Source: Bloomberg, L.P.

Note: Spreads are J.P. Morgan Emerging Market Bond Global Index. Taper tantrum peak date is June 24, 2013, trough date is October 1, 2014, and latest is March 25, 2015. For Kenya data is available as of July 31, 2014 and for Mozambique data is available from November 27, 2013.

At the same time, an increasing number of countries in sub-Saharan Africa are accessing global financial markets—the outstanding stock of Eurobonds has grown almost fourfold in the last five years. While such financing is key for sub-Saharan African countries as they seek to address their urgent public investment needs, the concern is that in a number of countries these capital inflows may have become a regular source of financing for the public sector.

Current account deficits too have remained elevated for an extended period of time (Figure 1.18). Indeed, in most sub-Saharan Africa frontier markets, current account deficits in 2014 were higher than in 2010, a year when the impact of the global financial crisis in the region had been considerably mitigated (Figure 1.19). Likewise, fiscal balances of market access countries have adjusted little over the same period, and have in fact deteriorated for a number of countries, albeit more slowly than current account balances (Figure 1.20).[11] These developments together have

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[11] See also Chapter 1, *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa,* October 2014, on emerging fiscal risks in some sub-Saharan African countries.

Figure 1.18. Sub-Saharan Africa: Eurobond Issuances in Relation to Public Sector Contribution to Current Account Deficits, 2013–14
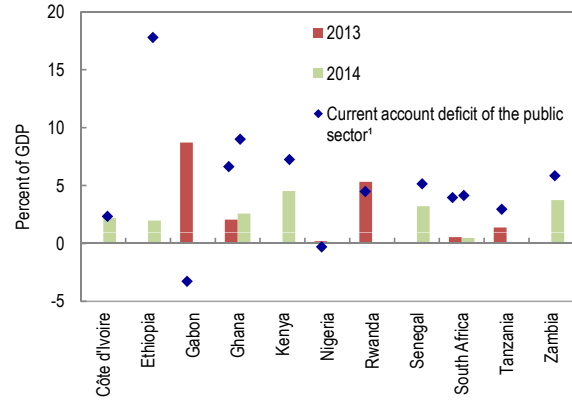
Sources: Bloomberg, L.P.; and IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
[1] The public sector's contribution to the current account deficit is measured as the negative of the public sector savings-investment balance.

Figure 1.19. Sub-Saharan African Market Access Countries: Current Account Balance *(in Percent of GDP)*
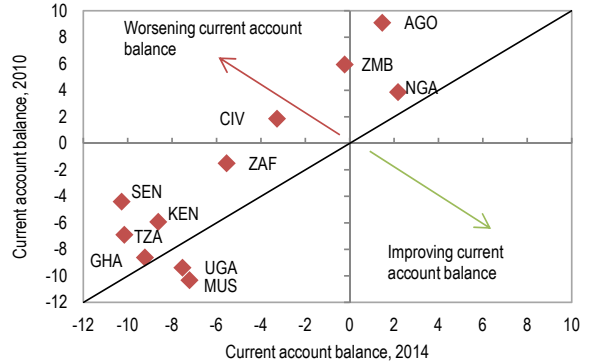
Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
Note: See page 70 for list of country acronyms.

Figure 1.20. Sub-Saharan African Market Access Countries: Change in Current Account Balance and Fiscal Balance, 2010–14 *(in Percent of GDP)*
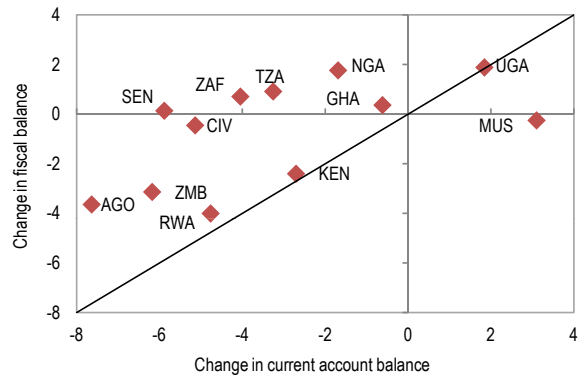
Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
Note: See page 70 for list of country acronyms.

increased frontier markets' vulnerability to abrupt changes in market sentiment that could lead to sharp increases in the future cost of financing or acute market pressures where foreign investors have significant stakes in domestic sovereign debt.[12] Indeed, the interest rate on Côte d'Ivoire's $1 billion Eurobond issue in February 2015 was almost 100 basis points higher than its first issue in October 2014. A depreciation of the exchange rate would exacerbate such costs. In fact, should currencies continue to depreciate against the dollar for an extended period, ex-post borrowing in foreign currency may turn out to be more expensive than borrowing in domestic currency.[13]

Thus, it is important to assess the prospects for financial inflows to sub-Saharan Africa in the period ahead. In this context, a key question is whether the yields and volumes evidenced in recent years' bond and equity flows to sub-Saharan Africa were consistent with market conditions and market fundamentals, and if not, whether they are now more closely aligned. Finally, in view of the volatility experienced following the decline in oil prices, it is important to know whether or not the decline in oil prices has triggered a fundamental reassessment of the prices of all sub-Saharan Africa issues, and not just those issued by oil exporters.

In recent years, there have been a number of econometric studies that have sought to identify the determinants of emerging market spreads.[14] The analysis reported in Box 1.3 is similar to a number of these studies, but the framework is specifically set up to explore the issue of a possible bias toward sub-Saharan African securities and whether oil prices impact all sub-Saharan African bond spreads. In addition, it uses monthly data to help identify how spreads change as new information on market fundamentals becomes available, while

avoiding the influence of transitory shocks often encountered when using higher frequency data.

- While the model finds country-specific factors to be important in explaining spreads, it does not detect any bias on average toward sub-Saharan Africa frontier markets.

- For 2014, actual sub-Saharan Africa spreads conform closely, on average, to the predicted spreads of the model, suggesting that spreads on average are well explained by fundamentals. However, actual spreads were volatile and, over shorter durations, spreads diverged significantly from the model's predictions (Figure 1.21). For instance, in 2014, actual spreads exceeded the predicted average spreads by significant margins at times. In January 2015, actual and predicted spreads broadly conformed, but for a few countries that were affected by the lower oil prices or had policy vulnerabilities, actual spreads were somewhat higher.

- Oil prices are a significant determinant of the spreads of oil exporters in particular, but seem to be less important for the spreads of other countries. The model indicates that a $10 per barrel fall in oil prices increases oil exporters' spread by nearly 10 percent, and oil importers' spread by about 5 percent.

The results indicate that sub-Saharan African securities may not be fundamentally mispriced, but that in the short term, borrowing costs could increase unexpectedly during periods of uncertainty. In particular, sub-Saharan African borrowing costs are expected to increase as yields in U.S. bond markets start to climb once monetary policy normalization is initiated. The change in U.S. yields should be modest as this normalization is gradually phased in. However, such an event could lead to a broader reassessment of risk in emerging markets, as discussed in the April 2015 *World Economic Outlook*. As has happened in the past, the anticipation of exit from unconventional monetary policy could trigger renewed market unrest and a widening of spreads.

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[12] In most sub-Saharan Africa frontier markets, the fixed income and bullet structure of their Eurobond issues insulate the issuers from changes in sovereign yields in secondary markets. Hence, for those countries, an increase in yields would not immediately impact government cash flows due on outstanding issues.

[13] See Box 1.1 in the *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa*, October 2014.

[14] See for instance Annex 2.2 of the April 2013 *Global Financial Stability Report* (IMF 2013b); González-Rozada and Yeyati (2008); and Hilscher and Nosbusch (2010).

Figure 1.21. Sub-Saharan African Market Access Countries: Sovereign Spreads
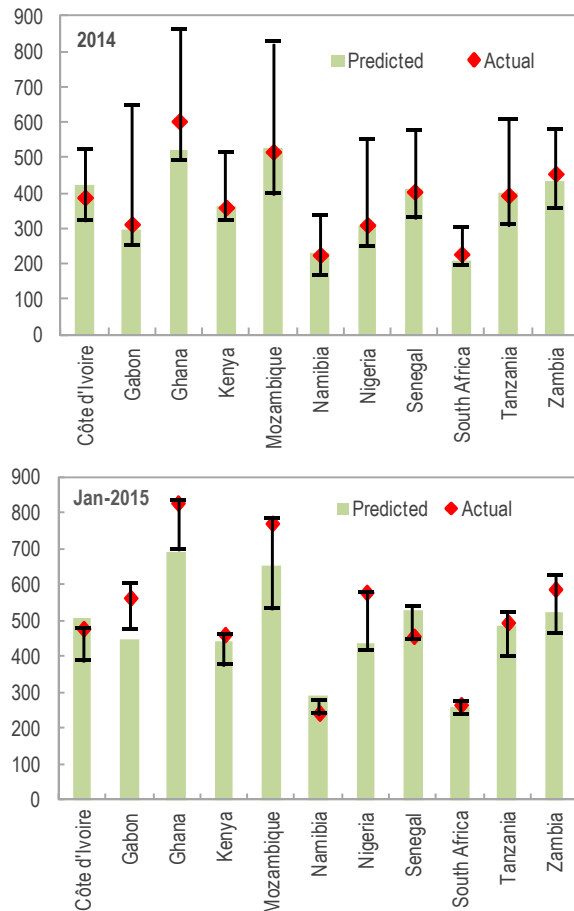
Sources: Bloomberg, L.P.; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: Actual and predicted spreads are average values for the periods they refer to. Lines indicate distance between minimum and maximum.

THE IMPACT OF THE EBOLA OUTBREAK

The Ebola outbreak in Guinea, Liberia, and Sierra Leone—the epicenter—intensified quickly in the second half of 2014, and confirmed cases increased exponentially from under 500 at end-June to more than 24,500 by mid-March 2015, resulting in more than 10,000 deaths. The massive drive to contain the epidemic has succeeded in gradually reducing the pace of new infections per week from about 700 in December 2014 to about 100 in early March 2015 (Figure 1.22). However, the outbreak is not yet fully under control, with hotspots persisting

across the region. Thus, further infections within the epicenter and onward transmission to neighboring countries remain a risk.

The Ebola outbreak has brought considerable economic damage to all three countries (IMF 2014b; 2014c, 2014d; World Bank 2014, 2015). Beyond the large number of deaths and extensive human suffering, the epidemic has disrupted labor markets and created substantial health and containment costs for the public and private sectors. In addition, the epidemic led to enhanced risk-aversion behaviors by domestic and international agents, which had a large knock-on effect on activity. In particular, the commerce, travel, and transportation sectors have been severely impacted by the departure of expatriates, the suspension of some flights, the closure of markets and regional borders, reduced capital utilization (for example, mine closures), and internal travel restrictions due to governments' quarantine measures. As the agricultural sector has been hit hard, domestic food production has suffered. Combined with constraints on food imports related to border closures, this is creating food security issues. For example, in a recent publication the Food and Agriculture Organization and the World Food Programme estimates that nearly half a million Guineans are suffering from food insecurity as a result of the Ebola epidemic (FAO/WFP 2014).

Figure 1.22. New Confirmed Ebola Virus Disease Cases per Week
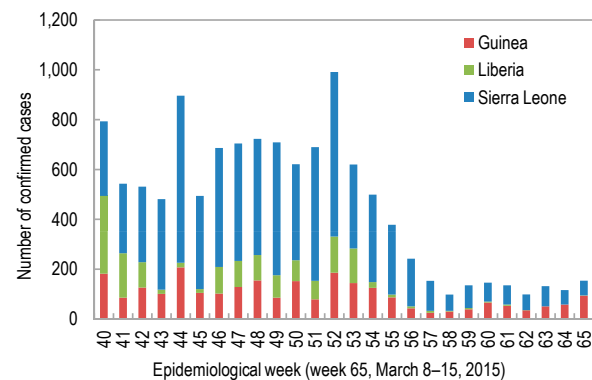
Source: Country authorities.

Future output losses are expected to be large. As reported in Figure 1.23, current growth projections in all three countries have been marked down substantially. Before the Ebola outbreak, they were on a strong growth trajectory, projected to grow, on average, 6½ percent annually over 2014–15. However, since mid-2014, these economies have seen negative output growth, with reduced activity in mining, services, and agriculture. Real GDP in 2015 is now expected to contract in all three countries.

Figure 1.23. Sub-Saharan Africa: Real GDP Growth Forecasts, 2015
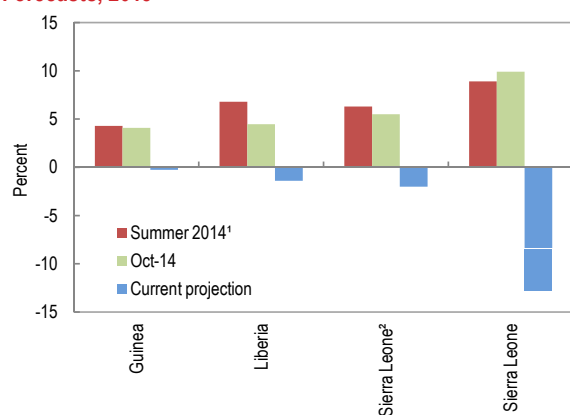
Sources: IMF, World Economic Outlook database; and IMF staff estimates.
[1] The summer 2014 projections are taken from IMF country reports (IMF 2014b, 2014c, 2014d).
[2] Growth in real GDP excluding iron ore.

Figure 1.24. Changes in 2014–15 Revenue and Fiscal Balance Excluding Grants Compared to Summer 2014 Projections
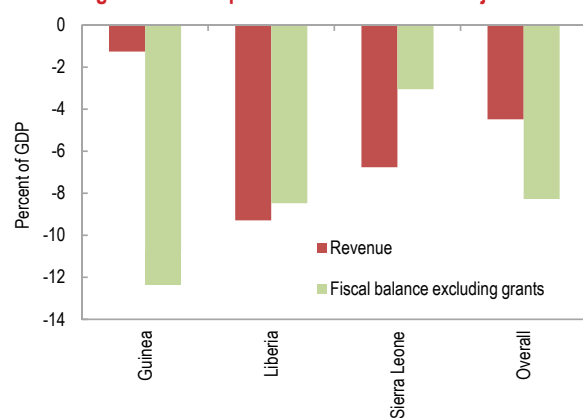
Sources: IMF, World Economic Outlook database; and IMF staff estimates.

The epidemic has impacted seriously the public finances of the affected countries.

- Government revenue is expected to decline by 4½ percentage points of their combined GDP compared with levels projected prior to the epidemic (Figure 1.24). In addition to the epidemic, lower iron ore prices have also impacted revenues in all three countries, and especially in Sierra Leone, where iron ore accounts for some 25 percent of GDP and 50 percent of total exports. In Guinea, delayed pass-through of lower oil prices to consumers is expected to offset in part the revenue shortfall.

- Outlays have been raised to help contain the disease and implement social programs to support vulnerable groups. For example, in 2014–15, Guinea and Liberia are planning to spend about 5 percent of their GDP on Ebola response plans. Thus, even allowing for some decline in investment spending due to labor market disruptions and import bottlenecks, total public expenditures for the three countries will increase by 4 percent of combined GDP over 2014–15.[15]

- For the countries as a group, the overall fiscal balance is projected to deteriorate by about 8 percent of their combined GDP in 2014–15 (cumulatively), though most of the weakening is envisaged for 2015. However, because of partly offsetting under-execution of capital budgets, the change in the overall fiscal balance underestimates the true fiscal impact of the epidemic. For instance in Liberia, the IMF country team estimates the total fiscal impact to be about 19 percent of GDP cumulatively for 2014–15. Similarly, for Sierra Leone, the total fiscal impact is estimated to be more than 10 percent of non-iron ore GDP—more than triple the fiscal deterioration reported in Figure 1.24.

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[15] Expenditure increases are partly due to factors not directly related to the Ebola epidemic: for example, a wage increase in Guinea will lead to a ¾ percentage point of GDP increase in the 2015 wage bill.

The international community has pledged significant financial support to the three affected countries to contain the epidemic quickly and effectively. Liberia is expected to get considerable budget support—about 15 percent of GDP—cumulatively for 2014–15, and pledges of total support amount to about $1.1 billion (or 56 percent of GDP). Total Ebola-related external support for Guinea and Sierra Leone is projected at 7 percent and 8 percent of GDP, respectively. However, a large portion of this financial support remains to be delivered. Liberia had received only a quarter of the pledged amount as of January 2015.

The IMF has been actively supporting the three affected countries. Since September 2014, it has provided additional financial assistance to Guinea, Liberia, and Sierra Leone totaling about $290 million to help finance the large fiscal deficits they have been facing. In addition, in February 2015, the IMF established a new Catastrophe Containment and Relief Trust, which will provide exceptional support to countries confronting major natural disasters, including epidemics. Under this new trust, the IMF is providing grants totaling about $100 million to the three affected countries for debt relief to the IMF, creating some near-term fiscal space. This strong response is expected to have a catalytic impact on donors to deliver on their pledged assistance to these countries.

A few countries outside the epicenter have experienced considerable economic spillovers, mainly in terms of lower inflows of tourists and business travel, in some cases delaying investment. In The Gambia, tourism represents its largest source of foreign exchange and the shock is estimated to have led to a decline of 60 percent in tourist arrivals for the 2014–15 season. Similarly, tourism activity is estimated to have declined in Senegal as well as in Burkina Faso. In addition, countries bordering the three Ebola epicenter countries (for example, Côte d'Ivoire and Mali) and regional travel or trade hubs (for example, Nigeria) have experienced small declines in cross-border trade, as travel has been restricted and borders closed.

Overall, a number of policy lessons can be drawn from the Ebola outbreak crisis.

- Ebola-like shocks are hard to predict and to prepare for. For fragile states to hold suitably large buffers to combat the shock would be prohibitively expensive in terms of the opportunity cost of foregone investment in social and physical infrastructure. Nonetheless, the presence of some buffers would have facilitated an early response while the support of the international community was being mobilized.

- Macroeconomic policies during such emergencies should be allowed to expand, and exchange rates to adjust, as was done in the three Ebola-affected countries. The experience shows that prompt financial support from the international community is critical to enable the implementation of such an accommodative policy response. Indeed, in the three affected countries, such policy easing was made possible by the prompt provision of international financial support.

- Beyond that, the determined efforts and strong coordination of the authorities and the international community are needed to contain such pandemic outbreaks. Sustained international support, including financial assistance, is required even after the outbreak has been contained to enable a recovery in the postpandemic period.

Box 1.1. Oil Price Shocks in Historical Perspective

Economic activity in sub-Saharan Africa has decelerated during previous episodes of decline in global commodity prices. Focusing primarily on four episodes of oil-price decline of comparable magnitude (Figure 1.1.1), average growth for the region has decelerated in all cases. Specifically:

Figure 1 .1.1. Selected Global Commodity Price Indices and Economic Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa
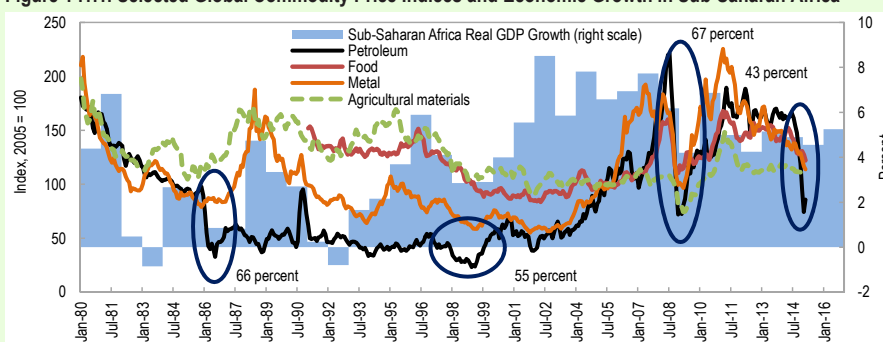
Source: IMF World Economic Outlook database.

- **1986**—*Oil prices declined by about 66 percent from November 1985 to July 1986.* Real GDP growth for the region fell from an average of almost 3 percent in 1984–85 to an average of less than 1 percent in 1986–87.

- **1998**—*Oil prices declined by 55 percent from November 1996 to December 1998.* Average growth fell from about 5 percent in 1996–97 to less than 3 percent in 1998–99.

- **2008**—*Oil prices declined by 67 percent from July to December.* The deceleration of economic activity of nearly 2 percentage points in 2009–10 relative to 2006–07 was largely the result of the global crisis and was exacerbated by the concomitant sharp—yet relatively short-lived—decline in oil (and other commodity) prices.[1]

- **2014**—*Oil prices declined by 43 percent between June and December.* Under the current *World Economic Outlook* 2015 projections, sub-Saharan Africa's real GDP growth is expected to, on average, decline slightly to 4¾ percent in 2015–16 relative to about 5 percent in 2013–14.

There are, however, some notable differences across countries. Although GDP growth among oil exporters softened in episodes of oil-price decline,[2] other economies in the region saw some acceleration in economic activity, with the notable exception of 2008–09, when growth declined across the board (Figure 1.1.2). Specifically:

- In 1985, real GDP growth in oil-exporting countries averaged about 7 percent (Figure 1.1.2, left panel). In the next two years, growth in this group was negative (there were also some cases of civil war). In other economies (Figure 1.1.2, right panel), average real GDP growth accelerated rapidly after 1985.

- Similarly, around 1998 when the price of oil was steadily declining, real GDP growth decelerated among oil-exporting countries (Figure 1.1.2, left panel), but was relatively flat among other economies—except for a slow spot in 1998, largely explained by a significant slowdown in economic activity in South Africa.[3]

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[1] For details see *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa* (April, October 2009; April, October 2010).
[2] As of 2014, eight sub-Saharan African countries are classified as oil exporters, but not all of them have been in that category since 1980. Similarly, some countries that have been categorized as oil exporters since at least 1980 have experienced civil war at some point.
[3] South Africa's GDP growth fell from 2.7 percent in 1997 to 0.5 percent in 1998, recovering to 2.4 percent in 1999. The sharp deceleration in 1998 reflected the contagion effect of the Asian crisis and the turmoil in the financial markets (OECD/AfDB 2002).

- In 2009, GDP growth decelerated sharply in both groups of countries (Figure 1.1.2). This largely reflects the effect of the 2008 global crisis, especially among middle-income countries and particularly in South Africa.[4]

- After 2014, under the baseline assumptions (see IMF 2015b), the expectation is that real GDP growth in oil exporters and elsewhere in the region will decline somewhat in 2015 before recovering slightly over the medium term.

Fiscal balances generally deteriorated among oil exporters (especially in 2009). The fiscal deterioration among oil-exporting countries during episodes of oil price decline was substantial (Figure 1.1.3, left panel) relative to other economies in the region (Figure 1.1.3, right panel). The observed deterioration of the fiscal balance during the 1986 episode in non-oil economies for the most part reflected the fiscal deterioration in South Africa (about 1.5 points of GDP from 1986 to1987), but also in Burundi and Lesotho (about 6 percentage points of GDP in each case); a total of 15 countries in this group saw fiscal improvement in the aftermath of the oil price decline. Conversely, as a result of countercyclical policies implemented during the global crisis of 2008–09, fiscal balances deteriorated across the board after 2008.[5] Finally, under the baseline assumptions, fiscal balances are projected to deteriorate for oil exporters and improve for other economies in 2015–16.

The expected effects of the most recent decline in oil prices is anticipated to be more moderate than in previous episodes. As discussed extensively in previous issues of this publication, many countries in sub-Saharan Africa are less dependent on commodities, with more diversified economies than previously perceived. At the same time, the region has become more integrated into global trade and has benefited from increased access to global financing. This reflects in part more solid fiscal positions across the region—some of which have benefited from debt relief—and more modern monetary policy frameworks geared toward fighting inflation and less subject to political pressures, with civil unrest becoming less common.

Figure 1.1.2. Sub-Saharan Africa: Real GDP Growth during Episodes of Oil Price Decline
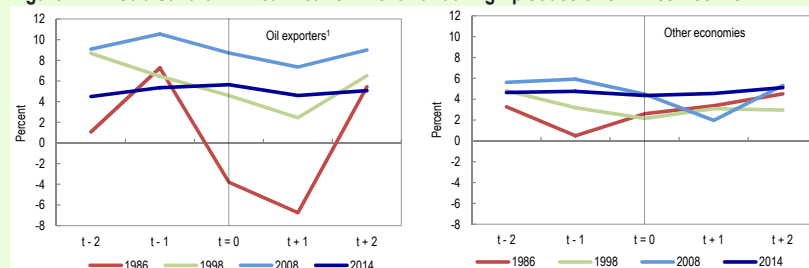
Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
[1] The aggregation does not include South Sudan, whose figures are subject to large swings.

Figure 1.1.3. Sub-Saharan Africa: Overall Fiscal Balance during Episodes of Oil Price Decline
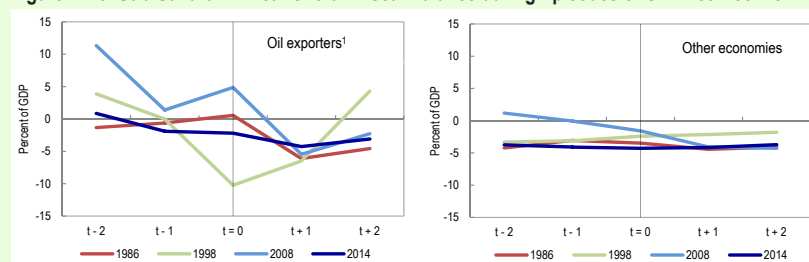
Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
[1] The aggregation does not include South Sudan, whose figures are subject to large swings.

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[4] Growth among non-oil exporting countries accelerated rapidly between 2002 and 2007 (not shown). This took place at a time when the global prices of other commodities rose steadily (Figure 1.1.1). A similar observation applies to 1986–89.
[5] See *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa,* April 2011.

Box 1.2. Retail Gasoline Prices in Sub-Saharan Africa:
The Impact of Lower International Fuel Prices

In sub-Saharan African countries fuel prices are set by governments (either on a discretionary basis or by automatic adjustment formulas) or by the market. Sub-Saharan African countries have reduced fuel prices in response to a sharp fall in international fuel prices, but the extent of the pass-through has been partial and mostly limited to oil importers, and has varied across fuel types. In this context, pretax and posttax fuel subsidies have fallen significantly, particularly for gasoline. This is primarily the case for a handful of instances where subsidy reforms have been undertaken in recent months.

Figure 1.2.1. Sub-Saharan Africa: Pass-Through of Changes in International Fuel Prices, June 2014–January 2015
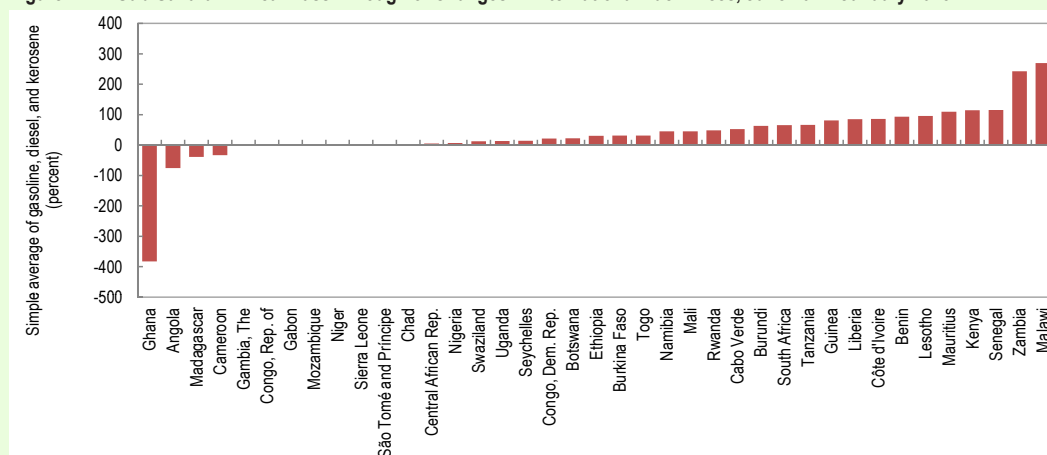
Sources: Country authorities; and IMF staff calculations.

The pass-through of the recent sharp fall in international fuel prices in the region has been partial and largely limited to oil importers (Figure 1.2.1).

- A survey of fuel prices in sub-Saharan Africa suggests that the substantial decline in international fuel prices has resulted in retail prices falling in most countries between June 2014 and early 2015.[1] This is despite the fact that in sub-Saharan Africa, only about 35 percent of countries allow automatic adjustment of retail prices, whereas the others set prices administratively.

- The pass-through thus far has been partial and almost entirely limited to oil importers. Overall, the median pass-through coefficient (defined as the absolute change in domestic retail prices divided by the absolute change in international prices, both in domestic currency) was only 31 percent between June 2014 and early 2015.[2] Splitting the sample into oil-importing and -exporting countries yields pass-through coefficients of 45 percent and 0 percent, respectively. This is evidence of the differences in the pass-through behavior across those two groups of countries, as most oil-exporting countries have not changed administered gasoline prices over that period.

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This box was prepared by Mauricio Villafuerte with assistance from Cleary Haines and Sebastian Corrales.

[1] International fuel prices have declined from US$0.7–$0.8 per liter between early 2011 and mid-2014 to about US$0.4 per liter by the end of 2014.

[2] Based on a simple average of gasoline, diesel, and kerosene.

- The pass-through of the fall in gasoline prices has been smaller than for diesel and kerosene (a median of 24 percent against 40 percent for the latter two).

- In some countries—Angola, Cameroon, Ghana, and Madagascar—fuel prices have increased in the context of domestic fuel pricing reforms.

Fuel subsidies (taxes) have fallen (increased) between mid-2014 and early 2015. Information on the detailed price structure has been used to assess the extent to which retail prices are set at cost-recovery (for example, transportation, distribution, and profit margins) levels. This analysis yields a number of results.

- By January 2015, in all countries except Angola and Nigeria (Figure 1.2.2), retail fuel prices covered all supply costs (that is, CIF import price, transportation and distribution costs, and profit margins). This represents an improvement over June 2014 when in a number of countries retail prices did not cover all supply costs.

- The analysis, though, does not include taxes in calculating the cost-recovery price. A more stringent "posttax" analysis—which adds the sub-Saharan African average of gross tax per liter ($0.34) to the cost-recovery price—implies that, on an annualized basis, fuel subsidies (taxes) fell (increased) by an average of 0.8 percent of GDP. Gasoline subsidies account for half of that value because of the more limited pass-through to gasoline prices. At January prices, in an illustrative exercise using an average tax for the region, about 55 percent of sub-Saharan African countries are estimated to be subsidizing domestic fuels. However, only in oil exporters do subsidies amount to more than 1 percent of GDP.

Figure 1.2.2. Sub-Saharan Africa: Average Actual Gasoline, Diesel, and Kerosene Price, June 2014 versus January 2015

Sources: Country authorities; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: See page 70 for list of country acronyms.

Box 1.3. The Determinants of Sovereign Spreads

Strong growth and good macroeconomic policy implementation created the conditions that allowed sub-Saharan Africa's sovereign international bond issuance to grow significantly in the last decade. At the same time, ample global liquidity has drawn the attention of international investors in search of yield and portfolio diversification. An important question that arises in this regard is whether or not sub-Saharan African countries' international bonds have been priced favorably relative to emerging markets outside sub-Saharan Africa.

This question is addressed through an empirical investigation of the relevant macroeconomic fundamentals, and global liquidity and risk factors that determine sovereign spreads. The analysis is based on a panel study of 57 frontier market and middle-income countries over the period 2009–2014.[1] The estimated specification is as follows, where i and t are the country and period indices, respectively:

$$ln(Spread)_{it} = \alpha + \beta_0 VIX_{t-1} + \beta_1 (TermPrem)_{t-1} + \beta_2 (Funding\ Cost)_{t-1} + \beta_3 \Delta(Oil\ Price)_t$$
$$+ \beta' X_{it-1} + c_i + \theta_t + \varepsilon_{it}$$

$Spread_{it}$ refers to the J.P. Morgan Emerging Market Bond Index Global spread, c_i is a country-specific dummy, and θ_t is a period dummy. Among the global market variables, VIX is the Chicago Board Options Exchange Volatility Index, $TermPrem$ is the U.S. term premium approximated by the difference between the ten-year and three-month yields, $Funding\ Cost$ refers to the three-month Libor-OIS (London interbank offered rate–overnight indexed swap) spread, and $\Delta(Oil\ Price)$ is the change in the price of Brent. The X_{it-1} vector of macroeconomic fundamental variables includes the lagged values of real GDP per capita levels, international reserves, primary balance, public debt, the current account, a dummy for oil exporters and its interaction term with oil-price shocks.[2] We use an instrumental variables (IV) approach to avoid bias emanating from the inclusion of both the lagged dependent variable and country fixed effects (Nickell 1981). Our chosen IV is the second-lagged value of the VIX, which the first stage F-statistic suggests is a strong instrument.[3]

Coefficient estimates are presented in Table 1.3.1 and standardized coefficients of most determinants are presented in Figure 1.3.1. The regression results suggest that the set of global factors and macroeconomic fundamental variables listed above are all determinants of the levels of sovereign spreads. We find that higher global risk aversion (the VIX), higher funding costs that limit arbitrage opportunities of sovereign bonds trading market participants, and the U.S. term premium are positively associated with spreads, while oil prices, possibly reflecting the impact of stronger global demand conditions, are negatively correlated. As expected, we also find that stronger country-specific macroeconomic fundamentals are associated with lower sovereign spreads. The size of the coefficients of global factors suggests that country spread is most sensitive to changes in the VIX and to funding costs. Among macroeconomic fundamentals beyond the level of development captured by GDP per capita, country spreads are most sensitive to changes in reserves and public-debt-to-GDP ratio, as evidenced in Figure 1.3.1. In particular, a one standard deviation increase in reserves is associated with a 0.26 standard deviation reduction in spreads, whereas a similar increase in public debt increases spreads by 0.2 of one standard deviation.

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[1] Our sample includes the following sub-Saharan African countries: Côte d'Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, and Zambia.

[2] Given that oil prices follow an AR(1) process, we can think of changes in oil prices as oil-price shocks. See Brückner, Chong, and Gradstein (2012).

[3] Although we include the first-lagged value of the VIX, our instrumentation strategy remains valid as long as the second-lagged value of the VIX affects current spreads only via its impact on the lagged dependent variable. We tested and found statistically insignificant the direct effect of the second-lagged value of the VIX, once the first-lagged value is included.

Table 1.3.1. Estimation of Sovereign Spreads

	(1) Spreads	(2) Spreads
Log of spread (lag1)	0.516***	0.519***
	(0.116)	(0.115)
VIX (lag1)	0.006***	0.006***
	(0.002)	(0.002)
U.S. term premium (lag1)	0.043***	0.043***
	(0.010)	(0.010)
LIBOR-OIS (U.S. dollars; lag1)	0.272***	0.272***
	(0.067)	(0.067)
Oil price shock	-0.006***	-0.005***
	(0.000)	(0.001)
Log of GDP per capita (lag1)	-0.474***	-0.450***
	(0.146)	(0.135)
Current account balance (lag1)	-0.004***	-0.004***
	(0.001)	(0.001)
Reserves (lag1)	-0.010***	-0.009***
	(0.002)	(0.002)
Gross public debt (lag1)	0.004***	0.004***
	(0.001)	(0.001)
Inflation (lag1)	0.005***	0.005***
	(0.001)	(0.001)
Primary balance (lag1)	-0.006**	-0.005**
	(0.002)	(0.002)
Oil exporter * oil price shock (lag1)		-0.004***
		(0.001)
Observations	3167	3167
Countries	57	57
Year fixed effects	YES	YES
Country fixed effects	YES	YES
First stage F-statistic	35.07	35.17

Source: IMF staff calculations.

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. * indicates significance at 10 percent, ** at 5 percent, and *** at 1 percent.

(continued)

Box 1.3. (*continued*)

Figure 1.3.1. Standardized Coefficients of the Determinants of Sovereign Spreads
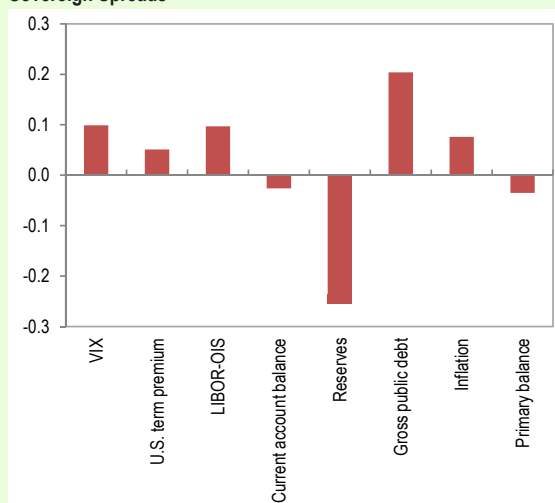
Sources: Bloomberg, L.P.; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: VIX = Chicago Board Options Exchange Volatility Index; LIBOR-OIS = three-month London interbank offered rate–overnight index swaps.

Figure 1.3.2. Fitted versus Actual Spreads, 2014

Sources: Bloomberg, L.P.; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: See page 70 for list of country acronyms.

Figure 1.3.3. Fitted versus Actual Spreads, January 2015

Sources: Bloomberg, L.P.; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: See page 70 for list of country acronyms.

Given the recent developments in oil prices, we also estimate an alternative specification to differentiate between oil exporters and oil importers (Table 1.3.1, column 2). We find that movements in oil prices have different-sized effects on sovereign spreads depending on whether a country is an oil exporter or importer. In particular, our results suggest that an increase in oil prices is associated with lower sovereign spreads for both groups of countries, but with the effects being twice as strong for oil exporters.

Using these estimates we compare fitted and actual spreads for each sub-Saharan African economy in our sample to analyze if their market bond prices were in line with their fundamentals. Figure 1.3.2 presents this comparison for sub-Saharan African sovereign spreads in 2014 and Figure 1.3.3 for January 2015. For average spreads in 2014, we observe negative misalignments, except in Ghana, with spreads being slightly tighter than would be suggested by the empirical model. This could be the consequence of the high global liquidity and a stronger interest of international investors, together with the fact that the economic outlook for more mature emerging markets has been deteriorating more quickly than for frontier market sovereigns. The positive misalignment of Ghana likely reflected the concerns about the fiscal stance and low external reserves, as well as renewed pressures on its currency. For January 2015, we observe a wider dispersion of spreads relative to the fitted model.
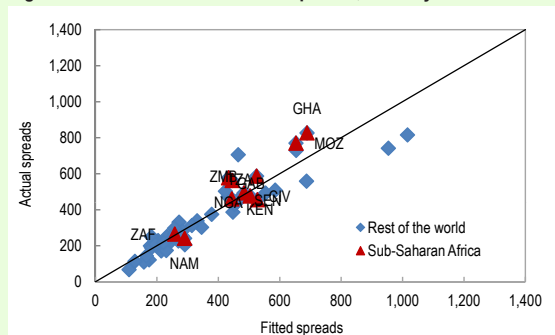
2. How Can Sub-Saharan Africa Harness the Demographic Dividend?

By 2035, the number of sub-Saharan Africans reaching working age (15–64) will exceed that of the rest of the world combined (Figure 2.1). This is a trend with potentially significant implications for both the region and the global economy, as described below:

- For the region, the implications of current trends include a rapid increase in population and a demographic transition—a pronounced increase in the share of working age population (SWAP, see Box 2.1). In most other parts of the world, similar transitions have been associated with higher saving and investment, raising potential and actual growth. Conversely, if countries' economic performance were to falter, the implications of such demographic developments could be dire.

- For the global economy, integrating sub-Saharan Africa's labor force into global supply chains would be beneficial. Indeed, given the aging population structure of much of the rest of the world, there may be little alternative. For the last several decades, the global working age population has been expanding at a rapid pace, supporting higher global growth. But more recently, this trend has started to reverse. On current trends, the world's working age population, excluding that of sub-Saharan Africa, will start to decline by 2050 or so. With aging populations elsewhere, sub-Saharan Africa will drive global population growth in the future.

This chapter considers the significance of the demographic transition for sub-Saharan Africa. The aim is to identify the policies that will help countries maximize the demographic dividend—an episode of higher economic growth driven by changes in the age structure of the population and

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Figure 2.1. Change in Working Age Population
(ages 15–64)
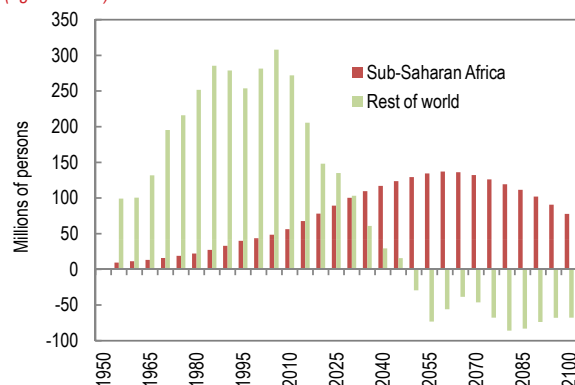
Sources: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012; and IMF staff calculations.

by accompanying policies. To this end, this chapter reviews sub-Saharan Africa's demographic transition in a historical and global context; examines the opportunities it provides for countries in the region; considers policies that can help maximize the demographic dividend, in light of the experiences in east Asia and Latin America; and estimates the economic impact of the demographic transition under alternative scenarios.

The main findings are as follows:

- Sub-Saharan Africa can benefit from a significant demographic dividend, the magnitude of which will depend on the speed of transition and policy choices. Sub-Saharan Africa's income per capita could be an additional 25 percent higher in 2050 solely as a result of the demographic transition. By 2100, it could be about 55 percent higher. If complemented with supportive policies, the dividend could increase to about 50 percent by 2050 and nearly 120 percent by 2100. For many countries, this represents the potential to graduate from low-income to middle-income status.

- To maximize the dividend, sub-Saharan Africa will have to create high-productivity jobs at an average of about 18 million jobs per year until

2035—an extremely rapid and possibly unprecedented rate—to absorb the new entrants in the labor force. It will also require policies to be in place that encourage a gradual transition from the informal sector, which currently accounts for about 90 percent of the 400 million jobs in low-income sub-Saharan African countries, to non-agricultural formal sector employment.[1] Failure to create sufficient jobs could result in severe economic and social problems.

- The overall magnitude of the dividend will depend on the speed of the transition, that is, how fast infant mortality and fertility rates decline. For some sub-Saharan African countries where fertility rates remain high, significant gains can be achieved by decreasing infant mortality and fertility rates. The more rapidly those rates decline, the greater and faster will the increase in the share of the working age population be. Failure to speed up the transition will delay the demographic dividend.

- Factors that matter for growth—for example, macroeconomic stability, trade openness, and strong institutions— also matter for harnessing a demographic dividend, but take on greater importance in the face of rapidly growing populations and increasing shares of working age population. Some policies, however, become relatively more important in the context of the demographic transition. Investments in human capital, including health care and education, are critical in the early phases to speed up the transition, improve the productivity of the workforce, and increase the size of the potential dividend. Policies that promote flexible labor markets, facilitate the development of labor-intensive sectors that can compete globally, and liberalize trade are necessary to increase employment opportunities. Similarly, furthering financial sector development to effectively channel savings into investment can increase employment and growth. Many of these policies are interlinked, and exploiting their synergies is critical to increasing the dividend.

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[1] The informal sector is defined as including both self-employment and agricultural employment.

SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA'S DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION

Demographic Developments

Most of sub-Saharan Africa is undergoing a demographic transition, owing to declining infant mortality and fertility rates. This is leading to an increase in the share of the working age population. Sub-Saharan Africa's population, currently of about 800 million, is projected to rise to 2 billion by 2050 and to 3.7 billion by 2100 (Figure 2.2).

By 2050:

- The youngest subgroup (ages 0–14) is projected to double to about 685 million.

- The working age population (ages 15–64) is projected to triple to 1.25 billion.

- The number of elderly (older than 65) is projected to quadruple to 100 million, reflecting improvements in life expectancy.

These projections are based on the medium-fertility scenario of the United Nations, which assumes a fertility decline in high-fertility countries similar to that observed for Asia and Latin America after the 1950s.[2] However, they are subject to uncertainty, and large upside risks exist from the persistence of high fertility rates in some sub-Saharan African countries.[3] The high-fertility scenario of the United Nations suggests that sub-Saharan Africa's population could increase more than sixfold by 2100, compared with the fourfold increase under the medium-fertility scenario (Figure 2.3).[4] The rest of the chapter uses the medium-fertility scenario of the United Nations.

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[2] The United Nations defines high-fertility countries as countries with fertility rates above 5.1, and low-fertility countries as those with rates below 2.1.

[3] In recent years, the United Nations has increased its projected population figures for sub-Saharan Africa several times, as fertility rates have failed to decline as fast as projected.

[4] The high-fertility scenario assumes an extra half child relative to the medium variant, while the low-fertility scenario estimate assumes half a child less relative to the medium-fertility scenario. A constant difference of half a child above or below the medium-fertility scenario would result in a global population of about 1.3 billion more or less in 2050 compared with the medium-fertility scenario.

Figure 2.2. Sub-Saharan Africa: Population Structure, 1950–2100
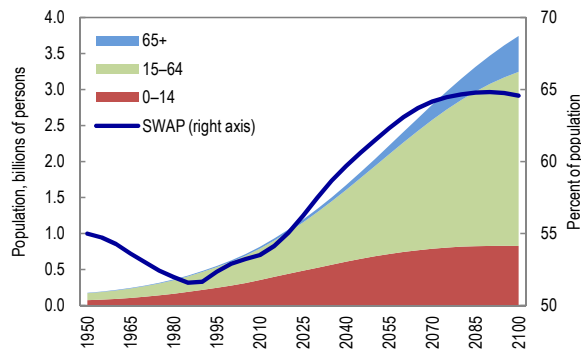
Sources: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: SWAP = share of working age population.

Figure 2.3. Sub-Saharan Africa: Population Under Three Scenarios, 1950–2100
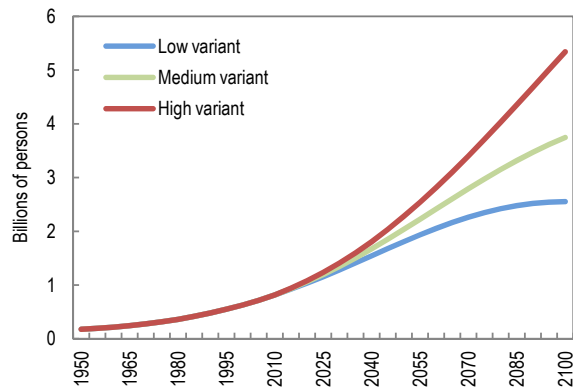
Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.

Figure 2.4. Selected Countries: Share of Working Age Population at Different Stages of Transition, 1950–2100
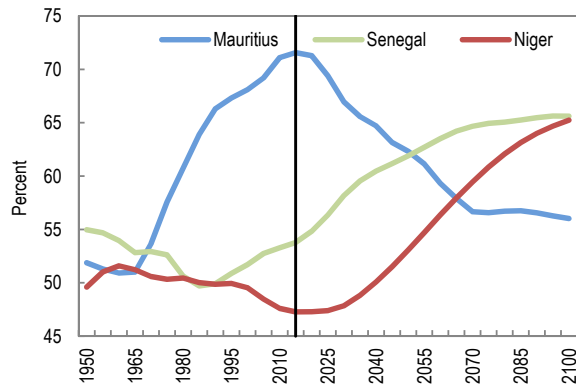
Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.

The pace and path of the demographic transition varies greatly across sub-Saharan Africa (Box 2.2). Three broad groups can be distinguished based on the evolution of their share of the working age population: (1) advanced, where the transition is largely complete; (2) ongoing, where the transition is underway; and (3) nascent, where little or no transition has yet taken place.[5] Figure 2.4 illustrates these groupings with three countries that fall broadly into these categories. Figure 2.5 shows how far sub-Saharan African countries have advanced in their transitions.[6]

- **Advanced.** These countries started their transitions in the 1960s and have nearly completed the process, in roughly the same time frame as east Asia and Latin America. Their transitions were made feasible by fast declines in mortality and fertility rates. These countries experienced some of the highest GDP growth in sub-Saharan Africa during their transition, and graduated to middle-income status (Figure 2.6). Box 2.3 presents the case of Mauritius, where the transition was initially challenging, but where complementary policies contributed to its success.

- **Ongoing.** This group includes a number of countries where the transition started during the 1980s, and where the peak share of the working age population will not be reached before 2050. The increase in the share of the working age population to date varies between 10 percentage points for countries such as Namibia and Swaziland, to marginally more than 2 percentage points for countries like Burkina Faso and Republic of Congo.

- **Nascent.** The transition in these countries has been slow as they have generally made little progress in moving from high to low mortality and fertility rates. As a result, the share of their

---

[5] A country is classified as (1) advanced, if its SWAP has increased by more than 10 percentage points since the beginning of the transition and if it has completed more than three-quarters of its transition; (2) ongoing, if the SWAP has increased between 2 and 10 percentage points; and (3) nascent, if the SWAP has increased by less than 2 percentage points.
[6] Our focus on the turning points of the SWAP to define the beginning and end of the demographic transition is driven by the macroeconomic implications of the transition.

Figure 2.5. Sub-Saharan Africa: Evolution of Shares of Working Age Population (SWAP)
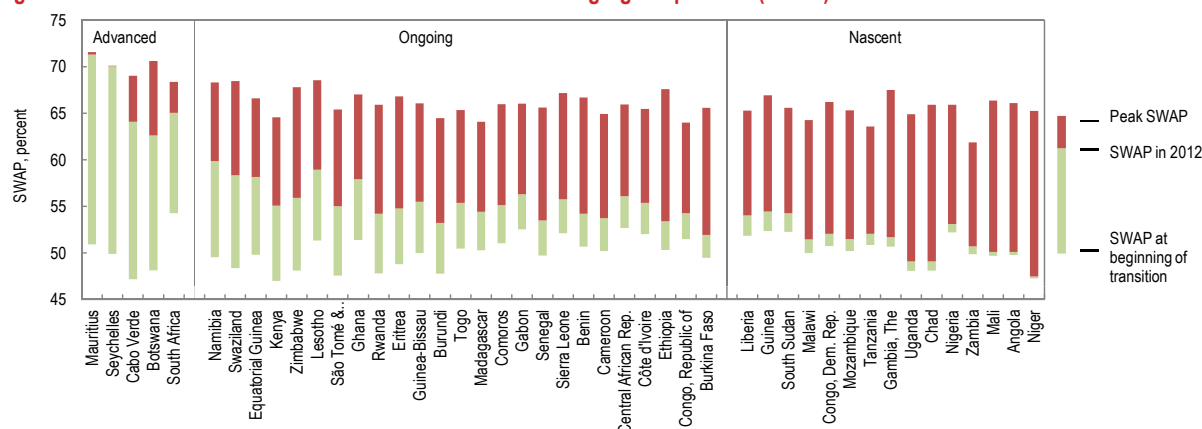
Sources: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: A country is classified as (1) advanced, if its SWAP has increased by more than 10 percentage points since the beginning of the transition and if it has completed more than three-quarters of its transition; (2) ongoing, if the SWAP has increased between 2 and 10 percentage points; and (3) nascent, if the SWAP has increased by less than 2 percentage points.

Figure 2.6. Sub-Saharan Africa: Share of Working Age Population and Real GDP per Capita, 2010
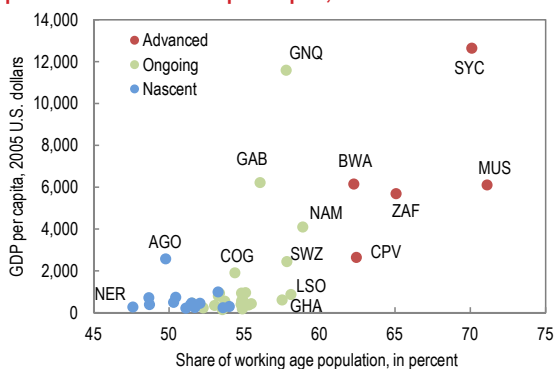
Sources: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012; and World Bank, *World Development Indicators*.
Note: See page 70 for country acronyms.

working age population is only projected to increase significantly after 2050. This group includes Angola, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Nigeria, Tanzania, and Uganda, some of the most populous countries in sub-Saharan Africa, but it also includes Niger, where the transition is just beginning.

Fertility rates drive the speed of transition. Average fertility in sub-Saharan Africa has declined to 4.7 children per woman, but remains high in many countries, reflecting high infant mortality rates, cultural preferences, and, in some cases limited access to family planning initiatives (Guengant and May 2013; United Nations 2014). High fertility

is positively correlated with infant mortality and inversely correlated with income levels (Figures 2.7 and 2.8).

As the focus of this chapter is on how to successfully manage the demographic transition, the rest of the discussion focuses on countries in the ongoing and nascent stages.

Regional Context

Demographic developments are projected to vary significantly across sub-Saharan Africa (Figure 2.9). The eastern and western parts of sub-Saharan Africa will have the biggest increase in population, which is projected to exceed 1 billion in both regions. The population in the southern region will remain largely flat, reflecting the completion of the demographic transition in its largest economies, Botswana and South Africa. As a country, Nigeria is projected to have the largest increase.

Global Context

The rising share of sub-Saharan Africa's working age population is increasing the continent's productive potential at a time when most advanced economies face aging populations and a declining share of their working age populations (Figures 2.10 and 2.11). Sub-Saharan Africa's share of the global labor force is thus projected to increase from 10 percent in 2010 to 37 percent by 2100 (Figure 2.12).

Figure 2.7. Sub-Saharan Africa: Under-five Mortality and Fertility Rates, 2010–15
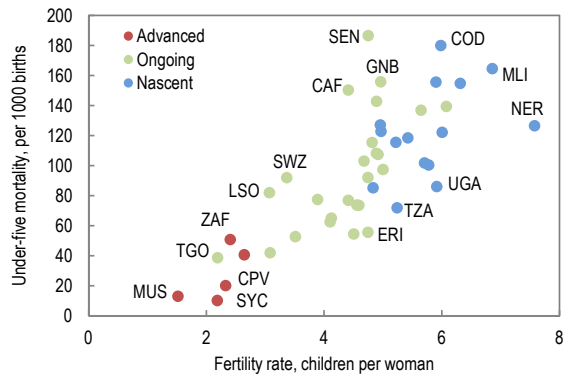
Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.
Note: The data used both actual and projected rates. See page 70 for country acronyms.

Figure 2.8. Real GDP per Capita and Fertility Rates
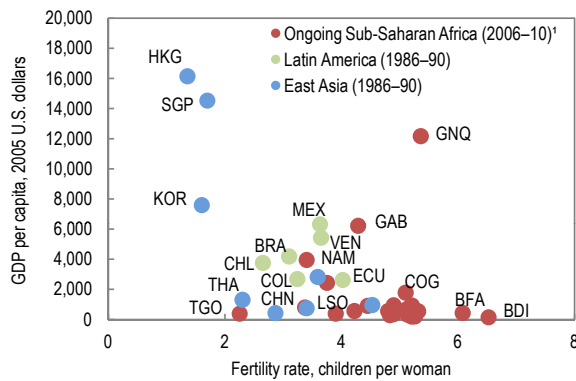
Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.
Note: The dates in parentheses refer to the period for which the fertility rate and GDP per capita are shown. See page 70 for country acronyms.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.9. Sub-Saharan Africa: Population Trends by Region, 1950–2100

Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.

Figure 2.10. Global Trends in Share of Working Age Population, 1950–2100

Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.

Figure 2.11. Changes in Working Age Population: 1960–2060
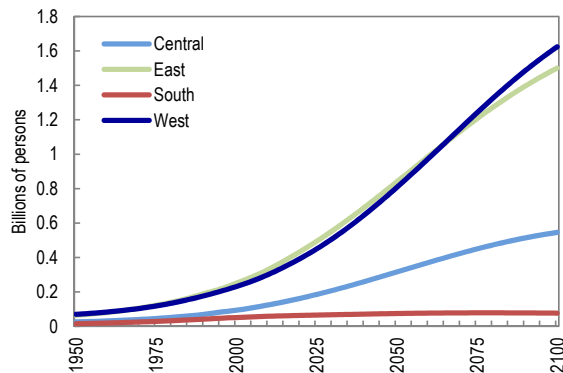
Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.

Figure 2.12 Share of World Labor Force
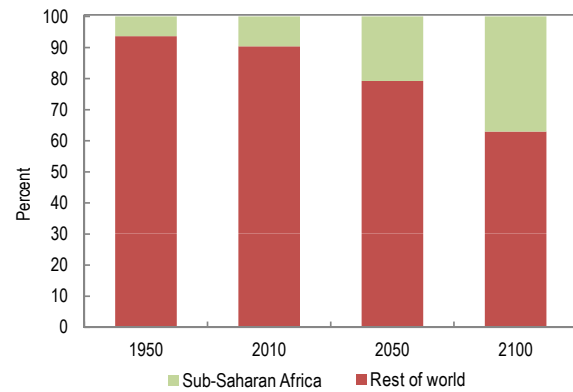
Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.

The magnitude of these demographic developments will have major implications both for sub-Saharan Africa and for the global economy, as labor could flow from sub-Saharan Africa to other regions and capital could flow from other regions to sub-Saharan Africa.

THE DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND: CHANNELS AND CHALLENGES

As noted previously, the demographic transition presents sub-Saharan African countries with an opportunity to benefit from the demographic dividend arising from additional growth due to changes in the population age structure and accompanying policies. A demographic transition involves several stages, each affecting growth through different channels (Galor and Weil 2000):

• First, the rising share of the working age population provides a direct channel for increasing per capita incomes. If the increased workforce is employed, there should be greater economic output and labor income per household.

• Second, declining fertility rates are generally associated with higher female labor force participation rates, further increasing the workforce and contributing to even larger reductions in the fertility rate (Bloom and others 2009; Soares and Falcao 2008). Removing legal and institutional impediments to female labor force participation can enable economies to benefit from an expanded pool of labor (Gonzalez and others 2015).

• Third, reductions in the number of children and concurrent increases in life expectancy are associated with greater private investment in education and health care, thereby enhancing the productivity of the workforce (Rosenzweig 1990; Soares 2005).

• Fourth, because saving rates tend to be highest for working age individuals, growth will receive a further temporary boost to the extent that those savings are channeled into investments (Higgins 1998; IMF 2004; Hassan, Sanchez, and Yu 2011).

But capturing this dividend is not automatic. To capture the largest dividend possible, sub-Saharan African countries will need to accelerate the declines in infant mortality and fertility, and generate large numbers of new jobs—on average, 18 million per year from 2010 to 2035—while ensuring those new workers are productive. Governments will need to strive to do this while confronting three important challenges:

• First, fertility rates in many sub-Saharan African countries could remain higher for longer, which could delay and reduce the size of any potential dividend.

• Second, rising populations will strain public resources and implementation capacity. To provide these growing populations with even the current level of services, sub-Saharan African countries will need to increase their road networks; power, water, and sewer systems; and delivery of health and education services. However, to fully exploit the potential demographic dividend, they will need not only to maintain their current level of services, but also to increase per capita investments in health, education, and infrastructure.

• Finally, the bulk of sub-Saharan Africa is employed in the informal sector, which is likely to remain the main source of employment in the near term. Moreover, evidence suggests that most women in sub-Saharan Africa have no choice but to work in the informal sector, as they have to both raise their children and earn an income. The lower levels of productivity associated with this sector could result in sub-Saharan Africa having lower-than-average productivity during part of its transition.

The next section reviews the degree of success two other regions—east Asia and Latin America—had in managing their own demographic transitions. It also contrasts the experience of sub-Saharan African countries in the "ongoing" group to the experiences of some east Asian and Latin American countries 25 years into their transitions.

THE DEMOGRAPHIC DIVIDEND: INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCES

Differentiated Trends

East Asia and Latin America started their demographic transition at about the same time in the 1960s.[7] The starting year for these two regions is set to 1965, while for "ongoing" sub-Saharan African countries, the starting year is set to 1985—the year the share of the working age population started to increase, which for our purposes can be considered as the onset of the demographic transition. It can be insightful to compare the movement of key variables in these three regions during their demographic transitions.

GDP per capita. East Asia, with only about half of Latin America's GDP per capita at the beginning of the transition, grew at an average annual rate of 3.7 percent over the last 50 years, in contrast with 2.2 percent in Latin America (Figure 2.13). Bloom, Canning, and Malaney (1999) estimate that at least 45 percent of east Asia's growth was attributable to the transition. Sub-Saharan Africa entered the transition with a much lower GDP per capita, and has seen little growth in GDP per capita in the first 25 years of its transition.

The size of the SWAP. East Asia saw a faster decline in fertility and, consequently, a faster increase in the share of the working age population than Latin America (Figures 2.14 and 2.15). Sub-Saharan African countries had fertility levels similar to those in Latin American countries at the beginning of the transition, but have declined even more slowly than in Latin America, leading to a much slower increase in the SWAP.

Changes in the structure of the economy. In east Asia, the share of agriculture fell sharply as a result of a rapid growth in labor-intensive manufacturing (Figure 2.16). Although at the outset the share of agriculture in GDP was significantly lower,

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[7] In this section, Latin America comprises Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, and Venezuela; and east Asia comprises China, Hong Kong SAR, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, South Korea, and Thailand. Argentina, Japan, and Uruguay are excluded because of their diverging demographics relative to their respective regions.

Figure 2.13. Selected Regions: Real GDP per Capita Index
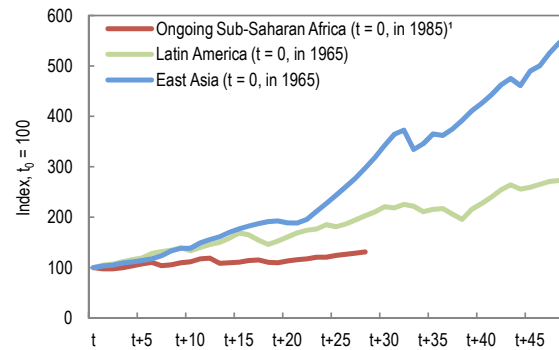
Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators;* and IMF staff estimates.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.14. Selected Regions: Median Fertility Rates
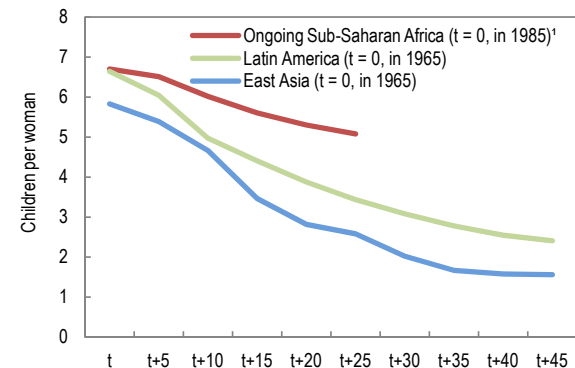
Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators;* and IMF staff estimates.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.15. Selected Regions: Median Share of Working Age Population
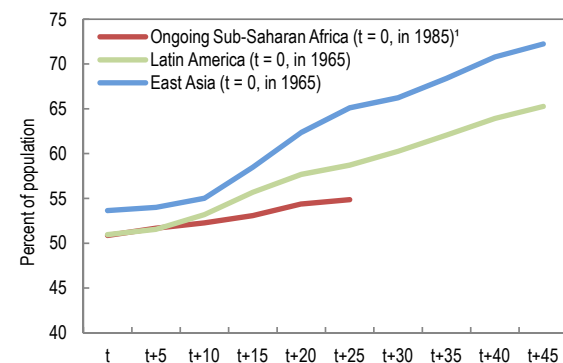
Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators;* and IMF staff estimates.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.16. Selected Regions: Median Share of Agriculture in GDP

Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators*; and IMF staff estimates.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.17. Selected Regions: Median Export Share in GDP

Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators*; and IMF staff estimates.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.18. Selected Regions: Change in Share of Working Age Population and Change in Exports Between t = 0 and t = 25

Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators*; and IMF staff estimates.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.19. Selected Regions: Median Private Saving

Sources: IMF, World Economic Outlook database; and IMF staff estimates.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

the decline in the share of agriculture was much slower in Latin America. Although sub-Saharan Africa started at the same level as east Asia, its dependence on agriculture remains high.

Exports. Exports as a share of GDP almost tripled in east Asia (Figure 2.17; Page 1997; IDB 1997).[8] The increase was much more modest in Latin America. The increase in exports in sub-Saharan Africa has been relatively modest compared with the path seen in east Asia (Figure. 2.18). Indeed, while sub-Saharan Africa had a larger share of exports than Latin America at the start of their respective transitions, their export shares were almost identical 25 years later. Moreover, a significant part of sub-Saharan Africa's exports consists of extractive products. Since the extractive industry tends to be capital intensive, it does not necessarily create jobs on the same scale as labor-intensive manufacturing and services sectors.

Saving and investment. Starting at a higher base, private saving in east Asia reached a much higher level than in Latin America (Figure 2.19). Also, during the transition, public saving in east Asia did not deteriorate, as it did in Latin America (Figure 2.20; Uy 1993). Most sub-Saharan African countries in the ongoing stage have experienced modest

[8] Most of the east Asian economies liberalized trade and adopted policies to promote manufacturing exports (Page 1994). In contrast, Latin America pursued policies to protect domestic industries from external competition, such as import tariffs, quotas and licenses, and export subsidies (Elson 2013).

Figure 2.20. Selected Regions: Median Public Saving
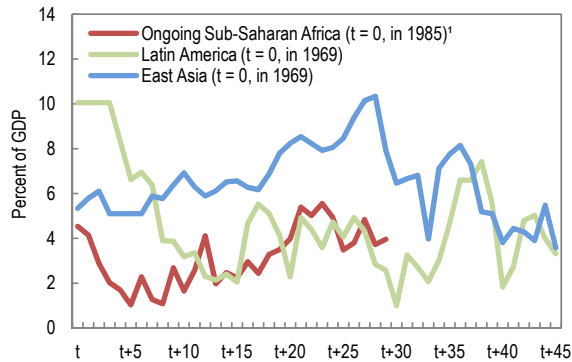
Source: IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.21. Selected Regions: Change in Share of Working Age Population and Change in Private Saving Between t = 0 and t = 25
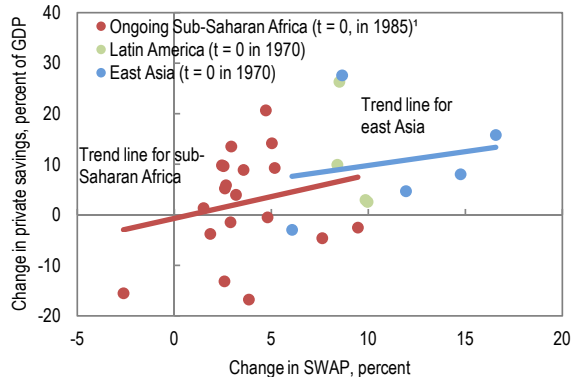
Sources: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012; and IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.22. Selected Regions: Median Public Saving and Share of Working Age Population from t = 0 to t = 25
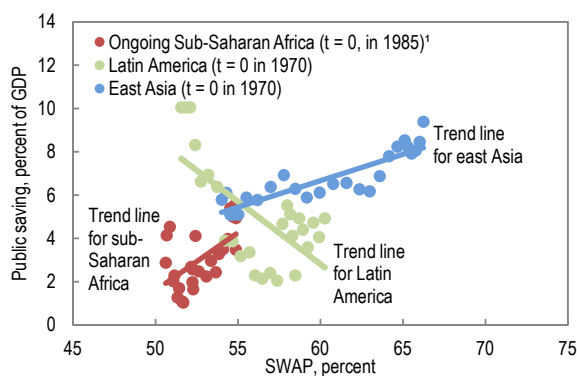
Sources: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012; and IMF, World Economic Outlook database.
[1] Ongoing sub-Saharan Africa refers to countries in the ongoing stage of transition, as defined in Figure 2.5.

increases in private and public savings (Figures 2.21 and 2.22).

The demographic transition did not contribute as much to growth in Latin America as it did in east Asia (Drummond, Thakoor, and Yu 2014—Box 2.4). Studies suggest that policy differences played a key role in the different regional outcomes. The interaction of a faster demographic transition and better suited economic policies in east Asia is estimated to account for about 40 percent of the growth differential with Latin America (Bloom and Canning 2001).

The Critical Role of Policies

Policy differences between east Asia and Latin America can provide useful insights for sub-Saharan African countries going through their demographic transitions. As noted previously, east Asian countries had a faster transition and captured a larger demographic dividend than Latin American countries. They did this by putting in place a macroeconomic framework conducive to tapping the potential provided by the increase in the working age population. Health and education policies allowed east Asia to have a faster transition and improved the overall productivity of the workforce, while macroeconomic stability and complementary policies—related to structural transformation and international trade—favored job creation and saving (Bloom, Canning, and Sevilla 2003; Reher 2011). Specifically, east Asia's better performance in capturing the demographic dividend has been attributed to the following:

- *Policies contributed to a faster demographic transition.* This was partly attributable to public programs encouraging couples to reduce childbearing and the provision of low-cost means to regulate fertility (Mason 2003).

- *Investments in human capital ensured the workforce was more productive.* Public investment in education contributed to higher productivity by improving skills and health, thereby contributing to meeting the needs of growing and diversifying economies (Page 1994; Mason 1997; Gribble and Bremner 2012).

- *Job creation was facilitated by labor market flexibility and a shift to labor-intensive manufacturing sectors.* Wages were allowed to move more flexibly in response to macroeconomic shocks. They also reduced the income gap between the formal and informal sectors, contributing to overall social stability, and thus enhancing the environment for growth (Mason 1997, 2003; Elson 2013). By contrast, in many Latin American countries, import-substitution policies supported the development of powerful vested interests, allowing wages to grow in excess of productivity gains, and hampering investment and growth prospects (Elson 2013). Additionally, stiff labor protection regulations benefited only a subset of workers in the private formal sector and the public sector.

- *Higher trade integration stimulated job creation, structural transformation, and technology transfer.* If Latin America had been as open as east Asia, it is estimated that its average annual GDP per capita growth rate would have been 0.9 percentage point higher during 1965–85 (Summers and Heston 1991).Conversely, following the transition, about 40 percent of the increase in Latin America's growth potential in the late 1980s has been attributed to trade liberalization.[9]

- *Increased savings from the demographic transition were channeled toward investment, with simultaneous financial sector development.* East Asia's higher saving rates were supported by a decline in dependency ratios, faster growth, and the extended family structure, which reduced the decline in saving traditionally associated with retirement (Mason and Kinugasa 2008; Page 1994; Mason 1997).[10] Higher saving supported

investment, which exceeded 20 percent of GDP on average during 1960–90. Also, east Asian countries adopted additional measures, including tax policies, to promote investment and keep the relative price of capital goods low. The region experienced a faster increase in capital per worker than in Latin America. Half of the total estimated demographic dividend in east Asia can be attributed to capital accumulation (Bloom and Williamson 1998).

POLICY OPTIONS FOR SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

The demographic transition and accompanying economic transformation is evolving at a slower pace in sub-Saharan Africa relative to east Asia. To improve the prospects of harnessing a higher dividend, creating jobs to absorb the new workforce entrants while increasing overall productivity levels will be vital. It will also require maintaining macroeconomic stability to spur economic transformation and facilitate private sector development, including by protecting investor rights, strengthening the rule of law, and reducing the cost of doing business. The implementation of these policies will likely require fiscal space to allow for a scaling up of some components of expenditure, while maintaining debt sustainability. A reprioritization of government spending toward social and infrastructure spending can contribute to improving the productivity of the workforce and reducing bottlenecks to private sector development. Reducing distortionary taxes on capital and income can also create incentives for the private sector to expand its activities and increase the demand for labor.

The speed of the transition is one of the main determinants of the magnitude of the demographic dividend (Drummond, Thakoor, and Yu 2014). In several sub-Saharan African countries, there is significant scope to increase the magnitude of the dividend by speeding the transition (Guengant and May 2013). This reflects the high fertility rates in many countries at the "ongoing" and "nascent" stages. Reducing infant mortality and supporting children's health and nutrition needs could contribute to a reduction in fertility and allow for greater

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[9] According to the Inter-American Development Bank (IDB 1997), 0.8 percentage point of the 1.9 percent increase in Latin America's growth potential in the late 1980s was due to trade liberalization.

[10] Higgins and Williamson (1997) suggest that demographic changes raised accumulation rates in east Asia by 3.4 percentage points, thus augmenting the growth in GDP per capita by an estimated 1.5 percentage points—about three-fourths of the higher growth east Asia experienced due to demographic factors.

investment in human capital, while also maximizing children's opportunities in the education system (Ruger, Jamison, and Bloom 2001).

Building Capacity to Improve Productivity

Sub-Saharan Africa has made significant progress in improving access to primary education. There is still, however, a need to improve access to secondary and tertiary education, as well as to improve education quality at all levels. Enhanced education outcomes will be particularly important to improve the employability and increase the productivity

Figure 2.23. Quality of Education Index, Median, 2014
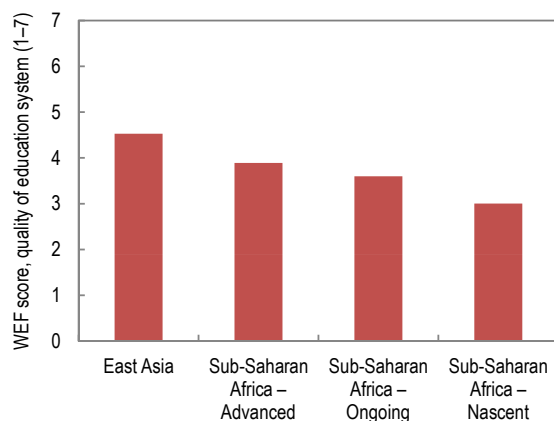
Source: World Economic Forum (WEF), Global Competitiveness Index, 2014.

Figure 2.24. Gross Secondary School Enrollment, Median, 2005 and 2014
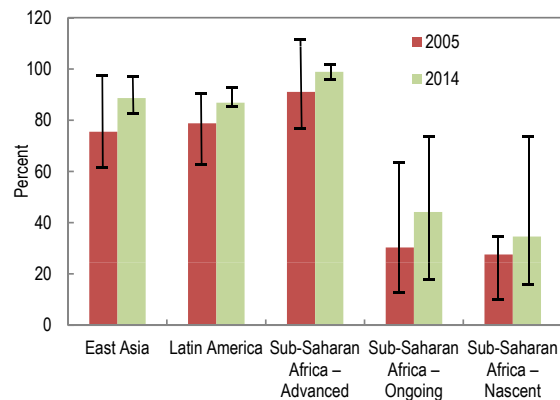
Source: World Bank, *World Development Indicators*.
Note: Lines indicate distance between minimum and maximum. Gross enrollment is computed as the total enrollment in secondary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population of official secondary education age. This explains why the rate is greater than 100 percent in some cases.

of new entrants to the workforce. Evidence suggests that female education also contributes to a decline in fertility rates and can thus increase the speed of transition. Policy priorities in this area should include expanding school enrollment, and increasing completion rates, especially for girls, and ensuring that secondary and tertiary education are relevant for the skills needed in the workforce (Figures 2.23 and 2.24).

Creating Jobs and Furthering Structural Transformation

Sub-Saharan Africa needs to create jobs for the 450 million workers projected to join the workforce between 2010 and 2035. Many of the countries in the ongoing and nascent transition stages are characterized by a high share of agricultural employment and low levels of formal sector employment. Therefore, creating high-productivity non-agricultural jobs on a sufficient scale is likely to be the biggest challenge for sub-Saharan Africa during the transition (Fox and others 2013). The following measures could help:

- *Increasing agricultural productivity and diversifying into labor-intensive activities outside agriculture.* Agricultural productivity can be improved by increasing access to irrigation, increasing use of high-yield varieties, and improving market access. In addition, economic diversification would require reducing administrative burdens, simplifying regulations, promoting competition, and investing in human and physical capital (*Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa,* April 2014).

- *Promoting private sector development.* This would allow the private sector to engage in new areas of economic activity. Private sector development could be facilitated by reforms that support a more business-friendly environment.

- *Meeting infrastructure needs.* Filling the infrastructure gaps in transport, telecommunications, and energy will be critical to expanding manufacturing and services, as well as reducing the cost of doing business (*Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa,* October 2014).

Improving intraregional infrastructure also could better connect sub-Saharan African markets, making it possible to exploit economies of scale and boost industrialization.

- *Increasing labor market flexibility to support formal sector job creation.* Labor market rules need to be supportive of employment by shifting from protection of jobs to protection of workers, that is, supporting workers during job search between jobs and facilitating retraining. Greater wage and employment flexibility would also reduce transaction costs, increase incentives for businesses to switch to the formal sector, invest, and enhance productivity. Designing active labor market policies in cooperation with the private sector and other stakeholders, while taking into account the cost and benefit of such policies, could potentially foster job creation.

- *Promoting household enterprises.* As the informal sector is likely to remain the main source of income in the near term for many in sub-Saharan Africa, policies to enhance the producivity of the household enterprise sector will be needed. Policies will also be required to lower the compliance costs for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and to provide them with services that enable them to grow.

Given the global demographic profile, there is significant scope for sub-Saharan Africa to become a net labor supplier to the rest of the world. Migration could potentially benefit both sub-Saharan Africa and the rest of the world. Sub-Saharan Africa could benefit from higher remittances, while employers elsewhere could benefit from the labor supply as they face stagnant or declining numbers of workers in their own countries. Global policymakers will need to balance economic, political, and social considerations when designing policies related to migration.

Expanding Horizons Through Trade Liberalization

Higher trade openness would aid job creation to absorb the growing working age population, and allow sub-Saharan Africa to benefit from technology transfers and integration into global value chains. Expanding intraregional trade and expanding regional markets could boost incentives for domestic production, especially in labor-intensive manufacturing sectors, and attract higher investment. International experience suggests that the decline in unemployment and increase in saving along a country's average age profile is much steeper for countries more open to trade (Behrman, Duryea, and Székely 1999). Chapter 3 provides further details on policies to bolster trade integration.

Channeling Savings to Finance Investment and Further Financial Market Development

Financial markets in most sub-Saharan African countries remain thin. Financial deepening could help harness the increased saving from a rising share of the working age population by improving financial inclusion and capital market development, leading to the increased saving being more successfully intermediated to finance investment. This would help firms expand, give household enterprises better access to credit, and allow individuals to create their own job opportunities. It would require eliminating distortions for the banking sector, applying the legal and regulatory framework evenhandedly, and increasing the market size (*Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa,* October 2006). The following policies could further financial deepening and integration:

- *Addressing insufficient infrastructure for physical access and promoting financial literacy in countries with low access to financial services.* Increasing bank competition to reduce transaction costs and encouraging the development of mobile banking (as in Angola and Kenya) could increase financial inclusion (*Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa,* April 2014). Sub-Saharan African countries could benefit

from other countries' successful experiences in augmenting financial access: microfinance institutions (as in Kenya through the Kenyan Finance Women's Trust), financial cooperatives (as in Burkina Faso), and private firms (as in Ethiopia and Kenya).

- *Developing regional markets could address the challenges posed by the small size of some economies.* Such markets could also help expand the investor base, reduce financial infrastructure and transaction costs, and provide scale efficiencies. Developing financial infrastructure, updating regulation and supervision systems, and harmonizing prudential supervisory rules and practices in the region would boost financial integration.

- *Creating pension systems.* The old age pension coverage rate in many sub-Saharan African countries is very low. As the number of retirees increase in the future, it is very likely that countries will expand public spending on old age pensions. This has to be done in a fiscally sustainable manner. For occupational pensions, putting in place actuarially sound systems could help channel long-term saving and provide the elderly with an additional source of income during retirement, thereby mitigating some of the pressures on government expenditure.

POLICY SCENARIOS

This section assesses the demographic dividend sub-Saharan Africa might experience under various scenarios. It considers the median sub-Saharan African country in the sample, excluding advanced-stage countries, with an initial 2010 GDP per capita of about $550. Using the full sample estimates and approach adopted in Drummond, Thakoor, and Yu (2014), the evolution of GDP per capita is simulated under six scenarios.[11] These scenarios differ across three main dimensions:

(1) Ability of the economy to absorb new entrants into the labor force. If the economy is unable to absorb all the new entrants, unemployment will

increase. The magnitude of the demographic dividend will subsequently be lower.

(2) Policy changes implemented. Supportive policies can increase the magnitude of the dividend. In the scenarios, this is modeled as a 1 percentage point annual increase in trade openness. This would still be slower than the trade openness increase experienced in most of the east Asian countries.

(3) Speed of the demographic transition. The baseline uses the United Nations' medium-fertility scenario. But two alternatives with varying fertility rates are also considered.

The main assumptions regarding the scenarios (summarized in Table 2.1.) are as follows:

Scenario 1–rising unemployment. The economy is unable to create jobs on a significant scale. The share of the working age population employed remains at the 2010 level.[12] Hence, as the transition evolves, unemployment rises. An alternative interpretation of scenario 1 could be one in which jobs created are at a lower level of productivity, resulting in a lower dividend.

Scenario 2–more jobs. All new entrants to the labor force find jobs at historical levels of productivity.

Scenario 3–more jobs and better policies. Policy changes translate into an increase in trade openness.

Scenarios 4 and 5–more jobs, differing transitions. The fertility rate varies according to the low- and high-fertility variants of the United Nations projections, thereby changing the speed of the transition.

Scenario 6–more jobs, better policies, faster transition. All new entrants get jobs, better policies are in place, and the transition proceeds faster. This can be interpreted as the best-case scenario.

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[11] Scenarios 1 and 2 replicate the results of Drummond, Thakoor, and Yu (2014).

[12] In the worst-case scenario, jobs would be created at an even slower pace than in scenario 1, resulting in rapidly rising unemployment. We do not attempt to estimate the GDP implications of such a development, as the resulting social and political tensions would not be effectively captured in the model.

Table 2.1. Assumptions of Policy Scenarios

		Dimensions						
		(1) Ability to Absorb New Entrants		(2) Policy		(3) Speed of Transition		
		(share of working age population employed)		(trade openness)		(fertility rate)		
Assumptions:		Constant at 2010 level	Increases 1:1 with increase in working-age population (WAP)	Unchanged	Improved	Slow (high rate)	Medium (United Nations Scenario)	Fast (low rate)
Scenarios:								
1. Rising unemployment		X		X			X	
2. More jobs			X	X			X	
3. More jobs, better policies			X		X		X	
4. More jobs, slower transition			X	X		X		
5. More jobs, faster transition			X	X				X
6. More jobs, better policies, faster transition			X		X			X

Source: IMF staff compilation.

Figure 2.25. Sub-Saharan Africa: GDP per Capita Under Various Scenarios
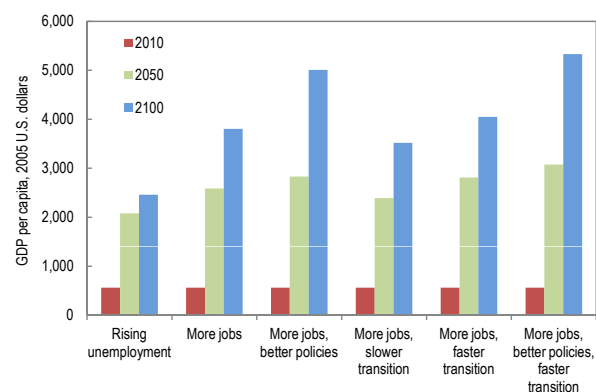
Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators;* and IMF staff estimates.

Figure 2.26. Sub-Saharan Africa: Demographic Dividend Relative to Scenario 1
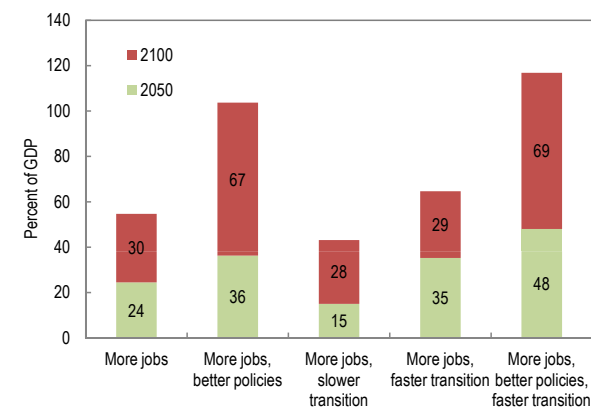
Source: IMF staff estimates.

The results from the various scenarios are described below and in Figure 2.25, with the additional dividend generated under scenarios 2–6 (relative to scenario 1) shown in Figure 2.26.

Rising unemployment: Despite the rising unemployment, sub-Saharan Africa's per capita GDP in 2050 would increase by about $1,300 relative to 2010 per capita GDP, reflecting not only the fact that the ratio of working adults in the total population increases, but also a continuation of existing trends and catch-up opportunities unrelated to the demographic transition.

More jobs: Harnessing the potential provided by the demographic transition through sufficient job creation could result in GDP per capita being higher by about 25 percent in 2050 and by a combined 54 percent by 2100 compared to scenario 1.

More jobs, better policies: With supportive policies, GDP per capita could be higher by about 36 percent in 2050, and more than double by 2100. This increase in GDP per capita would be broadly similar to what happened in east Asia, but it would be achieved over a longer period.

Jobs with differing transitions: The potential gains from focusing on policies to speed up the demographic transition could be significant (Figure 2.27). While the difference in assumption between the high- and low-fertility scenarios

Figure 2.27. Sub-Saharan Africa: Dividends Under Different Fertility Scenarios
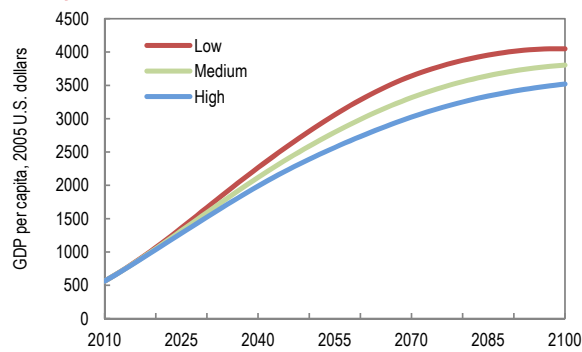
Source: IMF staff estimates.

is small—one child per woman—a faster transition could result in a dividend of about 35 percent by 2050, compared with 25 percent in the medium-fertility scenario and 15 percent under the high-fertility scenario.

More jobs, better policies, faster transition: A combination of strong job creation, better policies, and faster transition characterized by lower fertility can result in a dividend of nearly 50 percent by 2050, and nearly 120 percent by 2100. The faster transition increases the dividend and brings forward the time at which it materializes.

CONCLUSIONS

Most sub-Saharan African countries will experience both a rapidly growing population and a rising share of the working age population over the coming decades. This transition presents an opportunity to capture a demographic dividend, provided countries implement supportive policies and address challenges arising from the need to provide for rapidly growing populations.

The magnitude of the demographic dividend will largely depend on the speed of the transition and the adoption of supporting policies. Reducing fertility rates can contribute to a faster transition. Creating jobs to absorb new entrants into the labor force will be critical. To fully capture the dividend, sub-Saharan Africa will need to create jobs at an extremely rapid pace for decades. The private sector has a key role to play, both as a source of employment and in furthering economic diversification into new sectors. Enhanced infrastructure and openness to trade will help ensure viable opportunities for businesses to invest and grow. Improved health and education standards will be essential to ensure that the growing pool of workers has the necessary skills. Flexible labor markets will be crucial to ensure workers' competitiveness, and financial development will help tap savings for enhanced investment. In the near term, it is likely that the bulk of job creation will remain in the informal sector, so efforts to enhance the productivity of the informal sector will be vital. It will also be important to start planning ahead for the projected increase in pensioners by putting in place viable pension systems.

Sub-Saharan African countries stand at a crossroads. Successful reduction of mortality and fertility rates, combined with effective implementation of supporting policies, could enable these countries to capture a large demographic dividend and improve the quality of life for all their citizens. But failure to seize the opportunity provided by the demographic transition could result in a rapid growth in the number of unemployed citizens, with potentially severe social and economic consequences.

Box 2.1. Defining Demographic Transition

A demographic transition can be viewed as a cycle driven by declining mortality and fertility rates, resulting in a change in the overall age structure of a population. It occurs in phases. In the early phases, the transition is driven by declining mortality rates, which leads to an increase in the rate of population growth. Lower infant and child mortality rates lead to declining fertility and a corresponding decline in population growth rates (Figure 2.1.1). Ultimately, the share of the working age population increases (Figure 2.1.2). The share of the working age population (SWAP) is defined as the share of the population aged 15–64 relative to the overall population:

$$\text{SWAP} = \frac{\text{pop (15--64)}}{(\text{pop}[0\text{--}14] + \text{pop}[15\text{--}64] + \text{pop}[65+])}$$

Once the SWAP peaks, the economy faces an aging population, characterized by an increase in the number of retirees relative to the active population.

Demographers refer to this increase in the SWAP, and the resulting decrease in the dependency ratio, as an "age-structural transition." They consider the beginning of the transition as the point at which fertility starts to decline and the end of the transition as either the point at which fertility has fallen by a specific amount, or has reached replacement level.

Since the share of the SWAP is the most direct channel of a demographic dividend, we focus on its evolution in sub-Saharan Africa. As evident from Figure 2.2, sub-Saharan Africa's SWAP started increasing in the mid-1980s. This chapter considers this turning point as the beginning of the transition for sub-Saharan Africa.

Figure 2.1.1. Phases in Demographic Transition
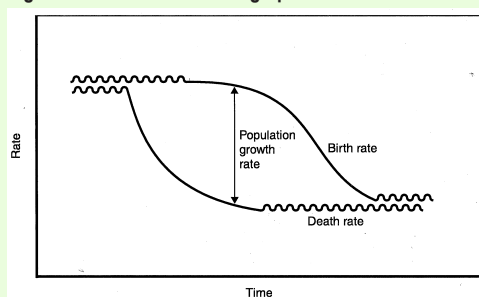
Source: Reprinted from Bloom, Canning, and Sevilla (2003). With permission from RAND Corporation.

Figure 2.1.2. The Evolution of SWAP During Transition
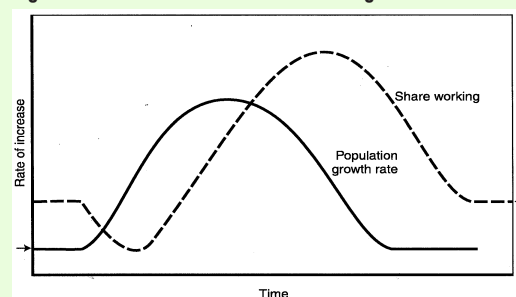
Source: Reprinted from Bloom, Canning, and Sevilla (2003). With permission from RAND Corporation.

Box 2.2. Differing Transitions Within Sub-Saharan Africa

This box presents the expected evolution of the demographic profile for the three groups—advanced, ongoing, and nascent—using the examples of South Africa, Ethiopia, and Niger.

Advanced Transition

The population pyramids for South Africa show that the demographic transition has been largely completed, with falling fertility rates resulting in a relatively even distribution of the population below age 35 and the falling size of youth cohorts (Figure 2.2.1). Life expectancy at birth in South Africa in 2010 was 57 years. As mortality rates fall and life expectancy increases, South Africa will experience continued modest growth in the share of its working age population, from 64 percent to 68 percent, as well as a rapid rise in the proportion of adults over 65, from 5 percent to 11 percent by 2050. Other countries in this group, such as Mauritius, will experience a fall in the share of the working age population and even greater shifts to old-age dependency, as they are further along the demographic transition.

Figure 2.2.1. Advanced Transition
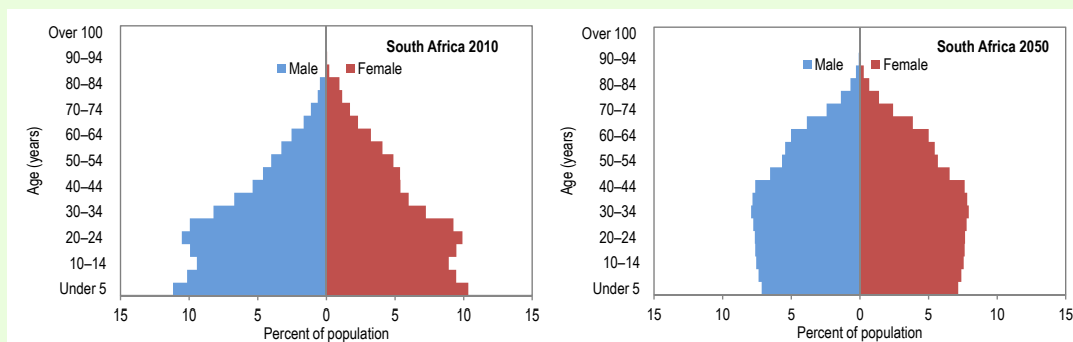
Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.

Ongoing Transition

With declining infant mortality and fertility rates, Ethiopia is expected to move from a concave population pyramid in 2010 to a more convex one by 2050. Ethiopia's under-five population is expected to increase from 14 million to 16 million by 2050, while its total population increases from 87 million to 188 million. The cohort aged 14 years and younger is projected to rise to 49 million by 2050, from 37 million in 2010 (Figure 2.2.2). The cohort of working age adults is projected to increase from 45.5 million (52 percent of the population) in 2010 to 125 million (67 percent of the population) in 2050. Similar increases in the share of the working age population are expected in other countries in this group.

(continued)

41

Box 2.2 (*continued*)

Figure 2.2.2. Ongoing Transition
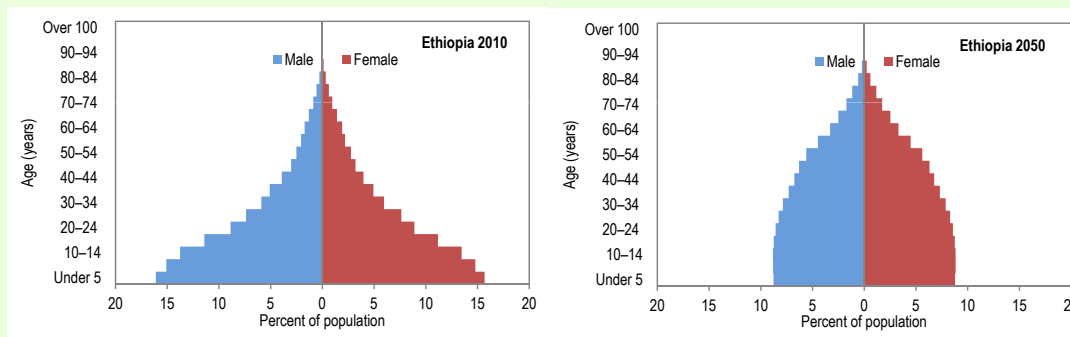
Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.

Nascent Transition

Niger continues to face high mortality and high fertility rates. However, as these start to decline with improvements in health and well-being, Niger's under-five population is expected to increase from 3 million to 13 million by 2050, while its total population increases from 15 million to 70 million. The 5- to 14-year-old cohort is projected to rise to 19 million by 2050, from 4.6 million in 2010 (Figure 2.2.3). The cohort of working age adults is projected to increase from 7.5 million (48 percent of the population) in 2010 to 37 million (53 percent of the population) in 2050. This group, which includes populous countries such as Angola, Mali, Nigeria, and Uganda, is expected to have the fastest-growing population in sub-Saharan Africa, as fertility rates remain among the highest.

Figure 2.2.3. Nascent Transition
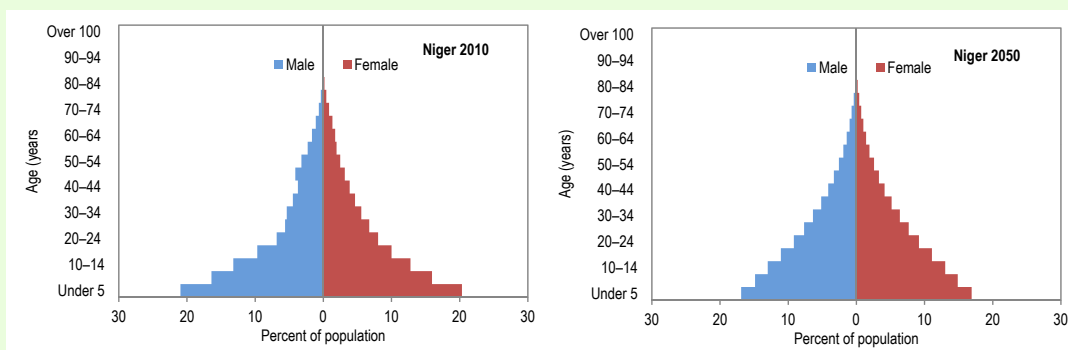
Source: United Nations, World Population Prospects, 2012.

Box 2.3. Mauritius: Demographics and Development

The economic prognosis for Mauritius in the 1960s was bleak. The island was the archetypal monoculture economy, with sugar accounting for more than 90 percent of earnings and limited industrial proficiency outside the sugar industry. The country's small market size and lack of profitable investment opportunities, coupled with a low saving rate, increased its downside risks (Meade 1961). In addition, the population was increasing in excess of 3 percent per year, driven by a fertility rate in excess of five (Figure 2.3.1a). The failure of the import substitution industry to create jobs on any significant scale further blighted economic prospects and per capita GDP was stagnating.

In the 1980s, the Mauritian government adopted a series of measures that harnessed the potential offered by the growing labor force and complemented these with a deliberate effort to reduce the fertility rate through a proactive family planning campaign. These policies were largely responsible for what came to be known as the "Mauritian Miracle" (Figure 2.3.1b). In addition to macroeconomic and political stability, policies that have contributed to Mauritius' economic success included the following:

- A shift to an export-led strategy—When the authorities realized that import substitution was not suited to the endowments of the country, they shifted to export promotion. An export processing zone regime was put in place and complemented with a package of time-bound fiscal and nonfiscal incentives, including greater labor market flexibility, to encourage exports. The new strategy reignited growth.

- Economic diversification—The aims of the export promotion strategy were to diversify the economic base, create jobs, and increase export earnings. Mauritius targeted the textiles sector for entering the global value chain, which allowed that sector to leverage its pool of cheap labor, particularly women, and contributed to a decline in unemployment (Figure 2.3.1c). The diversification strategy also extended to tourism and financial services.

- Integration into the global economy—Mauritius exhibited openness to both trade and foreign direct investment, which allowed it to benefit from textiles investors relocating from Hong Kong SAR in the early 1980s. Additionally, it negotiated various preferential trade agreements, which allowed it to benefit from duty-free exports, particularly to Europe.

- Human capital—High literacy rates (aided by free education) and a cheap labor force at the onset of the industrialization strategy increased Mauritius's attractiveness as an investment destination. Growth decomposition shows that labor (augmented for human capital) contributed significantly to growth during the 1980s (Figure 2.3.1d; Svirydzenka and Petri 2014). Looking ahead, this contribution is expected to be marginal, which will reduce the growth potential (Figure 2.3.1e).

The favorable demographic window is now closing and the economy faces an aging and declining population in the coming years (Figure 2.3.1f). This will also create the challenge of managing the fiscal pressures from an aging population, particularly as pension expenditures increase (Soto, Thakoor, and Petri, forthcoming).

Box 2.3. *(continued)*

Figure 2.3.1. Demographics and Economic Developments in Mauritius

a. Fertility and Population Growth Rates
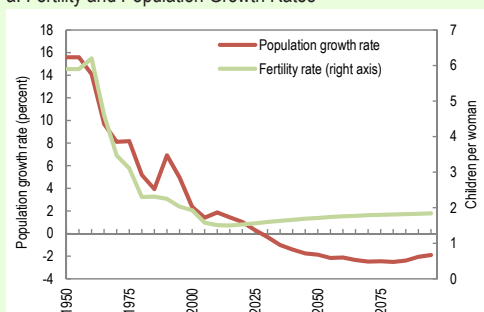
Sources: United Nations World Populations Prospects, 2012; and IMF staff calculations.

b. Share of Working-Age Population (SWAP) and GDP per Capita
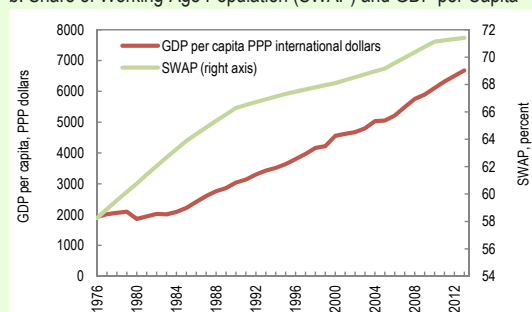
Sources: United Nations World Populations Prospects, 2012; and World Bank, *World Development Indicators*.
Note: PPP = Purchasing Power Parity.

c. Exports and Unemployment
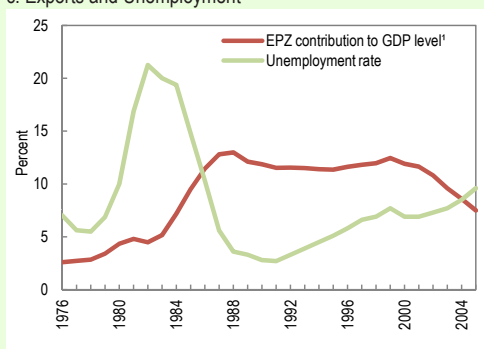
Source: IMF, staff calculations.
[1]EPZ = Export processing zones.

d. Growth Decomposition With Human Capital Augmented Labor
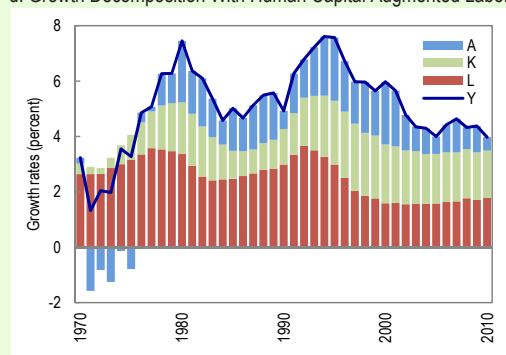
Source: Svirydzenka and Petri (2014).
Note: A = total factor productivity growth rate; K = contribution of physical capital; L = contribution of labor stock, incorporating skills level; Y = GDP growth rate.

e. Growth Forecast Decomposition
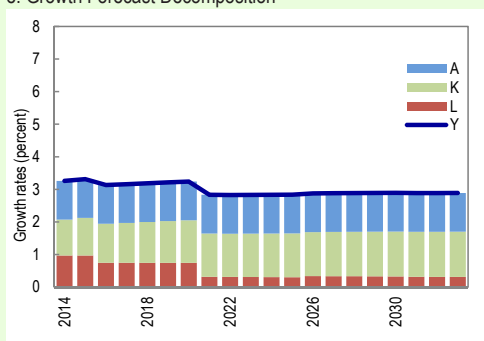
Source: Svirydzenka and Petri (2014).
Note: A = total factor productivity growth rate; K = contribution of physical capital; L = contribution of labor stock, incorporating skills level; Y = GDP growth rate.

f. Aging Population
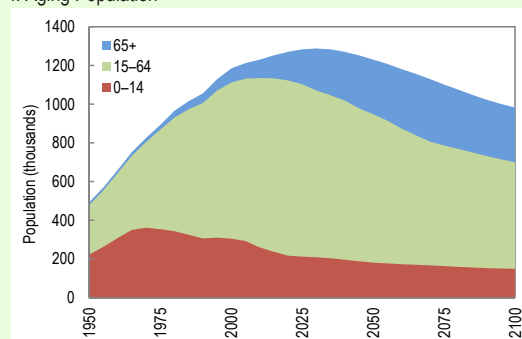
Source: United Nations World Populations Prospects, 2012.

Box 2.4. Empirical Estimates of Demographic Dividends

This box presents the empirical estimates of demographic dividends in Drummond, Thakoor, and Yu (2014), who investigate the impact of demographic developments on the growth rate of real GDP per capita using a panel of 172 countries. Given the slow dynamic nature of demographic data, they use five-year data over the period 1960 to 2010. The estimated specification is:

$$y_{it} = \alpha + \beta_0 Log(WAS)_{it} + \beta_1 \Delta WAS_{it} + \beta' X_{it} + c_i + \theta_t + \varepsilon_{it}$$

where i is the country index and t is the period index. c_i is the country-specific effect, and θ_t is a period dummy for the time fixed effect. Among the two demographic variables, $Log(WAS)_{it}$ is the initial working age share, while ΔWAS_{it} is the growth of working age share over the five-year period t. X_{it} is a vector of variables that includes, among others, the initial GDP level, trade openness, and sectoral transformation, approximated by the share of agriculture in the economy.

Key results are presented in Table 2.4.1. For the full sample, the two demographic factors have positive impacts on growth and are significant at the 1 percent level. The results suggest that having a large working age population increases the economy's productive capacity from the outset and a fast growing share of working age population further speeds up the growth process. The other macroeconomic variables have the expected signs. The other results also show that while the demographic variables are statistically significant for Asia, it is not the case for Latin America and the working age share is negative for sub-Saharan Africa. They attribute the latter result to sub-Saharan Africa being in the early stages of its transition.

The authors then quantify the demographic dividend that the median sub-Saharan African country, with an initial GDP per capita of about $550, could potentially reap from 2010 to 2100, using the full sample estimates. Taking 2010 as the starting year, two scenarios are considered: (1) where the share of the working age population employed remains constant, and (2) where the share of the working age population rises, as predicted by the median-fertility scenario of the United Nations. While per capita GDP is expected to peak at about $2,475 in the first scenario, an environment that allows all entrants to find a job causes per capita GDP to rise to $3,865 by 2100.

Table 2.4.1. Fixed Effect Estimates of Real GDP per Capita Growth, 1965–2010

	Full sample	Asia	Latin America	Sub-Saharan Africa
Log initial GDP per capita	-5.22 ***	-6.14 ***	-7.15 ***	-6.02 **
	(-6.33)	(-3.02)	(-5.38)	(-2.49)
Trade openness	0.02 ***	0.01	0.02	0.03
	(2.9)	(0.58)	(1.36)	(1.4)
Sectoral change (agriculture)	-0.16 ***	-0.27 ***	0.02	-0.18 **
	(-3.30)	(-2.84)	(0.21)	(-2.33)
Log working age share (WAS)	12.57 ***	19.19 **	1.52	-34.27 **
	(3.37)	(2.56)	(0.21)	(-2.32)
ΔWAS	0.53 ***	0.81 ***	-0.25	0.02
	(3.75)	(3.11)	(-1.19)	(0.08)
Constant		-31.66	52.08 **	176.34 ***
		(-1.11)	(2.07)	(3.31)
Observations	1100	287	204	197
R-squared	0.29	0.41	0.35	0.46
Number of countries	172	53	31	44
Adjusted R-squared	0.28	0.39	0.31	0.44

Source: Drummond, Thakoor, and Yu (2014).

Note: Robust t-statistics in parentheses. ***, **, and * denote significance at the 1 percent, 5 percent, and 10 percent levels, respectively. All regresions include time fixed effects.
WAS = Share of working age population.

3. Global Value Chains: Where Are You?
The Missing Link in Sub-Saharan Africa's Trade Integration

This chapter reviews the extent and strength of integration of sub-Saharan Africa into the global economy, with a special focus on trade and participation in global value chains. It evaluates how trade integration has contributed to economic performance in recent decades. Looking ahead, it examines the factors likely to allow the region to tap its still substantial trade integration potential, in particular through better positioning in global and regional value chains to support durable growth and foster structural transformation.

The mid-1990s ushered in two decades of strong and sustained growth in sub-Saharan Africa. The growth take-off has been attributed to a combination of factors, not only sound macroeconomic policies implemented by the authorities in the region, but also fiscal space created post–debt relief, the strengthening of political and economic institutions, and, in a growing number of countries, exit from fragility. Favorable external conditions have undeniably also played a role, with strong demand from advanced economies until the global financial crisis, and from emerging markets afterward, especially for raw materials. These external conditions are, however, turning less supportive, as elaborated in Chapter 1.

In that context, this chapter investigates the extent of the region's integration into the global economy to shed light on how it can best leverage growing trade ties and, in future, ensure sustainable and durable growth. The main findings of the chapter are:

- The region's trade openness has increased strongly since the mid-1990s, reflecting new partnerships with emerging markets, especially China, and budding intraregional trade. High demand for commodities has played a significant role for oil-exporting countries.

However, the export structure of the rest of the region is less skewed toward raw materials, even for other nonrenewable resource exporters.

- Increased trade has been a powerful engine for growth. Yet, labor productivity gains have trailed increases observed in other regions in the last 20 years. In addition, by being more integrated into the global economy, the region is now more vulnerable to external shocks.

- Substantial opportunities for further regional and global trade integration still lie ahead. Despite strong growth in trade flows, sub-Saharan Africa's trade has barely kept pace with the expansion of global trade, even as other regions managed to increase their weight in the global trade network over the same period. Indeed, even after accounting for lower levels of income and economic size, generally longer distances and a large number of landlocked countries, levels of trade flows emanating from sub-Saharan Africa are found to be only half the magnitude of those experienced elsewhere in the world.

- Likewise, the region still has some way to go to better integrate into global value chains—a process that has been associated elsewhere in the world with higher level of activity and income growth over time—as has happened in southeast Asia or eastern Europe. However, while oil-exporting countries are clearly lagging behind, many other countries, both commodity and non-commodity exporters, are showing progress, even if from very low starting points, with the East African Community (EAC) and the Southern African Customs Union (SACU) particularly bright spots. In countries that have made the largest strides into global value chains, such as Ethiopia, Kenya, Seychelles, South Africa, or Tanzania, manufacturing, agriculture and agro-business, and to a lesser extent, transport, tourism, and textiles, have benefited the most from deeper integration.

These results highlight the potential sectors where the region could build on its comparative advantages, provided the business environment is sufficiently conducive.

- In that respect, our analysis suggests that, to leverage the region's trade potential, and ensure in the process strong job creation and durable growth—especially at a juncture when external demand for commodities is turning less supportive—it is more critical than ever to make progress in filling the infrastructure gap, lowering tariff and nontariff barriers, and improving the business climate and access to credit, while continuing to enhance education outcomes.

INTERNATIONAL AND REGIONAL INTEGRATION OVER THE LAST 20 YEARS

Increased Openness and New Trade Partnerships

Sub-Saharan Africa's trade experienced rapid expansion over the last 20 years.

- While cumulative nominal GDP growth for the region amounted to a substantial 350 percent (in U.S. dollars) over 1995–2013, the equivalent increase for goods exports was even larger, at 500 percent. Over the same period, global trade expanded by 260 percent. The region's export-to-GDP ratio rose from 20½ percent in 1995 to 27½ percent in 2013, while the import-to-GPD ratio increased from 19 percent to 23 percent.

- In the process, the destination of sub-Saharan Africa's exports changed substantially: trade flows with advanced economies, which represented close to 90 percent of exports in 1995, slumped in the wake of the global crisis. Meanwhile, new trade partnerships were forged with emerging markets, such as Brazil, China, and India. China is now the most important single trading partner of sub-Saharan Africa

(October 2014 *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa*).[1]

- Meanwhile, the share of intraregional trade almost doubled, although from a very low base, to reach 3½ percent of the region's GDP.

Trade patterns, however, are extremely heterogeneous across the region. In fact, while the export-to-GDP ratio has more than doubled for resource-rich non-oil exporters over 1995–2013—with South Africa accounting for about two-thirds of that increase—it has stagnated for non-commodity exporters as a group, and even dropped for oil exporters (Figure 3.1).

A more country-specific analysis corroborates these findings (Figure 3.2):

- *New natural resource exporters* over the period, such as Chad and Sierra Leone, have seen their export share increase substantially, driven by growing emerging markets' demand for commodities. Conversely, export shares in most *longtime commodity exporters*, such as Angola, Equatorial Guinea, or Zambia, have declined over time—underscoring the difficulty of broadening the export base in countries with a longtime reliance on commodities exports.

- In many countries, rapid GDP growth has been accompanied by the development of buoyant nontradable sectors, leading not only to a welcome diversification of growth sources, but also to somewhat lower trade share, with *Nigeria* standing out in that respect.

- Some countries have managed to take advantage of *growing regional trade*, such as Côte d'Ivoire and Senegal in the West African Economic and Monetary Union (WAEMU); Togo in western Africa more broadly; and Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, and Swaziland in the SACU.

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[1] For an in-depth analysis of growing trade ties with emerging markets, see also Chapter 3 of the October 2011 *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa*.

Figure 3.1. Sub-Saharan Africa: Goods Export Shares by Partner, 1995–2013

- *Landlocked countries* with no natural resources remain more closed economies—with exports only about 10 percent of GDP—and still struggle to increase trade integration, handicapped by poor transportation infrastructure and limited interest from emerging markets.

Figure 3.2. Sub-Saharan Africa: Change in Export Shares, 1995–2013
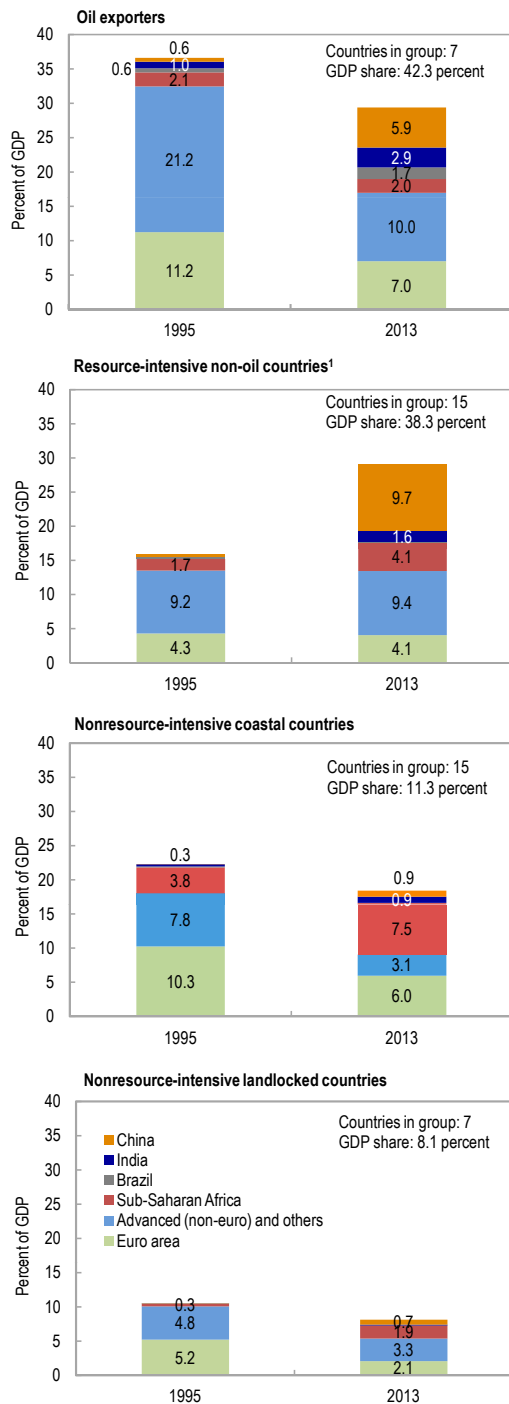
Source: IMF, *Direction of Trade Statistics*.
Note: Excludes South Sudan due to data availability. See the list of country groups in Annex 3.2.
[1] Resource-intensive countries are defined as those for which nonrenewable resource exports are 25 percent or more of goods exports on average over 2009–12.
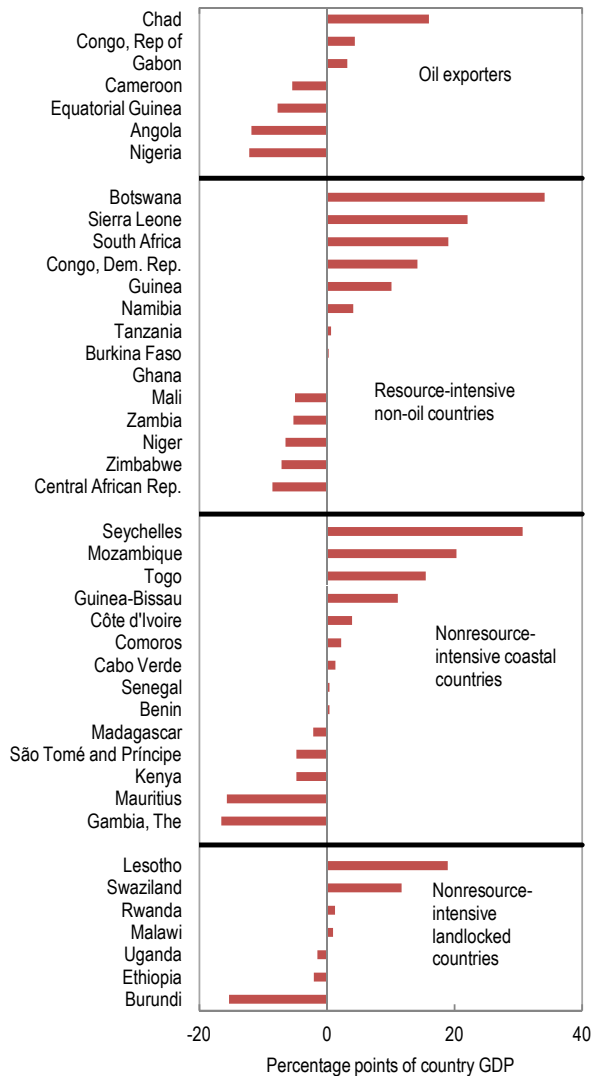
Sources: IMF, *Direction of Trade Statistics*; and World Economic Outlook database.
Note: Excludes South Sudan due to data availability. See the list of country groups in Annex 3.2.

Figure 3.3. Sub-Saharan Africa: Real Export Value Decomposition, 1981–2013
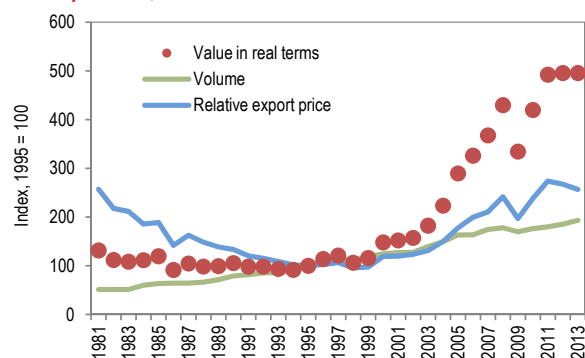
Sources: IMF, World Economic Outlook database; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: The real export value corresponds to the U.S. dollar value of exports deflated by the U.S. GDP deflator. The volume refers to real exports from the national accounts for each of the sub-Saharan African countries weighted according to the region's 2006 export structure. The relative export price is the ratio of the real export value to the export volume.

Figure 3.4. Sub-Saharan Africa: Change in Export Shares, 1995–2013
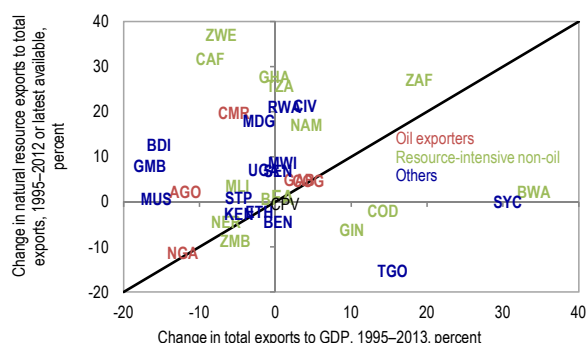
Sources: IMF, *Direction of Trade Statistics*; and World Economic Outlook database; and World Bank, *World Development Indicators*.
Note: See the list of country groups in Annex 3.2; see page 70 for list of country acronyms.

Strong Role for Commodities, Though Not Everywhere

The strong increase in the region's exports has, in part, reflected favorable price developments. That is, not only have export volumes increased, but the relative price at which sub-Saharan African countries sold these exports has surged substantially. More precisely, the fivefold increase in the real value of sub-Saharan Africa's exports over 1995–2013 (deflated by the U.S. GDP deflator) is explained by both a 2.5-fold increase in volumes and a twofold increase in the relative price at which those exports were sold, a trend in sharp contrast with the experience observed prior to 1995 (Figure 3.3). This led to a welcome increase in purchasing power for the region, and helped finance a much-needed stepping up in infrastructure investments (October 2014 *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa*). However, the improved terms of trade did not reflect stronger pricing power or better quality of exported goods, but rather a decade-long increase in commodity prices fed by tight supply conditions at the global level and strong demand from emerging markets. Unfortunately, this leaves the region's commodity exporters particularly exposed to reversal in prices.

Here too, this overall picture masks substantial heterogeneity in the structure of exports across

the region. While commodities represent about half of all goods and services exports for sub-Saharan Africa as a whole, this ratio climbs to 80 percent for the eight oil exporters, but conversely drops to about 35 percent for other countries, including those that export commodities other than oil—a share that is quite similar to that in emerging market and low-income countries elsewhere in the world.

Indeed, while the decline or stagnation in export ratios in many oil-exporting countries over 1995–2013 has occurred regardless of whether oil is playing a larger (Cameroon, Congo, Gabon), stable (Angola), or declining (Nigeria) role in the export structure, the situation is much more diversified among other countries (Figure 3.4). On the one hand, in South Africa and to a lesser extent Namibia, the increase in the export-to-GDP ratio has gone hand in hand with an increase in the share of commodities in exports. But in other non-oil commodity exports, such as Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, or Guinea, export shares progressed despite a stable or even declining role of commodity trade. Similar progress was registered by nonresource-intensive countries such as Seychelles and Togo. On the other hand, some resource exporters, such as Central African Republic and Zimbabwe, saw their export ratios drop despite a ramp up in the share of commodity exports.

Figure 3.5. World Trade Centrality per Region, 2000–13
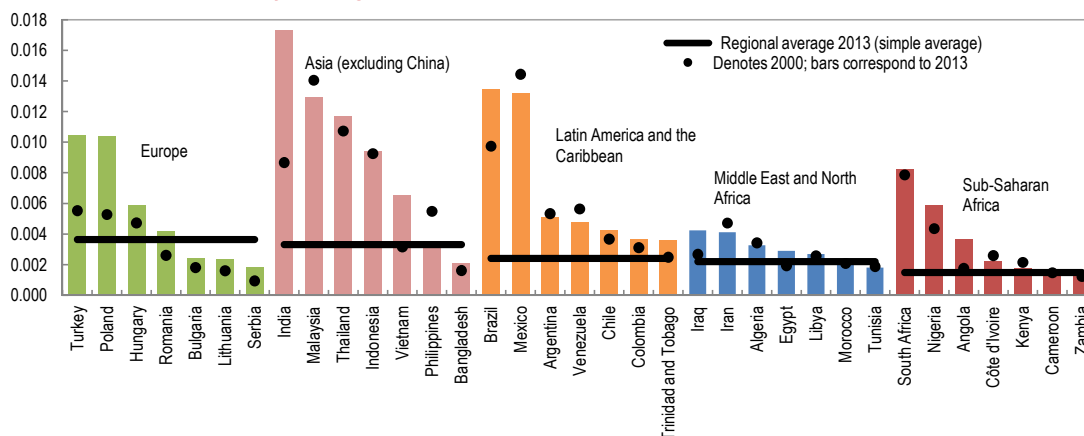
Source: IMF staff calculations based on data from IMF, *Direction of Trade Statistics*.
Note: This measure is the PageRank centrality and takes into account the size of exports for any given country, the number of its trade partners, and the relative weight of these partners in global trade (see Brin and Page 1998 for a description of the computation).

Only emerging market and developing countries with 2013 GDP per capita below US$20,000 from each region are considered. China is excluded from the Asia group as its centrality measure is about 28 times higher than the average for that region and five times the second largest centrality measure, corresponding to India.

But Barely Keeping up With the Rapid Expansion of Global Trade

Sub-Saharan Africa's overall progress in trade integration also needs to be put in perspective with developments in global trade over the same period. Global trade took off following the implementation of the Uruguay Round, the creation of the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995, and China's subsequent entry into the WTO in 2001. This rapid expansion was characterized by the emergence of new trade giants and the decline in advanced economies' contribution to world trade. In fact, it is only to the extent that sub-Saharan Africa was able to redirect trade toward these new trade players, particularly China, that it managed to keep its place in world trade—a place that nonetheless remains small in the global scene. As a simple illustration of this fact, export ratios at the global level rose by about as much as in sub-Saharan Africa, from 17 percent of GDP in 1995 to 25 percent of GDP in 2013 (versus 20½ percent of GDP and 27½ percent of GDP in the region).

A more granular measure of the region's integration into global trade—its centrality in the global trade network—paints a similar picture. This measure takes into account not only the size of exports for a given country, but also the number of its trade partners, as well as the relative weight of these trade partners in global trade, therefore better capturing the country's interconnectedness within the web of global trade (De Benedictis and others 2014).

By that measure, sub-Saharan Africa remains the least integrated region in the world, with an average centrality of only about half of that observed in other emerging market and developing economies (Figure 3.5). Of course, this partly reflects a relatively lower level of development than in other regions. But even South Africa, the most interconnected and one of the highest-income countries in the region, has a relative position that is substantially lower than other emerging markets such as Brazil or Mexico. And outside of Angola and Nigeria—where the large role of oil exports has led to an increase in centrality—sub-Saharan Africa's most globally integrated members have only maintained their relative foothold in the global trade network between 2000 and 2013. By contrast, countries such as China, India, Poland, Turkey, or Vietnam saw their relative centrality score double over the period. All in all, this points to substantial potential for a larger role for trade in sub-Saharan African economies.

One bright spot has been the increase in regional trade. As mentioned earlier, the share of regional trade almost doubled over the last 20 years,

Figure 3.6. Sub-Saharan Africa: Regional Trade Centrality, 2013

a. Regional Centrality Ranking

Export centralities
< 0.01
0.01 to 0.02
0.02 to 0.10
0.10 to 0.15
> 0.15
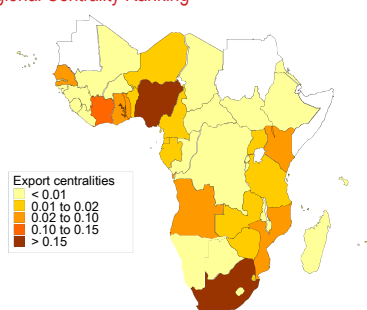
b. Countries with Highest Regional Centrality
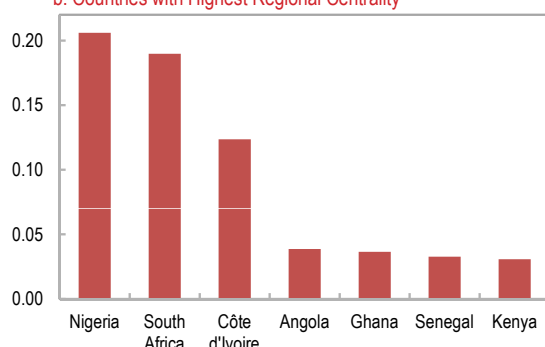
Source: IMF staff calculation based on data from IMF, *Direction of Trade Statistics*.

although from a low base of 2 percent of GDP to 3½ percent of GDP. Measuring centrality at the intraregional level reveals the emergence of trade subregions, with hubs such as Côte d'Ivoire, Nigeria, and to a lesser extent, Senegal in west Africa, Kenya in east Africa, and South Africa in the southern part of the region (Figure 3.6).

Financial Integration Progressing in Tandem, from Very Low Levels

As extensively documented in previous issues of this report, the rising trade integration of the region has been accompanied by an expansion of financial linkages with the rest of the world.[2] Improved growth prospects, the emergence of a middle class in many countries, and high global demand for raw materials all contributed to attracting large flows of foreign direct investment (FDI). Favorable financial conditions and abundant liquidity worldwide also

[2] See for instance the April 2011, April 2012, October 2012, and October 2014 issues of the *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa*.

led to increased availability of funds for emerging and developing markets, facilitating the growing number of Eurobond issuances by sub-Saharan African frontier market countries.

Less acknowledged is the growing interconnectedness in the regional financial landscape. Regional financial linkages have been expanding in recent years, albeit from a very low base (April 2012 *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa*). This process has been partly influenced by increasing regional trade flows and the expansion of several sub-Saharan African companies into new regional markets—which have in some cases led to the opening of bank subsidiaries or the nascent integration of financial markets, as in the WAEMU. Progress in regional financial integration along the dimensions of FDI, regional financial infrastructure, bond markets, and the expansion of pan-African banking groups are described in more detail in Annex 3.1.

TRADE OPENNESS AND MACROECONOMIC PERFORMANCE

Over the last 20 years, expanding trade flows have coincided with rapid growth and generally better macroeconomic performance in the region. This section examines the relative role of rising trade openness on growth and labor productivity.

Expanded Trade a Boon for Growth

Sub-Saharan Africa's real GDP per capita growth substantially accelerated toward the end of the 1990s, to average 4.3 percent per year over the 2000s, compared with 2.9 percent a decade earlier. Increased political stability, better macroeconomic management and access to financing, as well as an improved business climate, supported investment efforts, thereby improving the productive capacity in the region. But increased trade integration also played a role, not only via higher demand for exported goods, but also by fostering competition and enabling some transfer of technology and efficiency gains from imported intermediary goods. Indeed, average trade openness—measured here

as the sum of exports and imports in percent of GDP—increased from 41 percent of GDP in the 1990s to 45 percent of GDP in the 2000s, with a clear positive trend in the past three decades and an acceleration in the 2000s (Figure 3.7).

To disentangle the respective role of these factors, an econometric analysis is conducted, following previous studies on growth determinants, relating growth in GDP per capita in sub-Saharan African countries over 1980–2010 to the initial level of development (because lower starting points tend to be associated with higher growth rates as countries catch up), investment and consumption ratios (because they affect physical capital and available domestic savings to support long-term growth), trade openness, and changes in terms of trade (Moral-Benito 2012; Dollar and Kraay 2003; see Annex 3.2, Section 1).[3] The analysis finds that increased trade has had a significant and positive influence on growth in sub-Saharan Africa. More specifically, both the increase in trade openness and the improvement in terms of trade have contributed to the acceleration of per capita GDP growth. Of the 1.4 percentage point increase in the annual rate of growth of per capita GDP between the 1990 and 2000 decades, the increase in trade openness is estimated to have contributed 0.6 percentage point, and improved terms of trade another 0.2 percentage point (Figure 3.8). Together, they account for about half of the increase in average per capita GDP growth in the region. However, it is important to remember that this increased trade integration has also made the region more vulnerable to external shocks, as documented in Chapter 1 of the October 2014 *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa* and as exemplified by the current situation of oil exporters.

Yet Productivity Gains Have Lagged

While global integration is found to have supported overall growth, labor productivity itself has not benefited as much as in other regions undergoing trade integration, as evidenced by the slopes of regional trajectories in Figure 3.9. Over 1990–2010, the

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[3] To address endogeneity issues, we either use lagged variables or instrumentalize using a three-stage least squares (3SLS) estimation methodology (see Annex 3.2, Section 1).

Figure 3.7. Sub-Saharan Africa: Trade Openness, 1983–2011
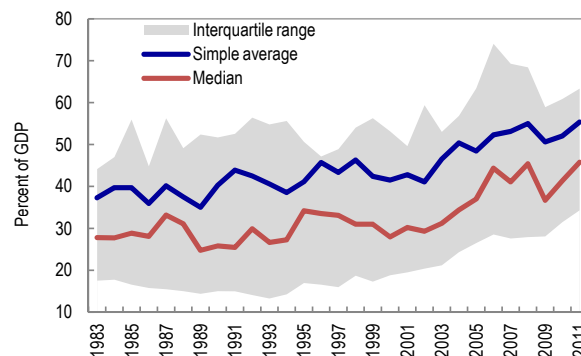
Source: Penn World Tables v. 8.0 data; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: Trade openness is measured as the sum of real exports and imports in percent of real GDP.

Figure 3.8. Sub-Saharan Africa: Annual Growth in GDP per Capita
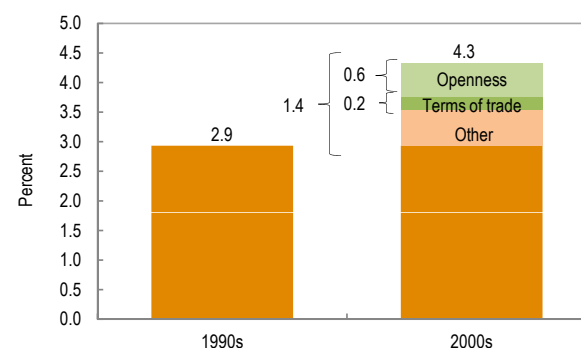
Source: IMF staff estimates.

Figure 3.9. Selected Regions: Trade Openness and GDP per Person Employed, 1990–2011
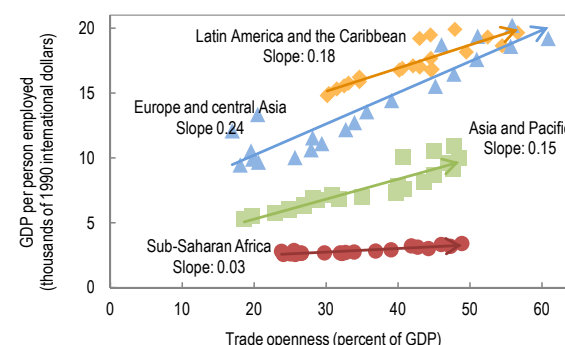
Sources: Penn World Tables 8.0; and World Bank, *World Development Indicators*.
Note: Only emerging market and developing countries from each region are considered.

increase in labor productivity generated by each percentage point increase in trade openness has been five to eight times lower than in Asia, Latin America, or emerging Europe. This is a strong reminder that increased trade openness does not necessarily translate into structural transformation and a switch to higher-productivity activities. For this to materialize in conjunction with the expansion of trade, accompanying policies have to be in place—which is the subject of the next section.[4]

WHAT CAN SUPPORT FURTHER INTEGRATION INTO GLOBAL VALUE CHAINS?

As the region has only barely kept up with the very rapid expansion of global trade, and labor productivity has not risen as much as in other regions, this section assesses the extent of the trade gap in sub-Saharan Africa, and of the region's integration into global value chains—a key determinant in adding value to trade and supporting sustainable job creation. In doing so, it also identifies policy levers to both reduce that gap and increase the depth of trade.

Still Substantial Potential for Further Trade Integration

In general, trade between two countries tends to be more intense the closer the two countries are, both geographically and culturally, such as sharing a similar language or past colonial ties. In addition, the size and level of development of the trading economies are important parameters influencing trade flows. A common way in the literature to assess the relative size of such flows is to estimate "gravity models," linking the magnitude of bilateral

Figure 3.10. Sub-Saharan Africa: Trade Flows Compared with Other Regions

Sources: IMF, World Economic Outlook database; World Economic Forum; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: Sub-Saharan Africa trade compared with trade of other regions, after controlling for size, level of development, cultural ties, and geographical conditions.

trade flows to these very characteristics of the trading countries (Head and Mayer 2014).

In such a model covering 167 countries, exports and imports from sub-Saharan Africa are found to be significantly lower than trade flows elsewhere in the world. This partially reflects lower levels of income in sub-Saharan Africa, as well as relatively longer distances and a higher number of landlocked countries in the region (see Annex 3.2, Section 2). But even after accounting for these, bilateral trade flows from sub-Saharan Africa tend to be on average 50 percent lower than trade flows elsewhere in the world (Figure 3.10). Likewise, sub-Saharan African regional trade is found to be much smaller than regional trade in most other regions in the world— 85 percent lower than in south and east Asia, 80 percent lower than in Europe, and 65 percent lower than in North and Latin America.[5] Only regional flows in the Middle East and Central Asia compare in size with those in sub-Saharan Africa. It is noteworthy that sub-Saharan African regional trade exhibits such large gaps despite the existence of numerous intraregional trade agreements— possibly because their overlapping groupings greatly reduce their effectiveness.

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[4] Elson (2013), for example, lists fiscal solvency and external sustainability, as well as efforts to improve education outcomes, the quality of the labor force, institutional capacity to deliver on infrastructure, and the overall level of the business climate as key policy requirements to translate higher trade openness into higher productivity. Similarly, Alcalá and Ciccone (2004) find that trade affects labor productivity through total factor productivity, and that institutional quality has a significant effect on productivity.

[5] Unrecorded flows across borders within sub-Saharan Africa are likely to be larger than elsewhere in the world, and the gaps are possibly overestimated as a consequence. Nonetheless, given the magnitude of the gaps estimated here, these would persist even with more comprehensive data coverage.

What explains these substantial gaps? To shed light on that question, the gravity model (described in Annex 3.2, Section 2) is augmented to include determinants such as the rule of law, tariff levels, the quality of infrastructure, and the level of credit to the private sector, as is frequently done in the literature (see for example, Nordås and Piermartini 2004). These factors are found to play a significant role in further explaining the extent of bilateral trade flows at the global level. All else equal, a more supportive business environment, lower tariffs, better infrastructure, and easier access to credit all favor larger trade flows. And these factors are substantially less conducive to trade in sub-Saharan Africa, with the quality of infrastructure about half that found elsewhere in the world, credit-to-GDP ratios about a third of ratios elsewhere, and tariffs on average four times higher than elsewhere (Figure 3.11).[6] More specifically:

- Infrastructure appears as the most important impediment to trade for the region. In fact, bringing the quality of infrastructure to the average level observed elsewhere in the world would help enhance sub-Saharan African trade by as much as 42 percent, as this would sub-stantially lower the cost of cross-border move-ments of goods. Indeed, a substantial effort to fill the infrastructure gap is currently underway in the region, as elaborated in Chapter 3 of the October 2014 *Regional Economic Outlook: Sub-Saharan Africa.*

- Further efforts to improve governance and the business climate would also have a very favorable effect: raising the index of rule of law to the average level elsewhere in the world would generate another 28 percent increase in sub-Saharan African trade flows. In particular, measures to lower nontariff impediments to trade—export taxes and duties, but also corruption, regulatory requirements, and delays

Figure 3.11. Sub-Saharan Africa: Potential Increase in Trade
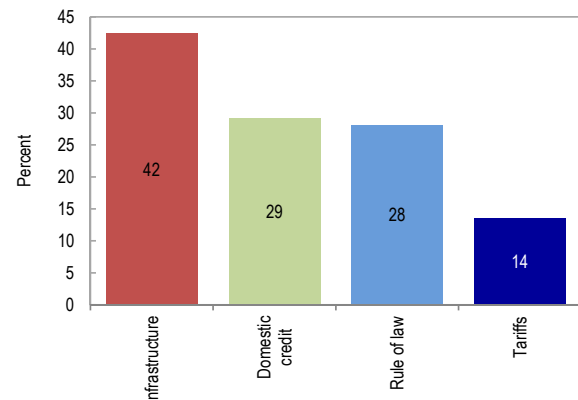
Sources: IMF, World Economic Outlook database; World Economic Forum; and IMF staff calculations.

Note: Percent Increase in sub-Saharan Africa's trade if the variable moves from the average for sub-Saharan Africa to the average for the rest of the world.

in clearing customs that all add up to extra costs—would greatly improve prospects for trade, especially at the regional level.

- Likewise, access to credit for the private sector plays a paramount role for the region's trade. Further financial deepening to the level observed elsewhere in the world would support an expansion of trade by as much as 29 percent. Such expansion would need, however, to be accompanied by adequate macroprudential frameworks to carefully manage the corresponding risks.

- Finally, continuing to work toward lowering tariffs in the region would further support the development of both international and regional trade. Bringing tariffs to the average global level could yield about 14 percent additional trade. One consideration, though, is that taxes on trade still represent a substantial source of fiscal revenues for many countries in the region, and policies to lower tariffs need to go hand in hand with continued efforts to increase revenue mobilization from other sources.

- At the regional level, deepening existing customs unions with further economic integration would help, as the examples of the EAC and WAEMU illustrate: all else equal, cross-border exchanges within the EAC are found to be five times larger than average

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[6] The rule of law and infrastructure quality indicators are taken from the Global Competitiveness Indicators database from the World Economic Forum. Tariffs are computed as averages of applied rates weighted by the import shares of each partner country, and credit availability refers to domestic credit provided by the financial sector in percent of GDP; both were obtained from the World Development Indicators database from the World Bank.

regional trade flows within sub-Saharan Africa; in the WAEMU, they are about three times larger. But having a single currency by itself is not enough, as evidenced in the Central African Economic and Monetary Community (CEMAC), where intra–currency union trade flows are not found to be significantly higher than regional flows outside the currency union.

Much More Scope for Insertion into Global Value Chains

Beyond the pure expansion of trade, an additional dimension of globalization over the last two decades has been the emergence of global value chains. In an increasingly integrated world economy fueled by technological progress, cheaper transportation and communication costs, and policy reforms in support of trade, production processes have become more dispersed across the globe. This has given rise to systems of supply chains in which value is added at each stage before crossing the border to be passed on to the next stage—global value chains. This process has allowed countries to better exploit their comparative advantages, by giving them the opportunity to join a production chain without having to provide all the other upstream capabilities, and has been particularly at play in southeast Asia around Japan and China and in eastern Europe around Germany (IMF 2013a; IMF 2013c; Chapter 3 of IMF 2014a; and IMF 2015d).

For countries with a limited existing manufacturing or service export base and a large pool of labor, such as many in sub-Saharan Africa, this development can provide a golden opportunity. By specializing in a specific segment of the production chain, each participating country can generate a portion of the goods or services' value added—whereas producing the whole product from scratch would never have been within reach in an increasingly competitive world—even if it means that a lower share of the value added of exports is captured locally. Although certain preconditions such as sufficient levels of capacity, quality, and efficiency are required to join global value chains (Baldwin 2014; WTO 2014), these threshold levels can be exceeded over time through technology and knowledge transfers from other countries—most often in the form of FDI.

Furthermore, knowledge transfers from other producers in the value chain and, eventually, upgrading to higher value-added segments of the production chain can support productivity and income growth. Asian countries have championed this model, initially contributing to the most labor-intensive activities in the production process and gradually moving into more sophisticated portions of the value chain over time.

At the global level, the integration into global value chains has indeed been accompanied by a pickup in income levels. To measure the depth of this integration, the literature usually looks at the extent of foreign value added in a country's exports (traditionally referred to as backward integration; see also Box 3.1). By this measure, rising depth of integration has been associated with rising income over time for developing and emerging market economies (Figure 3.12a). In pursuing a strategy of development anchored around the integration into one intermediary link of the value chain, many countries have managed to lift their income levels as they gradually acquired new capabilities, benefited from knowledge spillovers, and eventually, from opportunities to diversify production and upgrade quality (UNCTAD 2013). In addition, enhanced participation in global value chains has also been associated with more inclusive growth, especially when the sectors targeted are labor intensive and employ relatively lower-skilled workers.[7]

Where do sub-Saharan African countries stand in that landscape? Until recently, lack of data constrained the analysis, but a database released in 2014, the Eora Multi-regional Input-Output database extended the coverage to most low-income countries in the world (Lenzen and others 2012, 2013). Although, the database has caveats, which are elaborated on in Box 3.1, it allows for a first-time assessment of the region's positioning in global value chains.

Sub-Saharan African countries still generally find themselves at the start of their integration process

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[7] For instance, Maertens, Colen, and Swinnen (2011) find a positive effect of integration into agricultural global value chains on poverty reduction as it provides the largely informally employed agricultural workers with low levels of education with a source of formal and paid employment.

Figure 3.12. Depth of Integration in Global Value Chains and Real GDP per Capita, Average 1991–95 and 2008–12

a. Full country sample

b. Subset of countries with 2015 GDP per capita below US$3,500
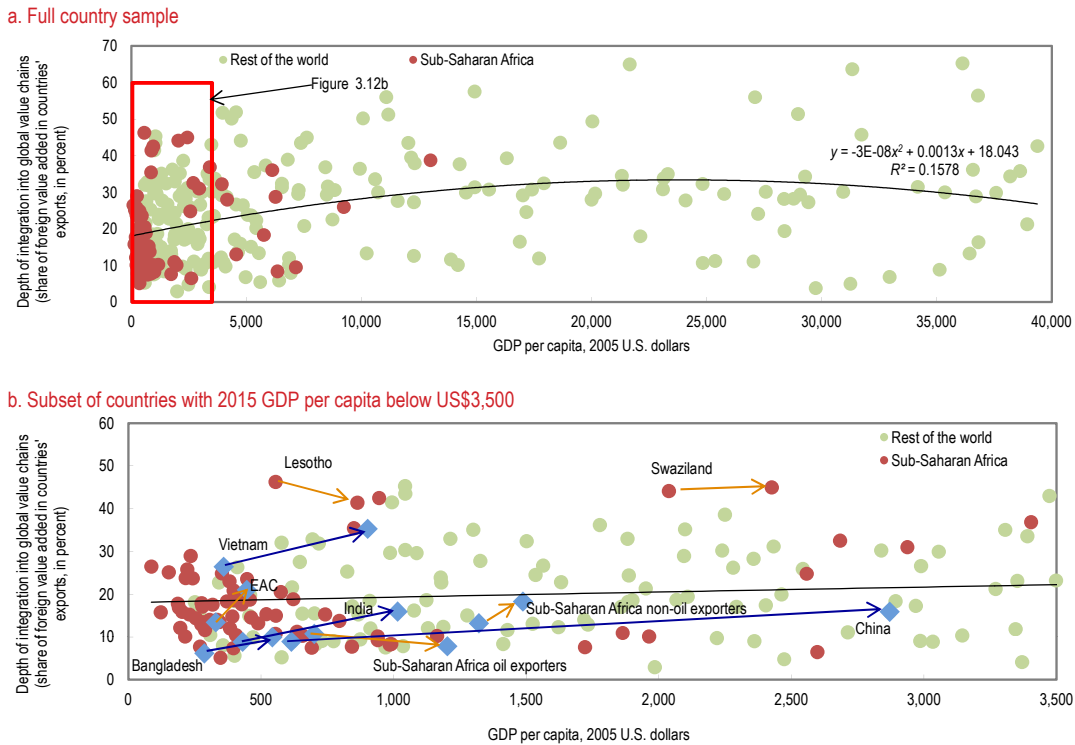
Sources: World Bank, *World Development Indicators*; Eora database; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: EAC = the East African Community.

into global value chains, having also relatively lower income levels than other regions in the world (Figure 3.12b). At 15 percent of exports, the share of foreign value added embedded in the production of exports is low even compared with the 20 percent average observed in other developing and emerging market economies. More worrisome is that the depth of its integration has barely increased since the mid-1990s, unlike in other income groups elsewhere in the world—signaling that the region has yet to join this global momentum and take advantage of it to lift productivity and create jobs (Figure 3.13). Corroborating that finding, neither the complexity of sub-Saharan African exports— measured as the diversity of products (Hausmann and others 2011)—nor the quality of exported goods—derived from price differences within specific product categories (Henn, Papageorgiou, and Spatafora 2013)—have been improving over the last two decades. In addition, compared with all other regions in the world, sub-Saharan African exports tend to enter at the very beginning of global

Figure 3.13. Participation in Global Value Chains, Average 1991–95 and 2008–12
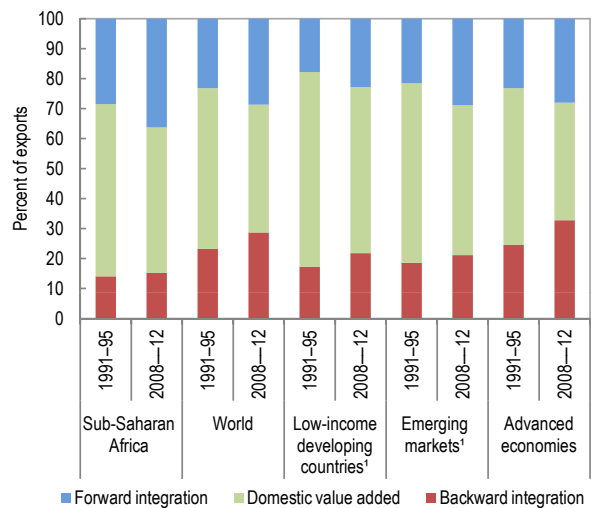
Sources: Eora database; and IMF staff calculations.
[1]Excluding sub-Saharan African countries.

Figure 3.14. Sub-Saharan Africa and Comparator Countries: Depth of Integration into Global Value Chains, Average 2008–12
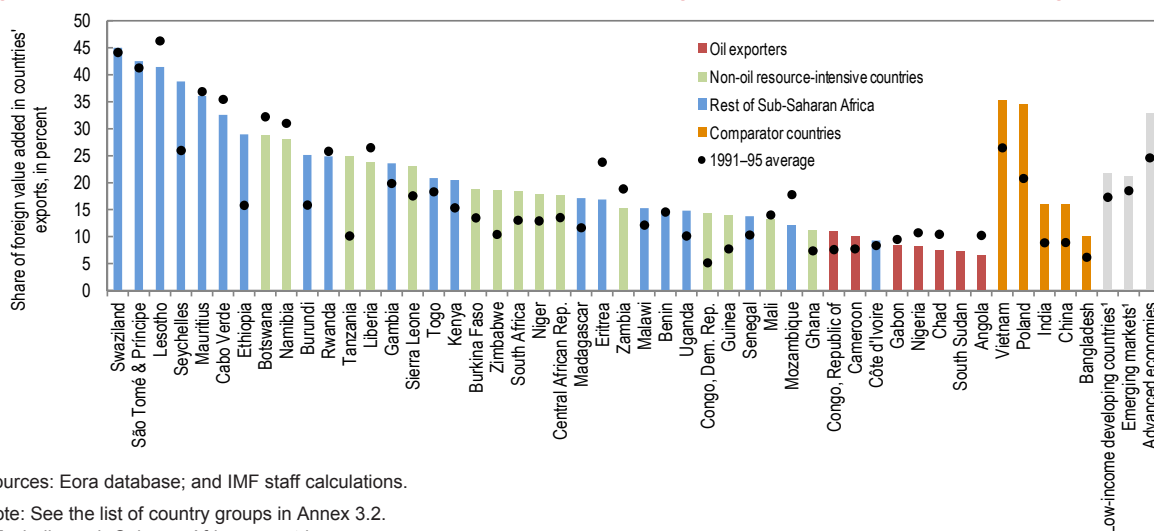
Sources: Eora database; and IMF staff calculations.

Note: See the list of country groups in Annex 3.2.

[1] Excluding sub-Saharan African countries.

value chains (in the form of forward integration), as a higher share of its exports enter as inputs for other countries' exports, reflecting the still-predominant role of commodities in many countries' exports in the region.

There is, however, a significant degree of heterogeneity across sub-Saharan African countries, with some countries having fared much better than others (Figure 3.14):

- Oil exporters are the least integrated into global value chains in terms of the foreign value added content of their exports. With the exception of Cameroon and Congo, this share has even decreased, including in countries such as Angola and Nigeria, suggesting that diversification of trade away from natural resources has stagnated, if not gone backward, over the last 20 years in these countries.

- However, in the rest of the region, a majority of countries (24 out of 35) have made progress, even if from a low starting point (Figure 3.15). The improvement is most widespread among non-oil commodity exporters, with countries such as Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ghana, Guinea, Niger, Sierra Leone, and Zimbabwe all registering progress. This shows that integration into value chains can happen even in countries where commodities play a role.

- Among the best performers, progress within the EAC has been particularly strong, with Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda exhibiting solid improvements—also a reflection of the benefits of the more general economic integration at play among these countries and their stated intention to further deepen economic and monetary ties (Drummond, Wajid, and Williams 2015; Sutton 2012).[8] Likewise, the SACU region exhibits relatively deeper integration, both because its smaller members (Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, and Swaziland) were already quite integrated in the early 1990s, but also because South Africa did progress over the 1990–2010 period. Conversely, both the CEMAC and the WAEMU continue to exhibit lower integration. For the former, this has to do with the high reliance on oil exports for most of its members. For the latter, this suggests that the relatively high level of interregional trade within the currency union does not reflect the emergence of a regional value chain, but rather

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[8] Foreign direct investment (FDI), including from multinational companies, is playing a critical role in deepening the integration of these countries into global value chains. For example, in 2013, Tanzania recorded the largest inflow of FDI into the region, at US$1.9 billion (UNCTAD 2014). In Uganda, Quality Chemicals —a joint venture between a local Ugandan chemical company and the Indian company Cipla—manufactures antiretroviral drugs using imported inputs such as equipment and patents. The drugs produced are exported throughout sub-Saharan Africa.

trade on final goods and services, with the depth of integration particularly low for the two largest countries of the union—Côte d'Ivoire and Senegal.

Figure 3.15. Sub-Saharan Africa: Depth of Integration into Global Value Chains, Average 1991–95 versus 2008–12
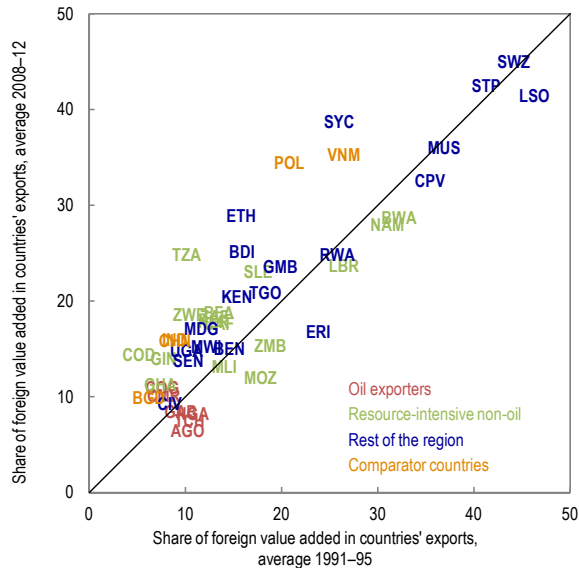
Sources: Eora database; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: See the list of country groups in Annex 3.2.
See page 70 for country acronyms.

Figure 3.16. Selected Sub-Saharan African Countries: Contributions to Change in Share of Foreign Value Added in Exports by Sector, 1991–95 to 2008–12
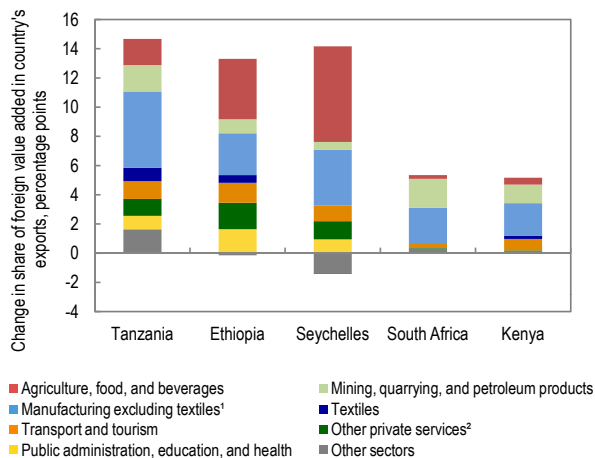
Sources: Eora database; and IMF staff calculations.
¹ Includes electrical and machinery, metal products, wood and paper, transport equipment, and other manufacturing.
² Includes construction, telecommunications, wholesale trade, maintenance and repair.

- Five countries in particular stand out, having seen the share of foreign value added in their exports increase by 5 percentage points or more in the last two decades: Ethiopia, Kenya, Seychelles, South Africa, and Tanzania (Figure 3.16). In these countries, the sectors that have benefited the most from the deepening of integration include agriculture and agro-business (especially in Ethiopia and Seychelles), manufacturing (particularly in Tanzania), but also textiles, transport, and tourism, although to a lesser extent. These examples bode well for the region: for one, the increase in depth of integration in some of these countries, at 10 percentage points or more, is of a similar magnitude to that experienced by countries such as Poland or Vietnam that are now success stories within large global value chains. They also highlight the sectors—agro-business, light manufacturing, tourism, and textiles—in which sub-Saharan Africa has potential to leverage its comparative advantages, which include a young and growing labor force, large share of unused land, and favorable climate.

- However, to leverage these comparative advantages, the business environment (infrastructure, rule of law, cost and wage competitiveness, and so on) needs to be right. On that front, more still needs to be done, judging from the broader trend decline in industrialization in the region documented in other studies (Rodrik 2015; Figure 3.17). It should be noted, though, that opportunities to participate in global value chains are not limited to manufacturing. Just as the production of goods has been broken down into different stages, services are increasingly being disaggregated and traded as separate tasks to create service value chains—as championed by India, for example.

The upshot is that the region still has an enormous potential to integrate into global value chains. By leveraging this potential, deeper ties into global value chains may help foster structural transformation, export diversification, and the possibility to absorb technology and skills from abroad. These benefits are especially important for countries with

Box 3.1. Value Added Trade and Global Value Chains

In recent decades, production stages have been finely sliced and dispersed over various countries to form global value chains that comprise a system of supply chains with value added sources and destinations. Most official trade statistics record the gross value of goods as they cross borders. However, as trade has increased in intermediate inputs that cross borders many times, gross trade data are no longer a good measure to capture the amount of domestic value added embedded in exports.

To measure a country's extent of international integration into global value chains, it is therefore necessary to know the sources and destinations of the value added embodied in the products. A budding literature on value added trade has emerged, which relies on data using intercountry input-output (IO) tables. Until very recently, the coverage on sub-Saharan African countries was sparse. We use the newly created Eora database, which provides global multi-region IO tables, to derive value added trade for 189 countries from 1990 to 2012. The main advantage of using Eora is the depth of its coverage, in terms of countries (189), industries (about 16,000), and time (23 years), which is unmatched by any other existing database. Eora covers 42 out of the 45 countries in sub-Saharan Africa. While this extended coverage makes the database invaluable for the analysis conducted here, it should be remembered that some missing data in the IO tables are filled through optimization procedures using as a basis existing national and global statistics; this means that our results should not be taken as exact and precise measures, although we believe the gist of the results to be robust.

The literature traditionally decomposes exports into three distinct components, which are used to measure global value chain participation:

- Foreign value added (FVA) that has been imported from foreign suppliers upstream in the global value chain. This share is referred to as **backward integration**, and reflects the extent to which a country is integrated relatively downstream of the value chain.

- Domestic value added of products consumed directly in the country where it is exported.

- Domestic value added of products that enter themselves into the production of other countries' exports. This share is referred to as **forward integration**, and reflects the extent to which a country is integrated relatively upstream of the value chain.

Figure 3.1.1. Global Value Chains and Value Added Components of Exports—An illustrative Example
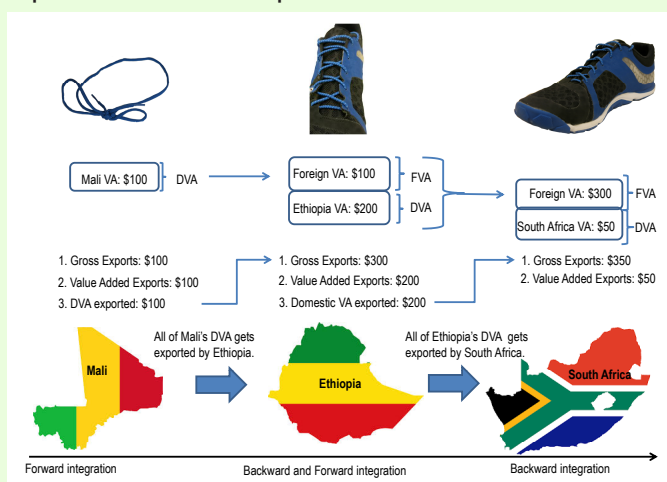
Source: IMF staff.
Note: DVA = domestic value added in exports;
FVA = foreign value added in exports.

The sum of the last two components correspond to the total value added that is created domestically (DVA), and that contributes toward its GDP. The sum of FVA and DVA results in the total value of gross exports. Figure 3.1.1 highlights these global value chain indicators in a fictitious example involving three countries, although global value chains typically involve many more players. From the viewpoint of Ethiopia, its backward integration is represented by the value of its foreign inputs: the $100 value of shoelaces that were completely produced in Mali.

Meanwhile, Ethiopia's forward integration is the domestic value added that is exported to South Africa, and then further exported by South Africa—namely Ethiopia's domestic value added of $200 that is incorporated into South Africa's final shoe exports. South African exports, in turn, are composed of $300 previously imported and $50 of domestic value added generated in South Africa.

The example shows that value added is counted several times in gross exports statistics, in contrast to statistics based only on value added. Total gross exports by the three countries is $750; however, the total domestic value added exported is only $350 (Mali: $100 + Ethiopia: $200 + South Africa: $50). Also, the example highlights the large discrepancy that may appear between gross exports and domestic value added exported: although South Africa has the largest value of gross exports, its own domestic value added is the smallest, while Ethiopia has incorporated the largest domestic value added of the final product.

relatively small domestic markets, such as many in sub-Saharan Africa. In addition, by enabling strong job creation, a deeper integration into global value chains would also allow countries to harness the dividends of the upcoming demographic transition (see Chapter 2).[9]

An additional question would be which country or region could serve as an anchor for sub-Saharan Africa's integration into global value chains. Some larger and more advanced economies within the region, most notably South Africa, could be candidates. Alternatively, given growing ties with China and India, including through FDI, these emerging markets could see increasing value in outsourcing some of their economic activities to sub-Saharan Africa, especially as rising wages in the Asian countries could make the region more cost competitive.

In that context, an econometric analysis investigates the policy measures likely to support a stronger

insertion for the region into global value chains. After controlling for the level of development and the size of the economy (as smaller countries tend to be more internationally integrated, all else equal), deeper integration into global value chains— as measured by a higher share of foreign value added in one country's exports—is found to be associated with improved indicators of human capital and availability of credit, while it is hampered by higher tariff levels and difficult business environments (see Annex 3.2, Section 3). More specifically, a reduction in tariff rates across sub-Saharan Africa toward the average prevailing elsewhere in the world could increase the share of foreign value added in exports by about 3 percentage points, an increase in access to credit by 2 percentage points, and an increase in education spending and rule of law to levels seen elsewhere in the world by another 1 percentage point each. While such changes would likely occur

Figure 3.17. Sub-Saharan Africa: Share of Manufacturing in the Economy, 2010 versus 1995
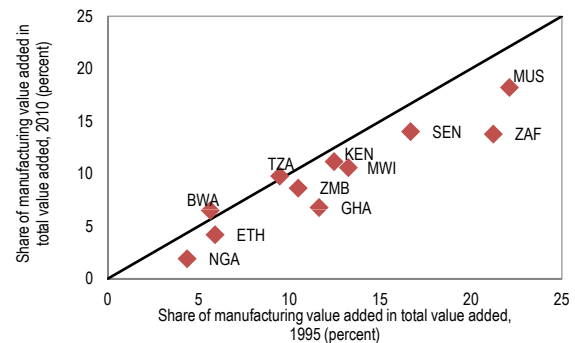
Sources: Groningen Growth and Development Center database (Timmer, de Vries, and de Vries 2014); and IMF staff calculations.
Note: See page 70 for country acronyms.

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[9] It is worth stressing that integration into global value chains in itself is not a guarantee of higher income as countries participating in portions of the global value chains with low value added can run the risk of being permanently confined to these segments. However, scaling up in the global value chain—that is, increasing the share of foreign value added in one country's exports—is indeed associated with better chances to accelerate structural transformation. The insertion into global value chains can also enhance positive spillovers into the domestic economy through backward linkages, if domestic sectors are competitive enough to contribute into the value chain. For instance, in vertical backward linkages that integrate local suppliers into production processes of global value chain firms, these domestic suppliers can also benefit from knowledge and technology spillovers (Javorcik and Spatareanu 2008).

over time, together they would bring the depth of integration of the region to levels currently seen in other low-income and emerging markets. This suggests that actions on these policy levers would go a long way toward positioning the region well to participate in global value chains.

CONCLUSIONS

The region has experienced a formidable expansion of its trade flows over the last 20 years, helping propel its growth engine. Strong demand for commodities has undeniably played a role in supporting the increase in trade, in particular with emerging markets, but it is far from the entire story, as even non-oil commodity exporters have managed to diversify their export structure, and begun to integrate into value chains.

Nonetheless, the current global environment—a slowing China, anemic growth in Europe, faltering commodity prices, and the risks of global financial volatility as some advanced economies normalize monetary policy conditions—will be more challenging than in the recent past. This environment provides a unique opportunity to refocus policies on economic diversification and on fostering structural transformation. Further and better integration into global trade can provide

such an opportunity. Despite the strong growth in trade flows, sub-Saharan Africa still trades below its potential, both in terms of total flows and of positioning in global value chains. Some countries have started to leverage their comparative advantages, either in agriculture and agro-business, or, in some cases, in manufacturing. But more broadly, much more could be done to arrest the gradual deindustrialization in the region.

Addressing the barriers to trade could therefore unlock untapped productivity gains, bringing with it more jobs, higher income levels, more diversified economies, and eventually more sustainable growth. Supporting the development of regional trade flows would also better shelter the region from exogenous external shocks. Insufficient infrastructure comes out as one of the most important impediments to trade flows. But lower tariffs, better access to credit for the private sector, and a more conducive business climate are all found to support more intense trade flows and a better insertion into global value chains, as well as efforts to improve education outcomes. These are levers over which the authorities have control, and on which they have started to work. The efforts should be sustained and even accelerated to leverage the region's remarkable assets, including sound macroeconomic policies, improving economic institutions, and a young and growing workforce.

Annex 3.1. Recent Trends in Regional Financial Integration in Sub-Saharan Africa

Increasing Regional Foreign Direct Investment

While foreign direct investment (FDI) from outside the continent remains dominant, intraregional FDI is increasing, with the share of announced cross-border greenfield investment projects—the major investment type in sub-Saharan Africa—originating from within Africa rising to 18 percent in 2009–13 from less than 10 percent in 2003–08 (UNCTAD 2014). In addition, a distinctive feature of FDI integration in sub-Saharan Africa is its noticeable subregional orientation (Figure 3.1.1).

Unlike FDI inflows originating from outside the continent, almost all (97 percent) of intra-Africa investment is concentrated in manufacturing and services. In the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) and East African Community (EAC), intraregional FDI in these sectors represents about 36 percent of all investments. While information on the type of FDI inflows is not readily available, it is believed that flows to the banking sector are an important share of services FDI, particularly in the ECOWAS area where the banking sectors of Nigeria and Togo have expanded rapidly through a network of subsidiaries (Beck and others 2014; IMF 2015a). For many smaller, often landlocked or non-oil-exporting countries in sub-Saharan Africa, intraregional FDI is a significant source of foreign capital. For example, over 2010-12, investments from other African countries represented at least 30 percent of FDI stocks in Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea-Bissau, Lesotho, Rwanda, and Togo (UNCTAD 2014).

Developing Regional Financial Infrastructure

Several sub-Saharan African countries have made progress in updating their regulation and supervision system with a view to moving toward an integrated approach at the regional level. SWIFT data highlight the critical role played by financial infrastructure in promoting intraregional trade, with higher intraregional trade in the WAEMU reflecting more developed regional financial infrastructure (SWIFT 2013). The EAC countries are undertaking systematic efforts to harmonize prudential supervisory rules and practices (Beck and others 2014). In addition, the SADC, COMESA, WAEMU, and CEMAC have made progress in harmonizing their payment systems.[1] As a result, cross-border payment systems are being increasingly used to facilitate remittances, reduce transaction costs, and promote intraregional trade.

Emerging Regional Bond Markets

Except for South Africa, bond markets in sub-Saharan African countries are still at a nascent stage of development,

Figure 3.1.1. Selected Sub-Saharan African Countries: Origin of Inward Foreign Direct Investment, 2012
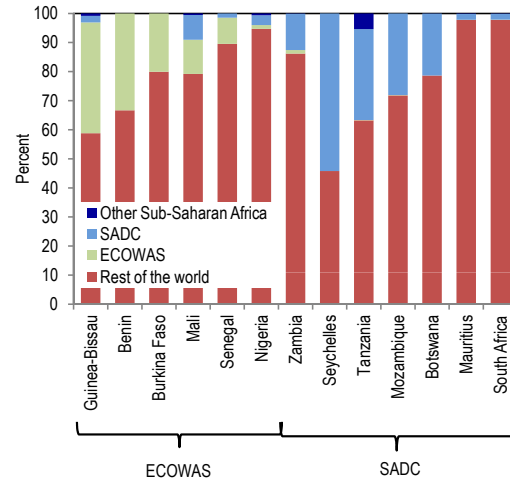
Sources: IMF, Coordinated Direct Investment Survey; and IMF staff calculations.
Note: See footnote 1 for an explanation of acronyms.

Figure 3.1.2. WAEMU: Primary Issuances on the Regional Bond Market (BRVM)
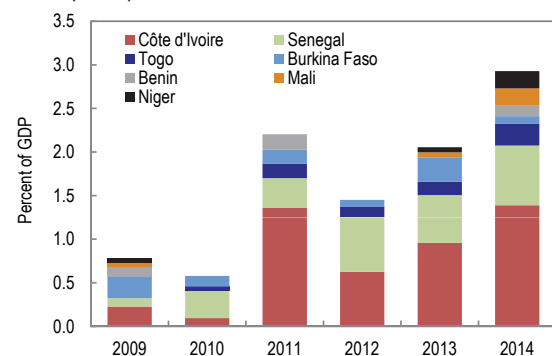
Sources: Central Bank of Western African States (BCEAO); and IMF staff calculations.
Note: With the exception of two small issuances in 2010–11 by state-owned enterprises in Côte d'Ivoire and Benin, all issuances reported here are sovereign issuances. WAEMU = West African Economic and Monetary Union.

This annex was prepared by Rahul Anand, Jorge Iván Canales Kriljenko, and Daniela Marchettini.
[1] Regional groups include the Economic and Monetary Community of Central Africa (CEMAC); Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA); Southern African Development Community (SADC); and the West African Economic and Monetary Union (WAEMU).

both in terms of size and liquidity. Building a regional market is one way to overcome the challenges posed by the small size of an individual country's financial system. It might also lead to an expansion in the investor base, technology transfer, and other scale efficiencies, allowing for an overall reduction in transaction costs.

Several efforts are underway to develop regional markets in sub-Saharan Africa. The WAEMU authorities established a regional market (BRVM) in 1999, followed by the establishment of a regional market (BVMAC) by the CEMAC. Elsewhere, both ECOWAS and the EAC are progressing toward greater regional integration of capital markets. For example, within ECOWAS, stock exchanges of Ghana, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, and the BRVM are working on integrating their markets. COMESA also intends to create a single financial services market.

WAEMU is the most developed sub-Saharan Africa regional bond market, benefiting from the region's economic and monetary integration and regional institutions for financial surveillance, trade, and settlement. Local bond issuance in the primary market has increased considerably, though market capitalization remains low, dominated by government debt (Figure 3.1.2). Regional integration has also contributed to an increased diversification of issuers and maturities. In 2014, all WAEMU countries issued in the regional bond market, with the exception of Guinea Bissau; and current issuances covered almost all the points on the yield curve in the 3- to 10-year range.

Growing Cross-Border Banking

Cross-border banking has also been an important channel of regional financial integration in sub-Saharan Africa, with the number of foreign subsidiaries operating in the region more than doubling between 2005 and 2012 (Figure 3.1.3). Moreover, pan-African banking groups' subsidiaries have grown much faster than subsidiaries from non-sub-Saharan African banks. Pan-African banking groups originate mostly in Nigeria and South Africa and to a lesser extent in Kenya (Beck and others 2014; IMF 2015c), with Ecobank, located in Togo with 36 subsidiaries, being the most widespread pan-African bank (Figure 3.1.4). Acquisition of existing firms, rather than greenfield investments, has been the dominant mode of expansion of the number of subsidiaries.

Figure 3.1.3. Sub-Saharan Africa: Cross-Border Banking, 2005 and 2012
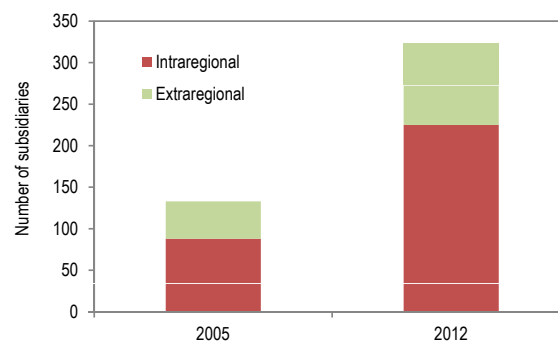
Sources: IMF (2015c); and IMF staff calculations.

Figure 3.1.4. Sub-Saharan Africa: Reach of Pan-African Banks, 2005 and 2012.

Nigerian Bank Groups, 2005

Nigerian Bank Groups, 2012

Kenyan Bank Groups, 2005

Kenyan Bank Groups, 2012

South African Bank Groups, 2005

South African Bank Groups, 2012

Other African Bank Groups, 2005

Other African Bank Groups, 2012
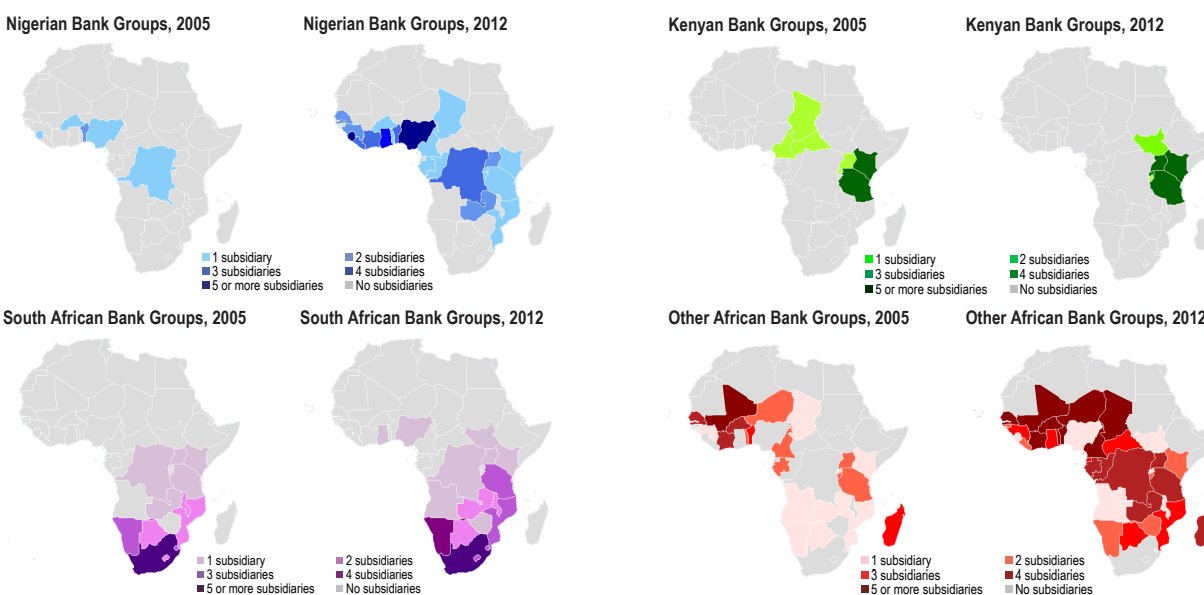
Source: IMF (2015c).

Annex 3.2.
Description of Econometric Models Used and List of Country Groups

1. Trade Openness and Growth

The estimation is based on a balanced panel dataset, which includes 42 countries—Eritrea, Seychelles, and South Sudan were not included due to lack of data—and six periods of five years each, starting in 1980, 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, and 2005. The estimation method is three-stage least squares (3SLS).[1] The rate of growth of real per capita GDP is the dependent variable. Following the relevant literature, this variable is assumed to be determined by two endogenous determinants, the ratios of total investment and consumption to GDP, and exogenous variables, such as the initial level of GDP per capita, trade openness (defined as the sum of exports and imports in percent of GDP) and the change in terms of trade (Table 3.2.1). We use lagged values of trade openness in each period to address endogeneity issues and consider the terms of trade to be exogenously determined by international markets. These two variables also serve as instruments for the endogenous variables, together with the following additional instruments; the initial values at each five-year period of the cost of investment; government consumption as share of GDP; the five-year period average values of the indicator of political liberty, young and elderly dependency rates, population density, urbanization, life expectancy; and additional indicators of country area and years of primary and secondary education. Dummies are included to account for landlocked countries and periods of war. The use of periods of five years helps reduce the problem of likely serially correlated transitory components in the disturbance term and the need for year fixed effects. The specification tests suggest that the set of instruments is valid and the equation is identified.

Table 3.2.1. Trade Openness and Growth Model Results

Initial GDP level	-0.81 ***
Trade openness	0.63 **
Terms of trade	0.50 ***
Investment	2.34 **
Consumption	-2.25 ***
Number of observations	252
Time fixed effects	No
Country fixed effects	Yes
R-squared	0.44

Source: IMF staff calculations.

Note: ** indicates significance at 5 percent, and *** at 1 percent.

2. Gravity Model

To evaluate the influence of geographical, institutional, and policy-related factors on bilateral trade flows, we estimate gravity equations using the IMF's Direction of Trade Statistics (DOTS) database. Our sample covers 167 countries for the 1980–2013 period. While the DOTS database lacks data on services trade, it provides the most extensive panel dataset of worldwide bilateral trade flows currently available. Our empirical specifications can be summarized in the following gravity equation:

$$\ln x_{ijt} = a^{Ex} M_{it-1}^{Ex} + a^{Im} M_{jt-1}^{Im} + \theta D_{ijt-1} + a_t + u_{ijt}.$$

In this equation, x_{ijt}, the exports from exporting country i to importing country j in year t, are conditioned on M_{it-1}^{Ex} and M_{jt-1}^{Im}, which denote the vectors of the attributes of exporter i and importer j in the year before, and a_t, a year fixed effect. Factors that affect trade costs between i and j are represented by D_{ijt-1} and u_{ijt} denotes the unobserved bilateral trade cost determinants. One-year lagged values of the regressors are used to avoid simultaneity bias.

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[1] We thank Mark Schaffer for sharing his 3SLS estimation code.

Table 3.2.2 Gravity Model Estimates

	(1) ln (Exports)	(2) ln (Exports)	(3) ln (Exports)	(4) ln (Exports)	(5) ln (Exports)
Exporter ln (population) (lag1)	1.063*** (0.008)	1.043*** (0.008)	1.042*** (0.008)	1.059*** (0.008)	1.319*** (0.012)
Importer ln (population) (lag1)	0.966*** (0.008)	0.981*** (0.008)	0.980*** (0.008)	0.962*** (0.008)	1.087*** (0.012)
Exporter ln (GDP per capita) (lag1)	0.946*** (0.011)	0.854*** (0.013)	0.854*** (0.013)	0.907*** (0.012)	0.827*** (0.023)
Importer ln (GDP per capita)	0.703*** (0.010)	0.712*** (0.011)	0.712*** (0.011)	0.665*** (0.011)	0.651*** (0.021)
Log of distance (lag1)	-1.393*** (0.016)	-1.374*** (0.024)	-1.360*** (0.024)	-1.368*** (0.017)	-1.398*** (0.021)
Common official language (lag1)	0.498*** (0.065)	0.554*** (0.063)	0.561*** (0.063)	0.482*** (0.064)	0.474*** (0.096)
Common language (lag1)	0.337*** (0.066)	0.497*** (0.064)	0.486*** (0.064)	0.515*** (0.065)	0.521*** (0.099)
Common colonizer (lag1)	0.579*** (0.054)	0.690*** (0.054)	0.676*** (0.054)	0.632*** (0.053)	0.674*** (0.084)
Exporter landlocked (lag1)	-0.756*** (0.038)	-0.562*** (0.037)	-0.565*** (0.037)	-0.651*** (0.037)	-0.631*** (0.056)
Importer landlocked (lag1)	-0.811*** (0.037)	-0.785*** (0.035)	-0.787*** (0.035)	-0.735*** (0.036)	-0.758*** (0.051)
Both Asia and Pacific (lag1)		1.889*** (0.109)	1.963*** (0.110)		
Both Europe (lag1)		1.672*** (0.089)	1.758*** (0.092)		
Both Middle East and Central Asia (lag1)		0.006 (0.110)	0.091 (0.112)		
Both North and Latin America (lag1)		1.071*** (0.092)	1.151*** (0.094)		
Both CEMAC (lag1)			0.508 (0.373)		
Both EAC (lag1)			1.607*** (0.419)		
Both SACU (lag1)			-0.061 (0.536)		
Both WAEMU (lag1)			1.097*** (0.290)		
Both sub-Saharan Africa (lag1)				-0.328*** (0.072)	
None sub-Saharan Africa (lag1)				0.727*** (0.033)	
Exporter rule of law (lag 1)					0.364*** (0.037)
Importer rule of law (lag1)					0.153*** (0.035)
Exporter infrastructure (lag1)					0.226*** (0.021)
Importer infrastructure (lag1)					0.165*** (0.021)
Exporter ln (tariff) (lag1)					-0.112*** (0.010)
Importer ln (tariff) (lag1)					-0.057*** (0.011)
Exporter ln (domestic credit) (lag1)					0.302*** (0.033)
Importer ln (domestic credit) (lag1)					0.187*** (0.029)
Observations	484595	484595	484595	484595	54997
Time fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country fixed effects	No	No	No	No	No
R-Squared	0.624	0.6352	0.6355	0.6244	0.7271

Source: IMF staff calculations.
Note: Robust standard errors are shown in parentheses. * indicates significance at 10 percent,
** at 5 percent, and *** at 1 percent.

Table 3.2.2 shows the gravity equation estimates of the determinants of bilateral trade patterns. Column 1 indicates that exporter and importer attributes such as size (population) and development (GDP per capita), as well as trade cost measures (bilateral distances, common language dummies, common colonizer dummies, and dummies representing landlocked countries) matter for bilateral trade and come out with the expected sign.[2]

Column 2 allows for intraregional bilateral trade comparisons across regions. We use the group of sub-Saharan African countries as the comparison group to which bilateral trade flows of other regions are compared.[3] The results suggest that after controlling for size, level of development, and geographical and cultural features, bilateral trade between sub-Saharan African countries is found to be lower compared with trade between countries belonging to the Asian, European, and American regions by 85 percent, 80 percent, and 65 percent, respectively.

Column 3 allows for intraregional comparisons between sub-Saharan African countries that have formed monetary and trading unions and those that have not. All else equal, trade between EAC and WAEMU partners is found to be five times and three times, respectively, higher relative to other trade flows within sub-Saharan Africa.

Column 4 uses as the baseline comparison group the group in which either the exporter or the importer is a sub-Saharan African country. The estimates suggest that, all else equal, intraregional trade within sub-Saharan Africa is lower by 40 percent relative to cross-regional trade that sub-Saharan African countries engage in with partners from other regions. In addition, trade between sub-Saharan African countries and the rest of the world tends to be 50 percent of the trade that takes place between countries outside the region.

Column 5 additionally includes estimates for institutional and policy-related variables that are consistent with the hypothesis that improved rule of law and infrastructure quality are significantly and positively correlated with trade.[4] Bilateral trade, overall, is higher between countries with lower tariffs and more credit availability. The values of these variables for the region and the rest of the world are presented in Table 3.2.3.[5]

Table 3.2.3. Determinants of Trade: Sub-Saharan Africa and the Rest of the World

	Sub-Saharan Africa	Rest of the World
Tariffs	7.1	1.6
Infrastructure	2.8	4.6
Rule of law	-0.5	0.5
Domestic credit	24.1	68.8

Sources: IMF, World Economic Outlook database; and World Economic Forum.

[2] Common language dummies indicate whether the pair of trading partners shares a common official language or a language that is spoken by at least 9 percent of the population in both countries (Mayer and Zignago 2011).
[3] Cross-regional trading dummies are included, but not shown, in the specifications of columns 2 and 3. Standard errors are clustered at the country pair level.
[4] Law enforcement and infrastructure quality indicators are taken from the Global Competitiveness Indicators database provided by the World Economic Forum.
[5] Tariffs are computed as the averages of effectively applied rates weighted by the product import shares corresponding to each partner country. Credit availability refers to domestic credit provided by the financial sector in percent of GDP. Both variables were obtained from the World Development Indicators database from the World Bank.

3. Insertion in Global Value Chains

We conduct the estimation on an unbalanced panel for 185 countries and the period between 2007 and 2011. The estimation method is a simple ordinary least squares (OLS) including years and country fixed effects. The dependent variable is a country's degree of backward integration, that is, the share of the foreign value added in total exports. We control for the size of the country, measured by GDP, as smaller countries tend to have higher backward integration, all else equal. Also, owing to the nonlinear relationship between backward integration and income per capita, we include as control variables the GDP per capita as well as the same term in squared terms to capture the negative portion of the relationship. For policy variables, we include domestic credit provided by the financial sector as a share of GDP, spending on education as a share of GDP, the quality of infrastructure, the weighted average of tariff rates applied to all products in a given country and year, and a measure of the rule of law (see footnotes 4 and 5 of this annex for a description of these variables). All variables, with the exception of index variables, are in logs and are lagged by one year to avoid simultaneity bias. As a robustness check, we also run a separate regression using the subsample of countries with GDP per capita at or below U.S.$22,000, thus capturing only the portion in which backward integration and income levels are positively related. The variables show similar magnitudes and levels of statistical significance (Table 3.2.4).

Table 3.2.4. Panel Regression of Backward Integration and Policy Variables

Dependent Variable: Backward Integration as Share of Total Exports		
	(1)	(2)
	Entire Sample	GDP per Capita < $22,000
Real GDP per capita (lag1)	0.326**	-0.085*
	(0.161)	(0.047)
Real GDP per capita^2 (lag1)	-0.029**	
	(0.011)	
GDP (lag1)	-0.060***	-0.059***
	(0.017)	(0.020)
Domestic credit to private sector (percent of GDP) (lag1)	0.082*	0.080
	(0.043)	(0.054)
Education (percent of GDP) (lag1)	0.413***	0.349***
	(0.081)	(0.082)
Rule of law (lag1)	0.287***	0.328***
	(0.063)	(0.063)
Quality of infrastructure (lag1)	0.047	0.063
	(0.041)	(0.048)
Tariff_weighted (lag1)	-0.296***	-0.254***
	(0.037)	(0.041)
Constant	-2.672***	-1.216***
	(0.636)	(0.380)
Number of observations	385	236
Time fixed effects	Yes	Yes
Country fixed effects	Yes	Yes
R-Squared	0.39	0.57

Sources: Eora database; World Economic Forum, Global Competitiveness Index; World Bank, *World Development Indicators*; and IMF staff calculations.

Note: All variables are in natural log, except for rule of law and quality of infrastructure; the independent variables are lagged by one year. Robust standard errors in parentheses; * indicate significance at 10 percent, ** at 5 percent, and *** at 1 percent.

4. Country Groups

Oil-exporters sub-Saharan Africa	Resource-intensive non-oil sub-Saharan Africa	Nonresource-intensive coastal sub-Saharan Africa	Nonresource-intensive landlocked sub-Saharan Africa
Angola, Cameroon, Chad, Republic of the Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Nigeria, South Sudan.	Botswana, Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia, Mali, Namibia, Niger, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe.	Benin, Cabo Verde, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, The Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mozambique, São Tomé and Príncipe, Senegal, Seychelles, Togo.	Burundi, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Malawi, Rwanda, Swaziland, Uganda.

Statistical Appendix

Unless otherwise noted, data and projections presented in this *Regional Economic Outlook* are IMF staff estimates as of March 27, 2015, consistent with the projections underlying the April 2015 *World Economic Outlook*.

The data and projections cover 45 sub-Saharan African countries in the IMF's African Department. Data definitions follow established international statistical methodologies to the extent possible. However, in some cases, data limitations limit comparability across countries.

Country Groupings

As in previous *Regional Economic Outlooks*, countries are aggregated into four nonoverlapping groups: oil exporters, middle-income, low-income, and fragile countries (see statistical tables). The membership of these groups reflects the most recent data on per capita gross national income (averaged over three years) and the 2013 International Development Association Resource Allocation Index (IRAI).

- The eight oil exporters are countries where net oil exports make up 30 percent or more of total exports. Except for Angola, Nigeria, and South Sudan, they belong to the Central African Economic and Monetary Community (CEMAC). Oil exporters are classified as such even if they would otherwise qualify for another group.

- The 12 middle-income countries not classified as oil exporters or fragile countries had average per capita gross national income in the years 2011–13 of more than US$1,035.00 (World Bank using the Atlas method).

- The 11 low-income countries not classified as oil exporters or fragile countries had average per capita gross national income in the years 2011–13 equal to or lower than US$1,035.00

(World Bank, Atlas method) and IRAI scores higher than 3.2.

- The 14 fragile countries not classified as oil exporters had IRAI scores of 3.2 or less.

- The membership of sub-Saharan African countries in the major regional cooperation bodies is shown on page 60: CFA franc zone, comprising the West African Economic and Monetary Union (WAEMU) and CEMAC; the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA); the East Africa Community (EAC-5); the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS); the Southern African Development Community (SADC); and the Southern Africa Customs Union (SACU). EAC-5 aggregates include data for Rwanda and Burundi, which joined the group only in 2007.

Methods of Aggregation

In Tables SA1–SA3, SA6–SA7, SA13, SA15–SA16, and SA22–SA23, country group composites are calculated as the arithmetic average of data for individual countries, weighted by GDP valued at purchasing power parity as a share of total group GDP. The source of purchasing power parity weights is the World Economic Outlook (WEO) database.

In Tables SA8–SA12, SA17–SA21, and SA24–SA26, country group composites are calculated as the arithmetic average of data for individual countries, weighted by GDP in U.S. dollars at market exchange rates as a share of total group GDP.

In Tables SA4–SA5 and SA14, country group composites are calculated as the geometric average of data for individual countries, weighted by GDP valued at purchasing power parity as a share of total group GDP. The source of purchasing power parity weights is the WEO database.

Sub-Saharan Africa: Member Countries of Regional Groupings

The West African Economic and Monetary Union (**WAEMU**)	Economic and Monetary Community of Central African States (**CEMAC**)	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (**COMESA**)	East Africa Community (**EAC-5**)	Southern African Development Community (**SADC**)	Southern Africa Customs Union (**SACU**)	Economic Community of West African States (**ECOWAS**)
Benin	Cameroon	Burundi	Burundi	Angola	Botswana	Benin
Burkina Faso	Central African	Comoros	Kenya	Botswana	Lesotho	Burkina Faso
Côte d'Ivoire	Republic	Congo, Democratic	Rwanda	Congo, Democratic	Namibia	Cabo Verde
Guinea-Bissau	Chad	Republic of	Tanzania	Republic of	South Africa	Côte d'Ivoire
Mali	Congo, Rep. of	Eritrea	Uganda	Lesotho	Swaziland	Gambia, The
Niger	Equatorial Guinea	Ethiopia		Madagascar		Ghana
Senegal	Gabon	Kenya		Malawi		Guinea
Togo		Madagascar		Mauritius		Guinea-Bissau
		Malawi		Mozambique		Liberia
		Mauritius		Namibia		Mali
		Rwanda		Seychelles		Niger
		Seychelles		South Africa		Nigeria
		Swaziland		Swaziland		Senegal
		Uganda		Tanzania		Sierra Leone
		Zambia		Zambia		Togo
		Zimbabwe		Zimbabwe		

Sub-Saharan Africa: List of Country Acronyms:
References for Figures 1.5, 1.19, 1.20, 1.2.2, 1.3.2, 1.3.3., 2.6, 2.7, 2.8, 3.4, 3.15, and 3.17.

AGO	Angola	COM	Comoros	LSO	Lesotho	STP	São Tomé and Príncipe
ARG	Argentina	CIV	Côte d'Ivoire	LBR	Liberia	SEN	Senegal
BEN	Benin	ECU	Ecuador	MDG	Madagascar	SYC	Seychelles
BWA	Botswana	GNQ	Equatorial Guinea	MWI	Malawi	SLE	Sierra Leone
BRA	Brazil	ERI	Eritrea	MYS	Malaysia	SGP	Singapore
BFA	Burkina Faso	ETH	Ethiopia	MLI	Mali	ZAF	South Africa
BDI	Burundi	GAB	Gabon	MUS	Mauritius	SSD	South Sudan
CPV	Cabo Verde	GMB	Gambia, The	MEX	Mexico	SWZ	Swaziland
KHM	Cambodia	GHA	Ghana	MAR	Morocco	TZA	Tanzania
CMR	Cameroon	GIN	Guinea	MOZ	Mozambique	THA	Thailand
CAF	Central African Republic	GNB	Guinea-Bissau	NAM	Namibia	TGO	Togo
TCD	Chad	HKG	Hong Kong SAR	NER	Niger	UGA	Uganda
CHL	Chile	IND	India	NGA	Nigeria	VEN	Venezuela
CHN	China	IDN	Indonesia	PER	Peru	VNM	Vietnam
COD	Congo, Dem. Rep. of	KEN	Kenya	PHL	Philippines	ZMB	Zambia
COG	Congo, Republic of	KOR	Korea	RUS	Russia	ZWE	Zimbabwe
COL	Colombia			RWA	Rwanda		

List of Tables

List of Sources and Footnotes for Appendix Tables SA1—SA26

Tables SA1–SA3, SA6–SA19, SA21, SA24–SA26

Sources: IMF, African Department database, and IMF, World Economic Outlook (WEO) database, March 27, 2015.

[1] Excluding fragile countries.
[2] Fiscal year data.
[3] In constant 2009 U.S. dollars. The Zimbabwe dollar ceased circulating in early 2009. Data are based on IMF staff estimates of price and exchange rate developments in U.S. dollars. Staff estimates of U.S. dollar values may differ from authorities' estimates.
[4] Excluding South Sudan.

Tables SA4–SA5

Sources: IMF, African Department database, and IMF, World Economic Outlook (WEO) database, March 27, 2015.

[1] Excluding fragile countries.
[2] In constant 2009 U.S. dollars. The Zimbabwe dollar ceased circulating in early 2009. Data are based on IMF staff estimates of price and exchange rate developments in U.S. dollars. Staff estimates of U.S. dollar values may differ from authorities' estimates.
[3] Excluding South Sudan.

Table SA20

Sources: IMF, African Department database, and IMF, World Economic Outlook (WEO) database, March 27, 2015.

[1] Including grants.
[2] Excluding fragile countries.
[3] Fiscal year data.
[4] In constant 2009 U.S. dollars. The Zimbabwe dollar ceased circulating in early 2009. Data are based on IMF staff estimates of price and exchange rate developments in U.S. dollars. Staff estimates of U.S. dollar values may differ from authorities' estimates.
[5] Excluding South Sudan.

Tables SA22–SA23

Sources: IMF, African Department database, and IMF, World Economic Outlook (WEO) database, March 27, 2015.

[1] An increase indicates appreciation.
[2] Excluding fragile countries.
[3] Excluding South Sudan.

Note: "**...**" denotes data not available.

Table SA1. Real GDP Growth
(Percent)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**9.2**	**6.9**	**8.5**	**4.7**	**3.7**	**5.7**	**5.8**	**4.5**	**5.2**
Excluding Nigeria	**10.7**	**1.5**	**4.5**	**4.0**	**2.2**	**6.5**	**4.4**	**3.8**	**5.9**
Angola	17.3	2.4	3.4	3.9	5.2	6.8	4.2	4.5	3.9
Cameroon	3.1	1.9	3.3	4.1	4.6	5.6	5.1	5.0	5.0
Chad	9.7	4.2	13.5	0.1	8.9	5.7	6.9	7.6	4.9
Congo, Rep. of	4.3	7.5	8.7	3.4	3.8	3.3	6.0	5.2	7.5
Equatorial Guinea	14.9	-8.1	-1.3	5.0	3.2	-4.8	-3.1	-15.4	3.7
Gabon	1.3	-2.3	6.3	6.9	5.5	5.6	5.1	4.4	5.5
Nigeria	8.6	9.0	10.0	4.9	4.3	5.4	6.3	4.8	5.0
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	-46.8	24.2	5.5	3.4	20.7
Middle-income countries[1]	**5.0**	**0.2**	**4.6**	**4.7**	**3.4**	**3.6**	**2.7**	**3.3**	**3.7**
Excluding South Africa	**5.5**	**3.4**	**7.6**	**7.3**	**5.5**	**5.8**	**4.7**	**5.2**	**6.1**
Botswana	5.6	-7.8	8.6	6.2	4.3	5.9	4.9	4.2	4.0
Cabo Verde	7.1	-1.3	1.5	4.0	1.2	0.5	1.0	3.0	4.0
Ghana	6.3	5.8	7.9	14.0	8.0	7.3	4.2	3.5	6.4
Kenya	4.6	3.3	8.4	6.1	4.5	5.7	5.3	6.9	7.2
Lesotho	4.0	4.5	6.9	4.5	5.3	3.5	2.2	4.0	4.4
Mauritius	4.3	3.0	4.1	3.9	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.5	3.5
Namibia	6.0	0.3	6.0	5.1	5.2	5.1	5.3	5.6	6.5
Senegal	4.5	2.4	4.2	1.7	3.4	3.5	4.5	4.6	5.1
Seychelles	4.8	-1.1	5.9	7.9	6.0	6.6	2.9	3.5	3.8
South Africa	4.8	-1.5	3.0	3.2	2.2	2.2	1.5	2.0	2.1
Swaziland	2.9	1.2	1.9	-0.6	1.9	2.8	1.7	1.9	1.8
Zambia	7.7	9.2	10.3	6.4	6.8	6.7	5.4	6.7	6.9
Low-income and fragile countries	**5.7**	**5.1**	**6.5**	**6.2**	**6.5**	**6.6**	**6.8**	**6.3**	**6.9**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**7.7**	**6.6**	**7.6**	**7.6**	**6.1**	**7.1**	**7.4**	**6.5**	**7.1**
Benin	3.9	2.7	2.6	3.3	5.4	5.6	5.5	5.5	5.4
Burkina Faso	5.9	3.0	8.4	6.6	6.5	6.6	4.0	5.0	6.0
Ethiopia[2]	11.8	10.0	10.6	11.4	8.7	9.8	10.3	8.6	8.5
Gambia, The	3.3	6.4	6.5	-4.3	5.6	4.8	-0.2	5.1	8.7
Mali	4.6	4.5	5.8	2.7	0.0	1.7	6.8	5.6	5.1
Mozambique	7.7	6.5	7.1	7.4	7.1	7.4	7.4	6.5	8.1
Niger	5.2	-0.7	8.4	2.2	11.8	4.6	6.9	4.6	5.4
Rwanda	9.0	6.2	6.3	7.5	8.8	4.7	7.0	7.0	7.0
Sierra Leone	5.7	3.2	5.4	6.0	15.2	20.1	6.0	-12.8	8.4
Tanzania	6.5	5.4	6.4	7.9	5.1	7.3	7.2	7.2	7.1
Uganda	8.3	8.1	7.7	6.8	2.6	3.9	4.9	5.4	5.6
Fragile countries	**2.6**	**2.5**	**4.2**	**3.2**	**7.1**	**5.6**	**5.6**	**6.0**	**6.4**
Burundi	4.4	3.8	5.1	4.2	4.0	4.5	4.7	4.8	5.0
Central African Rep.	3.3	1.7	3.0	3.3	4.1	-36.0	1.0	5.7	5.7
Comoros	1.3	1.8	2.1	2.2	3.0	3.5	3.3	3.5	4.0
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	6.1	2.9	7.1	6.9	7.2	8.5	9.1	9.2	8.4
Côte d'Ivoire	1.8	3.3	2.0	-4.4	10.7	8.7	7.5	7.7	7.8
Eritrea	-1.1	3.9	2.2	8.7	7.0	1.3	1.7	0.2	2.2
Guinea	2.9	-0.3	1.9	3.9	3.8	2.3	0.4	-0.3	6.5
Guinea-Bissau	3.1	3.3	4.4	9.0	-2.2	0.3	2.5	4.5	4.0
Liberia	7.3	5.1	6.1	7.4	8.2	8.7	0.5	-1.4	5.0
Madagascar	5.8	-4.7	0.3	1.5	3.0	2.4	3.0	5.0	5.0
Malawi	5.6	9.0	6.5	4.3	1.9	5.2	5.7	5.5	5.7
São Tomé & Príncipe	5.7	4.0	4.5	4.8	4.5	4.0	4.5	5.0	5.2
Togo	2.4	3.5	4.1	4.8	5.9	5.4	5.2	6.0	6.0
Zimbabwe[3]	-7.5	7.5	11.4	11.9	10.6	4.5	3.2	2.8	2.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	**6.8**	**4.0**	**6.7**	**5.0**	**4.2**	**5.2**	**5.0**	**4.5**	**5.1**
Median	5.0	3.3	6.0	4.8	5.1	5.1	4.9	4.8	5.4
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	6.8	3.7	6.3	6.0	5.1	6.4	5.6	5.4	6.4
Oil-importing countries	**5.3**	**2.0**	**5.3**	**5.3**	**4.6**	**4.8**	**4.4**	**4.5**	**5.0**
Excluding South Africa	**5.6**	**4.5**	**6.9**	**6.6**	**6.1**	**6.3**	**6.0**	**5.9**	**6.6**
CFA franc zone	4.6	1.8	4.9	2.5	5.9	4.5	5.3	4.7	5.8
WAEMU	3.6	2.9	4.4	1.1	6.7	5.8	6.0	6.0	6.2
CEMAC	5.7	0.6	5.4	4.1	5.1	3.1	4.4	3.1	5.3
EAC-5	6.2	5.2	7.4	6.9	4.5	5.8	6.0	6.6	6.8
ECOWAS	7.4	7.6	8.8	5.0	5.0	5.7	6.0	4.6	5.3
SADC	6.2	0.5	4.2	4.3	3.7	4.1	3.4	3.8	3.8
SACU	4.8	-1.7	3.3	3.4	2.4	2.5	1.8	2.2	2.3
COMESA (SSA members)	6.2	5.6	7.9	7.2	5.8	6.3	6.4	6.7	6.8
MDRI countries	6.5	5.3	7.0	7.3	6.0	6.5	6.4	6.0	6.7
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	4.5	1.8	4.8	2.8	5.7	4.4	5.1	4.6	5.7
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	7.3	4.4	6.9	5.3	4.3	5.1	5.0	4.5	4.9
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**6.8**	**4.0**	**6.7**	**5.0**	**4.6**	**5.0**	**5.0**	**4.5**	**5.0**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA2. Real Non-Oil GDP Growth
(Percent)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**12.6**	**5.9**	**7.1**	**6.0**	**5.9**	**8.3**	**6.7**	**4.9**	**5.5**
Excluding Nigeria	**12.6**	**5.9**	**7.1**	**8.0**	**5.8**	**8.3**	**5.0**	**3.4**	**5.1**
Angola	17.6	8.1	7.6	9.5	5.5	10.8	7.3	3.6	5.2
Cameroon	3.6	2.9	4.1	4.6	4.6	5.5	4.9	4.9	4.9
Chad	6.3	6.4	17.2	0.2	11.6	8.0	7.1	2.1	4.4
Congo, Rep. of	5.7	3.9	6.5	7.4	9.7	8.1	6.8	5.2	4.9
Equatorial Guinea	29.9	11.4	0.7	9.9	0.3	3.0	-0.5	-5.3	4.9
Gabon	4.3	-2.8	7.7	11.7	10.4	8.0	5.9	5.8	6.5
Nigeria	...	...	...	5.3	5.9	8.3	7.3	5.5	5.6
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	-0.8	4.1	-10.3	1.1	5.0
Middle-income countries[1]	**5.0**	**0.2**	**4.6**	**4.2**	**3.3**	**3.5**	**2.7**	**3.1**	**3.5**
Excluding South Africa	**5.5**	**3.4**	**7.6**	**6.0**	**5.3**	**5.7**	**4.7**	**4.9**	**5.7**
Botswana	5.6	-7.8	8.6	6.2	4.3	5.9	4.9	4.2	4.0
Cabo Verde	7.1	-1.3	1.5	4.0	1.2	0.5	1.0	3.0	4.0
Ghana	6.3	5.8	7.9	8.4	7.3	6.7	4.1	2.3	4.7
Kenya	4.6	3.3	8.4	6.1	4.5	5.7	5.3	6.9	7.2
Lesotho	4.0	4.5	6.9	4.5	5.3	3.5	2.2	4.0	4.4
Mauritius	4.3	3.0	4.1	3.9	3.2	3.2	3.2	3.5	3.5
Namibia	6.0	0.3	6.0	5.1	5.2	5.1	5.3	5.6	6.5
Senegal	4.5	2.4	4.2	1.7	3.4	3.5	4.5	4.6	5.1
Seychelles	4.8	-1.1	5.9	7.9	6.0	6.6	2.9	3.5	3.8
South Africa	4.8	-1.5	3.0	3.2	2.2	2.2	1.5	2.0	2.1
Swaziland	2.9	1.2	1.9	-0.6	1.9	2.8	1.7	1.9	1.8
Zambia	7.7	9.2	10.3	6.4	6.8	6.7	5.4	6.7	6.9
Low-income and fragile countries	**5.7**	**4.9**	**6.5**	**6.1**	**6.6**	**6.6**	**6.9**	**6.3**	**6.9**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**7.7**	**6.6**	**7.6**	**7.6**	**5.8**	**7.0**	**7.4**	**6.5**	**7.1**
Benin	3.9	2.7	2.6	3.3	5.4	5.6	5.5	5.5	5.4
Burkina Faso	5.9	3.0	8.4	6.6	6.5	6.6	4.0	5.0	6.0
Ethiopia[2]	11.8	10.0	10.6	11.4	8.7	9.8	10.3	8.6	8.5
Gambia, The	3.3	6.4	6.5	-4.3	5.6	4.8	-0.2	5.1	8.7
Mali	4.6	4.5	5.8	2.7	0.0	1.7	6.8	5.6	5.1
Mozambique	7.7	6.5	7.1	7.4	7.1	7.4	7.4	6.5	8.1
Niger	5.2	-0.7	8.4	1.3	4.2	2.1	8.3	4.2	6.0
Rwanda	9.0	6.2	6.3	7.5	8.8	4.7	7.0	7.0	7.0
Sierra Leone	5.7	3.2	5.4	6.0	15.2	20.1	6.0	-12.8	8.4
Tanzania	6.5	5.4	6.4	7.9	5.1	7.3	7.2	7.2	7.1
Uganda	8.3	8.1	7.7	6.8	2.6	3.9	4.9	5.4	5.6
Fragile countries	**2.5**	**2.1**	**4.4**	**3.1**	**7.8**	**5.6**	**5.8**	**6.1**	**6.5**
Burundi	4.4	3.8	5.1	4.2	4.0	4.5	4.7	4.8	5.0
Central African Rep.	3.3	1.7	3.0	3.3	4.1	-36.0	1.0	5.7	5.7
Comoros	1.3	1.8	2.1	2.2	3.0	3.5	3.3	3.5	4.0
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	5.9	2.8	7.2	6.9	7.2	8.6	9.1	9.2	8.5
Côte d'Ivoire	1.8	2.1	2.6	-4.8	13.5	8.8	8.1	7.8	7.7
Eritrea	-1.1	3.9	2.2	8.7	7.0	1.3	1.7	0.2	2.2
Guinea	2.9	-0.3	1.9	3.9	3.8	2.3	0.4	-0.3	6.5
Guinea-Bissau	3.1	3.3	4.4	9.0	-2.2	0.3	2.5	4.5	4.0
Liberia	7.3	5.1	6.1	7.4	8.2	8.7	0.5	-1.4	5.0
Madagascar	5.8	-4.7	0.3	1.5	3.0	2.4	3.0	5.0	5.0
Malawi	5.6	9.0	6.5	4.3	1.9	5.2	5.7	5.5	5.7
São Tomé & Príncipe	5.7	4.0	4.5	4.8	4.5	4.0	4.5	5.0	5.2
Togo	2.4	3.5	4.1	4.8	5.9	5.4	5.2	6.0	6.0
Zimbabwe[3]	-7.5	7.5	11.4	11.9	10.6	4.5	3.2	2.8	2.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	**6.4**	**2.6**	**5.6**	**5.4**	**5.1**	**6.2**	**5.4**	**4.6**	**5.2**
Median	5.2	3.3	6.0	5.2	5.2	5.1	4.9	4.9	5.2
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	7.3	4.8	7.0	6.5	6.0	6.7	5.8	5.2	6.2
Oil-importing countries	**5.3**	**1.9**	**5.3**	**4.9**	**4.6**	**4.7**	**4.4**	**4.4**	**4.9**
Excluding South Africa	**5.6**	**4.4**	**6.9**	**6.1**	**6.1**	**6.3**	**6.1**	**5.8**	**6.5**
CFA franc zone	6.1	3.2	5.5	3.6	6.9	5.7	5.7	4.9	5.8
WAEMU	3.6	2.5	4.6	0.9	6.9	5.6	6.4	6.0	6.3
CEMAC	8.7	3.9	6.5	6.5	6.8	5.7	5.0	3.5	5.2
EAC-5	6.2	5.2	7.4	6.9	4.5	5.8	6.0	6.6	6.8
ECOWAS	4.4	3.3	5.4	4.9	6.2	7.8	6.8	5.1	5.7
SADC	6.3	1.2	4.8	5.0	3.7	4.6	3.8	3.7	4.0
SACU	4.8	-1.7	3.3	3.4	2.4	2.5	1.8	2.2	2.3
COMESA (SSA members)	6.1	5.6	7.9	7.2	5.8	6.3	6.4	6.7	6.8
MDRI countries	6.6	5.3	6.9	6.8	5.9	6.5	6.4	5.9	6.5
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	5.8	3.0	5.4	3.7	6.6	5.4	5.5	4.7	5.6
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	6.8	2.4	5.6	5.6	4.9	6.4	5.5	4.7	5.1
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**6.4**	**2.6**	**5.6**	**5.4**	**5.2**	**6.2**	**5.5**	**4.7**	**5.2**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA3. Real Per Capita GDP Growth
(Percent)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**6.2**	**4.1**	**5.7**	**1.9**	**0.9**	**2.9**	**3.0**	**1.7**	**2.4**
Excluding Nigeria	**7.7**	**-1.3**	**1.8**	**1.3**	**-0.6**	**3.6**	**1.6**	**1.0**	**3.2**
Angola	13.9	-0.6	0.4	0.9	2.1	3.7	1.2	1.5	0.9
Cameroon	0.3	-0.8	0.8	1.6	2.0	3.0	2.6	2.5	2.4
Chad	7.0	1.7	10.8	-2.4	6.2	3.1	4.3	5.0	2.3
Congo, Rep. of	1.4	4.4	5.7	0.5	0.9	1.1	3.7	2.9	5.3
Equatorial Guinea	11.6	-10.6	-4.0	2.1	0.4	-7.4	-5.7	-17.6	1.0
Gabon	-1.0	-3.7	4.7	5.4	4.0	4.1	3.6	3.0	4.0
Nigeria	5.7	6.1	7.0	2.1	1.5	2.6	3.5	1.9	2.1
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	-49.3	18.5	0.8	-1.0	18.3
Middle-income countries[1]	**3.3**	**-1.6**	**2.9**	**2.9**	**1.5**	**1.7**	**0.8**	**1.3**	**1.8**
Excluding South Africa	**3.2**	**1.1**	**5.3**	**4.9**	**2.9**	**3.4**	**2.3**	**2.8**	**3.7**
Botswana	4.2	-9.1	7.2	4.9	3.0	4.6	3.7	2.9	2.8
Cabo Verde	6.4	-1.5	1.1	3.3	-1.9	-0.7	-0.2	1.8	2.7
Ghana	3.6	3.1	5.2	11.2	5.3	4.7	1.6	0.9	3.7
Kenya	1.8	0.5	6.2	3.4	1.4	3.0	2.5	4.1	4.4
Lesotho	3.9	4.3	6.6	4.3	5.0	3.2	1.9	3.7	4.2
Mauritius	3.8	2.8	3.9	3.7	2.9	3.0	3.2	3.5	3.5
Namibia	4.6	-1.2	4.5	3.6	3.7	3.7	4.4	4.7	5.6
Senegal	1.7	-0.4	1.3	-1.2	0.4	0.5	1.6	1.7	2.1
Seychelles	3.7	-1.5	3.0	6.7	4.8	5.4	1.8	2.4	2.6
South Africa	3.4	-2.9	1.5	1.7	0.7	0.6	-0.1	0.4	0.5
Swaziland	4.1	0.1	0.8	-1.8	0.7	1.6	0.5	0.6	0.6
Zambia	4.8	6.1	7.0	3.1	3.4	3.3	2.0	3.3	3.5
Low-income and fragile countries	**2.9**	**2.4**	**3.7**	**3.5**	**3.7**	**3.8**	**4.0**	**3.6**	**4.1**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**4.7**	**3.8**	**4.8**	**4.9**	**3.3**	**4.2**	**4.4**	**3.7**	**4.3**
Benin	0.6	-0.3	-0.3	0.5	2.6	2.9	2.8	2.9	2.9
Burkina Faso	2.8	0.0	5.3	3.6	3.4	3.6	1.1	2.0	3.0
Ethiopia[2]	9.2	7.7	8.2	9.0	6.2	7.2	7.8	6.2	6.2
Gambia, The	0.4	3.6	3.7	-6.9	2.8	2.0	-2.9	2.3	5.7
Mali	1.3	1.2	2.6	-0.3	-2.9	-1.2	3.5	2.3	1.9
Mozambique	4.8	3.7	4.4	4.8	4.4	4.8	4.7	4.0	5.4
Niger	1.8	-4.1	5.1	-0.8	7.7	0.9	2.9	1.5	2.4
Rwanda	6.8	4.1	3.1	5.4	5.7	1.8	4.2	4.1	4.3
Sierra Leone	2.4	1.2	3.3	3.9	13.0	17.6	3.9	-14.0	6.4
Tanzania	3.6	2.7	3.8	5.3	2.7	4.2	4.1	4.1	4.0
Uganda	4.8	4.6	4.3	3.5	-0.7	0.6	1.5	2.3	2.5
Fragile countries	**0.0**	**-0.1**	**1.6**	**0.5**	**4.2**	**2.9**	**3.0**	**3.4**	**3.8**
Burundi	2.3	1.4	2.6	1.7	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.5
Central African Rep.	1.5	-0.2	1.1	1.3	2.1	-37.3	-0.9	3.6	3.7
Comoros	-1.1	-1.2	-0.9	-0.8	0.0	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.9
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	3.0	-0.1	4.0	3.8	4.0	5.3	5.9	6.0	5.3
Côte d'Ivoire	-1.0	0.6	-0.6	-6.8	7.9	5.9	4.8	5.0	5.0
Eritrea	-4.7	0.6	-1.1	5.2	3.6	-1.9	-1.5	-3.0	-1.0
Guinea	0.8	-2.7	-0.6	1.4	1.3	-0.2	-2.1	-2.7	3.9
Guinea-Bissau	0.9	1.1	2.1	6.5	-4.4	-1.9	0.3	2.2	1.7
Liberia	5.7	0.8	1.8	4.7	5.5	5.9	-2.0	-3.9	2.6
Madagascar	2.8	-7.4	-2.5	-1.4	0.2	-0.4	0.1	2.1	2.1
Malawi	3.0	6.0	3.6	1.4	-1.0	2.3	2.7	2.5	2.8
São Tomé & Príncipe	3.0	1.0	1.5	1.9	1.8	1.4	1.9	2.5	2.7
Togo	-0.2	0.9	1.4	2.1	3.2	2.7	2.5	3.3	3.3
Zimbabwe[3]	-8.3	6.6	10.4	9.1	7.8	3.3	2.0	1.7	1.6
Sub-Saharan Africa	**4.4**	**1.6**	**4.2**	**2.6**	**1.7**	**2.7**	**2.5**	**2.0**	**2.6**
Median	3.0	0.7	3.2	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.0	2.3	2.8
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	4.1	1.1	3.7	3.4	2.4	3.6	2.9	2.8	3.8
Oil-importing countries	**3.2**	**-0.1**	**3.2**	**3.1**	**2.4**	**2.5**	**2.1**	**2.3**	**2.8**
Excluding South Africa	**3.0**	**1.9**	**4.3**	**4.0**	**3.4**	**3.6**	**3.4**	**3.3**	**4.0**
CFA franc zone	1.8	-0.9	2.2	-0.1	3.2	1.9	2.6	2.1	3.2
WAEMU	0.7	0.0	1.6	-1.7	3.7	2.9	3.1	3.1	3.3
CEMAC	2.9	-1.9	2.9	1.6	2.6	0.8	2.1	0.9	3.0
EAC-5	3.3	2.4	4.7	4.1	1.6	2.8	2.9	3.7	3.8
ECOWAS	4.5	4.7	5.9	2.2	2.2	2.9	3.2	1.9	2.5
SADC	4.4	-1.4	2.3	2.3	1.7	2.0	1.3	1.7	1.7
SACU	3.5	-3.0	1.9	1.8	0.9	0.9	0.3	0.7	0.8
COMESA (SSA members)	3.6	3.0	5.3	4.5	3.0	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.1
MDRI countries	3.7	2.5	4.1	4.5	3.2	3.6	3.5	3.2	3.9
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	1.9	-0.8	2.3	0.3	3.1	1.9	2.5	2.1	3.2
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	4.9	2.0	4.5	2.9	1.9	2.6	2.5	2.0	2.4
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**4.4**	**1.6**	**4.2**	**2.6**	**2.1**	**2.5**	**2.5**	**2.0**	**2.5**

Sources and footnotes on page 72

Table SA4. Consumer Prices
(Annual average, percent change)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**10.9**	**11.5**	**12.1**	**10.0**	**11.3**	**7.5**	**7.0**	**8.8**	**9.2**
Excluding Nigeria	**9.2**	**8.8**	**7.8**	**7.7**	**8.7**	**4.9**	**4.3**	**6.8**	**5.3**
Angola	20.9	13.7	14.5	13.5	10.3	8.8	7.3	8.4	8.5
Cameroon	2.7	3.0	1.3	2.9	2.4	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.1
Chad	1.5	10.1	-2.1	1.9	7.7	0.2	1.7	3.2	2.9
Congo, Rep. of	3.9	4.3	5.0	1.8	5.0	4.6	0.9	3.0	2.9
Equatorial Guinea	4.4	5.7	5.3	4.8	3.4	3.2	3.0	3.0	3.0
Gabon	0.9	1.9	1.4	1.3	2.7	0.5	4.5	2.5	2.5
Nigeria	11.6	12.6	13.7	10.8	12.3	8.5	8.0	9.6	10.7
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	45.1	0.0	-0.7	29.0	5.0
Middle-income countries[1]	**6.8**	**7.9**	**4.6**	**6.5**	**6.2**	**6.1**	**6.7**	**5.3**	**5.8**
Excluding South Africa	**9.2**	**9.4**	**5.2**	**9.1**	**7.1**	**6.8**	**7.8**	**6.5**	**6.0**
Botswana	9.4	8.1	6.9	8.5	7.5	5.8	3.9	3.7	3.8
Cabo Verde	2.9	1.0	2.1	4.5	2.5	1.5	-0.2	1.5	2.5
Ghana	13.3	13.1	6.7	7.7	7.1	11.7	15.5	12.2	10.2
Kenya	8.3	10.6	4.3	14.0	9.4	5.7	6.9	5.1	5.0
Lesotho	6.9	5.9	3.4	6.0	5.6	5.0	3.9	4.0	4.6
Mauritius	7.4	2.5	2.9	6.5	3.9	3.5	3.0	1.7	3.0
Namibia	5.4	9.5	4.9	5.0	6.7	5.6	5.3	5.1	5.8
Senegal	3.3	-2.2	1.2	3.4	1.4	0.7	-0.5	1.5	1.4
Seychelles	6.2	31.7	-2.4	2.6	7.1	4.3	1.4	4.0	3.2
South Africa	5.6	7.1	4.3	5.0	5.7	5.8	6.1	4.5	5.6
Swaziland	6.2	7.4	4.5	6.1	8.9	5.6	5.8	4.6	5.4
Zambia	13.7	13.4	8.5	8.7	6.6	7.0	7.9	7.7	6.5
Low-income and fragile countries	**9.4**	**9.9**	**6.8**	**13.8**	**11.0**	**5.4**	**4.4**	**4.4**	**4.9**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**9.1**	**8.5**	**5.8**	**16.1**	**14.2**	**6.3**	**5.2**	**5.0**	**5.5**
Benin	3.7	0.9	2.2	2.7	6.7	1.0	-1.0	0.7	2.0
Burkina Faso	3.8	0.9	-0.6	2.8	3.8	0.5	-0.3	0.7	1.8
Ethiopia	18.0	8.5	8.1	33.2	24.1	8.1	7.4	6.8	8.2
Gambia, The	6.2	4.6	5.0	4.8	4.6	5.2	6.3	6.2	5.2
Mali	3.1	2.2	1.3	3.1	5.3	-0.6	0.9	2.2	1.9
Mozambique	10.2	3.3	12.7	10.4	2.1	4.2	2.3	5.0	5.6
Niger	3.9	4.3	-2.8	2.9	0.5	2.3	-0.9	1.4	1.8
Rwanda	10.9	10.3	2.0	5.7	6.3	4.2	1.8	2.9	4.4
Sierra Leone	12.5	9.2	17.8	18.5	13.8	9.8	8.3	13.1	11.8
Tanzania	6.6	12.1	7.2	12.7	16.0	7.9	6.1	4.2	4.5
Uganda	7.5	13.1	4.0	18.7	14.0	4.8	4.7	4.9	4.8
Fragile countries	**9.9**	**12.6**	**8.7**	**9.1**	**5.4**	**4.9**	**3.7**	**3.9**	**4.0**
Burundi	11.4	10.6	6.5	9.6	18.2	7.9	4.4	5.0	5.3
Central African Rep.	3.5	3.5	1.5	1.2	5.5	7.0	15.0	5.2	6.3
Comoros	4.0	4.8	3.9	2.2	5.9	1.6	2.8	2.5	2.5
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	14.7	46.2	23.5	15.5	2.1	0.8	1.0	2.4	3.5
Côte d'Ivoire	3.2	1.0	1.4	4.9	1.3	2.6	0.4	1.2	1.5
Eritrea	16.4	33.0	12.7	13.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3
Guinea	25.0	4.7	15.5	21.4	15.2	11.9	9.7	9.1	9.6
Guinea-Bissau	4.0	-1.6	1.1	5.1	2.1	0.8	-1.0	1.3	2.3
Liberia	9.8	7.4	7.3	8.5	6.8	7.6	9.9	7.9	7.8
Madagascar	12.5	9.0	9.2	9.5	5.7	5.8	6.1	7.6	6.9
Malawi	11.5	8.4	7.4	7.6	21.3	28.3	23.8	17.3	10.0
São Tomé & Príncipe	20.8	17.0	13.3	14.3	10.6	8.1	7.0	5.6	4.6
Togo	3.8	3.7	1.4	3.6	2.6	1.8	0.1	1.9	2.1
Zimbabwe[2]	39.9	6.2	3.0	3.5	3.7	1.6	-0.2	-1.0	0.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	**8.8**	**9.8**	**8.2**	**9.5**	**9.4**	**6.6**	**6.3**	**6.6**	**7.0**
Median	6.8	7.3	4.4	5.8	6.3	4.8	3.9	4.2	4.6
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	9.2	9.5	6.6	11.0	9.3	5.7	5.3	5.6	5.3
Oil-importing countries	**7.7**	**8.7**	**5.4**	**9.2**	**8.0**	**5.9**	**5.8**	**4.9**	**5.4**
Excluding South Africa	**9.3**	**9.7**	**6.2**	**12.0**	**9.5**	**5.9**	**5.6**	**5.2**	**5.3**
CFA franc zone	3.0	2.6	1.4	3.1	3.2	1.7	1.2	1.9	2.1
WAEMU	3.4	0.9	0.8	3.7	2.7	1.3	0.0	1.3	1.7
CEMAC	2.6	4.4	2.0	2.5	3.8	2.1	2.5	2.6	2.6
EAC-5	7.8	11.6	5.1	14.0	12.6	6.2	5.8	4.6	4.8
ECOWAS	10.3	10.5	11.1	9.6	10.4	7.6	7.3	8.5	9.2
SADC	8.0	9.8	6.9	7.6	7.1	6.2	5.9	5.1	5.7
SACU	5.8	7.2	4.4	5.2	5.8	5.7	5.9	4.5	5.5
COMESA (SSA members)	11.5	13.0	7.3	16.2	11.7	6.0	5.9	5.5	5.7
MDRI countries	9.2	10.0	6.5	12.0	9.9	6.0	5.7	5.5	5.5
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	3.5	3.5	1.8	3.5	3.7	2.2	1.7	2.3	2.6
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	9.8	11.0	9.3	10.6	10.1	7.4	7.2	7.2	7.9
Sub-Saharan Africa[3]	**8.8**	**9.8**	**8.2**	**9.5**	**9.2**	**6.6**	**6.4**	**6.4**	**7.1**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA5. Consumer Prices
(End of period, percent change)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**9.8**	**12.2**	**10.9**	**9.6**	**10.6**	**6.8**	**7.1**	**10.2**	**8.3**
Excluding Nigeria	**8.4**	**7.8**	**8.4**	**7.5**	**6.9**	**3.9**	**4.8**	**5.5**	**5.1**
Angola	17.3	14.0	15.3	11.4	9.0	7.7	7.5	9.0	8.0
Cameroon	3.1	0.9	2.6	2.7	2.5	1.7	2.6	2.0	2.1
Chad	3.2	4.7	-2.2	10.8	2.1	0.9	3.7	2.0	3.0
Congo, Rep. of	4.4	2.5	5.4	1.8	7.5	2.1	0.5	3.0	2.6
Equatorial Guinea	4.3	5.0	5.4	4.9	2.6	4.9	3.0	3.0	3.0
Gabon	1.1	0.9	0.7	2.3	2.2	3.3	1.7	2.5	2.5
Nigeria	10.4	13.9	11.7	10.3	12.0	7.9	7.9	12.0	9.5
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	25.2	-8.8	5.0	5.0	5.0
Middle-income countries[1]	**7.4**	**6.4**	**4.4**	**7.7**	**5.6**	**6.1**	**6.3**	**5.6**	**5.5**
Excluding South Africa	**9.7**	**6.6**	**6.0**	**10.6**	**5.4**	**7.4**	**7.9**	**6.5**	**5.6**
Botswana	9.9	5.8	7.4	9.2	7.4	4.1	3.7	3.6	3.9
Cabo Verde	3.5	-0.4	3.4	3.6	4.1	0.1	-0.4	2.0	2.5
Ghana	13.7	9.5	6.9	8.4	8.1	13.5	17.0	12.0	8.6
Kenya	9.0	8.0	5.8	18.9	3.2	7.1	6.0	5.2	5.0
Lesotho	7.2	3.8	3.6	7.2	5.0	5.6	2.6	4.3	5.0
Mauritius	7.3	1.5	6.1	4.9	3.2	3.5	0.2	3.0	3.0
Namibia	6.1	7.9	3.1	7.4	6.4	4.9	4.6	5.6	6.0
Senegal	3.8	-4.5	4.3	2.7	1.1	-0.1	1.4	1.5	1.4
Seychelles	16.5	-2.6	-12.9	5.5	5.8	3.4	0.5	5.0	3.1
South Africa	6.4	6.3	3.5	6.1	5.7	5.4	5.3	5.0	5.5
Swaziland	7.7	4.5	4.5	7.8	8.3	4.4	6.2	4.5	5.4
Zambia	13.4	9.9	7.9	7.2	7.3	7.1	8.2	7.0	6.0
Low-income and fragile countries	**10.2**	**8.4**	**7.4**	**15.9**	**8.0**	**4.5**	**4.2**	**4.9**	**5.0**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**9.7**	**7.2**	**7.2**	**19.7**	**9.5**	**5.1**	**4.9**	**5.4**	**5.5**
Benin	4.1	-0.5	4.0	1.8	6.8	-1.8	0.3	1.1	2.3
Burkina Faso	4.1	-1.8	-0.3	5.1	1.7	0.1	-0.1	1.6	1.8
Ethiopia	19.3	7.1	14.6	35.9	15.0	7.7	7.1	8.1	8.5
Gambia, The	5.2	2.7	5.8	4.4	4.9	5.5	7.0	5.3	5.0
Mali	3.7	1.7	1.9	5.3	2.4	0.0	1.2	1.3	2.6
Mozambique	9.2	4.2	16.6	5.5	2.2	3.0	1.1	5.5	5.6
Niger	5.3	-3.1	1.4	1.4	0.7	1.1	-0.6	2.4	1.5
Rwanda	11.4	5.7	0.2	8.3	3.9	3.6	2.1	3.7	5.0
Sierra Leone	12.4	10.8	18.4	16.9	12.0	8.5	10.0	14.0	10.0
Tanzania	7.1	12.2	5.6	19.8	12.1	5.6	4.8	4.5	4.5
Uganda	8.4	11.0	3.1	27.0	5.3	4.3	5.0	4.8	4.8
Fragile countries	**11.0**	**10.6**	**7.8**	**8.2**	**6.2**	**4.0**	**3.7**	**4.1**	**4.0**
Burundi	12.5	4.6	4.1	14.9	11.8	9.0	3.8	7.9	5.8
Central African Rep.	4.7	-1.2	2.3	4.3	3.3	9.2	10.5	9.5	3.6
Comoros	4.4	2.2	6.7	4.9	1.0	3.5	2.8	1.8	2.5
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	17.2	53.4	9.8	15.4	2.7	1.0	1.2	3.5	3.5
Côte d'Ivoire	3.9	-1.7	5.1	2.0	3.4	0.4	0.9	0.9	1.8
Eritrea	17.5	22.2	14.2	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.3
Guinea	24.6	7.9	20.8	19.0	12.8	10.5	9.1	9.7	9.5
Guinea-Bissau	4.6	-6.4	5.7	3.4	1.6	-0.1	-0.1	2.0	2.5
Liberia	9.5	9.7	6.6	11.4	7.7	8.5	7.7	8.0	7.5
Madagascar	13.6	8.0	10.2	6.9	5.8	6.3	6.0	7.9	6.5
Malawi	11.6	7.6	6.3	9.8	34.6	23.5	24.2	12.0	8.0
São Tomé & Príncipe	21.9	16.1	12.9	11.9	10.4	7.1	6.4	5.2	4.0
Togo	4.9	0.6	3.8	1.5	2.9	1.8	0.5	2.2	2.3
Zimbabwe[2]	...	-7.7	3.2	4.9	2.9	0.3	-0.8	-0.5	0.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	**8.9**	**9.2**	**7.7**	**10.2**	**8.2**	**6.1**	**6.1**	**7.4**	**6.6**
Median	7.3	4.7	5.4	7.0	5.3	4.3	3.7	4.5	4.5
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	9.6	7.7	7.2	12.3	7.0	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.2
Oil-importing countries	**8.4**	**7.1**	**5.5**	**10.7**	**6.5**	**5.5**	**5.4**	**5.3**	**5.3**
Excluding South Africa	**10.0**	**7.7**	**6.9**	**13.9**	**7.0**	**5.5**	**5.5**	**5.5**	**5.2**
CFA franc zone	3.6	0.2	2.9	3.5	2.9	1.2	1.5	1.9	2.2
WAEMU	4.0	-1.7	3.3	2.9	2.7	0.1	0.6	1.3	1.9
CEMAC	3.1	2.3	2.4	4.0	3.1	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.5
EAC-5	8.4	9.9	4.8	20.3	6.8	5.8	5.1	4.9	4.8
ECOWAS	9.6	10.8	10.2	9.2	10.2	7.2	7.5	10.3	8.2
SADC	8.4	8.9	6.1	8.4	6.8	5.6	5.3	5.5	5.5
SACU	6.5	6.3	3.6	6.2	5.8	5.3	5.2	4.9	5.4
COMESA (SSA members)	12.5	10.7	7.7	18.8	7.4	6.1	5.7	5.9	5.7
MDRI countries	9.8	8.4	6.8	13.8	7.6	5.5	5.8	5.7	5.3
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	4.1	1.1	3.1	4.0	3.4	1.7	1.9	2.3	2.6
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	9.8	10.8	8.5	11.3	8.9	7.0	6.9	8.3	7.3
Sub-Saharan Africa[3]	**8.9**	**9.2**	**7.7**	**10.2**	**8.1**	**6.2**	**6.2**	**7.4**	**6.6**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA6. Total Investment
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**18.1**	**22.5**	**19.0**	**17.4**	**16.7**	**16.6**	**16.4**	**16.0**	**16.1**
Excluding Nigeria	**21.0**	**25.0**	**24.0**	**20.5**	**21.4**	**21.7**	**19.8**	**17.0**	**16.2**
Angola	12.6	15.2	14.4	12.9	14.9	14.8	14.1	9.2	10.4
Cameroon	16.5	20.6	20.3	20.2	20.7	21.5	22.1	22.2	21.5
Chad	22.6	30.2	34.5	28.5	31.5	27.5	2.7	-29.5	-24.8
Congo, Rep. of	20.9	22.5	20.5	25.3	26.0	30.9	35.6	43.3	34.3
Equatorial Guinea	60.8	81.9	71.6	60.3	54.4	58.5	56.5	80.4	65.7
Gabon	23.7	28.7	31.7	32.1	21.1	25.7	25.7	31.0	30.2
Nigeria	17.0	21.6	17.3	16.2	14.9	14.7	15.2	15.6	16.0
South Sudan	...	...	...	5.4	11.3	9.3	11.1	13.1	11.9
Middle-income countries[1]	**21.3**	**21.6**	**21.4**	**21.8**	**23.2**	**21.9**	**22.4**	**22.7**	**23.7**
Excluding South Africa	**23.7**	**23.3**	**24.9**	**26.5**	**28.5**	**25.0**	**25.7**	**25.8**	**25.9**
Botswana	29.9	37.9	35.4	38.7	39.2	33.9	30.9	30.0	30.4
Cabo Verde	36.7	36.5	37.7	37.2	40.2	38.9	37.9	41.4	40.5
Ghana	22.0	20.7	25.7	26.6	32.0	23.2	24.7	23.6	24.7
Kenya	18.9	19.3	20.8	21.7	21.6	19.9	22.5	24.2	24.1
Lesotho	25.5	29.5	30.0	36.1	36.8	36.6	33.4	36.1	38.8
Mauritius	25.6	21.3	23.7	26.0	24.8	24.0	20.4	21.0	20.8
Namibia	22.7	27.3	24.1	22.4	26.8	24.5	30.0	29.9	26.2
Senegal	26.3	22.4	22.0	25.8	29.8	27.4	27.7	26.3	26.6
Seychelles	28.6	27.3	36.6	35.0	37.4	37.9	37.5	36.2	35.9
South Africa	20.2	20.7	19.5	19.1	20.1	20.1	20.4	20.7	22.2
Swaziland	12.4	3.1	9.7	7.6	8.0	9.5	11.3	10.7	9.4
Zambia	33.2	30.3	29.9	33.5	34.2	33.6	30.9	30.9	31.1
Low-income and fragile countries	**21.7**	**21.2**	**23.1**	**25.0**	**26.3**	**26.4**	**25.7**	**27.5**	**28.1**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**24.1**	**23.4**	**25.7**	**29.7**	**30.7**	**31.1**	**30.3**	**32.3**	**32.4**
Benin	18.3	20.9	17.6	18.7	17.6	25.6	18.7	22.5	23.8
Burkina Faso	18.5	17.9	18.0	15.4	14.9	20.2	10.8	13.1	15.9
Ethiopia[2]	22.7	21.5	23.6	31.2	37.1	35.8	34.2	34.6	33.4
Gambia, The	21.1	19.6	21.3	18.9	27.8	20.0	23.4	22.3	22.3
Mali	28.4	27.8	35.4	26.3	18.3	20.5	26.2	30.6	31.1
Mozambique	21.8	16.0	17.8	36.8	56.5	55.6	47.2	51.6	56.6
Niger	23.2	32.1	45.3	43.9	37.2	38.0	38.5	47.8	41.8
Rwanda	18.7	23.6	23.2	23.5	25.9	26.5	25.2	25.0	24.8
Sierra Leone	10.0	9.2	31.1	42.1	26.6	20.8	13.4	15.6	17.2
Tanzania	26.4	25.1	26.9	32.9	28.6	29.6	31.3	31.6	31.8
Uganda	29.3	27.1	26.7	28.7	29.7	29.2	31.8	35.3	35.5
Fragile countries	**17.5**	**17.3**	**18.1**	**15.0**	**17.0**	**16.1**	**15.4**	**16.9**	**18.4**
Burundi	18.1	19.0	19.2	19.3	19.5	19.6	19.6	19.7	19.7
Central African Rep.	10.1	13.2	14.3	12.2	15.0	8.7	13.7	19.6	17.3
Comoros	10.7	12.4	15.4	14.9	16.8	20.4	19.4	20.8	22.1
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	14.2	14.2	18.1	15.4	17.9	16.0	15.8	19.6	20.0
Côte d'Ivoire	12.8	11.6	14.9	10.5	16.5	17.0	17.0	17.8	18.3
Eritrea	15.9	9.3	9.3	10.0	9.5	8.8	8.0	7.8	7.6
Guinea	17.3	10.3	9.4	13.4	24.7	21.0	9.3	10.3	26.6
Guinea-Bissau	6.8	6.1	6.5	5.3	7.1	7.1	10.7	13.1	13.4
Liberia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	29.7	35.6	23.4	17.6	17.6	16.0	15.2	16.4	17.8
Malawi	23.7	25.6	26.0	15.3	16.9	16.0	15.4	15.6	15.7
São Tomé & Príncipe	54.9	37.1	54.3	42.9	35.6	31.5	25.7	25.7	27.6
Togo	15.9	18.0	18.9	18.6	19.1	18.4	20.6	19.9	22.1
Zimbabwe[3]	...	15.1	23.9	22.4	13.5	13.0	13.2	13.3	13.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	**20.1**	**21.9**	**20.8**	**20.6**	**21.1**	**20.7**	**20.6**	**20.9**	**21.5**
Median	21.4	21.3	23.2	22.4	23.1	21.3	21.3	22.2	23.1
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	22.1	22.7	23.8	24.3	25.7	24.9	24.2	24.5	24.7
Oil-importing countries	**21.5**	**21.5**	**22.0**	**23.0**	**24.4**	**23.7**	**23.7**	**24.7**	**25.5**
Excluding South Africa	**22.5**	**22.0**	**23.7**	**25.6**	**27.1**	**25.9**	**25.7**	**26.9**	**27.3**
CFA franc zone	22.6	26.0	27.0	25.0	24.2	25.7	23.5	24.0	23.0
WAEMU	19.2	19.1	22.1	19.8	22.5	22.1	21.0	23.1	23.5
CEMAC	26.2	33.6	32.3	30.4	28.2	29.7	26.2	25.0	22.4
EAC-5	23.5	23.2	24.3	27.1	25.9	25.6	27.6	29.1	29.1
ECOWAS	17.8	20.9	18.7	17.7	17.4	16.7	16.8	17.4	18.0
SADC	20.9	21.2	20.6	21.1	22.0	21.8	21.6	21.6	22.7
SACU	20.6	21.4	20.2	20.0	21.0	20.8	21.1	21.4	22.7
COMESA (SSA members)	23.0	22.3	23.1	24.8	26.2	25.2	25.3	26.7	26.6
MDRI countries	23.2	23.1	24.5	26.9	28.5	27.7	27.5	28.9	28.9
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	22.4	25.4	26.3	24.4	24.0	25.2	23.5	24.0	23.0
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	19.7	21.4	19.8	20.2	20.8	20.1	20.3	20.6	21.4
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**20.1**	**21.9**	**20.8**	**20.8**	**21.2**	**20.8**	**20.7**	**21.0**	**21.5**

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Table SA7. Gross National Savings
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**29.4**	**24.4**	**22.9**	**21.8**	**21.0**	**20.0**	**17.5**	**14.3**	**15.7**
Excluding Nigeria	**27.3**	**17.8**	**27.7**	**28.4**	**25.8**	**23.6**	**17.7**	**8.7**	**11.1**
Angola	27.3	5.2	23.5	25.5	26.9	21.5	13.3	2.9	6.3
Cameroon	15.5	17.6	17.5	17.5	17.1	17.8	17.9	17.3	16.8
Chad	17.2	21.9	25.5	22.8	22.8	18.4	-6.1	-40.0	-33.1
Congo, Rep. of	19.8	8.4	27.9	30.0	23.6	26.1	29.4	32.0	31.2
Equatorial Guinea	52.5	73.9	61.8	59.7	49.9	46.4	43.4	47.9	47.4
Gabon	40.1	35.2	39.5	45.2	42.3	40.6	36.8	28.6	31.0
Nigeria	30.1	26.8	21.2	19.2	19.3	18.6	17.4	16.3	17.3
South Sudan	...	...	...	23.7	-11.0	8.8	10.4	-0.8	3.6
Middle-income countries[1]	**16.3**	**16.7**	**17.3**	**16.8**	**14.4**	**14.4**	**14.5**	**18.2**	**19.1**
Excluding South Africa	**21.8**	**20.5**	**20.0**	**18.1**	**17.2**	**17.0**	**17.6**	**21.5**	**21.5**
Botswana	40.6	26.6	29.3	38.2	35.7	44.3	48.0	48.2	47.1
Cabo Verde	27.2	21.9	25.3	20.9	28.8	34.9	28.8	31.8	29.9
Ghana	14.7	18.4	19.6	19.0	16.8	14.9	15.5	16.6	18.5
Kenya	16.4	14.9	14.9	12.6	13.1	11.3	13.3	16.5	16.7
Lesotho	46.0	33.9	22.3	26.8	33.9	32.3	26.6	30.7	15.3
Mauritius	20.0	15.0	14.3	13.1	18.4	15.1	14.8	14.6	14.0
Namibia	30.0	25.8	20.6	19.3	21.0	20.4	23.4	20.0	13.9
Senegal	16.1	15.7	17.6	17.8	19.0	16.4	17.4	18.7	19.3
Seychelles	11.6	4.9	14.5	6.8	11.5	22.7	15.0	16.9	17.8
South Africa	16.0	18.0	18.0	17.0	15.1	14.9	14.9	16.2	17.5
Swaziland	8.9	-9.9	-0.2	-0.6	11.8	15.8	12.2	11.1	8.0
Zambia	28.4	34.1	35.8	36.5	37.4	33.6	30.6	31.2	32.1
Low-income and fragile countries	**16.9**	**13.9**	**16.7**	**17.2**	**16.7**	**15.2**	**15.8**	**17.7**	**18.4**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**18.8**	**16.9**	**18.9**	**20.8**	**20.7**	**19.6**	**19.7**	**21.7**	**22.0**
Benin	11.0	11.9	8.9	10.9	9.3	9.7	10.2	10.9	11.6
Burkina Faso	8.2	13.4	16.0	13.9	10.4	13.6	4.6	5.0	7.4
Ethiopia[2]	21.0	18.8	20.4	31.4	30.7	28.3	25.2	28.0	27.1
Gambia, The	12.6	7.1	5.0	6.7	19.9	9.3	10.7	10.6	12.3
Mali	20.8	20.5	22.8	20.1	15.7	15.3	18.2	25.0	25.5
Mozambique	11.1	5.0	7.1	13.7	14.2	15.6	12.4	10.4	11.1
Niger	14.1	7.7	25.5	21.6	21.9	22.6	20.4	20.7	17.1
Rwanda	18.4	16.4	17.8	16.4	14.6	19.4	13.2	14.4	14.8
Sierra Leone	3.8	-2.5	9.6	-17.0	3.3	10.3	3.7	3.7	10.6
Tanzania	21.3	18.9	21.8	21.7	19.5	14.4	21.6	22.9	23.9
Uganda	25.0	20.8	17.4	18.3	21.6	22.9	24.3	26.6	26.5
Fragile countries	**13.3**	**8.5**	**13.0**	**9.5**	**8.4**	**6.1**	**7.1**	**8.9**	**10.5**
Burundi	12.2	21.7	7.8	6.4	2.7	1.6	2.4	6.7	7.1
Central African Rep.	4.6	4.1	4.1	4.6	10.4	5.7	7.5	8.4	8.2
Comoros	3.7	4.4	9.9	3.6	8.5	9.3	12.1	9.6	11.0
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	9.5	6.5	13.2	9.1	10.9	4.9	6.3	8.4	9.1
Côte d'Ivoire	13.9	18.3	16.8	21.0	15.3	12.1	13.7	15.4	16.7
Eritrea	12.7	1.7	3.7	10.8	12.2	8.9	7.3	5.3	4.6
Guinea	12.0	2.4	-0.3	-5.4	-4.0	-0.4	-8.8	-6.5	8.3
Guinea-Bissau	4.1	-0.1	-2.1	6.6	2.1	-7.0	0.7	1.8	-1.1
Liberia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	20.4	14.5	13.7	10.8	10.8	10.4	12.9	13.2	14.4
Malawi	15.1	20.7	30.4	9.4	13.4	14.2	10.3	12.2	13.0
São Tomé & Príncipe	27.8	13.8	32.6	17.4	14.3	15.1	5.4	14.9	16.9
Togo	7.9	12.4	12.6	10.6	10.9	11.2	14.3	14.9	16.3
Zimbabwe[3]	...	-32.0	8.0	-8.5	-11.0	-12.5	-9.0	-6.9	-7.4
Sub-Saharan Africa	**22.0**	**19.9**	**20.1**	**19.5**	**18.7**	**17.6**	**16.9**	**16.4**	**17.4**
Median	16.1	15.0	17.5	17.2	15.2	15.1	13.5	14.9	15.0
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	20.6	16.4	20.4	20.9	20.1	18.5	17.5	16.6	17.5
Oil-importing countries	**17.3**	**16.8**	**18.0**	**17.8**	**17.0**	**15.9**	**16.5**	**18.0**	**18.8**
Excluding South Africa	**18.4**	**15.9**	**18.0**	**18.3**	**18.2**	**16.8**	**17.4**	**19.0**	**19.5**
CFA franc zone	20.1	21.9	23.7	24.4	21.4	20.2	18.0	15.6	16.5
WAEMU	13.8	16.4	17.2	17.7	14.9	13.7	13.7	15.6	16.3
CEMAC	26.8	28.9	30.7	31.5	28.5	27.3	22.7	15.6	16.8
EAC-5	19.8	17.8	17.7	17.0	17.0	15.0	18.3	20.5	21.0
ECOWAS	25.6	23.8	20.1	18.4	18.0	17.3	16.3	15.9	17.1
SADC	18.9	15.6	19.3	18.6	19.0	16.1	16.1	15.6	16.8
SACU	17.4	18.3	18.3	17.8	16.2	15.9	16.7	17.7	18.6
COMESA (SSA members)	19.0	15.3	17.8	18.1	19.1	17.5	17.3	19.5	19.5
MDRI countries	17.8	17.0	19.4	20.1	19.8	18.4	18.7	20.2	20.7
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	20.5	21.1	22.6	23.3	21.2	20.2	18.1	15.8	16.1
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	22.3	20.2	19.7	19.1	18.8	17.6	17.0	16.9	18.0
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**22.0**	**19.9**	**20.1**	**19.4**	**18.9**	**17.7**	**17.0**	**16.5**	**17.6**

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Table SA8. Overall Fiscal Balance, Including Grants
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**5.6**	**-5.4**	**-2.3**	**2.2**	**0.6**	**-2.0**	**-2.5**	**-3.1**	**-2.0**
Excluding Nigeria	**7.4**	**-4.4**	**2.4**	**5.9**	**1.3**	**-1.1**	**-3.1**	**-6.1**	**-2.7**
Angola	4.6	-7.4	3.4	8.7	4.6	-0.3	-2.8	-4.7	-2.3
Cameroon	8.6	0.0	-1.1	-2.6	-1.6	-4.0	-5.1	-6.0	-5.4
Chad	1.2	-9.2	-4.2	2.4	0.5	-2.1	-4.2	-3.4	-0.7
Congo, Rep. of	13.5	4.8	16.1	16.5	6.4	8.5	2.0	-6.8	1.6
Equatorial Guinea	20.4	-10.4	-6.4	1.1	-9.8	-7.8	-8.2	-21.4	-7.1
Gabon	8.3	6.9	2.4	2.2	1.7	1.8	3.0	-1.9	-0.3
Nigeria	4.9	-6.0	-4.2	0.4	0.3	-2.4	-2.3	-2.0	-1.7
South Sudan	...	...	...	4.6	-15.6	-5.2	-6.7	-15.0	-5.9
Middle-income countries[1]	**-0.3**	**-4.8**	**-5.1**	**-4.1**	**-4.4**	**-4.7**	**-4.8**	**-4.7**	**-4.0**
Excluding South Africa	**-1.1**	**-5.0**	**-5.7**	**-4.6**	**-5.2**	**-5.9**	**-5.9**	**-5.4**	**-4.8**
Botswana	4.5	-13.5	-7.5	-0.1	0.8	5.4	0.4	0.7	1.6
Cabo Verde	-3.3	-5.9	-10.7	-7.7	-10.3	-9.0	-8.3	-7.8	-6.6
Ghana	-4.9	-7.0	-9.4	-7.3	-12.2	-10.9	-9.8	-6.3	-4.4
Kenya	-1.9	-4.3	-4.4	-4.1	-5.0	-5.7	-6.8	-7.6	-6.2
Lesotho	9.0	-4.0	-5.2	-10.9	5.1	-2.5	-2.4	-1.5	-12.9
Mauritius	-3.9	-3.6	-3.2	-3.2	-1.8	-3.5	-3.4	-3.4	-3.3
Namibia	2.0	-0.1	-4.5	-6.7	-1.3	-4.4	-5.2	-4.8	-6.7
Senegal	-3.8	-4.9	-5.2	-6.3	-5.6	-5.5	-5.1	-4.6	-4.2
Seychelles	-0.7	4.8	0.5	3.3	2.7	0.3	3.3	1.2	2.7
South Africa	0.0	-4.7	-4.8	-3.9	-4.1	-4.1	-4.1	-4.2	-3.4
Swaziland	1.5	-3.3	-10.6	-4.3	5.3	0.7	-2.0	-3.2	-3.7
Zambia	2.1	-2.1	-2.4	-1.8	-3.2	-6.7	-5.6	-5.1	-5.1
Low-income and fragile countries	**-1.4**	**-2.6**	**-2.4**	**-2.9**	**-2.3**	**-2.5**	**-2.9**	**-3.2**	**-3.1**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**-1.2**	**-3.0**	**-3.1**	**-2.8**	**-2.6**	**-3.2**	**-3.8**	**-3.8**	**-3.7**
Benin	-0.7	-3.3	-0.4	-1.4	-0.3	-2.1	-1.9	-2.5	-4.1
Burkina Faso	-0.8	-4.7	-3.0	-1.4	-3.1	-3.9	-1.9	-2.6	-3.0
Ethiopia[2]	-3.4	-0.9	-1.3	-1.6	-1.2	-1.9	-2.6	-2.9	-2.8
Gambia, The	-3.2	-2.7	-5.2	-4.7	-4.4	-8.5	-8.9	-4.3	-1.6
Mali	4.0	-4.2	-2.9	-4.1	-1.1	-2.9	-4.0	-4.6	-4.3
Mozambique	-2.9	-5.0	-3.9	-4.8	-3.9	-2.7	-8.4	-6.5	-6.0
Niger	7.1	-5.3	-2.4	-1.5	-1.2	-2.6	-5.6	-8.0	-5.3
Rwanda	0.2	0.3	0.4	-1.8	-1.6	-2.6	-3.6	-2.0	-2.3
Sierra Leone	2.2	-2.3	-5.0	-4.6	-5.2	-2.4	-3.1	-4.7	-5.5
Tanzania	-2.5	-4.5	-4.8	-3.6	-4.1	-4.0	-3.9	-4.2	-3.8
Uganda	-0.8	-2.1	-5.8	-2.6	-3.0	-4.1	-3.9	-2.7	-4.5
Fragile countries	**-1.7**	**-1.9**	**-1.1**	**-3.2**	**-1.8**	**-1.6**	**-1.5**	**-2.4**	**-2.1**
Burundi	-2.7	-5.1	-3.6	-3.9	-3.7	-1.7	-3.4	-2.3	-1.6
Central African Rep.	0.5	-0.6	-1.5	-2.4	0.0	-6.3	1.9	-4.8	-4.9
Comoros	-1.7	0.6	7.0	1.4	3.3	17.8	-0.3	-1.2	-2.2
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	-0.3	1.3	2.5	-0.5	1.8	3.1	2.6	1.6	1.6
Côte d'Ivoire	-1.0	-1.4	-1.8	-5.4	-3.1	-2.2	-2.3	-3.2	-3.1
Eritrea	-17.9	-14.7	-16.0	-16.2	-13.5	-12.5	-11.6	-12.2	-12.5
Guinea	-1.5	-7.1	-14.0	-1.3	-3.3	-5.2	-4.3	-10.1	-4.1
Guinea-Bissau	-4.4	4.1	1.6	-0.8	-1.8	-1.4	-1.8	0.1	-2.7
Liberia	1.2	-0.4	2.3	-2.8	-1.6	-4.7	-4.5	-9.5	-7.9
Madagascar	-2.6	-2.5	-0.9	-2.4	-2.6	-4.0	-2.4	-4.0	-3.7
Malawi	-3.2	-4.4	2.6	-5.2	-9.1	-5.8	-4.3	-1.0	
São Tomé & Príncipe	24.9	-18.1	-11.1	-11.7	-10.9	1.9	-5.8	-8.4	-4.0
Togo	-1.4	-3.9	-2.5	-4.0	-7.2	-4.6	-5.8	-4.7	-5.6
Zimbabwe[3]	-3.5	-2.1	0.7	-1.3	-0.6	-1.9	-1.5	-1.2	-2.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	**1.7**	**-4.6**	**-3.4**	**-1.1**	**-1.8**	**-3.0**	**-3.3**	**-3.7**	**-2.9**
Median	-0.7	-3.7	-3.1	-2.6	-1.8	-2.9	-3.9	-4.3	-3.8
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	1.2	-3.8	-1.9	-0.4	-1.9	-3.0	-3.8	-4.6	-3.5
Oil-importing countries	**-0.6**	**-4.1**	**-4.3**	**-3.7**	**-3.7**	**-3.9**	**-4.1**	**-4.1**	**-3.6**
Excluding South Africa	**-1.3**	**-3.5**	**-3.8**	**-3.6**	**-3.4**	**-3.8**	**-4.1**	**-4.1**	**-3.7**
CFA franc zone	4.9	-2.1	-0.7	-0.4	-2.0	-2.3	-3.1	-5.1	-3.4
WAEMU	-0.3	-3.3	-2.6	-4.0	-3.1	-3.2	-3.3	-3.9	-3.8
CEMAC	9.8	-0.9	1.1	2.8	-0.9	-1.4	-2.8	-6.6	-2.9
EAC-5	-1.8	-3.7	-4.5	-3.5	-4.1	-4.6	-5.1	-5.2	-4.8
ECOWAS	3.0	-5.5	-4.4	-0.9	-1.2	-3.1	-2.9	-2.7	-2.3
SADC	0.2	-4.8	-3.2	-1.7	-2.0	-2.9	-3.5	-3.8	-3.0
SACU	0.3	-4.9	-4.9	-3.9	-3.7	-3.7	-3.9	-4.0	-3.4
COMESA (SSA members)	-1.7	-2.2	-2.4	-2.6	-2.2	-3.2	-3.5	-3.7	-3.5
MDRI countries	0.1	-2.6	-2.3	-2.4	-3.2	-3.7	-3.9	-3.9	-3.4
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	4.3	-2.3	-1.5	-1.3	-1.9	-2.6	-3.4	-5.2	-3.9
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	1.3	-5.0	-3.8	-1.2	-1.7	-3.1	-3.3	-3.4	-2.7
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**1.7**	**-4.6**	**-3.4**	**-1.2**	**-1.7**	**-3.0**	**-3.3**	**-3.6**	**-2.9**

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Table SA9. Overall Fiscal Balance, Excluding Grants
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**5.2**	**-5.6**	**-2.3**	**2.1**	**0.4**	**-2.1**	**-2.6**	**-3.3**	**-2.2**
Excluding Nigeria	**5.9**	**-4.7**	**2.2**	**5.5**	**0.8**	**-1.6**	**-3.4**	**-6.7**	**-3.3**
Angola	4.4	-7.4	3.4	8.7	4.6	-0.4	-2.9	-4.7	-2.4
Cameroon	2.3	-0.8	-1.7	-3.1	-2.0	-4.3	-5.5	-6.4	-5.7
Chad	-0.7	-11.9	-5.5	0.8	-2.2	-4.3	-6.2	-5.9	-2.9
Congo, Rep. of	13.2	4.5	16.0	15.9	6.3	8.1	1.9	-7.4	1.3
Equatorial Guinea	20.4	-10.4	-6.4	1.1	-9.8	-7.8	-8.2	-21.4	-7.1
Gabon	8.3	6.9	2.4	2.2	1.7	1.8	3.0	-1.9	-0.3
Nigeria	4.9	-6.0	-4.2	0.4	0.3	-2.4	-2.3	-2.0	-1.7
South Sudan	...	...	...	1.6	-22.0	-10.2	-8.9	-20.6	-11.9
Middle-income countries[1]	**-1.0**	**-5.3**	**-5.4**	**-4.4**	**-4.8**	**-5.0**	**-5.0**	**-5.0**	**-4.3**
Excluding South Africa	**-3.4**	**-6.8**	**-7.1**	**-5.7**	**-6.4**	**-6.7**	**-6.7**	**-6.3**	**-5.5**
Botswana	3.8	-14.5	-7.8	-0.6	0.7	5.1	0.1	0.5	1.5
Cabo Verde	-9.0	-11.0	-17.0	-10.6	-13.1	-11.5	-11.7	-10.7	-8.5
Ghana	-8.3	-10.0	-11.7	-9.4	-13.7	-11.3	-10.5	-7.8	-5.6
Kenya	-2.9	-5.0	-5.0	-4.6	-5.5	-6.2	-7.3	-8.1	-6.6
Lesotho	7.3	-7.0	-12.7	-19.0	-3.7	-7.2	-4.5	-4.1	-15.4
Mauritius	-4.2	-5.2	-3.9	-3.9	-2.5	-3.9	-3.6	-3.9	-3.8
Namibia	1.9	-0.4	-4.6	-6.8	-1.4	-4.5	-5.2	-4.9	-6.8
Senegal	-5.8	-7.9	-7.7	-8.5	-8.5	-8.1	-7.9	-7.4	-6.9
Seychelles	-1.8	0.8	-0.3	0.9	-1.8	-3.7	0.1	-1.2	0.9
South Africa	0.0	-4.7	-4.8	-3.9	-4.1	-4.1	-4.1	-4.2	-3.4
Swaziland	0.9	-3.9	-10.6	-4.3	5.2	0.2	-3.9	-3.8	-4.3
Zambia	-5.7	-4.5	-3.9	-2.4	-5.0	-8.2	-6.0	-5.8	-5.7
Low-income and fragile countries	**-6.2**	**-6.6**	**-6.6**	**-6.3**	**-5.1**	**-5.3**	**-5.5**	**-6.0**	**-5.7**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**-7.6**	**-7.8**	**-7.5**	**-6.8**	**-5.9**	**-6.3**	**-6.4**	**-6.5**	**-6.2**
Benin	-3.0	-6.5	-1.9	-4.0	-2.3	-3.1	-3.5	-5.1	-6.7
Burkina Faso	-10.2	-10.6	-7.5	-6.4	-8.0	-9.3	-6.1	-7.4	-7.3
Ethiopia[2]	-7.5	-5.2	-4.5	-4.8	-2.9	-3.5	-3.8	-4.7	-4.5
Gambia, The	-4.8	-6.9	-9.2	-9.9	-13.3	-10.8	-12.7	-9.6	-5.2
Mali	-6.9	-8.8	-5.8	-8.0	-1.4	-6.5	-9.4	-8.2	-7.5
Mozambique	-9.8	-13.5	-12.1	-12.2	-9.0	-8.0	-12.5	-10.0	-9.0
Niger	-7.6	-9.7	-7.0	-5.2	-7.5	-10.9	-11.2	-15.3	-12.3
Rwanda	-10.0	-11.2	-12.9	-12.6	-10.9	-11.2	-10.9	-7.5	-6.6
Sierra Leone	-7.5	-8.4	-10.3	-10.1	-9.0	-5.0	-7.0	-9.2	-9.7
Tanzania	-7.2	-8.1	-8.3	-6.9	-7.0	-6.4	-5.8	-6.2	-5.8
Uganda	-5.3	-4.4	-8.4	-4.3	-5.0	-5.1	-5.0	-4.1	-5.4
Fragile countries	**-4.7**	**-4.9**	**-5.4**	**-5.8**	**-4.3**	**-4.0**	**-4.3**	**-5.3**	**-4.9**
Burundi	-18.7	-24.0	-26.3	-24.5	-20.5	-18.1	-16.4	-16.0	-14.5
Central African Rep.	-5.5	-5.9	-7.0	-4.9	-4.9	-9.0	-10.9	-14.3	-10.3
Comoros	-7.8	-9.1	-7.8	-6.0	-6.0	-9.7	-9.2	-10.2	-10.9
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	-1.9	-3.2	-5.7	-4.0	-1.1	0.7	0.8	-1.4	-1.7
Côte d'Ivoire	-2.0	-1.9	-2.3	-5.8	-3.7	-3.6	-4.6	-5.2	-5.1
Eritrea	-24.8	-17.3	-21.3	-19.4	-14.7	-13.0	-12.1	-12.6	-12.8
Guinea	-2.5	-7.5	-14.4	-4.7	-6.0	-6.7	-11.4	-12.9	-6.8
Guinea-Bissau	-13.1	-11.8	-7.9	-7.4	-4.3	-5.2	-11.6	-8.1	-11.1
Liberia	1.0	-2.8	0.5	-4.5	-4.0	-7.8	-10.5	-15.3	-10.2
Madagascar	-9.2	-4.2	-2.8	-4.3	-3.8	-5.2	-4.5	-5.9	-5.5
Malawi	-15.6	-13.7	-10.1	-10.1	-15.3	-18.6	-11.1	-10.6	-7.1
São Tomé & Príncipe	-15.0	-32.5	-29.7	-29.6	-28.6	-11.0	-16.1	-17.0	-19.3
Togo	-2.7	-5.4	-4.5	-7.2	-8.8	-7.6	-7.9	-6.9	-9.1
Zimbabwe[3]	-3.5	-2.6	0.7	-1.3	-0.6	-1.9	-1.5	-1.2	-2.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	**0.4**	**-5.7**	**-4.3**	**-1.9**	**-2.5**	**-3.7**	**-4.0**	**-4.4**	**-3.6**
Median	-4.5	-6.9	-6.7	-4.8	-4.9	-6.4	-6.2	-7.4	-6.6
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	-2.0	-6.1	-4.1	-2.2	-3.6	-4.5	-5.2	-6.3	-5.0
Oil-importing countries	**-2.4**	**-5.7**	**-5.8**	**-5.0**	**-4.9**	**-5.1**	**-5.2**	**-5.4**	**-4.8**
Excluding South Africa	**-5.1**	**-6.6**	**-6.8**	**-6.1**	**-5.6**	**-5.8**	**-6.0**	**-6.1**	**-5.7**
CFA franc zone	1.3	-4.1	-2.1	-1.8	-3.4	-4.1	-5.1	-7.3	-5.3
WAEMU	-4.9	-6.2	-4.9	-6.5	-5.2	-6.2	-6.6	-7.1	-6.9
CEMAC	7.3	-1.7	0.6	2.3	-1.6	-2.0	-3.5	-7.4	-3.5
EAC-5	-5.4	-6.6	-7.6	-6.2	-6.5	-6.6	-6.8	-6.9	-6.3
ECOWAS	1.8	-6.3	-5.0	-1.5	-1.6	-3.6	-3.5	-3.3	-2.9
SADC	-0.6	-5.6	-4.0	-2.3	-2.6	-3.4	-3.9	-4.4	-3.6
SACU	0.2	-4.9	-5.0	-3.9	-3.8	-3.7	-4.0	-4.0	-3.4
COMESA (SSA members)	-5.4	-5.3	-5.7	-4.8	-4.3	-5.0	-4.8	-5.4	-5.1
MDRI countries	-5.2	-6.4	-6.0	-5.4	-5.8	-6.0	-6.0	-6.3	-5.6
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	1.0	-4.2	-3.0	-2.8	-3.4	-4.3	-5.3	-7.2	-5.8
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	0.3	-6.0	-4.6	-1.8	-2.3	-3.6	-3.7	-3.9	-3.3
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**0.4**	**-5.7**	**-4.3**	**-2.0**	**-2.4**	**-3.6**	**-3.9**	**-4.3**	**-3.6**

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Table SA10. Government Revenue, Excluding Grants
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**26.0**	**17.8**	**19.0**	**24.4**	**21.5**	**18.0**	**15.7**	**12.8**	**14.2**
Excluding Nigeria	**35.0**	**30.6**	**34.7**	**37.8**	**37.3**	**33.7**	**30.3**	**24.1**	**26.3**
Angola	45.5	34.5	43.5	48.8	45.9	40.4	34.2	25.6	28.3
Cameroon	18.2	16.7	16.0	17.5	17.5	17.6	17.1	16.0	16.5
Chad	14.1	12.3	18.9	23.2	21.8	18.5	15.9	11.7	15.6
Congo, Rep. of	39.6	29.1	37.5	42.0	42.5	46.5	42.9	39.3	40.1
Equatorial Guinea	42.6	53.7	37.6	38.4	38.0	34.7	34.0	38.5	31.9
Gabon	28.1	30.0	23.3	26.4	31.9	31.0	27.9	23.0	24.6
Nigeria	21.8	11.2	12.4	17.7	14.3	11.0	9.8	8.6	9.2
South Sudan	...	...	...	22.6	11.4	14.1	24.7	21.1	28.5
Middle-income countries[1]	**25.4**	**25.0**	**24.8**	**25.4**	**25.5**	**25.4**	**26.0**	**26.0**	**26.2**
Excluding South Africa	**21.7**	**20.3**	**20.1**	**21.5**	**21.8**	**21.2**	**22.5**	**22.3**	**22.0**
Botswana	41.3	36.4	32.1	35.8	36.4	37.6	35.5	34.9	31.0
Cabo Verde	22.7	21.9	21.7	22.7	21.6	21.8	21.1	22.1	22.9
Ghana	13.6	13.4	14.4	17.1	17.0	16.0	17.7	17.8	18.4
Kenya	18.7	18.1	19.2	19.0	18.7	19.1	20.0	20.8	21.6
Lesotho	57.0	60.4	46.3	46.1	59.4	55.3	59.6	56.8	47.8
Mauritius	19.4	21.2	21.2	20.7	20.8	21.0	20.5	20.6	20.7
Namibia	28.5	30.8	27.8	29.8	32.1	30.2	33.2	33.2	30.0
Senegal	19.5	18.6	19.3	20.3	20.4	20.1	21.1	21.1	21.0
Seychelles	36.5	32.9	34.2	35.6	34.2	31.9	32.0	31.7	31.6
South Africa	26.8	27.0	26.7	27.0	27.2	27.6	28.0	28.3	29.0
Swaziland	34.4	33.4	23.9	24.2	35.9	34.4	34.4	32.1	29.0
Zambia	15.2	13.3	14.2	16.9	17.4	16.9	18.7	17.3	17.4
Low-income and fragile countries	**13.1**	**13.6**	**14.9**	**15.3**	**15.9**	**16.3**	**16.2**	**16.3**	**16.6**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**13.2**	**13.4**	**14.3**	**14.7**	**15.0**	**15.9**	**16.0**	**16.2**	**16.6**
Benin	18.2	18.5	18.6	17.6	18.8	19.4	18.2	18.6	19.0
Burkina Faso	13.1	13.6	15.3	15.7	17.5	18.5	17.3	17.3	17.6
Ethiopia[2]	13.9	11.9	14.0	13.4	13.8	14.3	14.0	14.4	14.6
Gambia, The	15.9	16.2	14.9	16.1	16.4	16.3	18.7	21.0	21.5
Mali	16.9	17.1	17.2	17.0	17.1	17.4	17.5	18.3	18.9
Mozambique	12.9	15.8	17.9	19.7	22.4	26.9	27.8	25.6	25.8
Niger	13.7	14.3	13.6	14.2	15.9	17.0	18.0	18.2	19.2
Rwanda	12.7	12.6	13.0	13.8	15.0	16.4	16.5	17.8	18.5
Sierra Leone	8.8	9.1	9.9	11.5	11.4	10.7	9.5	9.1	9.6
Tanzania	10.8	12.0	12.1	12.4	12.8	13.3	13.8	14.3	14.7
Uganda	11.0	10.6	10.9	12.4	11.7	11.7	12.3	13.0	13.5
Fragile countries	**13.5**	**14.5**	**16.5**	**16.9**	**17.7**	**17.4**	**17.1**	**17.0**	**17.2**
Burundi	13.9	13.9	14.5	15.3	14.5	13.3	13.7	13.4	13.8
Central African Rep.	9.4	10.8	11.6	10.8	11.5	5.7	4.6	6.5	8.5
Comoros	14.1	13.9	14.3	16.1	19.3	15.5	14.6	15.2	15.8
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	8.6	10.7	12.2	12.2	14.4	13.3	12.5	12.7	13.1
Côte d'Ivoire	17.5	18.0	17.7	18.8	18.4	18.5	18.5	17.5	17.8
Eritrea	22.3	13.3	13.3	14.2	16.0	16.8	16.9	16.2	15.7
Guinea	14.1	16.2	15.3	16.8	20.1	18.4	18.7	20.7	20.4
Guinea-Bissau	9.0	9.1	10.8	10.1	9.4	8.8	13.0	16.2	14.3
Liberia	15.1	20.6	25.0	24.3	26.0	25.0	20.5	20.6	22.2
Madagascar	11.7	9.9	11.2	9.7	9.6	9.6	10.0	10.7	11.6
Malawi	21.0	24.0	27.5	25.0	26.0	30.7	31.4	30.3	30.3
São Tomé & Príncipe	27.7	16.3	17.5	18.4	16.3	20.6	15.6	16.5	17.0
Togo	16.4	15.8	18.0	16.7	17.6	18.0	17.8	18.3	18.4
Zimbabwe[3]	6.1	11.4	23.3	26.7	28.0	27.7	27.6	27.9	27.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	**23.4**	**19.9**	**20.7**	**23.3**	**22.0**	**20.2**	**19.1**	**18.0**	**18.8**
Median	16.6	16.2	17.6	17.7	18.4	18.5	18.5	18.3	19.0
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	22.0	20.3	22.3	24.6	24.3	23.2	22.2	20.0	20.7
Oil-importing countries	**21.9**	**21.2**	**21.9**	**22.5**	**22.5**	**22.2**	**22.4**	**22.3**	**22.4**
Excluding South Africa	**16.6**	**16.1**	**17.0**	**17.8**	**18.3**	**18.2**	**18.5**	**18.6**	**18.6**
CFA franc zone	21.7	21.0	21.0	22.9	23.4	22.9	21.7	20.1	20.6
WAEMU	16.9	17.0	17.3	17.7	18.1	18.5	18.5	18.4	18.7
CEMAC	26.2	25.4	24.5	27.5	28.4	27.4	25.1	22.1	22.9
EAC-5	14.3	14.3	14.8	15.2	15.2	15.6	16.2	17.0	17.7
ECOWAS	20.0	12.6	13.4	17.7	15.1	12.5	11.5	10.7	11.4
SADC	26.8	25.7	27.0	28.5	28.6	28.0	27.0	25.2	25.7
SACU	27.6	27.6	27.0	27.5	27.9	28.3	28.7	29.0	29.2
COMESA (SSA members)	15.0	14.5	16.1	16.4	16.9	16.9	17.1	17.3	17.6
MDRI countries	14.9	14.3	15.5	16.6	16.8	17.0	17.1	16.7	17.2
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	22.8	22.2	21.7	23.6	24.6	23.8	22.9	21.5	21.5
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	23.7	19.5	20.5	23.3	21.7	19.7	18.5	17.3	18.2
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**23.4**	**19.9**	**20.7**	**23.3**	**22.1**	**20.3**	**19.1**	**17.9**	**18.7**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA11. Government Expenditure
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**20.8**	**23.4**	**21.3**	**22.4**	**21.1**	**20.1**	**18.3**	**16.1**	**16.3**
Excluding Nigeria	**29.0**	**35.3**	**32.5**	**32.4**	**36.5**	**35.3**	**33.7**	**30.8**	**29.6**
Angola	41.1	41.9	40.0	40.2	41.3	40.8	37.1	30.3	30.6
Cameroon	15.9	17.5	17.7	20.5	19.5	21.9	22.7	22.4	22.2
Chad	14.9	24.2	24.4	22.4	23.9	22.9	22.1	17.6	18.5
Congo, Rep. of	26.4	24.7	21.4	26.1	36.2	38.4	41.0	46.6	38.8
Equatorial Guinea	22.2	64.1	43.9	37.3	47.8	42.6	42.2	59.9	39.0
Gabon	19.8	23.1	20.9	24.1	30.2	29.2	25.0	24.9	25.0
Nigeria	16.9	17.2	16.7	17.3	14.1	13.4	12.1	10.6	10.9
South Sudan	...	...	...	21.0	33.4	24.2	33.6	41.7	40.4
Middle-income countries[1]	**26.3**	**30.3**	**30.3**	**29.8**	**30.3**	**30.4**	**31.1**	**31.0**	**30.5**
Excluding South Africa	**25.2**	**27.1**	**27.2**	**27.2**	**28.2**	**27.9**	**29.1**	**28.6**	**27.5**
Botswana	37.5	50.9	39.9	36.4	35.7	32.4	35.4	34.4	29.5
Cabo Verde	31.7	32.8	38.7	33.3	34.6	33.2	32.7	32.8	31.4
Ghana	21.8	23.5	26.1	26.5	30.7	27.3	28.2	25.5	24.0
Kenya	21.6	23.1	24.2	23.6	24.2	25.3	27.3	28.9	28.2
Lesotho	49.8	67.4	59.0	65.1	63.1	62.6	64.1	60.9	63.2
Mauritius	23.7	26.3	25.1	24.6	23.3	24.0	24.0	24.4	24.4
Namibia	26.6	31.1	32.4	36.6	33.5	34.7	38.4	38.1	36.7
Senegal	25.3	26.5	27.1	28.8	28.9	28.2	29.0	28.5	27.9
Seychelles	38.3	32.1	34.6	34.7	36.1	35.6	31.9	32.8	30.6
South Africa	26.8	31.7	31.5	30.9	31.3	31.7	32.1	32.5	32.4
Swaziland	33.5	37.3	34.5	28.5	30.7	34.2	38.3	35.8	33.4
Zambia	21.0	17.8	18.1	19.3	22.3	25.1	24.6	23.1	23.1
Low-income and fragile countries	**19.4**	**20.2**	**21.5**	**21.6**	**21.0**	**21.5**	**21.7**	**22.3**	**22.3**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**20.8**	**21.3**	**21.8**	**21.5**	**20.9**	**22.2**	**22.4**	**22.7**	**22.9**
Benin	21.2	25.0	20.4	21.6	21.0	22.4	21.7	23.8	25.8
Burkina Faso	23.3	24.2	22.8	22.1	25.5	27.8	23.3	24.7	24.9
Ethiopia[2]	21.5	17.1	18.5	18.2	16.6	17.8	17.7	19.1	19.1
Gambia, The	20.7	23.1	24.0	26.0	29.7	27.1	31.4	30.6	26.7
Mali	23.8	25.9	23.0	25.0	18.5	23.9	26.8	26.5	26.4
Mozambique	22.7	29.4	30.0	31.9	31.4	34.9	40.3	35.6	34.8
Niger	21.3	23.9	20.6	19.4	23.4	27.8	29.2	33.5	31.4
Rwanda	22.7	23.9	25.9	26.5	25.9	27.6	27.4	25.3	25.1
Sierra Leone	16.4	17.5	20.2	21.6	20.4	15.7	16.4	18.3	19.3
Tanzania	18.0	20.2	20.4	19.3	19.8	19.7	19.6	20.4	20.5
Uganda	16.3	15.0	19.3	16.7	16.6	16.8	17.3	17.1	18.9
Fragile countries	**18.2**	**19.4**	**21.9**	**22.6**	**22.0**	**21.4**	**21.3**	**22.3**	**22.1**
Burundi	32.6	38.0	40.8	39.8	35.1	31.4	30.1	29.3	28.3
Central African Rep.	14.9	16.6	18.6	15.7	16.4	14.7	15.5	20.9	18.8
Comoros	21.9	23.0	22.1	22.1	25.3	25.2	23.8	25.4	26.6
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	10.6	13.9	17.9	16.2	15.5	12.7	11.7	14.1	14.9
Côte d'Ivoire	19.5	19.9	20.0	24.6	22.1	22.1	23.1	22.7	22.9
Eritrea	47.1	30.6	34.6	33.6	30.7	29.8	29.0	28.8	28.5
Guinea	16.5	23.7	29.7	21.5	26.1	25.1	30.1	33.6	27.2
Guinea-Bissau	22.1	20.9	18.7	17.5	13.7	14.0	24.6	24.2	25.3
Liberia	14.1	23.4	24.5	28.8	30.0	32.8	31.0	35.9	32.5
Madagascar	20.9	14.1	14.0	14.1	13.4	14.9	14.5	16.6	17.0
Malawi	36.5	37.7	37.6	35.0	41.2	49.3	42.4	40.9	37.5
São Tomé & Príncipe	42.6	48.8	47.3	48.0	44.9	31.6	31.7	33.5	36.3
Togo	19.1	21.2	22.5	23.8	26.4	25.5	25.7	25.3	27.6
Zimbabwe[3]	9.6	14.0	22.6	27.9	28.6	29.7	29.0	29.1	29.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	**23.0**	**25.5**	**25.0**	**25.2**	**24.6**	**23.9**	**23.1**	**22.4**	**22.4**
Median	21.9	23.9	24.1	24.6	26.4	27.3	28.2	28.5	27.2
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	23.9	26.4	26.4	26.8	27.9	27.6	27.4	26.3	25.7
Oil-importing countries	**24.4**	**27.0**	**27.7**	**27.4**	**27.4**	**27.3**	**27.6**	**27.6**	**27.3**
Excluding South Africa	**21.7**	**22.8**	**23.8**	**23.9**	**23.9**	**24.1**	**24.5**	**24.7**	**24.3**
CFA franc zone	20.4	25.1	23.1	24.8	26.8	27.0	26.8	27.3	25.9
WAEMU	21.8	23.2	22.2	24.2	23.4	24.7	25.1	25.5	25.6
CEMAC	18.9	27.1	23.9	25.2	30.0	29.3	28.6	29.5	26.3
EAC-5	19.7	20.8	22.5	21.4	21.6	22.1	23.0	23.9	24.0
ECOWAS	18.2	19.0	18.3	19.1	16.8	16.2	15.0	14.0	14.3
SADC	27.5	31.4	31.1	30.8	31.2	31.4	31.0	29.6	29.4
SACU	27.4	32.5	32.0	31.4	31.7	32.0	32.7	33.0	32.7
COMESA (SSA members)	20.4	19.8	21.8	21.3	21.2	21.9	21.9	22.7	22.7
MDRI countries	20.1	20.7	21.5	21.9	22.6	23.0	23.0	23.0	22.8
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	21.9	26.4	24.7	26.3	27.9	28.1	28.2	28.7	27.3
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	23.4	25.5	25.1	25.1	24.0	23.3	22.2	21.3	21.5
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**23.0**	**25.5**	**25.0**	**25.3**	**24.5**	**23.9**	**23.0**	**22.2**	**22.3**

Sources and footnotes on page 72

Table SA12. Government Debt
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**21.7**	**19.1**	**15.2**	**14.5**	**14.7**	**15.9**	**16.7**	**19.1**	**19.2**
Excluding Nigeria	**34.2**	**37.7**	**28.6**	**23.2**	**24.1**	**28.4**	**32.1**	**39.6**	**38.7**
Angola	27.4	49.9	39.8	32.2	29.6	35.2	38.0	47.5	44.3
Cameroon	30.1	10.1	11.5	13.2	15.4	18.6	23.9	30.1	33.6
Chad	24.8	31.7	20.7	20.7	17.9	18.7	25.0	23.7	21.6
Congo, Rep. of	114.4	61.6	22.9	33.1	34.1	38.2	42.3	51.6	44.3
Equatorial Guinea	2.4	7.2	11.2	7.7	10.2	9.0	7.6	23.6	28.2
Gabon	40.4	23.6	18.6	16.3	21.1	27.0	27.8	33.7	35.1
Nigeria	16.0	9.6	9.6	10.2	10.4	10.5	10.5	11.5	11.2
South Sudan	...	...	...	0.0	6.3	13.5	23.7	18.0	23.3
Middle-income countries[1]	**31.2**	**31.5**	**34.9**	**37.3**	**39.9**	**42.8**	**46.0**	**47.5**	**48.0**
Excluding South Africa	**35.3**	**34.2**	**36.3**	**36.5**	**38.7**	**41.8**	**46.1**	**47.5**	**47.7**
Botswana	8.0	18.0	19.5	20.1	19.2	17.6	14.4	12.7	11.4
Cabo Verde	73.8	65.2	72.4	78.8	91.0	99.5	112.2	121.1	123.2
Ghana	39.2	36.2	46.5	42.6	49.1	55.1	67.6	69.6	67.5
Kenya	45.2	41.1	44.4	43.0	40.8	42.2	48.6	50.1	50.8
Lesotho	57.4	37.6	36.2	38.8	40.8	42.0	45.9	48.7	49.5
Mauritius	49.5	52.1	51.9	52.1	51.5	53.8	52.8	53.6	54.1
Namibia	23.0	15.9	15.5	23.2	24.0	23.7	25.2	26.3	26.4
Senegal	32.5	34.0	35.5	40.7	43.4	47.1	50.7	52.0	52.6
Seychelles	140.1	123.5	81.9	73.9	77.1	64.1	64.6	63.7	58.9
South Africa	29.8	30.3	34.4	37.6	40.5	43.3	45.9	47.5	48.2
Swaziland	16.5	11.8	15.9	16.6	17.4	17.8	16.2	18.1	20.9
Zambia	20.4	20.5	18.9	20.6	25.5	28.8	31.1	32.4	33.8
Low-income and fragile countries	**62.2**	**43.3**	**37.7**	**39.1**	**32.3**	**33.1**	**34.0**	**35.3**	**35.5**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**43.4**	**27.0**	**29.1**	**29.0**	**28.2**	**30.3**	**32.2**	**34.3**	**35.0**
Benin	26.8	27.3	30.2	31.9	29.2	29.8	30.9	32.3	34.4
Burkina Faso	32.6	28.5	29.3	29.8	28.4	28.8	28.3	30.6	29.9
Ethiopia[2]	57.1	24.9	27.4	25.7	20.9	21.6	21.9	21.7	21.8
Gambia, The	107.3	62.6	69.6	77.3	77.0	83.3	100.2	100.0	90.8
Mali	32.7	24.9	28.7	29.1	30.3	31.6	31.5	37.6	37.9
Mozambique	50.2	41.1	41.8	37.5	41.1	46.9	55.4	61.3	61.9
Niger	43.0	27.7	23.9	27.1	27.4	26.7	36.4	46.8	47.0
Rwanda	47.1	22.6	22.8	23.7	23.7	29.0	28.0	29.1	31.2
Sierra Leone	94.0	48.1	46.8	44.9	36.9	34.4	38.8	46.3	43.0
Tanzania	33.5	24.3	27.5	28.0	29.2	31.4	33.2	34.7	34.8
Uganda	35.0	18.8	23.6	23.3	24.6	27.4	30.4	35.3	40.0
Fragile countries	**90.8**	**70.5**	**51.4**	**55.2**	**40.2**	**39.1**	**38.0**	**37.6**	**36.9**
Burundi	134.4	25.7	40.3	36.9	36.3	32.8	30.5	26.7	24.4
Central African Rep.	93.3	36.8	32.3	32.6	30.5	50.6	41.8	42.2	42.3
Comoros	65.1	53.5	50.3	46.1	42.5	18.1	20.0	19.8	19.2
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	96.6	89.8	27.2	23.0	19.9	18.9	19.7	20.5	21.0
Côte d'Ivoire	76.6	64.2	63.0	93.3	44.8	39.9	36.4	34.7	33.4
Eritrea	156.0	144.6	143.8	133.0	125.8	126.0	125.3	129.2	127.7
Guinea	117.8	89.3	99.6	77.8	35.4	39.5	37.4	35.4	30.5
Guinea-Bissau	197.5	159.2	52.9	49.6	54.1	57.7	61.0	63.8	57.3
Liberia	546.5	172.4	32.1	28.5	26.0	26.6	33.2	40.2	42.6
Madagascar	56.8	33.4	31.9	32.4	33.7	34.0	34.9	35.1	38.7
Malawi	79.4	43.4	37.4	41.8	53.4	72.9	62.0	54.5	47.6
São Tomé & Príncipe	207.2	68.0	75.3	71.7	78.3	71.4	68.2	72.9	74.0
Togo	93.4	73.4	47.3	44.6	46.6	49.2	54.7	54.7	54.1
Zimbabwe[3]	50.6	68.3	63.2	51.8	56.7	54.2	54.0	55.2	54.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	**32.8**	**29.0**	**27.2**	**27.7**	**27.4**	**28.5**	**29.6**	**32.0**	**32.4**
Median	49.8	36.5	33.3	32.6	33.7	34.0	36.4	37.6	40.0
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	46.3	39.2	34.6	33.0	31.4	34.0	36.6	39.8	39.7
Oil-importing countries	**39.8**	**35.4**	**35.7**	**37.8**	**37.5**	**39.4**	**41.5**	**42.8**	**43.1**
Excluding South Africa	**51.2**	**39.9**	**37.1**	**38.0**	**34.9**	**36.6**	**38.5**	**39.9**	**40.1**
CFA franc zone	46.6	34.5	29.3	34.0	28.2	29.6	31.6	36.2	36.4
WAEMU	53.0	44.8	42.6	52.8	37.8	37.2	37.7	39.5	39.1
CEMAC	40.6	23.5	16.6	17.6	19.1	22.0	25.3	32.2	33.1
EAC-5	41.3	29.9	33.6	33.0	32.8	35.0	38.7	40.9	42.2
ECOWAS	28.2	20.1	18.4	19.9	17.6	18.1	18.0	19.7	19.8
SADC	32.8	35.8	34.1	34.9	36.3	38.8	40.8	43.3	43.1
SACU	28.9	29.4	33.2	36.5	39.1	41.4	43.6	44.9	45.5
COMESA (SSA members)	54.3	40.8	35.0	33.5	32.7	34.0	35.9	36.8	37.7
MDRI countries	51.6	34.1	29.3	29.5	30.3	33.0	35.4	37.5	37.9
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	46.1	34.8	30.2	34.9	30.0	31.4	33.5	38.2	38.5
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	30.3	27.6	26.4	26.8	26.8	27.9	28.8	31.1	31.4
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**32.8**	**29.0**	**27.2**	**28.1**	**27.5**	**28.6**	**29.6**	**32.2**	**32.5**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA13. Broad Money
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**16.9**	**28.0**	**22.4**	**21.0**	**23.2**	**22.0**	**22.2**	**24.2**	**24.0**
Excluding Nigeria	**18.1**	**30.6**	**27.1**	**26.5**	**28.1**	**29.1**	**32.0**	**37.9**	**38.7**
Angola	21.9	42.5	35.3	37.6	35.0	36.7	40.5	50.7	51.2
Cameroon	19.4	22.3	23.4	24.2	22.7	23.3	23.9	23.8	23.7
Chad	9.0	11.1	11.5	12.1	12.4	13.3	15.7	16.0	15.5
Congo, Rep. of	16.0	22.5	23.8	28.0	33.0	34.8	39.4	48.4	43.9
Equatorial Guinea	8.2	16.9	17.3	14.4	20.1	23.5	26.1	36.3	28.7
Gabon	16.7	20.7	17.7	18.6	24.6	26.0	26.3	28.3	27.3
Nigeria	16.5	27.1	20.8	18.8	21.3	19.3	18.6	19.2	19.0
South Sudan	...	...	...	9.2	20.9	14.5	20.6	17.1	...
Middle-income countries[1]	**60.6**	**64.6**	**63.4**	**62.1**	**60.8**	**59.6**	**60.0**	**60.0**	**60.0**
Excluding South Africa	**36.3**	**39.2**	**40.4**	**40.0**	**40.2**	**40.4**	**42.3**	**42.8**	**43.5**
Botswana	46.5	53.5	46.6	43.4	46.7	45.2	46.0	46.9	47.2
Cabo Verde	75.1	77.5	80.1	78.5	81.9	89.0	88.5	92.0	95.7
Ghana	22.8	28.0	29.9	30.4	30.0	28.4	32.5	33.8	35.2
Kenya	35.7	36.5	40.1	40.6	40.6	42.0	43.6	44.1	45.2
Lesotho	32.6	39.1	41.4	37.6	37.1	39.2	42.0	43.1	42.6
Mauritius	98.5	99.5	100.4	98.9	100.5	99.8	102.5	102.0	101.2
Namibia	44.5	65.8	64.4	62.5	62.5	62.5	62.5	62.5	62.5
Senegal	34.7	36.8	39.7	40.0	40.4	42.8	43.8	44.7	44.7
Seychelles	84.6	55.5	62.1	57.6	48.6	54.9	60.6	59.9	59.9
South Africa	72.5	77.7	75.8	74.6	72.7	71.1	71.0	71.0	71.0
Swaziland	22.4	28.8	29.2	29.1	29.0	30.6	29.2	28.6	29.2
Zambia	18.0	17.8	18.4	18.9	20.0	21.4	21.6	21.7	22.2
Low-income and fragile countries	**22.1**	**23.3**	**25.6**	**26.2**	**25.4**	**26.0**	**27.2**	**28.2**	**28.9**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**23.9**	**24.0**	**26.2**	**26.4**	**26.1**	**26.9**	**28.4**	**29.7**	**30.7**
Benin	33.2	41.7	44.5	45.8	44.7	49.1	54.6	60.2	65.9
Burkina Faso	23.9	28.0	29.7	29.7	30.5	31.9	35.1	37.8	40.3
Ethiopia[2]	34.6	24.8	27.0	27.6	25.3	27.1	28.4	29.5	29.8
Gambia, The	39.0	48.7	49.9	55.7	54.5	56.6	59.3	60.7	62.0
Mali	28.8	28.1	27.7	29.6	32.2	33.8	33.5	36.5	40.0
Mozambique	17.2	24.6	24.7	27.5	31.3	34.2	39.0	40.1	40.5
Niger	15.6	18.5	20.3	20.2	23.5	23.9	28.0	28.4	28.7
Rwanda	16.7	17.5	18.5	20.3	20.1	21.1	22.5	21.8	21.9
Sierra Leone	16.7	22.6	23.5	23.2	22.0	19.5	20.9	24.4	23.6
Tanzania	20.9	23.3	25.3	24.9	23.9	23.1	24.0	24.6	25.0
Uganda	16.7	17.6	22.3	19.3	19.8	20.1	21.2	22.4	23.9
Fragile countries	**19.2**	**22.0**	**24.6**	**26.3**	**24.8**	**24.7**	**24.9**	**25.3**	**25.5**
Burundi	22.3	24.3	25.3	22.5	20.6	19.7	18.9	18.9	18.9
Central African Rep.	15.9	16.1	17.8	19.2	18.3	28.0	28.1	28.1	28.1
Comoros	25.6	30.4	34.1	34.9	38.3	36.9	36.9	36.9	36.9
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	6.6	10.2	10.6	11.0	11.6	11.2	11.4	11.9	12.9
Côte d'Ivoire	11.3	14.1	15.7	18.9	15.1	15.0	15.5	16.5	17.2
Eritrea	130.2	121.6	123.2	114.7	110.4	114.8	117.0	119.7	119.7
Guinea	20.2	26.9	38.2	33.6	28.9	30.4	31.8	32.9	32.4
Guinea-Bissau	19.1	24.6	29.7	33.3	33.3	40.0	48.4	48.4	48.4
Liberia	19.5	31.4	35.5	42.0	36.3	34.8	29.6	30.9	30.9
Madagascar	23.6	24.5	24.7	26.1	25.7	25.2	24.9	25.4	25.6
Malawi	20.4	24.4	28.5	35.7	36.6	36.9	33.2	32.8	32.8
São Tomé & Príncipe	33.2	34.9	36.6	34.9	38.0	38.3	40.1	40.5	41.5
Togo	33.4	41.3	45.6	46.9	45.3	46.5	47.8	48.1	48.2
Zimbabwe[3]	10.7	16.9	24.7	28.3	29.6	28.8	32.0	33.5	33.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	**35.3**	**40.5**	**37.9**	**36.7**	**37.0**	**36.0**	**36.3**	**37.2**	**37.3**
Median	22.1	27.0	28.9	29.6	30.5	31.9	32.5	33.8	34.1
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	25.2	29.5	30.1	30.1	30.2	30.8	32.5	34.5	35.2
Oil-importing countries	**46.9**	**49.2**	**49.2**	**48.5**	**47.2**	**46.5**	**46.8**	**47.0**	**47.1**
Excluding South Africa	**27.4**	**29.1**	**31.1**	**31.3**	**30.9**	**31.3**	**32.7**	**33.5**	**34.2**
CFA franc zone	19.0	22.9	23.9	25.2	25.8	27.2	28.9	31.1	31.1
WAEMU	22.6	26.0	27.9	29.7	28.9	30.0	31.7	33.3	34.8
CEMAC	15.1	19.4	19.6	20.3	22.5	24.1	25.7	28.6	26.8
EAC-5	25.6	26.6	29.8	29.1	28.9	29.2	30.4	31.0	31.8
ECOWAS	18.4	27.2	23.0	21.8	23.5	22.0	22.1	23.0	23.1
SADC	53.6	58.9	56.9	56.2	54.7	53.6	53.9	55.0	54.8
SACU	69.9	75.7	73.6	72.2	70.7	69.1	69.0	69.0	69.0
COMESA (SSA members)	30.0	28.8	31.2	31.2	30.8	31.6	32.4	32.8	33.3
MDRI countries	22.3	23.8	25.6	26.1	26.0	26.5	28.1	29.2	29.9
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	23.2	27.6	28.5	29.4	30.0	31.3	32.8	34.8	34.8
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	37.8	42.8	39.6	38.4	38.3	37.0	37.0	37.8	37.7
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**35.3**	**40.5**	**37.9**	**37.1**	**37.1**	**36.2**	**36.4**	**37.4**	**37.3**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA14. Broad Money Growth
(Percent)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**36.7**	**16.3**	**8.7**	**9.3**	**24.3**	**3.3**	**8.9**	**10.7**	**13.5**
Excluding Nigeria	**36.1**	**14.1**	**13.8**	**26.2**	**12.1**	**10.0**	**13.3**	**10.6**	**9.1**
Angola	64.7	21.5	5.3	37.1	4.9	14.1	16.1	18.5	14.7
Cameroon	10.5	6.9	11.3	10.6	1.4	10.8	9.6	6.4	6.6
Chad	23.4	-4.6	25.3	14.2	13.4	8.6	26.5	3.6	8.2
Congo, Rep. of	28.7	5.0	38.9	34.5	21.1	0.7	13.1	8.7	7.4
Equatorial Guinea	30.7	29.9	33.5	7.7	57.8	7.3	1.7	-8.3	-12.8
Gabon	14.2	2.2	19.2	26.5	15.7	8.0	1.4	4.2	4.0
Nigeria	37.2	17.1	6.9	4.0	29.1	0.9	7.3	10.8	15.0
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	37.6	-1.6	20.4	6.7	...
Middle-income countries[1]	**19.1**	**5.7**	**11.9**	**11.6**	**9.1**	**9.5**	**11.6**	**10.4**	**10.8**
Excluding South Africa	**19.7**	**13.8**	**21.7**	**17.9**	**16.0**	**15.7**	**19.2**	**15.0**	**15.4**
Botswana	17.4	-1.3	12.4	4.3	13.9	8.6	16.3	10.5	9.4
Cabo Verde	12.5	3.5	5.4	4.6	6.3	11.4	1.4	9.3	10.9
Ghana	31.3	26.0	34.4	32.2	24.3	19.1	36.8	22.3	21.4
Kenya	14.9	16.0	21.6	19.1	14.1	15.6	16.7	14.9	16.9
Lesotho	16.8	17.7	14.5	1.6	7.0	21.2	13.6	11.7	8.0
Mauritius	13.0	2.4	6.9	6.4	8.2	5.8	8.7	6.7	6.6
Namibia	30.4	7.0	7.5	5.9	18.8	18.3	12.8	11.0	12.7
Senegal	9.5	10.9	14.1	6.7	6.8	8.0	7.7	9.1	7.4
Seychelles	7.9	7.0	13.5	4.5	-0.6	23.7	17.5	4.9	6.2
South Africa	18.9	1.8	6.9	8.3	5.2	5.9	7.2	7.5	7.9
Swaziland	15.7	26.8	7.9	5.5	10.0	15.9	3.9	7.5	8.0
Zambia	25.6	7.7	29.9	21.7	17.9	20.8	14.5	15.2	16.5
Low-income and fragile countries	**18.4**	**26.0**	**25.8**	**20.6**	**15.5**	**13.4**	**17.0**	**16.2**	**15.1**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**18.1**	**18.7**	**24.8**	**21.2**	**20.1**	**15.4**	**19.6**	**17.1**	**15.8**
Benin	15.6	6.2	11.6	9.1	9.0	17.3	16.3	16.8	17.6
Burkina Faso	6.9	18.2	19.1	13.8	15.9	10.6	12.4	14.5	15.1
Ethiopia[2]	18.0	19.9	24.4	36.5	32.9	24.1	26.9	22.1	17.6
Gambia, The	16.5	19.4	13.7	11.0	7.8	15.1	11.3	14.0	16.0
Mali	5.6	16.0	9.0	15.3	15.2	7.4	6.9	17.6	17.4
Mozambique	22.2	34.6	17.6	23.9	25.6	21.2	27.4	15.3	15.3
Niger	15.7	18.3	22.0	6.2	31.2	10.1	25.5	7.8	8.5
Rwanda	23.6	13.0	16.9	26.7	14.0	15.5	19.0	9.1	13.1
Sierra Leone	24.5	31.3	28.5	22.6	22.5	14.8	17.8	16.5	15.0
Tanzania	22.4	17.7	25.4	18.2	12.5	10.0	18.3	14.8	13.6
Uganda	19.1	16.6	41.5	10.5	14.9	9.5	14.4	16.7	17.8
Fragile countries	**19.5**	**40.8**	**28.0**	**20.2**	**7.3**	**10.6**	**11.8**	**14.8**	**13.9**
Burundi	21.1	19.8	19.4	6.1	10.9	11.9	8.7	11.7	10.8
Central African Rep.	7.5	11.7	16.1	13.8	1.6	5.6	15.8	11.7	13.0
Comoros	8.1	13.3	19.4	9.6	16.0	2.8	6.7	6.7	7.1
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	52.5	50.4	30.8	23.2	21.1	11.1	12.3	17.7	21.0
Côte d'Ivoire	12.0	24.4	19.3	17.2	-7.6	9.7	13.3	16.7	14.4
Eritrea	11.2	15.7	15.6	14.6	14.1	15.8	14.2	12.8	13.0
Guinea	35.5	25.9	74.4	9.4	1.0	14.1	13.1	11.6	14.2
Guinea-Bissau	25.7	4.4	29.6	39.1	-6.0	14.8	31.0	12.6	3.8
Liberia	33.6	30.6	28.0	41.3	-2.1	7.6	-12.0	5.8	8.3
Madagascar	17.2	10.2	9.6	16.4	6.9	5.3	7.9	15.3	13.4
Malawi	27.1	23.9	33.9	35.7	22.9	35.1	15.1	21.5	14.9
São Tomé & Príncipe	29.8	8.2	25.1	10.4	20.3	13.9	16.8	14.7	11.2
Togo	15.7	16.2	16.3	15.9	8.9	10.3	8.7	9.3	8.9
Zimbabwe[3]	1.4	340.0	68.6	33.1	19.1	5.3	12.6	6.8	2.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	**25.5**	**14.3**	**13.3**	**12.6**	**16.8**	**7.6**	**11.6**	**11.8**	**13.0**
Median	17.7	16.1	19.2	14.0	10.8	13.3	11.7	11.7	12.8
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	22.7	19.6	21.6	21.1	14.8	13.2	16.7	14.5	13.8
Oil-importing countries	**18.8**	**12.9**	**16.9**	**14.9**	**11.5**	**11.0**	**13.8**	**12.7**	**12.6**
Excluding South Africa	**18.9**	**21.4**	**24.2**	**19.6**	**15.7**	**14.2**	**17.8**	**15.8**	**15.2**
CFA franc zone	14.2	12.6	19.1	14.9	10.8	9.0	11.3	9.4	9.0
WAEMU	10.8	17.2	16.4	13.1	6.1	10.1	12.6	14.2	13.2
CEMAC	18.0	7.7	22.0	16.8	16.0	7.9	9.9	4.2	4.3
EAC-5	18.7	16.7	26.8	16.9	13.6	12.2	16.7	14.8	15.6
ECOWAS	31.3	17.9	10.9	7.5	24.4	3.9	10.2	12.2	15.2
SADC	23.7	11.1	11.5	14.5	8.3	9.2	10.9	11.1	10.7
SACU	19.0	2.2	7.2	8.0	6.0	6.6	7.7	7.8	8.1
COMESA (SSA members)	18.9	24.5	26.2	21.9	18.6	15.6	16.8	16.2	15.8
MDRI countries	20.7	18.1	24.5	21.2	17.5	14.3	18.5	16.0	15.2
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	14.8	12.6	18.0	13.9	11.2	9.9	11.3	9.6	9.2
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	27.9	13.2	12.2	12.2	17.5	7.4	11.6	12.3	13.7
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**25.5**	**14.3**	**13.3**	**12.6**	**16.6**	**7.7**	**11.6**	**11.9**	**13.0**

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Table SA15. Claims on Nonfinancial Private Sector
(Percent change)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Oil-exporting countries	**44.0**	**24.8**	**0.3**	**7.6**	**10.7**	**11.8**	**17.2**
Excluding Nigeria	**37.4**	**32.6**	**19.1**	**21.6**	**22.4**	**18.7**	**19.3**
Angola	71.9	60.5	19.2	28.8	24.2	15.0	15.7
Cameroon	8.2	9.1	8.2	28.3	2.6	14.9	8.1
Chad	17.3	21.0	30.2	24.4	32.1	6.1	37.8
Congo, Rep. of	26.6	30.4	49.3	42.3	44.3	17.0	25.6
Equatorial Guinea	50.1	13.8	30.6	30.7	-13.6	34.3	85.0
Gabon	10.0	-7.9	1.9	42.0	24.1	23.6	-2.0
Nigeria	47.0	22.0	-5.6	2.6	6.6	9.4	16.5
South Sudan	...	...	...	-34.0	114.6	52.9	30.2
Middle-income countries[1]	**20.5**	**5.1**	**8.1**	**12.4**	**13.3**	**11.1**	**13.7**
Excluding South Africa	**26.3**	**9.2**	**17.5**	**25.5**	**20.7**	**19.0**	**22.0**
Botswana	21.2	10.3	11.1	21.8	21.9	13.4	7.8
Cabo Verde	20.4	11.8	9.0	13.3	-0.6	2.0	2.1
Ghana	44.1	16.2	24.8	29.0	32.9	29.0	42.0
Kenya	19.9	13.9	20.3	30.9	10.4	20.1	22.2
Lesotho	29.2	20.7	26.9	25.1	42.2	10.3	6.0
Mauritius	15.4	0.5	12.5	12.3	17.4	14.2	-2.2
Namibia	16.9	10.0	11.1	9.3	16.9	14.5	16.5
Senegal	13.1	3.8	10.1	19.0	10.0	12.6	10.5
Seychelles	21.9	-9.2	23.6	5.2	8.5	4.5	25.2
South Africa	17.8	3.0	3.3	5.7	9.3	6.6	8.8
Swaziland	21.4	13.1	-0.5	26.0	-1.7	20.2	9.8
Zambia	43.2	-5.7	15.4	28.2	37.0	12.6	20.7
Low-income and fragile countries	**24.4**	**21.5**	**25.0**	**23.4**	**19.5**	**14.3**	**16.3**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**26.4**	**15.0**	**24.4**	**24.7**	**21.5**	**12.4**	**16.3**
Benin	16.4	11.9	8.5	11.5	9.4	10.6	4.5
Burkina Faso	14.4	1.7	14.7	23.5	24.1	26.3	16.5
Ethiopia[2]	24.9	11.1	28.9	25.8	38.8	10.7	14.5
Gambia, The	13.2	10.3	14.8	8.8	4.3	20.5	-7.6
Mali	7.2	11.0	13.5	24.1	4.8	11.7	18.7
Mozambique	27.5	58.6	18.3	19.4	16.0	17.5	18.2
Niger	26.1	18.4	11.7	16.0	24.2	4.0	10.4
Rwanda	30.2	5.7	9.9	27.6	35.0	11.1	19.6
Sierra Leone	35.5	45.4	31.5	21.8	-6.9	11.7	3.0
Tanzania	36.6	9.6	20.0	27.2	18.2	15.3	22.6
Uganda	27.5	17.3	41.8	28.3	11.8	6.2	14.0
Fragile countries	**22.2**	**35.6**	**27.4**	**20.7**	**15.8**	**18.2**	**16.6**
Burundi	8.4	25.5	30.2	39.3	12.4	8.3	8.8
Central African Rep.	8.7	8.7	30.2	19.2	31.0	-18.1	14.4
Comoros	11.4	44.1	25.9	8.9	22.4	12.6	7.6
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	91.1	41.1	19.0	16.7	25.6	26.5	22.8
Côte d'Ivoire	9.3	10.8	8.7	0.4	12.2	22.9	21.7
Eritrea	6.3	1.2	2.4	4.1	7.1	5.1	6.2
Guinea	19.2	15.8	43.8	93.4	-3.2	35.0	29.8
Guinea-Bissau	50.9	24.9	58.2	46.7	27.2	3.6	-8.2
Liberia	36.0	31.5	40.1	32.4	11.2	27.2	5.4
Madagascar	24.8	6.5	11.2	7.1	4.8	16.2	11.0
Malawi	41.2	39.5	52.4	20.5	25.4	14.4	20.5
São Tomé & Príncipe	53.5	39.3	35.8	15.4	11.0	-3.3	-1.4
Togo	8.4	21.3	21.6	41.1	18.9	13.5	9.9
Zimbabwe[3]	5.8	388.2	143.3	62.8	30.0	2.7	4.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	**29.9**	**16.4**	**8.1**	**12.6**	**13.5**	**12.1**	**15.8**
Median	21.3	13.4	19.1	23.5	16.9	13.4	14.0
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	27.9	20.5	21.4	23.5	20.5	16.7	18.6
Oil-importing countries	**21.8**	**10.9**	**14.1**	**16.5**	**15.7**	**12.3**	**14.7**
Excluding South Africa	**25.1**	**16.8**	**22.1**	**24.2**	**19.9**	**16.0**	**18.4**
CFA franc zone	14.6	10.3	15.3	22.8	13.6	17.0	17.9
WAEMU	12.3	9.7	11.7	14.5	13.6	16.6	15.2
CEMAC	17.2	10.9	19.4	32.3	13.6	17.4	21.1
EAC-5	26.7	13.0	24.4	29.1	14.6	14.6	20.1
ECOWAS	39.0	19.6	-0.3	7.1	9.2	12.2	17.9
SADC	26.3	15.1	10.8	13.7	14.8	10.5	12.3
SACU	18.0	3.6	3.9	6.8	10.0	7.3	9.0
COMESA (SSA members)	26.6	19.8	26.7	25.9	21.8	13.8	16.1
MDRI countries	29.0	14.3	22.0	25.1	21.9	15.4	18.6
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	14.9	10.4	14.6	21.7	13.5	16.4	17.2
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	33.5	16.1	6.3	11.7	12.8	11.2	15.6
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**29.9**	**16.4**	**8.1**	**13.4**	**13.1**	**11.9**	**15.7**

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Table SA16. Claims on Nonfinancial Private Sector
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Oil-exporting countries	**11.0**	**21.1**	**15.4**	**13.9**	**13.8**	**14.0**	**15.0**
Excluding Nigeria	**7.4**	**14.8**	**14.0**	**13.1**	**15.1**	**16.4**	**18.5**
Angola	8.5	21.5	20.2	20.2	22.3	23.5	25.9
Cameroon	9.5	10.8	11.0	13.1	12.5	13.3	13.5
Chad	2.6	3.9	4.2	4.8	5.8	6.1	7.8
Congo, Rep. of	2.6	4.8	5.5	6.8	9.6	11.7	14.7
Equatorial Guinea	3.4	9.4	9.4	9.5	7.2	10.6	21.4
Gabon	8.9	10.3	7.5	8.9	12.6	15.2	14.9
Nigeria	12.4	23.5	15.9	14.2	13.3	13.0	13.6
South Sudan	...	...	...	0.2	0.6	0.7	1.0
Middle-income countries[1]	**55.7**	**58.1**	**55.1**	**53.5**	**54.1**	**53.5**	**54.3**
Excluding South Africa	**23.5**	**26.3**	**26.8**	**28.4**	**29.2**	**30.4**	**31.8**
Botswana	22.0	29.4	25.3	27.5	31.7	32.0	30.3
Cabo Verde	41.4	58.0	61.9	65.7	64.2	63.9	63.9
Ghana	11.7	15.5	15.4	15.3	16.1	16.5	19.6
Kenya	23.5	25.8	28.0	31.2	30.2	32.4	35.3
Lesotho	9.4	12.5	14.6	16.4	21.5	20.6	20.6
Mauritius	75.1	82.7	87.9	91.4	100.8	108.0	99.8
Namibia	48.6	48.7	49.2	49.3	48.6	47.0	48.5
Senegal	22.5	24.6	25.6	28.8	30.0	33.1	34.7
Seychelles	25.1	20.1	24.4	22.8	21.0	20.1	23.6
South Africa	71.4	74.6	70.4	67.6	68.4	67.4	68.2
Swaziland	21.2	23.3	21.8	26.0	23.2	25.3	25.5
Zambia	8.8	10.0	9.2	9.9	12.2	12.2	12.9
Low-income and fragile countries	**10.7**	**12.5**	**13.6**	**14.4**	**14.6**	**15.0**	**15.7**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**11.3**	**13.1**	**14.2**	**14.7**	**14.8**	**15.0**	**15.6**
Benin	17.8	22.5	23.3	24.5	24.0	24.9	24.9
Burkina Faso	16.7	17.0	17.3	18.8	20.7	24.8	28.2
Ethiopia[2]	11.5	9.0	10.2	9.6	9.2	8.8	8.3
Gambia, The	12.6	15.4	15.9	17.4	16.5	17.9	15.6
Mali	17.9	17.6	18.1	20.8	20.6	22.5	24.8
Mozambique	12.6	24.2	24.5	26.2	27.6	29.2	30.9
Niger	8.4	12.2	12.3	13.3	14.6	14.0	14.5
Rwanda	10.0	11.9	11.9	13.1	15.3	15.6	16.6
Sierra Leone	4.0	7.2	7.7	7.5	5.4	4.7	4.4
Tanzania	10.0	13.2	13.8	14.6	14.7	14.9	16.1
Uganda	8.3	10.4	13.2	13.3	13.3	13.0	13.7
Fragile countries	**9.6**	**11.4**	**12.8**	**14.2**	**14.6**	**15.1**	**15.9**
Burundi	14.1	13.7	15.5	18.1	16.8	15.6	15.0
Central African Rep.	6.9	7.2	8.9	10.1	12.3	14.6	14.5
Comoros	8.9	14.8	17.5	17.8	20.6	21.7	21.9
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	2.1	4.4	4.2	4.2	4.5	5.0	5.6
Côte d'Ivoire	14.3	16.4	16.6	17.1	16.6	18.4	20.5
Eritrea	24.5	16.6	14.9	12.6	11.4	10.7	10.2
Guinea	5.8	5.2	6.0	9.4	7.8	9.6	11.6
Guinea-Bissau	2.3	5.6	8.2	9.7	13.1	14.2	12.1
Liberia	6.9	12.0	14.8	16.4	16.1	18.3	18.6
Madagascar	10.1	11.3	11.5	11.3	10.8	11.7	11.9
Malawi	8.5	13.4	17.8	19.8	20.7	17.7	16.7
São Tomé & Príncipe	24.9	32.8	37.4	37.3	37.4	32.1	28.3
Togo	18.0	19.8	22.8	28.6	30.1	31.8	33.1
Zimbabwe[3]	3.8	8.4	17.6	24.7	28.3	26.8	27.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	**28.6**	**32.9**	**29.3**	**28.1**	**28.2**	**28.0**	**28.6**
Median	10.8	14.2	15.7	16.4	16.5	17.7	18.6
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	13.6	16.9	17.4	17.9	18.8	19.6	20.8
Oil-importing countries	**39.7**	**41.2**	**39.5**	**38.7**	**38.9**	**38.4**	**38.8**
Excluding South Africa	**15.5**	**17.6**	**18.5**	**19.6**	**20.0**	**20.7**	**21.6**
CFA franc zone	11.6	13.6	13.8	15.3	15.9	17.8	19.7
WAEMU	16.3	18.3	18.9	20.7	21.1	23.0	24.8
CEMAC	6.5	8.6	8.2	9.6	10.3	12.0	14.1
EAC-5	15.0	17.1	18.9	20.4	20.1	21.0	22.6
ECOWAS	13.0	21.8	16.3	15.3	14.7	14.8	15.8
SADC	48.4	51.2	48.5	47.0	47.9	47.1	47.5
SACU	68.0	71.2	67.1	64.6	65.6	64.5	65.2
COMESA (SSA members)	15.7	16.7	18.3	19.4	19.7	20.2	20.4
MDRI countries	10.7	12.7	13.3	14.1	14.5	14.9	15.9
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	14.1	16.0	16.2	17.7	18.1	19.7	21.5
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	31.5	35.9	31.6	30.2	30.1	29.6	29.9
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**28.6**	**32.9**	**29.3**	**28.4**	**28.4**	**28.2**	**28.8**

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Table SA17. Exports of Goods and Services
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**40.3**	**31.7**	**32.0**	**36.5**	**32.6**	**29.2**	**25.3**	**19.3**	**21.5**
Excluding Nigeria	**64.8**	**51.3**	**56.7**	**61.7**	**58.1**	**53.1**	**47.9**	**37.9**	**40.2**
Angola	77.3	54.9	62.4	65.4	62.3	56.0	46.9	36.3	36.5
Cameroon	27.8	22.4	24.4	28.3	27.9	26.6	25.3	24.0	24.7
Chad	45.7	35.4	37.9	40.7	38.3	33.5	31.5	30.4	33.2
Congo, Rep. of	79.1	67.4	76.7	81.4	78.5	75.8	73.6	68.0	73.8
Equatorial Guinea	103.4	91.6	89.0	91.0	92.9	88.5	88.0	82.5	85.2
Gabon	57.8	53.0	49.1	53.5	72.4	65.1	61.4	46.0	47.3
Nigeria	29.0	21.6	21.7	23.8	21.0	18.7	16.1	12.4	13.8
South Sudan	...	...	...	71.9	9.8	27.7	41.7	26.3	45.1
Middle-income countries[1]	**30.5**	**28.6**	**29.7**	**32.0**	**31.6**	**32.2**	**32.7**	**33.3**	**33.3**
Excluding South Africa	**33.5**	**30.3**	**32.6**	**35.9**	**35.8**	**34.6**	**35.2**	**33.9**	**34.0**
Botswana	50.8	35.2	35.7	45.4	43.1	54.8	54.9	56.7	57.1
Cabo Verde	35.8	33.2	38.3	42.2	44.5	46.2	46.2	48.2	49.3
Ghana	23.8	29.3	29.3	36.9	40.1	33.4	38.9	33.2	34.4
Kenya	23.5	19.9	22.5	23.6	21.9	19.4	19.5	18.8	18.8
Lesotho	52.1	46.9	45.5	46.6	44.1	40.9	41.9	43.8	45.7
Mauritius	55.6	47.0	50.9	51.8	52.9	52.9	53.0	55.2	55.8
Namibia	38.5	42.8	41.8	41.4	41.7	42.4	41.5	43.6	42.2
Senegal	26.3	24.3	24.9	26.4	28.3	27.9	27.1	26.0	25.6
Seychelles	82.5	100.3	86.7	88.4	82.2	78.1	77.6	73.1	72.5
South Africa	29.6	27.9	28.6	30.4	29.7	31.0	31.3	32.9	32.8
Swaziland	68.2	55.9	53.0	53.1	53.5	55.1	57.2	52.6	52.2
Zambia	31.9	29.7	38.1	38.1	39.4	42.5	40.2	41.3	42.5
Low-income and fragile countries	**24.5**	**22.5**	**26.7**	**28.8**	**26.4**	**25.8**	**24.9**	**24.0**	**24.6**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**17.9**	**16.8**	**19.8**	**21.7**	**21.3**	**20.7**	**19.3**	**19.5**	**20.0**
Benin	14.9	15.5	19.0	17.1	15.0	17.4	18.0	19.2	20.2
Burkina Faso	11.1	12.5	20.7	26.2	26.2	24.3	21.9	21.2	19.9
Ethiopia[2]	14.6	10.6	15.5	18.2	13.9	12.7	12.3	12.4	12.9
Gambia, The	30.6	25.4	23.8	26.5	30.9	29.4	28.4	24.5	31.0
Mali	27.2	25.7	25.8	26.2	32.1	28.1	23.9	23.9	23.1
Mozambique	29.3	25.0	28.5	29.2	33.3	30.3	27.7	31.1	32.9
Niger	17.6	20.3	22.2	20.9	22.7	23.2	21.0	22.9	22.1
Rwanda	11.4	11.2	10.9	14.2	14.1	15.6	15.3	14.8	14.4
Sierra Leone	15.0	15.0	16.2	18.4	35.4	44.0	39.2	36.4	38.6
Tanzania	18.2	18.9	20.7	22.6	20.9	19.7	18.8	18.9	19.2
Uganda	14.7	17.7	17.6	19.8	20.1	20.2	19.4	20.9	21.5
Fragile countries	**33.6**	**32.0**	**37.7**	**39.9**	**35.3**	**34.9**	**34.8**	**31.8**	**32.7**
Burundi	7.8	6.7	8.9	9.5	8.7	8.2	9.4	7.8	8.3
Central African Rep.	13.2	10.7	11.8	13.5	12.5	14.2	10.1	12.4	12.0
Comoros	14.8	14.5	15.7	16.2	14.9	14.9	14.5	14.5	14.4
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	29.5	27.4	43.2	42.9	32.1	33.3	34.5	29.0	30.9
Côte d'Ivoire	48.5	50.7	50.5	53.8	48.4	45.4	44.9	43.5	45.2
Eritrea	5.8	4.5	4.8	14.4	19.1	17.3	18.9	14.8	13.5
Guinea	33.4	28.5	29.7	32.2	30.6	25.3	23.7	23.1	22.3
Guinea-Bissau	17.0	18.7	20.1	25.6	16.0	23.4	26.5	34.5	32.5
Liberia	56.9	40.2	42.1	46.3	50.0	47.0	36.1	30.3	30.2
Madagascar	25.3	22.4	24.1	26.8	29.2	30.3	32.3	32.6	33.3
Malawi	21.8	20.9	25.2	25.1	33.4	42.5	41.0	37.4	35.9
São Tomé & Príncipe	11.2	9.8	11.7	11.6	12.7	16.1	23.0	21.4	20.6
Togo	37.4	37.8	40.9	44.9	44.7	45.5	41.7	39.6	39.5
Zimbabwe[3]	27.3	22.1	36.7	42.8	32.7	29.4	28.3	27.3	27.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	**33.0**	**28.6**	**30.2**	**33.4**	**31.1**	**29.6**	**27.6**	**25.0**	**26.1**
Median	28.4	24.6	27.1	29.2	32.1	30.3	31.3	30.3	32.5
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	38.5	33.0	37.4	41.9	39.1	36.9	34.7	30.5	31.4
Oil-importing countries	**28.8**	**26.6**	**28.9**	**31.1**	**29.9**	**30.0**	**29.8**	**29.7**	**29.9**
Excluding South Africa	**28.1**	**25.5**	**29.1**	**31.7**	**30.1**	**29.3**	**28.8**	**27.7**	**28.2**
CFA franc zone	43.0	38.3	41.4	45.1	46.1	42.8	40.4	35.9	37.3
WAEMU	31.3	31.3	33.2	34.6	34.1	32.9	31.7	31.2	31.6
CEMAC	54.3	45.9	49.3	54.3	57.4	52.7	49.4	41.4	43.9
EAC-5	19.1	18.4	20.0	21.6	20.5	19.2	18.8	18.7	18.9
ECOWAS	29.1	24.1	24.0	26.5	24.4	22.1	19.8	16.6	18.2
SADC	35.5	32.3	34.7	37.3	36.4	36.7	35.2	33.9	34.1
SACU	31.1	28.9	29.5	31.6	30.8	32.5	32.9	34.6	34.5
COMESA (SSA members)	25.9	21.9	27.6	29.6	26.4	26.1	25.7	24.7	25.2
MDRI countries	24.8	22.8	27.4	30.4	29.3	28.3	27.4	25.8	26.7
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	42.8	38.5	41.1	44.5	45.4	42.5	40.3	36.4	37.4
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	31.3	26.9	28.4	31.0	29.1	27.7	25.6	23.3	24.3
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**33.0**	**28.6**	**30.2**	**32.9**	**31.3**	**29.6**	**27.5**	**25.0**	**26.0**

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Table SA18. Imports of Goods and Services
(Percent of GDP)

	2004–08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**25.9**	**29.7**	**25.6**	**27.7**	**24.4**	**22.1**	**21.9**	**20.5**	**21.0**
Excluding Nigeria	**42.8**	**52.0**	**43.6**	**41.7**	**41.8**	**40.3**	**41.1**	**39.7**	**38.1**
Angola	48.3	55.4	42.9	42.2	39.7	39.6	39.7	36.0	34.0
Cameroon	28.4	26.9	27.5	30.9	30.8	29.4	28.6	27.7	28.1
Chad	44.4	47.9	49.1	48.0	49.0	43.0	43.9	44.2	42.9
Congo, Rep. of	52.6	69.2	58.6	55.6	54.3	59.7	61.7	62.7	57.1
Equatorial Guinea	63.8	95.3	80.9	69.4	65.2	68.6	69.9	103.0	88.6
Gabon	26.9	35.3	28.9	28.3	34.9	35.1	36.3	35.0	33.8
Nigeria	18.1	18.3	18.1	20.6	16.6	14.2	14.1	13.3	14.0
South Sudan	...	...	...	30.1	41.6	25.1	36.0	39.0	45.8
Middle-income countries[1]	**33.7**	**32.0**	**31.8**	**34.7**	**36.4**	**37.6**	**37.4**	**37.5**	**37.5**
Excluding South Africa	**42.3**	**42.4**	**43.0**	**47.3**	**48.4**	**45.9**	**45.0**	**43.1**	**42.6**
Botswana	40.1	52.5	46.2	52.4	59.0	55.0	48.6	49.2	49.3
Cabo Verde	64.5	63.4	66.8	73.8	66.7	61.0	64.3	66.7	67.9
Ghana	40.0	42.3	43.5	49.3	52.5	46.3	48.5	43.7	43.2
Kenya	31.9	30.5	33.8	39.0	35.6	33.2	32.9	30.9	30.7
Lesotho	117.6	123.3	114.3	108.1	109.3	96.2	100.4	95.9	105.4
Mauritius	64.2	57.5	63.0	65.6	66.0	65.7	63.3	64.3	65.1
Namibia	41.2	56.0	52.1	50.6	55.4	57.5	59.6	64.0	61.3
Senegal	45.1	41.2	40.3	44.7	49.5	49.1	47.6	44.4	43.9
Seychelles	95.4	117.0	108.0	110.8	104.8	89.7	98.3	88.1	86.8
South Africa	30.6	27.5	27.4	29.6	31.0	33.2	33.1	34.0	34.3
Swaziland	78.8	71.1	67.5	67.9	66.0	63.1	66.9	61.6	60.2
Zambia	31.4	26.6	27.6	31.8	36.8	39.7	35.8	37.3	37.0
Low-income and fragile countries	**34.7**	**35.3**	**39.2**	**42.2**	**41.3**	**40.2**	**38.3**	**38.1**	**38.0**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**30.9**	**30.4**	**34.2**	**38.3**	**38.6**	**37.2**	**35.8**	**36.4**	**36.4**
Benin	27.2	29.1	31.0	27.9	27.8	37.7	30.3	34.4	36.6
Burkina Faso	25.9	23.1	28.0	33.0	34.7	34.2	30.9	32.4	31.1
Ethiopia[2]	36.3	27.9	33.1	36.5	32.8	29.5	30.9	30.2	30.2
Gambia, The	45.5	41.9	42.7	41.1	44.3	41.6	45.0	44.9	45.7
Mali	36.1	31.3	39.7	36.0	37.9	48.3	47.3	39.7	36.2
Mozambique	39.1	40.6	44.6	57.4	81.2	76.1	68.0	75.9	80.7
Niger	31.2	46.7	49.0	47.8	40.9	40.0	40.6	51.9	45.0
Rwanda	26.3	29.1	29.0	34.6	34.4	32.5	34.4	31.1	29.7
Sierra Leone	24.4	30.5	43.9	84.7	60.1	47.2	44.1	48.0	46.2
Tanzania	26.8	28.4	29.7	34.4	33.1	30.7	29.7	29.5	29.1
Uganda	24.4	27.6	31.4	34.3	31.7	29.9	29.1	31.5	32.1
Fragile countries	**40.8**	**43.8**	**47.5**	**48.2**	**46.3**	**46.0**	**43.2**	**41.3**	**41.1**
Burundi	34.3	28.2	43.4	41.0	43.4	39.2	37.0	32.2	30.7
Central African Rep.	22.1	23.2	26.5	24.4	23.9	24.6	34.4	31.0	28.4
Comoros	39.5	47.9	49.9	50.2	53.9	57.2	50.9	53.4	52.0
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	34.9	36.9	52.2	49.5	38.8	39.3	36.1	35.7	34.9
Côte d'Ivoire	41.2	39.8	43.2	37.3	44.2	45.6	43.1	40.9	42.0
Eritrea	41.6	23.4	23.3	23.2	22.8	22.1	23.8	21.1	19.4
Guinea	36.0	30.8	35.3	50.9	57.6	44.1	41.0	37.0	40.4
Guinea-Bissau	28.8	34.9	35.2	30.8	26.5	41.9	46.5	53.6	54.4
Liberia	191.2	135.9	134.7	132.1	119.8	108.3	102.7	100.6	83.5
Madagascar	41.6	46.1	37.5	38.0	38.7	38.7	38.5	38.8	39.7
Malawi	44.7	39.0	44.9	39.8	53.8	60.5	55.8	51.0	48.2
São Tomé & Príncipe	55.2	51.4	57.8	58.0	52.5	57.0	62.9	52.2	57.4
Togo	54.9	53.4	57.6	66.4	58.6	64.3	60.2	56.3	58.0
Zimbabwe[3]	36.5	76.1	61.5	78.4	62.9	59.3	54.5	53.3	54.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	**30.9**	**31.8**	**30.5**	**32.9**	**32.0**	**30.9**	**30.1**	**29.9**	**30.3**
Median	39.3	40.2	43.3	42.2	44.2	43.0	43.9	43.7	43.2
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	39.2	42.1	41.6	43.4	43.4	41.8	40.9	39.9	39.3
Oil-importing countries	**34.0**	**33.1**	**34.0**	**36.9**	**38.0**	**38.5**	**37.7**	**37.7**	**37.7**
Excluding South Africa	**37.8**	**38.0**	**40.7**	**44.3**	**44.1**	**42.4**	**40.8**	**40.0**	**39.7**
CFA franc zone	38.3	42.0	42.1	41.2	43.0	44.1	43.0	43.0	41.7
WAEMU	38.0	37.1	40.2	39.2	41.7	44.6	42.3	41.5	40.9
CEMAC	38.6	47.2	43.9	43.0	44.1	43.6	43.7	44.9	42.5
EAC-5	28.5	29.1	32.0	36.4	34.1	31.8	31.3	30.6	30.4
ECOWAS	24.3	24.3	23.9	26.5	23.6	21.5	20.5	19.9	20.7
SADC	34.6	35.9	33.8	36.1	37.2	38.5	37.9	38.0	37.9
SACU	32.1	30.0	29.5	31.7	33.4	35.5	35.4	36.4	36.6
COMESA (SSA members)	36.7	36.0	39.4	42.8	39.4	38.1	36.9	36.1	35.7
MDRI countries	34.9	34.7	37.8	41.2	41.2	40.1	38.6	38.1	37.8
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	40.7	44.3	44.3	43.3	45.0	45.8	44.9	45.1	43.7
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	29.1	29.2	28.1	30.9	29.6	28.4	27.6	27.4	27.9
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**30.9**	**31.8**	**30.5**	**32.9**	**31.9**	**30.9**	**30.0**	**29.8**	**30.2**

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Table SA19. Trade Balance on Goods
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**22.7**	**12.6**	**14.9**	**17.6**	**16.1**	**14.0**	**10.3**	**5.2**	**7.1**
Excluding Nigeria	**38.1**	**18.7**	**30.5**	**36.3**	**31.5**	**26.8**	**20.8**	**11.3**	**14.6**
Angola	50.4	24.1	41.1	45.2	41.1	33.7	24.0	15.2	16.4
Cameroon	1.9	-1.4	-0.9	-2.2	-1.0	-0.6	-1.4	-1.9	-1.5
Chad	24.5	4.8	8.0	10.9	6.6	2.8	1.7	1.7	5.1
Congo, Rep. of	49.1	25.7	42.3	47.9	43.5	34.6	30.1	24.6	35.2
Equatorial Guinea	57.4	17.5	27.7	39.3	44.8	37.8	36.6	5.4	20.4
Gabon	40.8	30.4	29.9	34.7	49.4	41.1	36.6	22.5	23.7
Nigeria	15.6	9.4	8.4	8.3	9.1	8.4	6.1	2.9	4.0
South Sudan	...	...	...	48.8	-26.3	6.3	13.7	-2.0	12.0
Middle-income countries[1]	**-3.1**	**-2.7**	**-1.3**	**-1.9**	**-4.8**	**-5.1**	**-4.8**	**-4.5**	**-4.6**
Excluding South Africa	**-9.4**	**-11.5**	**-9.9**	**-10.9**	**-13.2**	**-11.1**	**-10.1**	**-10.0**	**-9.5**
Botswana	9.5	-13.0	-7.3	-4.8	-13.3	1.6	8.0	9.1	9.7
Cabo Verde	-39.0	-39.6	-40.9	-45.1	-39.9	-33.6	-34.1	-36.8	-38.3
Ghana	-14.9	-8.5	-9.2	-7.7	-10.0	-7.9	-4.1	-7.1	-5.3
Kenya	-12.1	-13.4	-15.6	-20.0	-18.5	-18.5	-18.9	-17.6	-17.3
Lesotho	-43.1	-54.8	-50.2	-44.5	-49.8	-42.0	-45.3	-39.5	-46.7
Mauritius	-15.2	-17.5	-19.5	-20.9	-21.5	-17.0	-17.0	-15.4	-15.7
Namibia	-3.3	-14.1	-9.9	-8.8	-16.6	-15.2	-17.2	-19.7	-19.0
Senegal	-18.4	-15.8	-14.9	-17.5	-20.5	-20.4	-19.8	-17.3	-17.4
Seychelles	-29.8	-37.6	-39.3	-41.1	-41.4	-30.2	-37.3	-33.9	-32.9
South Africa	-0.6	1.1	2.2	1.7	-1.0	-1.9	-1.8	-1.1	-1.5
Swaziland	-4.1	-4.1	-3.8	-0.9	1.9	4.5	3.4	3.4	4.7
Zambia	3.9	5.9	13.3	9.3	5.8	5.4	7.2	7.0	8.4
Low-income and fragile countries	**-6.3**	**-8.8**	**-7.8**	**-8.5**	**-9.9**	**-9.9**	**-9.3**	**-10.2**	**-9.8**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**-10.8**	**-11.1**	**-11.6**	**-13.1**	**-13.4**	**-13.0**	**-13.5**	**-14.2**	**-14.1**
Benin	-11.7	-10.7	-10.9	-10.6	-12.7	-18.5	-11.7	-14.6	-15.6
Burkina Faso	-9.5	-5.7	-1.5	0.0	-1.4	-3.3	-1.9	-3.6	-4.0
Ethiopia[2]	-20.6	-15.8	-16.3	-16.6	-16.9	-18.0	-20.0	-19.5	-19.4
Gambia, The	-21.3	-22.4	-22.8	-21.2	-22.0	-19.6	-22.8	-21.5	-21.2
Mali	-3.0	-2.3	-7.0	-3.1	1.1	-3.3	-7.6	-5.1	-5.3
Mozambique	-5.6	-11.5	-11.3	-17.0	-27.2	-27.9	-24.2	-29.0	-31.4
Niger	-6.9	-14.7	-14.2	-14.4	-6.9	-5.8	-12.6	-16.7	-11.1
Rwanda	-10.3	-14.4	-13.8	-17.4	-19.1	-15.3	-17.4	-14.7	-14.3
Sierra Leone	-7.5	-14.3	-20.2	-57.1	-16.3	7.4	5.2	-0.6	1.4
Tanzania	-9.8	-10.0	-9.6	-12.2	-13.0	-12.4	-12.0	-11.5	-11.0
Uganda	-8.0	-8.0	-11.2	-11.4	-10.1	-8.4	-8.3	-8.4	-8.5
Fragile countries	**-0.5**	**-5.2**	**-2.3**	**-1.4**	**-4.3**	**-4.7**	**-2.4**	**-3.8**	**-2.8**
Burundi	-16.4	-14.5	-30.2	-27.3	-29.9	-27.6	-25.3	-21.6	-20.4
Central African Rep.	-4.0	-7.8	-8.8	-5.7	-6.2	-7.2	-16.7	-13.0	-11.2
Comoros	-22.9	-28.2	-28.8	-28.6	-33.4	-32.3	-28.3	-27.7	-28.1
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	0.2	-3.2	2.1	2.3	0.6	0.8	3.6	-1.9	0.6
Côte d'Ivoire	15.0	17.5	14.5	23.5	11.3	7.3	9.8	10.7	11.3
Eritrea	-33.9	-19.9	-19.6	-10.3	-4.6	-5.5	-5.5	-6.7	-6.2
Guinea	3.9	3.2	1.1	-8.7	-10.6	-8.6	-6.6	-4.0	-7.1
Guinea-Bissau	-6.0	-9.7	-8.2	-0.2	-5.3	-13.3	-15.5	-14.4	-17.1
Liberia	-33.5	-30.8	-30.1	-33.3	-26.9	-23.5	-32.8	-39.6	-31.6
Madagascar	-13.6	-19.5	-12.3	-10.1	-11.1	-7.7	-6.0	-5.1	-5.1
Malawi	-16.4	-12.6	-13.8	-11.2	-15.7	-12.4	-10.4	-9.4	-7.5
São Tomé & Príncipe	-35.4	-37.3	-40.9	-41.3	-37.2	-38.3	-37.4	-27.9	-32.7
Togo	-14.2	-13.0	-14.1	-22.4	-14.2	-20.5	-18.6	-18.6	-20.3
Zimbabwe[3]	-7.3	-47.1	-20.3	-28.7	-23.3	-23.1	-19.9	-19.6	-20.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	**6.0**	**2.1**	**4.4**	**5.4**	**3.6**	**2.9**	**1.6**	**-1.3**	**-0.5**
Median	*-7.8*	*-12.1*	*-11.0*	*-10.3*	*-12.7*	*-8.4*	*-10.4*	*-9.4*	*-8.5*
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	5.4	-1.5	3.0	6.1	2.4	1.4	-0.2	-4.4	-3.1
Oil-importing countries	**-4.0**	**-4.7**	**-3.2**	**-3.8**	**-6.4**	**-6.7**	**-6.5**	**-6.7**	**-6.7**
Excluding South Africa	**-7.6**	**-9.8**	**-8.7**	**-9.5**	**-11.2**	**-10.3**	**-9.6**	**-10.2**	**-9.7**
CFA franc zone	13.0	5.3	8.3	12.4	11.8	7.6	6.0	1.3	3.6
WAEMU	-1.8	-0.7	-1.6	0.7	-2.3	-5.0	-4.1	-4.0	-3.5
CEMAC	27.5	11.7	17.8	22.6	25.0	20.1	16.5	7.6	11.9
EAC-5	-10.5	-11.3	-13.0	-15.8	-15.4	-14.6	-14.7	-14.0	-13.7
ECOWAS	9.5	5.6	5.2	5.2	5.6	5.0	3.8	1.0	1.9
SADC	3.8	1.2	5.2	5.8	3.4	2.5	1.4	-0.8	-0.5
SACU	-0.6	-0.1	1.2	0.9	-2.1	-2.4	-2.1	-1.5	-1.8
COMESA (SSA members)	-9.9	-12.6	-10.2	-11.7	-12.1	-11.5	-11.4	-11.5	-10.9
MDRI countries	-6.4	-7.7	-5.6	-6.2	-7.6	-7.6	-7.4	-8.9	-7.9
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	9.7	2.4	5.1	9.0	8.0	4.7	3.2	-1.2	0.8
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	5.5	2.5	4.5	4.6	3.4	2.9	1.5	-1.1	-0.7
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**6.0**	**2.1**	**4.4**	**4.9**	**3.8**	**2.9**	**1.5**	**-1.3**	**-0.6**

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Table SA20. External Current Account[1]
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**12.5**	**0.8**	**4.0**	**4.9**	**4.7**	**3.5**	**1.0**	**-1.7**	**-0.5**
Excluding Nigeria	**8.3**	**-7.5**	**4.4**	**8.6**	**5.6**	**2.6**	**-1.9**	**-8.0**	**-5.0**
Angola	14.7	-10.0	9.1	12.6	12.0	6.7	-0.8	-6.3	-4.2
Cameroon	-1.0	-3.1	-2.8	-2.7	-3.6	-3.8	-4.2	-4.8	-4.8
Chad	0.5	-9.2	-9.0	-5.6	-8.7	-9.0	-8.7	-10.5	-8.3
Congo, Rep. of	-2.9	-14.1	7.5	4.7	-2.4	-4.8	-6.2	-11.3	-3.1
Equatorial Guinea	2.4	-8.0	-9.8	-0.6	-4.5	-12.1	-13.1	-32.5	-18.3
Gabon	17.3	6.5	7.8	13.1	21.3	15.0	11.2	-2.3	0.9
Nigeria	14.4	5.1	3.9	3.0	4.4	3.9	2.2	0.7	1.3
South Sudan	...	...	...	18.2	-22.4	-0.5	-0.7	-13.9	-8.3
Middle-income countries[2]	**-3.9**	**-3.4**	**-2.5**	**-3.4**	**-5.6**	**-6.0**	**-5.5**	**-4.5**	**-4.6**
Excluding South Africa	**-2.8**	**-4.8**	**-5.2**	**-6.5**	**-6.9**	**-6.4**	**-5.5**	**-4.3**	**-4.6**
Botswana	10.7	-11.2	-6.0	-0.6	-3.5	10.4	17.1	18.2	16.6
Cabo Verde	-9.5	-14.6	-12.4	-16.3	-11.4	-4.0	-9.1	-9.6	-10.6
Ghana	-8.1	-5.4	-8.6	-9.0	-11.7	-11.7	-9.2	-7.0	-6.2
Kenya	-2.5	-4.6	-5.9	-9.1	-8.4	-8.7	-9.2	-7.7	-7.4
Lesotho	20.0	4.8	-7.9	-9.0	-2.7	-4.2	-6.6	-5.4	-23.3
Mauritius	-6.3	-7.4	-10.3	-13.8	-7.3	-9.9	-7.2	-6.3	-6.2
Namibia	7.3	-1.5	-3.5	-3.0	-5.8	-4.1	-6.6	-9.9	-12.3
Senegal	-10.1	-6.7	-4.4	-7.9	-10.8	-10.9	-10.3	-7.6	-7.3
Seychelles	-17.0	-22.4	-22.1	-28.3	-25.8	-15.2	-22.5	-19.3	-18.1
South Africa	-4.3	-2.7	-1.5	-2.2	-5.0	-5.8	-5.4	-4.6	-4.7
Swaziland	-3.5	-13.0	-10.0	-8.2	3.8	6.3	0.9	0.4	-1.4
Zambia	-5.6	3.8	5.9	3.0	3.2	0.0	-0.2	0.3	0.9
Low-income and fragile countries	**-5.8**	**-8.2**	**-7.2**	**-8.4**	**-10.6**	**-10.9**	**-10.5**	**-10.9**	**-10.8**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**-7.4**	**-8.0**	**-7.2**	**-10.1**	**-11.6**	**-10.8**	**-11.3**	**-11.7**	**-11.8**
Benin	-7.3	-8.9	-8.7	-7.8	-8.4	-15.9	-8.5	-11.6	-12.2
Burkina Faso	-10.3	-4.5	-2.0	-1.5	-4.5	-6.6	-6.1	-8.1	-8.5
Ethiopia[3]	-8.4	-6.7	-1.4	-2.5	-6.9	-6.0	-9.0	-6.6	-6.3
Gambia, The	-8.5	-12.5	-16.3	-12.3	-7.9	-10.7	-12.7	-11.7	-10.0
Mali	-8.0	-7.3	-12.6	-6.1	-2.6	-5.2	-8.0	-5.6	-5.6
Mozambique	-10.7	-11.0	-10.6	-23.1	-42.3	-40.0	-34.7	-41.1	-45.6
Niger	-9.2	-24.4	-19.8	-22.3	-15.3	-15.3	-18.0	-27.1	-24.7
Rwanda	-3.3	-7.1	-7.3	-7.5	-11.4	-7.1	-12.0	-10.5	-10.1
Sierra Leone	-6.9	-13.3	-22.7	-65.3	-22.0	-10.4	-7.6	-13.2	-8.6
Tanzania	-6.5	-7.3	-6.9	-10.4	-11.6	-10.3	-10.2	-10.0	-9.5
Uganda	-4.3	-6.2	-9.4	-10.4	-8.1	-6.4	-7.5	-8.8	-9.0
Fragile countries	**-3.6**	**-8.3**	**-7.0**	**-5.7**	**-8.7**	**-10.8**	**-9.1**	**-9.3**	**-8.8**
Burundi	-7.8	1.7	-12.2	-13.6	-17.3	-18.4	-17.6	-13.3	-12.9
Central African Rep.	-5.5	-9.1	-10.2	-7.6	-4.6	-3.0	-6.2	-11.1	-9.1
Comoros	-12.0	-15.4	-15.9	-22.1	-14.7	-14.6	-10.6	-14.1	-13.7
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	-0.2	-6.1	-10.6	-5.4	-6.2	-11.1	-9.6	-10.7	-9.5
Côte d'Ivoire	1.1	6.6	1.9	10.5	-1.2	-4.9	-3.3	-2.3	-1.7
Eritrea	-3.1	-7.6	-5.6	0.6	2.3	0.3	-0.2	-1.6	-1.9
Guinea	-5.4	-7.9	-9.7	-18.8	-28.7	-21.4	-18.5	-16.7	-18.3
Guinea-Bissau	-2.7	-5.8	-8.3	-1.3	-8.7	-14.1	-10.0	-11.3	-14.6
Liberia	-14.4	-23.2	-32.0	-27.4	-21.4	-28.2	-31.9	-40.2	-27.8
Madagascar	-11.4	-21.2	-9.7	-6.9	-6.7	-5.6	-2.3	-3.2	-3.4
Malawi	-8.6	-4.8	-1.3	-5.9	-3.5	-1.8	-5.1	-3.4	-2.7
São Tomé & Príncipe	-27.1	-23.2	-21.7	-25.5	-21.3	-16.8	-20.8	-12.4	-12.0
Togo	-8.8	-5.6	-6.3	-8.0	-8.1	-7.2	-6.3	-5.0	-5.8
Zimbabwe[4]	-8.5	-47.1	-16.0	-30.9	-24.6	-25.4	-22.3	-21.6	-23.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	**1.9**	**-2.7**	**-0.6**	**-0.7**	**-1.9**	**-2.5**	**-3.3**	**-4.6**	**-4.1**
Median	-5.9	-7.3	-8.7	-7.6	-7.9	-7.1	-8.0	-9.6	-8.5
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	-0.8	-7.1	-3.2	-2.1	-4.4	-5.4	-6.6	-8.3	-7.5
Oil-importing countries	**-4.4**	**-4.9**	**-3.9**	**-4.9**	**-7.2**	**-7.7**	**-7.3**	**-7.0**	**-7.1**
Excluding South Africa	**-4.5**	**-6.9**	**-6.4**	**-7.6**	**-9.1**	**-9.1**	**-8.6**	**-8.4**	**-8.4**
CFA franc zone	-0.9	-4.0	-2.9	0.0	-2.6	-5.4	-5.5	-8.3	-6.4
WAEMU	-5.4	-3.4	-4.8	-2.0	-5.7	-8.2	-7.3	-7.4	-7.1
CEMAC	3.4	-4.7	-1.1	1.8	0.3	-2.5	-3.7	-9.3	-5.6
EAC-5	-4.3	-5.8	-7.1	-9.8	-9.7	-8.9	-9.5	-8.9	-8.6
ECOWAS	8.5	2.3	1.3	0.7	1.3	0.7	-0.1	-1.3	-0.8
SADC	-1.9	-5.6	-1.3	-1.5	-3.4	-4.6	-5.5	-6.3	-6.3
SACU	-3.3	-3.0	-1.8	-2.2	-4.8	-5.0	-4.5	-3.7	-4.1
COMESA (SSA members)	-5.0	-8.0	-5.9	-7.5	-7.2	-7.8	-8.3	-7.6	-7.3
MDRI countries	-6.3	-7.0	-5.8	-7.1	-8.9	-9.4	-9.2	-9.4	-9.0
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	-0.3	-4.2	-3.3	-0.7	-2.7	-5.0	-5.5	-8.1	-6.9
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	2.4	-2.0	-0.1	-0.7	-1.4	-1.9	-2.8	-3.8	-3.5
Sub-Saharan Africa[5]	**1.9**	**-2.7**	**-0.6**	**-0.9**	**-1.7**	**-2.5**	**-3.3**	**-4.5**	**-4.1**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA21. Net Foreign Direct Investment
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**2.7**	**3.1**	**0.9**	**1.2**	**0.1**	**-0.6**	**0.8**	**0.9**	**1.3**
Excluding Nigeria	**3.9**	**4.2**	**-0.3**	**-0.1**	**-2.3**	**-3.8**	**1.7**	**2.2**	**3.1**
Angola	-0.6	2.9	-5.5	-4.9	-8.4	-10.6	-0.3	-0.2	1.3
Cameroon	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.8	3.1	2.4	2.4	1.8	1.6
Chad	3.5	2.7	2.0	1.5	3.4	2.8	-3.4	4.7	4.4
Congo, Rep. of	22.8	20.2	18.2	21.1	16.4	18.9	19.3	16.3	19.1
Equatorial Guinea	15.7	4.0	6.8	3.6	3.5	3.8	4.5	7.4	6.8
Gabon	4.1	5.0	3.2	3.4	5.1	5.6	5.7	7.1	7.2
Nigeria	2.2	2.6	1.4	1.9	1.2	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.5
South Sudan	...	...	...	-0.4	-0.5	-3.8	-1.8	0.1	-0.9
Middle-income countries[1]	**1.6**	**2.6**	**4.0**	**1.8**	**2.6**	**1.9**	**1.8**	**1.9**	**2.0**
Excluding South Africa	**2.9**	**3.8**	**11.7**	**3.7**	**7.5**	**4.7**	**5.6**	**5.1**	**5.1**
Botswana	4.2	1.2	1.0	7.2	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0
Cabo Verde	9.4	7.0	6.7	5.6	3.3	1.5	3.1	3.7	3.9
Ghana	2.9	11.1	7.9	8.1	7.9	6.6	8.7	7.5	7.5
Kenya	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.5	0.9	1.1	1.7	1.9
Lesotho	-2.4	-4.3	-0.4	-0.4	-0.4	-2.4	-2.5	-2.4	-2.7
Mauritius	1.6	2.5	127.6	-9.0	49.5	18.3	16.9	18.5	19.0
Namibia	6.3	5.7	7.0	7.0	9.0	6.6	8.9	10.5	9.4
Senegal	1.6	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1
Seychelles	11.6	19.2	15.8	12.7	13.9	15.5	20.9	19.1	19.6
South Africa	1.1	2.1	1.0	1.1	0.4	0.5	-0.4	-0.1	0.0
Swaziland	2.1	1.8	3.4	2.5	2.4	0.6	0.6	1.1	1.1
Zambia	6.0	2.8	3.1	4.7	9.8	6.3	9.3	5.5	5.7
Low-income and fragile countries	**2.8**	**2.9**	**4.3**	**5.3**	**6.0**	**5.7**	**4.5**	**5.1**	**5.6**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**2.8**	**3.7**	**3.9**	**5.5**	**6.1**	**6.7**	**5.2**	**6.1**	**6.6**
Benin	2.3	1.6	3.0	1.4	2.8	8.1	4.9	5.5	5.6
Burkina Faso	1.6	0.8	0.4	0.4	2.3	1.3	1.3	1.1	0.9
Ethiopia[2]	1.4	0.7	1.0	2.0	0.6	2.6	2.8	2.4	4.1
Gambia, The	9.6	8.1	9.0	6.7	11.2	9.5	9.2	9.7	10.0
Mali	2.0	8.3	4.2	5.2	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.2
Mozambique	3.4	8.0	12.8	19.6	35.1	38.0	25.4	28.4	25.9
Niger	2.3	13.4	17.5	16.5	12.5	8.3	-0.5	16.4	14.5
Rwanda	1.2	2.2	0.7	1.7	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.9	3.1
Sierra Leone	3.9	4.5	9.2	32.4	6.0	7.4	4.6	3.0	5.3
Tanzania	3.5	3.7	3.2	3.9	4.4	4.3	4.3	5.0	5.5
Uganda	4.2	4.3	2.6	4.2	4.7	4.1	4.5	5.1	5.3
Fragile countries	**2.8**	**1.5**	**4.9**	**4.7**	**5.5**	**3.8**	**3.2**	**3.2**	**4.0**
Burundi	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.1
Central African Rep.	3.3	2.1	3.1	1.7	3.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.7
Comoros	0.6	2.6	1.5	3.8	1.7	1.4	2.0	2.0	2.0
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	5.3	-1.5	13.3	6.7	10.5	5.4	5.3	4.5	4.8
Côte d'Ivoire	1.8	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.2	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.4
Eritrea	1.4	4.9	4.3	1.5	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1
Guinea	-0.3	-1.6	-0.1	5.6	11.4	2.8	0.9	1.0	10.5
Guinea-Bissau	1.9	2.3	3.1	3.2	1.3	-2.1	-2.1	-1.9	-1.9
Liberia	5.8	13.4	22.7	22.8	19.2	22.0	8.7	8.5	11.8
Madagascar	3.7	8.2	4.0	7.8	7.8	5.2	3.5	3.9	4.3
Malawi	2.2	1.1	2.9	1.1	1.9	2.4	2.0	2.0	1.7
São Tomé & Príncipe	16.6	7.6	24.2	12.4	8.3	3.4	5.7	3.7	4.9
Togo	3.1	0.4	1.5	14.3	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0
Zimbabwe[3]	0.7	1.3	1.3	3.4	2.8	2.8	2.2	2.4	2.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	**2.1**	**2.9**	**2.8**	**2.2**	**2.1**	**1.5**	**1.8**	**2.1**	**2.5**
Median	2.3	2.6	3.1	3.4	3.2	2.8	2.4	2.9	3.9
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	3.0	3.5	5.0	3.0	3.7	2.4	3.9	4.3	4.8
Oil-importing countries	**1.9**	**2.7**	**4.1**	**2.8**	**3.7**	**3.2**	**2.8**	**3.1**	**3.5**
Excluding South Africa	**2.8**	**3.2**	**7.3**	**4.6**	**6.6**	**5.3**	**4.9**	**5.1**	**5.5**
CFA franc zone	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.3	4.5	3.6	4.8	4.9
WAEMU	1.9	3.3	3.1	3.6	2.9	3.3	2.3	3.8	3.8
CEMAC	7.2	5.6	5.5	5.5	5.7	5.7	4.9	5.9	6.2
EAC-5	2.3	2.2	1.8	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.4	3.7
ECOWAS	2.2	3.3	2.2	2.9	2.1	1.7	1.2	1.3	1.6
SADC	1.5	2.5	3.2	1.2	1.8	0.6	2.0	2.4	2.7
SACU	1.3	2.2	1.2	1.5	0.7	0.7	0.0	0.4	0.4
COMESA (SSA members)	2.6	1.7	10.0	2.6	6.3	4.0	4.3	3.9	4.4
MDRI countries	3.9	4.5	5.4	6.3	6.9	6.4	5.8	5.7	6.0
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	4.6	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.5	4.4	3.7	4.9	4.9
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	1.7	2.6	2.5	1.8	1.7	1.1	1.5	1.7	2.2
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**2.1**	**2.9**	**2.8**	**2.2**	**2.1**	**1.5**	**1.8**	**2.1**	**2.5**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA22. Real Effective Exchange Rates[1]
(Annual average; index, 2000 = 100)

	2004–08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Oil-exporting countries	**128.9**	**140.5**	**147.2**	**147.3**	**161.7**	**171.8**	**183.4**
Excluding Nigeria	**136.5**	**166.2**	**157.8**	**159.9**	**166.9**	**175.2**	**180.6**
Angola	179.2	249.4	235.1	242.4	268.2	285.6	298.1
Cameroon	110.1	116.0	108.6	108.8	105.0	108.1	109.6
Chad	118.6	133.7	123.6	116.2	125.7	125.9	128.2
Congo, Rep. of	118.4	128.7	124.8	123.8	120.8	129.8	126.4
Equatorial Guinea	153.6	176.0	177.7	187.9	185.5	199.2	208.4
Gabon	106.1	111.5	107.3	105.7	103.4	105.4	109.7
Nigeria	126.2	131.9	143.1	142.6	159.3	170.0	183.7
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Middle-income countries[2]	**103.6**	**100.1**	**111.1**	**112.1**	**107.0**	**98.7**	**92.5**
Excluding South Africa	**112.4**	**114.5**	**118.0**	**114.4**	**116.8**	**118.1**	**110.4**
Botswana	98.2	100.5	108.8	107.7	104.1	99.7	94.5
Cabo Verde	97.1	101.6	99.0	101.0	98.6	101.9	101.9
Ghana	108.9	99.6	106.2	100.8	94.5	95.2	73.8
Kenya	120.6	133.2	131.4	125.3	142.5	147.7	152.6
Lesotho	65.9	64.1	73.1	73.0	69.0	61.9	57.8
Mauritius	89.1	91.7	94.6	100.2	101.8	101.9	105.0
Namibia	105.0	101.9	114.4	111.1	107.6	98.8	92.9
Senegal	107.3	110.2	103.4	104.4	100.5	102.8	102.0
Seychelles	81.8	60.3	63.0	58.1	57.7	68.0	65.8
South Africa	100.0	94.0	108.6	112.2	102.9	89.9	84.3
Swaziland	106.7	105.3	113.6	111.2	112.7	107.0	101.5
Zambia	149.5	155.7	164.7	158.4	164.9	171.8	164.8
Low-income and fragile countries	**92.2**	**100.0**	**92.6**	**92.7**	**100.2**	**103.2**	**105.8**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**87.9**	**94.5**	**86.3**	**85.8**	**95.2**	**97.6**	**100.2**
Benin	119.4	123.2	115.2	114.4	112.4	114.0	112.6
Burkina Faso	111.7	120.4	110.3	112.2	111.4	113.4	118.1
Ethiopia	100.1	115.1	98.4	103.4	122.7	124.2	129.9
Gambia, The	56.2	56.6	54.9	50.7	49.5	45.8	41.9
Mali	109.6	117.4	111.3	111.4	112.2	112.8	114.9
Mozambique	84.4	84.7	71.9	85.3	92.0	91.3	90.0
Niger	111.3	118.1	110.1	110.1	104.2	108.1	107.4
Rwanda	76.9	87.4	85.3	82.1	83.9	83.5	81.6
Sierra Leone	72.3	78.8	76.1	76.4	89.1	96.6	99.6
Tanzania	69.0	72.3	68.5	63.5	74.3	80.3	82.4
Uganda	89.6	93.0	86.6	82.7	94.3	96.1	99.0
Fragile countries	**99.1**	**110.2**	**106.3**	**107.8**	**105.8**	**108.9**	**111.5**
Burundi	71.3	80.4	82.5	81.9	84.3	84.4	88.2
Central African Rep.	112.4	124.3	118.5	117.2	117.5	121.2	151.2
Comoros	119.3	121.4	115.6	115.8	110.4	114.5	111.2
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Côte d'Ivoire	117.2	122.1	115.2	117.5	112.7	117.8	119.0
Eritrea	107.2	164.9	182.4	190.3	211.1	230.1	251.1
Guinea	72.9	81.9	75.9	73.2	81.6	91.6	100.2
Guinea-Bissau	112.5	119.0	115.4	117.7	114.9	116.6	116.0
Liberia	85.1	91.4	92.9	92.7	101.2	100.0	100.1
Madagascar	91.1	106.9	106.3	111.7	110.6	114.6	110.8
Malawi	71.6	78.4	73.7	70.5	57.9	49.2	53.6
São Tomé & Príncipe	94.2	117.5	114.2	127.5	133.9	146.6	156.9
Togo	112.2	118.8	111.5	112.3	107.8	110.2	111.4
Zimbabwe	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sub-Saharan Africa	**109.5**	**113.7**	**118.7**	**119.2**	**123.9**	**124.3**	**125.7**
Median	106.4	110.9	108.7	110.6	106.3	107.5	108.5
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	107.4	117.9	113.5	112.8	118.9	122.3	122.2
Oil-importing countries	**99.8**	**100.2**	**104.4**	**105.0**	**104.8**	**100.7**	**97.5**
Excluding South Africa	**99.8**	**105.7**	**102.1**	**100.9**	**106.7**	**109.0**	**107.8**
CFA franc zone	114.6	122.2	115.6	116.0	113.8	117.4	119.1
WAEMU	113.4	119.0	111.6	112.8	109.6	112.6	113.6
CEMAC	116.0	125.8	120.2	119.8	118.6	122.9	125.4
EAC-5	91.3	98.1	94.3	89.2	101.7	106.3	109.2
ECOWAS	119.9	124.4	131.3	130.6	140.9	148.9	155.0
SADC	102.0	103.8	112.1	114.2	111.7	104.8	101.5
SACU	99.8	94.4	108.5	111.6	102.9	90.4	84.9
COMESA (SSA members)	104.4	115.0	110.3	109.4	120.6	122.9	125.5
MDRI countries	97.8	103.2	98.1	97.1	102.1	104.7	102.8
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	112.8	120.2	115.6	115.9	113.8	116.5	117.6
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	108.8	112.4	119.1	119.5	125.5	125.5	126.9
Sub-Saharan Africa[3]	**109.5**	**113.7**	**118.7**	**119.2**	**123.9**	**124.3**	**125.7**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA23. Nominal Effective Exchange Rates[1]
(Annual average; index, 2000 = 100)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Oil-exporting countries	**61.0**	**55.3**	**53.1**	**50.2**	**51.1**	**51.6**	**52.5**
Excluding Nigeria	**47.5**	**49.5**	**44.6**	**43.6**	**43.4**	**44.1**	**44.1**
Angola	8.8	9.2	7.7	7.3	7.5	7.5	7.4
Cameroon	110.6	115.3	110.2	111.6	108.1	112.1	113.8
Chad	114.3	119.6	116.1	117.5	114.7	117.0	118.6
Congo, Rep. of	117.5	121.5	115.5	116.8	113.4	117.8	119.5
Equatorial Guinea	122.9	130.1	124.3	126.7	120.4	123.6	123.4
Gabon	109.1	111.2	107.4	107.7	105.0	108.2	109.6
Nigeria	67.4	57.9	56.9	53.2	54.5	55.0	56.3
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Middle-income countries[2]	**81.0**	**66.0**	**71.6**	**68.2**	**64.1**	**57.8**	**51.7**
Excluding South Africa	**75.6**	**63.9**	**64.0**	**59.8**	**58.6**	**56.9**	**50.7**
Botswana	77.8	64.4	67.3	64.2	59.2	54.8	50.8
Cabo Verde	105.1	105.8	103.3	104.4	102.3	106.2	107.9
Ghana	45.2	29.4	29.1	26.4	23.4	21.6	14.9
Kenya	93.3	89.0	86.9	77.3	84.0	84.7	84.4
Lesotho	99.4	82.9	93.0	91.9	83.6	72.7	65.8
Mauritius	74.2	68.5	70.7	73.0	73.5	72.7	74.1
Namibia	86.3	74.7	82.5	80.5	74.9	66.8	61.3
Senegal	112.0	116.7	111.4	112.9	110.4	114.9	117.8
Seychelles	80.5	36.6	40.1	37.5	35.6	41.1	39.8
South Africa	84.0	67.1	76.1	73.3	67.2	58.0	52.1
Swaziland	90.9	80.6	86.0	84.5	80.8	75.0	70.9
Zambia	65.7	54.8	55.0	52.2	52.1	52.0	47.7
Low-income and fragile countries	**60.1**	**53.1**	**47.9**	**44.2**	**44.2**	**44.1**	**44.4**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**75.1**	**67.0**	**59.8**	**53.9**	**54.1**	**53.6**	**53.8**
Benin	116.4	118.3	111.8	113.1	107.5	111.4	114.3
Burkina Faso	119.8	134.5	130.1	135.6	135.3	143.6	158.4
Ethiopia	78.7	58.7	48.0	39.3	39.1	37.6	37.6
Gambia, The	40.7	39.7	37.7	34.6	33.2	29.8	26.3
Mali	112.9	117.9	113.5	114.9	112.7	116.8	120.2
Mozambique	53.6	48.1	37.3	41.9	45.1	44.3	44.5
Niger	115.4	121.4	115.7	116.8	113.5	118.2	121.4
Rwanda	61.1	60.5	59.4	57.7	58.3	56.9	54.5
Sierra Leone	55.6	47.5	39.8	35.0	36.8	37.2	36.1
Tanzania	59.2	53.4	48.8	42.7	44.2	45.3	45.0
Uganda	82.3	72.6	67.0	57.2	59.4	59.2	60.3
Fragile countries	**41.7**	**36.5**	**33.7**	**32.7**	**31.8**	**31.6**	**31.6**
Burundi	57.0	52.2	52.6	50.5	46.2	44.4	45.8
Central African Rep.	108.4	111.3	106.7	107.5	104.3	108.0	109.9
Comoros	115.2	120.8	115.6	119.0	115.7	121.6	123.4
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	2.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3
Côte d'Ivoire	114.8	118.8	113.0	113.7	110.6	115.3	118.3
Eritrea	48.9	49.5	50.4	49.8	51.8	52.5	53.2
Guinea	39.6	28.7	23.7	19.5	19.4	19.9	20.2
Guinea-Bissau	117.0	120.0	115.9	116.4	113.9	116.7	118.1
Liberia	56.4	47.5	45.9	43.6	45.8	42.9	39.6
Madagascar	58.9	56.0	52.1	51.9	49.9	49.9	46.3
Malawi	40.3	38.5	34.9	32.9	23.6	15.8	14.4
São Tomé & Príncipe	52.7	38.4	33.6	33.9	33.1	34.1	34.6
Togo	120.6	126.1	120.3	122.3	118.6	123.1	127.9
Zimbabwe	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sub-Saharan Africa	**68.4**	**59.1**	**58.6**	**55.3**	**54.5**	**52.7**	**51.2**
Median	82.3	68.5	70.7	73.0	67.2	59.2	60.3
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	61.3	55.8	51.8	48.6	48.4	48.1	46.6
Oil-importing countries	**73.2**	**61.3**	**62.2**	**58.5**	**56.3**	**52.8**	**49.4**
Excluding South Africa	**65.6**	**57.1**	**53.6**	**49.6**	**49.3**	**48.7**	**46.8**
CFA franc zone	114.4	119.4	114.3	115.8	112.6	116.8	119.8
WAEMU	115.2	120.7	115.4	117.0	114.2	119.1	123.5
CEMAC	113.3	117.9	113.0	114.3	110.7	114.2	115.6
EAC-5	75.8	69.9	66.1	58.3	61.1	61.7	61.6
ECOWAS	72.0	62.6	61.0	57.6	57.9	58.3	57.9
SADC	58.7	49.2	50.9	48.7	46.4	42.5	39.6
SACU	83.9	67.4	76.1	73.3	67.3	58.3	52.5
COMESA (SSA members)	55.3	46.7	43.4	39.0	39.6	38.9	38.4
MDRI countries	61.7	53.4	49.2	45.7	45.0	44.6	42.6
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	109.6	112.6	109.2	110.2	106.9	109.6	111.3
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	62.4	52.4	52.1	48.6	48.0	46.0	44.4
Sub-Saharan Africa[3]	**68.4**	**59.1**	**58.6**	**55.3**	**54.5**	**52.7**	**51.2**

Sources and footnotes on page 72.

Table SA24. External Debt to Official Creditors
(Percent of GDP)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**12.0**	**4.1**	**4.0**	**3.8**	**4.0**	**4.3**	**4.4**	**5.3**	**5.5**
Excluding Nigeria	**19.9**	**9.4**	**10.3**	**9.2**	**10.0**	**10.8**	**11.3**	**14.6**	**14.5**
Angola	13.9	8.3	8.7	7.6	7.6	7.6	7.0	8.9	8.4
Cameroon	17.8	5.4	6.2	7.0	9.0	12.0	14.6	20.1	22.4
Chad	23.0	27.5	24.6	21.4	20.8	26.6	32.9	29.9	26.5
Congo, Rep. of	59.0	10.9	18.0	17.8	24.9	27.0	28.1	39.7	35.5
Equatorial Guinea	2.8	7.2	11.2	7.7	10.2	9.0	7.6	23.6	28.2
Gabon	28.3	10.1	8.8	8.5	7.1	8.6	9.8	10.2	9.9
Nigeria	8.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.7	1.7	2.0	2.1
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Middle-income countries[1]	**6.3**	**6.1**	**6.0**	**6.1**	**6.7**	**7.6**	**8.6**	**9.6**	**10.0**
Excluding South Africa	**18.9**	**16.5**	**16.7**	**16.8**	**17.2**	**17.9**	**20.0**	**21.4**	**21.8**
Botswana	3.6	18.2	20.8	18.7	19.4	16.7	14.1	12.0	10.9
Cabo Verde	44.8	45.2	49.5	50.8	66.2	73.9	71.9	82.2	80.8
Ghana	24.0	19.3	19.4	19.3	21.8	23.3	33.7	36.4	36.3
Kenya	23.4	20.3	20.9	21.6	16.3	16.4	17.4	19.0	20.4
Lesotho	47.9	39.4	33.6	30.7	34.0	38.4	44.5	48.5	48.9
Mauritius	6.9	8.0	9.7	10.1	14.1	16.4	15.2	18.3	18.1
Namibia	4.7	4.9	4.3	6.4	8.2	7.4	8.5	7.6	8.0
Senegal	14.4	12.6	13.5	13.9	15.8	16.2	17.8	20.2	20.3
Seychelles	29.1	28.7	22.8	24.4	24.1	20.6	20.5	24.3	24.4
South Africa	1.9	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.4
Swaziland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Zambia	33.9	10.3	8.7	8.8	11.4	12.4	13.7	13.9	13.6
Low-income and fragile countries	**48.7**	**30.6**	**24.6**	**24.2**	**20.4**	**20.9**	**21.1**	**23.8**	**24.6**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**32.9**	**18.0**	**20.2**	**20.5**	**19.7**	**21.1**	**22.3**	**25.5**	**26.9**
Benin	22.2	16.2	18.1	16.9	16.9	19.0	17.8	20.3	21.7
Burkina Faso	29.4	25.6	26.3	22.8	23.1	22.2	20.0	21.6	22.4
Ethiopia[2]	36.1	13.0	18.0	21.8	17.7	20.2	21.4	25.4	28.2
Gambia, The	84.4	43.2	42.7	44.8	45.6	47.9	51.9	55.2	53.7
Mali	31.1	22.1	26.7	23.2	26.0	26.6	29.5	35.3	37.3
Mozambique	46.9	36.0	36.8	32.1	32.8	36.2	40.8	46.4	46.9
Niger	31.2	19.6	16.9	15.5	17.7	18.6	31.4	39.8	40.1
Rwanda	36.7	13.9	13.6	15.7	14.2	19.9	20.7	23.5	26.1
Sierra Leone	71.4	28.2	30.4	32.6	25.1	25.1	26.5	33.6	30.1
Tanzania	25.7	16.6	18.3	19.3	17.9	17.4	17.1	17.6	17.1
Uganda	24.8	12.0	13.8	13.8	14.4	15.6	16.7	21.3	25.0
Fragile countries	**71.4**	**50.8**	**31.1**	**29.5**	**21.8**	**20.9**	**19.2**	**21.0**	**20.6**
Burundi	119.8	21.2	22.4	20.5	20.2	19.8	16.4	13.9	11.9
Central African Rep.	66.7	16.7	20.0	22.1	25.1	37.5	32.6	32.3	27.9
Comoros	73.0	50.7	47.8	43.8	40.4	15.6	17.4	17.5	17.2
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	85.9	71.1	13.7	12.3	10.6	8.9	7.5	12.4	14.1
Côte d'Ivoire	52.7	39.8	35.9	38.8	19.0	18.7	14.3	12.6	10.2
Eritrea	58.9	49.1	45.8	35.8	29.1	25.6	23.2	23.6	21.3
Guinea	91.4	69.6	64.0	62.7	23.2	23.8	25.8	31.7	33.1
Guinea-Bissau	161.5	128.8	23.3	24.4	28.1	28.4	28.3	31.1	32.3
Liberia	509.7	146.5	9.3	9.6	9.3	10.8	18.0	26.4	30.4
Madagascar	46.0	25.7	23.5	21.6	23.2	22.4	23.5	26.4	26.9
Malawi	53.8	15.9	16.0	16.2	22.8	31.0	27.8	24.0	20.7
São Tomé & Príncipe	207.2	68.0	75.3	71.7	71.3	65.4	62.9	68.2	69.7
Togo	76.1	55.1	17.2	15.4	18.4	19.9	21.4	23.7	24.6
Zimbabwe[3]	56.2	66.5	62.3	52.0	48.4	46.6	47.2	49.1	49.1
Sub-Saharan Africa	**15.7**	**10.3**	**8.4**	**8.2**	**8.0**	**8.6**	**9.0**	**10.7**	**11.2**
Median	36.1	20.3	19.4	19.3	19.4	19.9	20.5	23.6	24.6
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	32.1	20.7	18.1	17.3	16.3	17.0	17.9	20.8	21.2
Oil-importing countries	**18.2**	**14.2**	**11.5**	**11.4**	**11.1**	**12.2**	**13.2**	**15.1**	**15.7**
Excluding South Africa	**36.9**	**25.4**	**21.4**	**21.2**	**19.2**	**19.7**	**20.7**	**22.9**	**23.5**
CFA franc zone	31.7	20.2	18.8	17.7	16.5	17.8	18.7	22.1	22.1
WAEMU	38.1	28.9	25.5	24.9	19.7	19.9	19.7	21.4	21.1
CEMAC	25.6	10.8	12.3	11.4	13.5	15.6	17.7	23.0	23.3
EAC-5	27.0	17.1	18.3	18.9	16.4	16.8	17.3	19.1	20.3
ECOWAS	18.2	9.6	7.2	7.1	5.9	6.3	6.5	7.6	7.9
SADC	10.8	9.4	7.0	6.8	7.3	7.9	8.1	9.5	9.5
SACU	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.3
COMESA (SSA members)	38.8	24.6	19.1	19.0	17.5	18.1	18.5	21.1	22.4
MDRI countries	38.9	21.4	17.2	17.3	18.0	19.1	21.0	24.2	25.2
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	30.9	20.3	18.8	17.9	16.9	18.0	19.0	22.1	22.1
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	12.7	8.0	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.8	7.1	8.7	9.2
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**15.7**	**10.3**	**8.4**	**8.2**	**8.0**	**8.6**	**9.0**	**10.7**	**11.2**

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Table SA25. Terms of Trade on Goods
(Index, 2000 = 100)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Oil-exporting countries	**128.4**	**119.0**	**133.8**	**150.0**	**151.9**	**152.0**	**146.1**	**111.6**	**119.6**
Excluding Nigeria	**133.5**	**119.6**	**144.4**	**174.6**	**178.3**	**176.9**	**164.3**	**108.8**	**119.8**
Angola	108.5	99.0	118.1	146.7	155.2	152.3	138.1	80.8	90.4
Cameroon	115.7	104.4	112.8	121.8	122.2	118.0	118.7	118.9	120.7
Chad	176.6	188.5	240.2	285.1	279.7	303.5	290.1	178.5	198.9
Congo, Rep. of	301.1	206.4	313.5	357.4	348.2	361.0	332.4	258.7	306.1
Equatorial Guinea	103.6	83.6	106.4	131.9	135.8	134.5	123.8	83.9	90.8
Gabon	172.7	162.1	192.7	243.5	208.9	212.4	200.1	127.9	139.2
Nigeria	127.1	120.7	132.0	143.0	144.3	144.8	141.1	113.9	120.8
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Middle-income countries[1]	**115.9**	**133.9**	**146.7**	**151.7**	**145.1**	**137.1**	**134.1**	**135.7**	**133.9**
Excluding South Africa	**109.3**	**122.0**	**141.8**	**147.8**	**142.0**	**135.0**	**132.9**	**133.5**	**132.4**
Botswana	90.6	86.2	87.2	87.3	99.7	105.9	107.9	110.2	110.0
Cabo Verde	90.4	87.8	95.1	96.9	98.3	90.0	91.8	79.6	82.9
Ghana	50.2	68.8	83.8	100.0	98.5	91.7	85.1	83.9	83.2
Kenya	83.9	96.4	113.6	109.9	109.2	102.2	103.8	106.6	106.9
Lesotho	103.6	80.4	80.4	79.1	79.5	85.1	77.4	83.4	80.5
Mauritius	102.2	89.0	93.4	92.6	89.7	82.8	84.4	87.3	85.4
Namibia	95.3	91.6	107.6	114.3	82.2	76.3	79.0	75.6	72.8
Senegal	110.2	131.2	131.5	124.9	122.5	116.0	118.1	124.4	121.8
Seychelles	71.9	70.6	65.9	61.7	61.7	61.6	62.8	72.3	69.2
South Africa	106.3	124.3	133.3	137.4	131.2	123.6	120.3	122.4	120.4
Swaziland	102.8	109.7	111.3	119.5	112.0	118.3	120.4	121.9	120.4
Zambia	133.8	122.4	167.9	178.6	153.7	143.4	136.0	129.0	127.4
Low-income and fragile countries	**102.9**	**106.2**	**115.8**	**131.3**	**130.1**	**121.8**	**117.0**	**117.9**	**111.1**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**73.9**	**76.9**	**84.0**	**92.6**	**91.1**	**82.6**	**74.9**	**73.0**	**67.0**
Benin	130.3	244.5	312.7	333.8	230.3	200.6	191.0	186.0	181.4
Burkina Faso	62.8	53.3	38.1	33.8	40.1	37.8	34.2	39.1	40.9
Ethiopia[2]	44.8	32.9	41.2	57.1	55.5	43.9	32.8	27.1	20.0
Gambia, The	102.8	76.2	65.0	60.9	76.8	88.0	79.6	85.2	93.3
Mali	136.1	156.9	190.3	237.0	268.7	214.1	202.3	233.4	224.3
Mozambique	105.5	100.5	112.1	115.2	108.6	98.8	95.6	95.5	96.1
Niger	121.8	164.6	159.4	171.1	178.2	173.6	157.8	168.2	160.3
Rwanda	127.3	146.2	169.6	170.1	159.7	190.6	177.2	195.2	198.8
Sierra Leone	95.0	90.0	96.2	91.6	96.0	92.3	80.5	79.9	80.4
Tanzania	75.4	90.3	95.1	96.2	96.0	92.9	93.8	98.8	98.4
Uganda	79.4	85.2	82.5	86.9	84.2	80.7	82.3	84.5	83.8
Fragile countries	**137.4**	**140.9**	**153.3**	**179.8**	**179.4**	**177.1**	**188.0**	**201.0**	**197.6**
Burundi	116.0	111.2	168.9	153.9	122.2	109.9	126.5	138.4	137.2
Central African Rep.	61.1	69.4	70.6	70.0	70.6	92.6	96.5	113.3	95.8
Comoros	96.9	84.3	88.8	118.6	126.7	102.2	112.6	122.9	126.0
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	239.2	218.9	262.9	231.9	218.8	220.6	241.2	257.1	253.8
Côte d'Ivoire	89.3	95.7	103.2	105.3	104.8	101.1	110.1	118.5	121.2
Eritrea	66.5	26.3	27.1	231.8	355.5	307.8	276.0	233.0	190.8
Guinea	46.5	32.7	29.5	21.1	20.2	20.6	21.4	27.7	26.7
Guinea-Bissau	82.8	58.2	58.6	105.9	78.7	57.6	81.0	119.5	107.0
Liberia	110.4	100.0	152.5	167.8	118.2	119.2	104.5	108.8	108.9
Madagascar	131.7	141.2	133.1	134.4	144.2	162.5	172.1	177.2	173.0
Malawi	97.1	104.1	112.7	115.5	99.2	96.0	96.7	98.8	93.0
São Tomé & Príncipe	121.0	83.9	91.7	77.7	119.4	88.7	103.0	137.2	118.8
Togo	55.2	53.3	52.5	63.4	76.9	60.6	64.6	67.4	66.0
Zimbabwe[3]	86.2	104.4	109.8	108.8	112.5	111.8	109.2	112.1	110.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	**118.6**	**125.1**	**138.5**	**150.8**	**149.0**	**144.3**	**139.5**	**126.8**	**128.7**
Median	102.8	96.1	108.7	115.4	112.3	104.0	108.6	112.7	109.5
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	113.3	115.9	132.7	150.5	149.3	142.8	136.8	125.8	125.4
Oil-importing countries	**112.1**	**124.7**	**136.4**	**145.0**	**140.3**	**132.1**	**128.4**	**129.7**	**125.7**
Excluding South Africa	**105.4**	**111.9**	**125.1**	**137.2**	**134.4**	**126.5**	**122.7**	**123.5**	**118.7**
CFA franc zone	113.3	118.0	133.7	148.8	147.7	142.2	140.3	133.1	137.6
WAEMU	101.7	119.7	124.7	130.4	132.4	121.0	122.4	132.2	132.4
CEMAC	124.9	112.4	136.9	159.7	155.3	157.3	151.1	120.3	128.8
EAC-5	72.7	82.4	90.1	90.0	88.4	85.2	86.2	89.8	89.7
ECOWAS	122.3	125.2	136.8	147.7	148.8	146.7	143.2	124.4	130.2
SADC	123.2	136.1	149.5	158.0	153.5	147.5	143.4	135.4	136.1
SACU	116.0	133.7	143.3	147.8	140.9	133.4	130.5	132.5	130.3
COMESA (SSA members)	122.7	120.1	139.0	159.3	154.5	145.1	137.8	134.5	125.4
MDRI countries	120.2	125.5	143.4	155.3	151.4	141.8	134.6	133.1	127.3
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	111.0	114.4	129.1	155.8	153.1	147.0	145.3	138.1	141.2
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	120.8	127.7	141.1	151.2	149.4	144.9	139.6	125.9	127.7
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**118.6**	**125.1**	**138.5**	**150.8**	**149.0**	**144.3**	**139.5**	**126.8**	**128.7**

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Table SA26. Reserves
(Months of imports of goods and services)

	2004-08	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Oil-exporting countries	**7.8**	**6.9**	**4.8**	**5.7**	**7.3**	**6.6**	**6.8**
Excluding Nigeria	**3.4**	**4.9**	**4.8**	**6.2**	**6.7**	**6.3**	**7.0**
Angola	3.1	4.6	5.4	7.5	8.2	7.7	8.6
Cameroon	3.7	6.8	5.3	4.7	4.7	4.4	4.9
Chad	2.0	1.4	1.3	1.9	2.5	2.2	2.2
Congo, Rep. of	3.7	6.5	6.7	9.1	8.3	7.2	10.1
Equatorial Guinea	4.8	4.2	2.6	3.4	4.9	5.2	5.1
Gabon	3.5	5.2	3.7	4.6	4.7	5.5	6.1
Nigeria	9.8	7.9	4.9	5.5	7.5	6.7	6.7
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	4.6	2.9	1.1
Middle-income countries[1]	**3.5**	**4.3**	**3.8**	**4.1**	**4.3**	**4.5**	**4.8**
Excluding South Africa	**4.7**	**4.7**	**4.1**	**3.8**	**4.1**	**4.2**	**4.8**
Botswana	20.8	16.4	11.8	11.3	11.2	12.1	15.7
Cabo Verde	3.2	4.3	3.3	3.5	4.0	4.7	5.1
Ghana	2.7	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0
Kenya	2.9	3.4	3.2	2.9	3.7	4.0	4.7
Lesotho	4.7	5.7	4.9	4.3	5.6	5.8	6.3
Mauritius	3.8	4.2	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.8	5.0
Namibia	2.0	4.2	3.2	3.0	2.8	2.3	1.8
Senegal	3.5	4.9	3.8	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.7
Seychelles	0.8	2.2	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.7	4.6
South Africa	3.1	4.1	3.7	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.8
Swaziland	2.6	4.4	3.2	2.7	3.7	3.7	3.7
Zambia	2.2	4.1	3.3	3.0	3.4	3.4	3.5
Low-income and fragile countries	**3.3**	**3.7**	**3.3**	**3.2**	**2.9**	**2.9**	**3.0**
Low-income excluding fragile countries	**4.3**	**4.3**	**3.6**	**3.3**	**3.2**	**3.2**	**3.1**
Benin	7.1	7.2	7.1	5.1	2.7	3.2	3.0
Burkina Faso	4.8	6.1	3.6	3.0	2.9	2.0	1.0
Ethiopia[2]	2.4	1.9	2.0	2.6	2.0	1.8	1.7
Gambia, The	3.9	6.6	6.6	6.6	7.6	6.8	5.5
Mali	4.6	5.1	4.2	4.2	3.0	2.8	2.4
Mozambique	4.0	5.4	3.4	2.5	2.8	3.3	2.8
Niger	3.2	2.8	3.0	3.0	4.1	4.3	4.1
Rwanda	5.3	5.4	4.4	5.1	4.2	4.7	5.4
Sierra Leone	4.1	4.3	2.0	2.3	2.5	2.9	3.4
Tanzania	4.8	4.5	4.1	3.5	3.6	3.9	4.1
Uganda	5.7	5.8	4.4	4.1	5.0	5.0	4.7
Fragile countries	**1.8**	**2.7**	**2.8**	**2.8**	**2.4**	**2.4**	**2.6**
Burundi	3.6	4.4	4.1	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.5
Central African Rep.	4.1	4.8	4.1	3.6	5.0	3.7	4.6
Comoros	6.4	6.6	5.7	5.8	6.2	5.7	5.8
Congo, Dem. Rep. of	0.4	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.3
Côte d'Ivoire	2.7	3.6	4.6	4.3	3.3	3.5	4.1
Eritrea	1.0	2.2	2.3	2.0	3.4	3.4	3.9
Guinea	0.5	2.4	1.2	3.2	2.8	3.2	3.6
Guinea-Bissau	5.1	6.8	5.5	10.4	5.0	4.7	6.5
Liberia	0.6	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.7
Madagascar	2.7	3.6	3.3	3.5	3.1	2.3	2.2
Malawi	1.3	0.7	1.6	1.0	1.2	2.1	2.9
São Tomé & Príncipe	4.8	6.6	3.9	4.6	3.6	3.6	3.8
Togo	3.2	4.6	3.4	4.0	1.9	2.2	2.4
Zimbabwe[3]	0.6	1.7	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	**5.1**	**5.2**	**4.2**	**4.6**	**5.4**	**5.2**	**5.4**
Median	3.5	4.4	3.7	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.9
Excluding Nigeria and South Africa	3.8	4.3	4.0	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.7
Oil-importing countries	**3.4**	**4.1**	**3.7**	**3.8**	**3.8**	**3.9**	**4.1**
Excluding South Africa	**3.9**	**4.1**	**3.6**	**3.4**	**3.4**	**3.4**	**3.7**
CFA franc zone	3.7	5.0	4.3	4.4	4.1	4.0	4.4
WAEMU	3.8	4.7	4.3	4.0	3.2	3.2	3.3
CEMAC	3.6	5.3	4.2	4.7	5.0	4.8	5.5
EAC-5	4.2	4.4	3.8	3.4	4.0	4.2	4.5
ECOWAS	8.0	6.8	4.6	5.0	6.5	5.9	6.0
SADC	3.5	4.3	4.0	4.5	4.8	4.9	5.3
SACU	3.7	4.5	4.0	4.3	4.5	4.8	5.2
COMESA (SSA members)	2.7	3.2	2.9	2.8	3.0	3.0	3.2
MDRI countries	3.5	4.2	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.4
Countries with conventional exchange rate pegs	3.6	4.9	4.1	4.2	4.0	3.9	4.2
Countries without conventional exchange rate pegs	5.4	5.3	4.2	4.7	5.6	5.4	5.7
Sub-Saharan Africa[4]	**5.1**	**5.2**	**4.2**	**4.6**	**5.4**	**5.2**	**5.4**

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