

Programme Budgeting in the WAEMU Area: Taking Stock of Fifteen Years of Reform (2009-2025) *Between normative achievements and effectiveness gaps*

Abstract

There is something puzzling about the WAEMU's budgetary balance sheet in 2025: all the texts have been adopted, all the structures created, all the documents produced — and yet administrative practices have not kept pace. It is this gap, between reform on paper and reform as lived experience, that this article seeks to understand. Drawing on New Public Management theory, institutional economics, and the international literature on results-based budgeting, it proposes an original four-level conceptual model — normative, organisational, behavioural, and effective reform — that allows a precise assessment of where each country actually stands in its appropriation of the reform. Senegal, selected as the primary case study because it is among the most advanced WAEMU states in formal transposition, illustrates the central paradox: undeniable normative achievements coexist with persistent obstacles — maintained ex-ante controls, absent IFMIS, current expenditure growing faster than investment. A comparative analysis of Rwanda, Morocco, Ghana, and South Africa shows that these obstacles are not inevitable, but that overcoming them requires targeted responses on the behavioural and technical dimensions of reform, not just the legal one.

Keywords: *programme budgeting; WAEMU; results-based management; public financial management; Senegal; budget reform; New Public Management; institutionalism*

1. Introduction

Imagine a programme manager in a ministry in Dakar or Abidjan. In theory, this person is a manager: they steer a public policy, control a consolidated budget envelope, can reallocate resources between activities to maximise results, and report at year-end against a set of performance indicators. That is the promise of programme budgeting, adopted by all eight WAEMU member states following the six harmonised community directives of 2009.

In practice, that same manager still has to submit most of their management decisions to the prior approval of the financial controller. They cannot track their remaining credits in real time, because the expenditure management system is not connected to the performance indicators in their Annual Performance Plan. And when they write their Annual Performance Report at year-end, it is too late to correct anything.

This paradox — between what the reform texts promise and what public servants actually experience — is at the heart of this article. It is not unique to West Africa. It accompanies every major budget reform inspired by New Public Management, from the French LOLF of 2001 to the Commonwealth reforms. But in the WAEMU area, the gap between promise and reality is particularly sharp — and the stakes particularly high, in countries where every misallocated franc CFA weighs on access to education, health, or infrastructure.

This article makes three contributions to the literature. It proposes an original four-level conceptual model — normative, organisational, behavioural, effective — that allows an assessment of where a budget reform actually stands, beyond its formal transposition rate. It applies this model to the

40 WAEMU space using the most recent available data, with a deep case study of Senegal. And it
41 situates this experience in an international comparative perspective — Rwanda, Morocco, Ghana,
42 South Africa — to identify what distinguishes reforms that genuinely change practices from those
43 that stop at the level of texts.

44 **2. Literature Review and Conceptual Framework**

45 ***2.1 New Public Management: a simple idea, a complex implementation***

46 The starting idea is seductively simple. Instead of asking a ministry how much it has spent, ask it
47 what it has achieved. That is the spirit of New Public Management (NPM), popularised by David
48 Osborne and Ted Gaebler (1992) in their landmark *Reinventing Government*, one of the founding
49 texts of state reform in the 1990s. Public managers should no longer be judged on procedural
50 compliance, but on the results they produce for citizens — treated as "customers" whose needs
51 should drive budgetary choices.

52 This philosophy found its most complete budgetary expression in the pioneering reforms of New
53 Zealand from 1989 onward, then in the Commonwealth countries and in France's 2001 organic
54 budget law. The IMF, the World Bank, and the OECD subsequently promoted its diffusion to
55 developing countries, contributing to its adoption in institutional contexts very different from those
56 in which it had originally taken root (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2011).

57 It is precisely this point that Allen Schick — one of the most clear-eyed economists on budget
58 reform — addressed in what has become a landmark paper. In 1998, he formulated the "basics first"
59 principle: before adopting the sophisticated tools of NPM — programme budgets, performance
60 indicators, credit fungibility — a state must ensure that the elementary prerequisites of budget
61 management are in place. His warning was distilled into a now-famous phrase: "Look before you
62 leapfrog." Twenty-five years later, the WAEMU experience largely bears him out.

63 ***2.2 What the literature knows about results-based budgeting***

64 Robinson (2009), in a reference document published by the IMF, distinguishes three models of
65 performance-based budgeting. Presentational budgeting simply appends results information to
66 budget documents without integrating it into allocation decisions. Informational budgeting uses this
67 information as an input in the decision process, without mechanically determining allocations. Direct
68 budgeting, finally, automatically links credits to obtained results — an ideal that virtually no country
69 has managed to implement systematically.

70 Robinson's conclusion matters for understanding the WAEMU: the vast majority of countries that
71 have adopted a programme budget practice, in fact, presentational or — at best — informational
72 budgeting. That is already something: documents exist, indicators are defined, objectives are
73 published. But it is not yet genuine results-based management. Schick (2007) reaches the same
74 conclusion: programme budgeting should be understood as an analytical tool that improves the
75 quality of decisions, not as an automatic mechanism for reallocating credits. This distinction is
76 fundamental if we are not to overestimate the expected effects of the reform.

77 Allen (2009), in an IMF working paper that remains one of the most cited references on the subject,
78 identifies three categories of obstacles that undermine PFM reforms in developing countries:
79 technical problems (absence of integrated information systems, unsuitable nomenclatures);

institutional problems (inconsistencies in control procedures, fragmented responsibilities); and political problems (insufficient reform will, macroeconomic constraints that short-circuit performance logic). His International Handbook of Public Financial Management, co-edited with Hemming and Potter (2013), draws a blunt conclusion: "the vast majority of PFM reforms in developing countries fail not because they are poorly designed, but because they are poorly sequenced and too ambitious relative to available capacities."

Shah & Shen (2008), in their World Bank primer on performance budgeting, list the conditions for success: strong and durable political leadership; solid administrative capacities at every level of the budget chain; integrated information systems enabling real-time monitoring; an organisational culture that values results-based accountability; and coherence across related reforms — public procurement, accounting, human resources. The absence of any single one of these conditions is enough to jeopardise the entire system. In the WAEMU area, several are simultaneously missing.

2.3 What institutional economics illuminates

The best lens through which to understand why budget reforms advance so slowly — even after texts have been adopted — may be that of Douglass North. In Institutions, Institutional Change and Economic Performance (1990), he distinguishes formal institutions — laws, rules, constitutions — from informal institutions — norms of behaviour, conventions, organisational culture. His central thesis is that formal institutional changes only produce their intended effects when accompanied by a parallel evolution in informal institutions. And informal institutions change much more slowly than texts.

Applied to programme budgeting, this means: enacting an organic finance law is a formal institutional change — rapid. Getting public servants to genuinely adopt a results logic in their daily work — so that a section head seeks not merely to avoid procedural error but to reach objectives — is an informal institutional change, slow and difficult to engineer.

DiMaggio & Powell (1983) add a complementary insight through their theory of institutional isomorphism: organisations tend to adopt the institutional forms that are legitimate in their environment — including those required by donors or regional organisations — regardless of their actual effectiveness. Andrews (2013) calls this the "capability trap": the capacity to simulate compliance with international standards substitutes for the capacity to produce results. This description fits precisely what can be observed in parts of the WAEMU.

2.4 What the African and Francophone literature contributes

The WAEMU reform draws directly on the French LOLF of 2001 — a coherent choice given the shared administrative heritage of member states. But evaluations of the French LOLF (Bouvier et al., 2011; Lande & Rocher, 2010) show that it took a decade before performance indicators began genuinely influencing budget allocation decisions — and that in an institutional context incomparably more favourable than that of WAEMU countries.

Dia (1996) and Ayee (2008), well before the WAEMU reform, documented the limits of directly transplanting NPM tools into African contexts. Their work highlights the importance of "institutional interfaces" — the friction zones between imported formal reforms and local administrative cultures — as a key determinant of whether reforms succeed or fail.

More recently, Mede, Agbodjan, Aguemon and Atinma (2025) have provided the most precise academic diagnosis available on the internal inconsistencies of the WAEMU framework. Their central demonstration is damning: programme managers are held accountable for results they cannot produce, because the maintenance of ex-ante controls has removed the management levers they would need to achieve them. Ohemeng (2022), in an empirical study of Ghana published in Public Budgeting & Finance, shows that this resistance is primarily behavioural: agents do not lack tools — they lack the professional culture and incentives needed to use them in a performance logic.

3. A Four-Level Conceptual Model: Measuring What Actually Matters

A recurring problem in evaluating budget reforms is the conflation of analytically distinct levels of progress. When the WAEMU Commission announces that Senegal has achieved a 76.5% reform implementation rate in 2025, it means that 76.5% of formal texts and commitments have been honoured — not that 76.5% of administrative practices have changed. These two realities are radically different.

Drawing on the literature review and the WAEMU case analysis, four distinct levels can be identified, forming a cascade: each level is a necessary condition for the next.

Normative reform (Level 1) is the adoption of legal texts — organic finance laws, directives, implementing decrees, budget nomenclatures. It is the most visible, easiest-to-measure level, and the one on which the WAEMU has made the most progress. It is largely accomplished.

Organisational reform (Level 2) is the creation of the structures and tools that make the reform operational — Medium-Term Expenditure Frameworks, Multi-Year Expenditure Plans, Annual Performance Plans, appointed programme managers, budget information systems. This level is in progress in the WAEMU area but unequally advanced across countries and ministries.

Behavioural reform (Level 3) is the actual transformation of administrative practices — agents genuinely use performance indicators to guide daily decisions, budget allocations are effectively revised based on achieved results, accountability is operational and not merely documentary. This is the level most lacking in the WAEMU area.

Effective reform (Level 4) is the measurable improvement in the quality and efficiency of public spending — better alignment between allocations and real needs, reduced waste, tangible improvements in public services. This is the ultimate objective. It cannot be reached if the three preceding levels are not accomplished.

This cascading model is summarised in Table 3. Its main contribution is to show that reform support policies must be calibrated to where a country actually stands — not to where its formal texts place it.

Level 1 — Normative	Level 2 — Organisational	Level 3 — Behavioural	Level 4 — Effective
Adoption of legal texts: LOLE, directives, decrees, budget nomenclatures	Creation of structures and tools: MTEF, MTSP, APP, IFMIS, programme managers appointed	Transformation of practices: performance drives daily decisions, not just documents	Measurable improvement in the quality and efficiency of public spending
Indicator: law enacted, directive transposed	Indicator: APPs completed, IFMIS deployed	Indicator: budget allocations revised based on APR outcomes; accountability operational	Indicator: improved public services, reduced waste
WAEMU 2025: Accomplished	WAEMU 2025: In progress	WAEMU 2025: Partial	WAEMU 2025: Unachieved

4. Methodology

4.1 Why this research design?

This research adopts a mixed-methods qualitative design — combining a pan-African comparative analysis and an in-depth case study — because the question demands it. "Why is the reform not producing all its expected effects?" is not a question that aggregate data answer well. It calls for a process analysis — examining institutional mechanisms, agent behaviours, and the coherences and incoherences of the reform architecture — that only a qualitative approach can provide (Yin, 2018).

4.2 Why Senegal?

Senegal was selected on the basis of the "most likely case" criterion proposed by Gerring (2007): if the reform's limitations are visible in the most advanced country in the Union, they will be even more pronounced in other member states. Senegal is objectively among the most advanced: it was one of the first to transpose the community framework (LOLF 2011), one of the few to publish regular quarterly budget execution reports, and the only one to have developed ex-ante evaluation of public investments at scale. Its operational difficulties, documented by rich public data, are all the more analytically significant.

4.3 Data sources and analytical method

The analysis crosses four types of sources: data from the WAEMU annual reform reviews (11th edition, 2025) — the only standardised comparative base available at Union level; quarterly budget execution reports from Senegal's General Budget Directorate (2022-2025); ex-ante evaluation statistics from the General Directorate of Planning and Economic Policies; and academic and institutional literature (IMF, World Bank, CABRI, Global Evaluation Initiative). The analysis follows an abductive logic — starting from empirical data, mobilising theoretical frameworks to interpret observations, then returning to data to validate or qualify interpretations.

4.4 Limitations

Three limitations deserve explicit acknowledgement. The absence of standardised comparative data for several WAEMU member states limits the scope of intra-Union comparison. The Senegalese analysis rests primarily on public documentary sources; direct fieldwork with programme managers would considerably enrich the behavioural diagnosis. Finally, Senegal's 2024 political transition makes it difficult to isolate its specific effects — particularly on the sharp drop in ex-ante evaluations — from underlying structural trends.

5. What the Reform Promised: Architecture and Ambitions

5.1 Six directives to rebuild public management

In March and June 2009, the eight WAEMU member states collectively placed a bold bet: to move away from budget management inherited from the French administrative tradition of the 1950s — centred on means and procedures — towards results-based management. Six community directives formalised this shift.

191 The centrepiece is Directive No. 06/2009/CM/WAEMU, the organic law on finance. It introduces
 192 three fundamental innovations: multi-year programming (a three-year-minimum Medium-Term
 193 Budget and Economic Framework, plus Ministry-level Multi-Year Expenditure Plans and Annual
 194 Performance Plans); budget sincerity (an obligation to present accounts that faithfully reflect the
 195 state's actual situation, breaking with a longstanding practice of underbudgeting certain expenditure
 196 items); and the empowerment of the programme manager, granted a consolidated envelope with
 197 partial credit fungibility.

198 **5.2 Transposition: the legal marathon is nearly complete**

199 All member states adopted their national organic finance law between 2011 and 2020. Senegal was
 200 among the first, with Law No. 2011-15 of 8 July 2011, strengthened by Law No. 2020-07 of 26
 201 February 2020 — which made the publication of quarterly budget execution reports mandatory.
 202 These reports are now effectively published and publicly available. That is a concrete governance
 203 achievement that should not be minimised.

204 **6. What Has Changed: Real Progress**

205 **6.1 The annual reviews: comparative data for the first time**

206 Since 2013, each year a WAEMU Commission delegation visits each member state to assess the
 207 reform implementation rate. Now in their eleventh edition in 2025, these reviews cover 145 reforms
 208 per member state — up from 132 in 2024. What distinguishes them from a mere technical audit is
 209 their placement under the presidency of Prime Ministers: they carry a political legitimacy that
 210 obliges governments to account for their commitments. And for the first time in the region's public
 211 finance history, they generate standardised comparative data that allow progress to be measured and
 212 gaps to be identified.

Country	Rate 2024 (%)	Rate 2025 (%)	Change (pts)	Reforms assessed
Côte d'Ivoire	n.a.	85.0	—	145
Senegal	78.6	76.5	-2.1	145
Togo	n.a.	69.0	—	145
Benin, Burkina, Mali, Niger, Guinea-Bissau	n.a.	n.a.	—	n.a.

213 *Table 1 — WAEMU Community Reform Implementation Rates (2024-2025). Source: WAEMU Annual Review, 11th edition*
 214 *(2025); author's compilation.*

215 **6.2 Programme budgeting: a new budgetary grammar**

216 In Côte d'Ivoire, the 2026 budget is structured into 158 programmes — against hundreds of
 217 undifferentiated budget lines under the old system. This is a representational shift that is not trivial: it
 218 forces ministries to articulate their spending around identified public policies rather than lists of
 219 supplies and salaries. During the 2025 WAEMU review in Togo, the Finance Minister cited
 220 programme budgeting among the Union's three major reforms, stating that it had "reconfigured
 221 public finances and anchored a culture of results." This is an official testimony to a genuine change
 222 of reference framework, even if it is not yet fully operational.

223 **6.3 In Senegal, a concrete practice: checking before funding**

224 One of the most tangible advances of the reform in Senegal is the development of ex-ante socio-
 225 economic evaluation of public investment projects. Before 2015, a project could be entered into the
 226 budget without serious prior evaluation. The number of projects assessed in this way before entry
 227 into the finance law rose from 12 in 2015 to 91 in 2022. This figure, often cited as one of Senegal's

228 reform successes, merits recognition as such: it is one of the rare, documented manifestations of a
229 genuine change in practice.

230 **7. What Resists: Persistent Obstacles**

231 ***7.1 The manager held accountable for what they do not control***

232 This is the central paradox that Mede et al. (2025) have documented with precision across the
233 WAEMU area, and that the Senegalese case confirms. In the spirit of the reform — and in the text of
234 national organic finance laws — the programme manager is a manager: they hold an envelope with
235 fungibility, can redeploy credits from one activity to another, and report on results at year-end. That
236 is the accountability logic that Osborne and Gaebler (1992) theorised and that Shah & Shen (2008)
237 applied to public finance.

238 In practice, the same manager still has to submit most management acts to the prior approval of the
239 financial controller. They cannot commit expenditure, or redeploy credits, without authorisation.
240 Fungibility exists in the text. It does not exist in practice. This maintenance of ex-ante control is not
241 irrational — it responds to an institutional mistrust of real fiduciary risks that North (1990) would
242 analyse as a deeply embedded informal institution in West African public administration. But its
243 perverse effect is documented: the administrative culture of procedural compliance remains
244 dominant where the reform requires a culture of performance. Allen (2009) identified this tension as
245 one of the most difficult obstacles to overcome.

246 ***7.2 Without an integrated information system, performance remains an ideal***

247 Robinson (2009) and Allen (2009) agree on this fundamental technical prerequisite: a programme
248 budget cannot function without an integrated financial management system (IFMIS) connecting
249 programming, expenditure execution, and performance indicators in real time. Without it,
250 programme managers cannot track their remaining credits at any point in the exercise — making
251 meaningful real-time piloting impossible. Annual Performance Plans remain ex-ante planning
252 documents disconnected from execution reality. And Annual Performance Reports, produced ex-
253 post, document the past rather than correcting the present.

254 In Senegal, the SIGFIP system managing expenditure execution is not yet connected in real time to
255 the performance indicators of the Annual Performance Plan. Schick (2008) captured this type of
256 situation precisely: "a programme budget without a reliable information system is a house of cards
257 made of documents."

258 ***7.3 The Senegalese macroeconomic tension: when conditions undercut reform***

259 Senegal presents an instructive macro-budgetary paradox. On one hand, total revenues have grown
260 steadily — from FCFA 3,536 billion in 2022 to FCFA 4,694 billion in 2024 — and the tax pressure
261 ratio has improved. These are good signs for the state's capacity to finance its programmes. On the
262 other hand, the fiscal deficit reached 12.8% of GDP in 2024, one of the highest in the Union, and the
263 expenditure structure reveals a drift that directly contradicts the reform's logic.

264 In the second quarter of 2024, current expenditure rose by FCFA 136.6 billion (+13.6%) — the
265 largest increase across the entire WAEMU — while capital expenditure fell by FCFA 88.1 billion
266 (–22.9%). A state that spends primarily on running its administration rather than on development

267 results cannot genuinely claim to be practising results-based management — however perfectly
 268 structured its programming documents may be.

Indicator	2022	2023	2024	2026 (proj.)
Total budget (Bn FCFA)	4,703	5,142	5,591	7,177
Total revenue (Bn FCFA)	3,536	4,096	4,694	6,075
Tax pressure (% GDP)	18.2	n.a.	n.a.	target >20
Fiscal deficit (% GDP)	n.a.	n.a.	12.8	5.4 (target)
Ex-ante evaluated projects	91	74	25	
WAEMU reform implementation rate	n.a.	n.a.	78.6%	76.5%

269 Table 2 — Key Budgetary Indicators for Senegal (2022-2026). Sources: Ministry of Finance and Budget, Senegal (2022-2025);
 270 General Budget Directorate, Senegal (2025); author's compilation.

271 7.4 The retreat in ex-ante evaluation: a warning signal

272 We noted that the development of ex-ante evaluation was among the reform's most tangible gains in
 273 Senegal. That makes the recent reversal all the more striking: the number of projects evaluated
 274 before budget entry fell from 91 in 2022 to 74 in 2023, then to just 25 in 2024 — a 73% decline in
 275 two years. Part of this drop reflects the 2024 political transition. But it illustrates, in North's (1990)
 276 terms, the difference between a formalised rule — the ex-ante evaluation procedure exists — and an
 277 internalised norm — ex-ante evaluation is a natural reflex for any manager before proposing a
 278 project. The first can disappear when context shifts. The second endures.

279 8. Synthesis: Five Dimensions of One Problem

280 The obstacles identified are not all of the same nature or the same urgency. Table 4 organises them
 281 around five analytical dimensions, each illustrated by its concrete manifestation in the Senegalese
 282 case. It shows that programme budget effectiveness does not face a single obstacle, but a system of
 283 mutually reinforcing obstacles — requiring simultaneous responses, not sequential ones.

Dimension	Structural obstacle	Concrete manifestation (Senegal)
Legal	Formal transposition without operational effectiveness	LOLF 2011 revised in 2020 — the text changed; practices far less so
Institutional	Ex-ante controls maintained — paradoxical disempowerment of programme managers (Mede et al., 2025)	Prior approval by financial controller still required for most management acts; budget fungibility remains theoretical
Technical	No integrated financial management system (IFMIS) — execution data and performance indicators do not communicate (Allen, 2009; Robinson, 2009)	SIGFIP not connected to the PAP in real time — real-time performance monitoring is impossible
Behavioural	Culture of procedural compliance stronger than results culture (North, 1990; Osborne & Gaebler, 1992)	Ex-ante evaluated projects: 91 (2022) → 25 (2024). Routines unravel faster than they take hold
Macroeconomic	Current expenditure growing faster than investment — a direct contradiction of the RBM logic	Q2 2024: current expenditure +13.6% (WAEMU record); capital expenditure -22.9% simultaneously

284 Table 4 — Matrix of Obstacles to Programme Budget Effectiveness (Senegal case). Source: author, from available data and
 285 literature (Allen, 2009; Mede et al., 2025; North, 1990; Robinson, 2009).

286 9. The WAEMU Is Not Alone: What Can Be Learned From Others?

287 The obstacles documented in the WAEMU space are not an African or Francophone exception. They
 288 appear, in various forms, in all countries that have adopted NPM-inspired reforms without first
 289 assembling the institutional, technical, and behavioural capacities that such reforms presuppose. The
 290 international comparison is useful not to excuse delays — "others do the same" — but to identify
 291 what, in other contexts, has made it possible to overcome them.

292 9.1 Rwanda: when culture makes the difference

Rwanda is the most frequently cited African example of successful results-based management reform. Since 2018, the country has developed an original Performance Based Budgeting approach anchored in the tradition of Imihigo — collective commitment contracts in which individuals and communities publicly set themselves targets to be achieved within a defined period (Namutebi et al., 2021). This pre-existing cultural practice provided extraordinarily fertile ground for embedding a results logic into public management — exactly the type of informal institution that North (1990) identifies as conditioning the success of formal reforms.

Rwanda also integrated its IFMIS into the performance monitoring system by 2021, resolving precisely the technical missing link that undermines the reform in most WAEMU countries. The lesson is clear: behavioural reform (Level 3 of the model) can be accelerated when it draws on pre-existing cultural resources of accountability. Where such capital is absent, as in many WAEMU member states, investments in training and organisational change must be correspondingly more intensive.

9.2 Morocco: political continuity as a condition

Morocco adopted its own organic finance law in 2015, with a progressive implementation over six years that maintained the stability of reform teams. This continuity — rare in reforms that span multiple political mandates — has enabled a gradual institutional learning process that countries with high staff turnover cannot build. Available assessments report real progress in programmatic budget structuring and the completion of performance indicators, even if behavioural reform (Level 3) is not yet fully accomplished.

9.3 Ghana: administrative resistance, visible and documented

Ohemeng's (2022) study of Ghanaian public sector employees' perceptions of PBB reform is one of the richest available on the behavioural dimension. It shows that resistance to the reform is deeply rooted in an administrative culture of procedural compliance — and that the majority of budget units have the resources needed to produce performance reports, but lack the analytical skills and professional culture needed to connect those reports to allocation decisions. This diagnosis corresponds exactly to the Level 2 → Level 3 passage in our model: having the tools is not enough if one does not know — or does not want — to use them in a results logic.

9.4 South Africa: external oversight institutions as leverage

South Africa, which adopted its Public Finance Management Act in 1999, offers the most advanced example of programme budgeting in sub-Saharan Africa. What distinguishes it from the WAEMU space is not primarily the sophistication of its tools — though that is real — but the robustness of its external oversight institutions. The Auditor-General, Parliament, and public accounts committees exercise genuine pressure on ministries to account for results, not just the regularity of spending. This external pressure is a powerful lever of behavioural reform that most WAEMU countries have not yet built.

Dimension	Rwanda	Morocco	Ghana	South Africa	WAEMU space
Legal framework	PBB integrated into NST1 since 2018	LOF 2015 — gradual implementation	PAB 2015 — partial implementation	PFMA 1999 — advanced	6 directives 2009 — transposed
IFMIS	Operational and integrated into PBB	GID — progressively integrated	GIFMIS — deployed, residual gaps	IFMS — robust	Variable — absent or partial in several states

Dimension	Rwanda	Morocco	Ghana	South Africa	WAEMU space
Performance culture	Strong — rooted in Imihigo tradition	Under construction	Partial — persistent resistance	Developed	Weak to emerging
Distinguishing factor	Pre-existing cultural capital of accountability	Political continuity of reform	Documented administrative resistance (Ohemeng, 2022)	Strong external oversight institutions	Heterogeneous capacities across member states

Table 5 — International Comparison of Programme Budget Implementation. Sources: Namutebi et al. (2021) for Rwanda; Ohemeng (2022) for Ghana; CABRI (2013); author's compilation.

10. Discussion: Theoretical Contributions and Implications

10.1 The analytical value of the four-level model

The main contribution of this article is a conceptual model that allows precise naming and positioning of the gap between formal and effective reform — rather than merely observing it. There is a significant difference between saying "the reform is advancing slowly" and saying "the reform is at Level 2 (organisational) and blocked at the entrance to Level 3 (behavioural) because ex-ante controls neutralise the programme manager's autonomy and the IFMIS is not deployed." The second diagnosis says precisely where to intervene.

For evaluators and policymakers, the model offers an analytical framework that avoids both overestimating progress — a formal implementation rate of 76% says nothing about behavioural effectiveness — and underestimating it — normative and organisational achievements are real and constitute the foundation without which nothing else is possible. It also allows comparison of countries without the error of judging them on the same scale when they are not at the same level.

10.2 The isomorphism trap

The comparative analysis validates the hypothesis of institutional isomorphism (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) in the implementation of programme budgeting in the WAEMU area. Member states have adopted the expected institutional forms — texts, documents, structures — without this adoption necessarily transforming underlying practices. This "capability trap" (Andrews, 2013) is all the harder to escape because the annual reviews, by primarily measuring formal compliance, create an incentive for documentary conformity rather than real effectiveness.

10.3 The behavioural dimension as the decisive factor

The comparison with Rwanda is the most instructive on this point. The Rwandan reform advances faster not because its texts are better or its tools more sophisticated, but because it found a pre-existing cultural anchor — Imihigo — that facilitates internalisation of accountability and results logic. This confirms and enriches Shah & Shen's (2008) analyses of organisational culture as a condition for performance budgeting success, and suggests that future reforms in the WAEMU area should invest more in cultural change strategies — training, valorisation of performance practices, managerial leadership — alongside technical and legal reforms.

11. Six Levers for Accelerating Effectiveness

11.1 Sequence reforms according to the cascade model

The first lesson of the four-level model is that investing in Level 3 (behavioural) is counterproductive if Level 2 (organisational) is not consolidated — and Level 2 remains fragile if Level 1 (legal) inconsistencies are not resolved. The immediate priority is to complete the related

364 reforms of public procurement and material accounting, whose delay creates friction that structurally
365 neutralises programme manager autonomy.

366 ***11.2 Modernise ex-ante control without abolishing it***

367 Ex-ante control has its place in fiduciary contexts that remain fragile. But it can be made smarter:
368 lighter for managers who have demonstrated management reliability, reinforced where risks are
369 established. This differentiated approach, advocated by Allen (2009), would reconcile the
370 imperatives of public financial security with the autonomy that genuine RBM requires.

371 ***11.3 IFMIS as a priority investment***

372 The Rwandan experience confirms what Robinson (2009) and Allen (2009) theorised: a robust
373 IFMIS is the technical backbone of any effective programme budget. Without it, Annual
374 Performance Plans and Annual Performance Reports remain documents disconnected from execution
375 reality. A coordinated regional financing effort — supported by technical and financial partners —
376 for IFMIS deployment in member states that lack one would be among the most structurally
377 important investments possible.

378 ***11.4 Invest in behavioural reform***

379 The behavioural dimension of reform is the most difficult and the most consistently neglected. It
380 requires sustained training in management control and performance evaluation methodologies; long-
381 term accompaniment mechanisms for programme managers beyond their initial appointment; and
382 symbolic and material valorisation of accountability practices. The Rwandan experience also
383 suggests exploring local cultural resources of collective commitment on objectives — rather than
384 mechanically transplanting tools designed for very different institutional contexts.

385 ***11.5 Restore ex-ante evaluation in Senegal***

386 The collapse in ex-ante evaluated projects in Senegal (91 in 2022, 25 in 2024) must be treated as an
387 alarm, not an acceptable collateral effect of political transition. Ex-ante evaluation is one of the most
388 direct links between the programme budget logic and the actual quality of public spending. Its
389 decline signals that behavioural reform has not yet become irreversible in Senegal.

390 ***11.6 Strengthen external oversight institutions***

391 South Africa's experience shows that parliaments and Supreme Audit Institutions capable of
392 genuinely examining results — not just the regularity of expenditure — are a powerful lever for
393 transforming administrative behaviour. Strengthening the budget analysis capacity of parliamentary
394 finance committees, and giving courts of auditors the resources needed to audit performance, is a
395 necessary condition for the accountability loop to genuinely close.

396 **12. Conclusion**

397 Fifteen years of budget reform in the WAEMU area, and the honest assessment is this: Level 1 —
398 normative — is accomplished. Level 2 — organisational — is underway, unevenly across countries.
399 Level 3 — behavioural — is largely incomplete. And Level 4 — actual effectiveness of public
400 spending — remains a horizon.

This is not a failure. It is a reform advancing at the normal pace of deep institutional change — slower than texts, more durable than fashions. The French LOLF took ten years before its performance indicators genuinely influenced budget allocations — and that in an incomparably more favourable context. The WAEMU timeline is not aberrant. It is ambitious.

The main contribution of this article is to offer an analytical framework — the four-level model — that allows precise identification of where each country stands, and therefore calibrates interventions to real obstacles rather than formal achievements. Applied to Senegal, it shows the country is caught between Levels 2 and 3 by a triple constraint: institutional (ex-ante controls that neutralise manager autonomy), technical (absent or non-integrated IFMIS), and behavioural (culture of compliance stronger than culture of results). These three obstacles are known. They are traceable. And they are surmountable.

The international comparison confirms this: Rwanda did it by drawing on pre-existing cultural capital; South Africa, by building oversight institutions that make accountability unavoidable; Morocco, by sustaining political continuity of reform over the long term. These pathways are not identical, and not all are available in every context. But they show that the transition from Level 2 to Level 3 is not a fatality — it is a political and institutional choice.

Future research should deepen two questions this article could only sketch: a qualitative study directly interviewing programme managers in several WAEMU member states would document in depth the behavioural mechanisms that block or facilitate effective reform; and a panel data analysis — once the annual review time series are long enough — would test the comparative determinants of effective RBM implementation across the Union.

Acknowledgements

[Author acknowledgements appear on the separate Title Page in accordance with IJAR's double-blind review policy.]

References

- Allen, R. (2009). The challenge of reforming budgetary institutions in developing countries. IMF Working Paper WP/09/96. International Monetary Fund.
- Allen, R., Hemming, R., & Potter, B. H. (Eds.) (2013). The international handbook of public financial management. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Andrews, M. (2013). The limits of institutional reform in development: Changing rules for realistic solutions. Cambridge University Press.
- Ayee, J. R. A. (2008). Reforming the African public sector: Retrospect and prospects. CODESRIA.
- Bouvier, M., Esclassan, M.-C., & Lassale, J.-P. (2011). Finances publiques (11th ed.). Librairie Générale de Droit et de Jurisprudence.
- CABRI — Collaborative Africa Budget Reform Initiative (2012). Performance-based budgeting in Africa: A status report. Pretoria: CABRI.
- CABRI (2013). Performance and programme-based budgeting in Africa: A status report. Pretoria: CABRI.
- WAEMU Commission (2025). Annual review of community reforms, policies, programmes and projects — 11th edition. Ouagadougou: WAEMU.
- Dia, M. (1996). Africa's management in the 1990s and beyond: Reconciling indigenous and transplanted institutions. World Bank.

442 DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. W. (1983). The iron cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective
443 rationality in organizational fields. *American Sociological Review*, 48(2), 147-160.

444 General Budget Directorate, Republic of Senegal (2024). Quarterly budget execution report — Q2 2024.
445 Dakar: DGB.

446 General Budget Directorate, Republic of Senegal (2025). Quarterly budget execution report — Q2 2025.
447 Dakar: DGB.

448 General Directorate of Planning and Economic Policies, Senegal (2025). Summary of ex-ante evaluation
449 reports for projects proposed for the 2025 budget. Dakar: MEPC.

450 Gerring, J. (2007). *Case study research: Principles and practices*. Cambridge University Press.

451 Global Evaluation Initiative (2025). *Coherence challenges in WAEMU programme budget reform*.
452 Washington: GEI.

453 Lande, É., & Rocher, S. (2010). Les mises en œuvre de la LOLF: quels effets sur la gestion publique? *Revue*
454 *française de finances publiques*, 110, 75-96.

455 Mede, N., Agbodjan, D., Aguemou, W., & Atinma, M. (2025). Coherence challenges in performance-based
456 budget reform in the WAEMU area. *HAL open science*, hal-04944095.

457 Ministry of Finance and Budget, Republic of Senegal (2022). *Annual activity report 2022*. Dakar: MFB.

458 Namutebi, R., Aziz, I., Khasiani, K., & Steger, G. (2021). Rwanda: A home-grown performance based
459 budgeting approach. *IMF PFM Blog*. Washington: IMF.

460 North, D. C. (1990). *Institutions, institutional change and economic performance*. Cambridge University
461 Press.

462 Ohemeng, F. L. K. (2022). The perception of employees on performance-based budgeting reforms in
463 developing countries: The perspective from Ghana. *Public Budgeting & Finance*, 42(3), 23-48.

464 Osborne, D., & Gaebler, T. (1992). *Reinventing government: How the entrepreneurial spirit is transforming*
465 *the public sector*. Addison-Wesley.

466 Pollitt, C., & Bouckaert, G. (2011). *Public management reform: A comparative analysis* (3rd ed.). Oxford
467 University Press.

468 Republic of Senegal (2011). Organic Law No. 2011-15 of 8 July 2011 on finance laws. *Official Gazette*.

469 Republic of Senegal (2020). Law No. 2020-07 of 26 February 2020 on finance laws. *Official Gazette*.

470 Robinson, M. (2009). A basic model of performance-based budgeting. *IMF Technical Notes and Manuals*,
471 09/01. International Monetary Fund.

472 Robinson, M. (Ed.) (2007). *Performance budgeting: Linking funding to results*. Palgrave Macmillan / IMF.

473 Schick, A. (1998). Why most developing countries should not try New Zealand reforms. *World Bank*
474 *Research Observer*, 13(1), 123-131.

475 Schick, A. (2007). Performance budgeting and accrual budgeting: Decision rules or analytic tools? *OECD*
476 *Journal on Budgeting*, 7(2), 109-138.

477 Schick, A. (2008). *Getting performance budgeting to perform*. World Bank (unpublished working paper).

478 Shah, A., & Shen, C. (2008). A primer on performance budgeting. In A. Shah (Ed.), *Budgeting and budgetary*
479 *institutions* (pp. 137-178). World Bank.

480 WAEMU (2009). Directive No. 06/2009/CM/WAEMU of 26 June 2009 on finance laws within WAEMU.
481 Ouagadougou: WAEMU Commission.

482 WAEMU (2009). Directive No. 01/2009/CM/WAEMU of 27 March 2009 on the code of transparency in
483 public financial management. Ouagadougou: WAEMU Commission.

484 Yin, R. K. (2018). *Case study research and applications: Design and methods* (6th ed.). Sage Publications.