



# The Political Economy of World Bank Lending: An empirical analysis of environmental and social safeguards at the World Bank



**Kevin P. Gallagher** is a professor of Global Development Policy at the Frederick S. Pardee School of Global Studies and the director of the Global Development Policy Center at Boston University.



**Christopher Kilby** is a professor in the Economics Department at the Villanova School of Business at Villanova University.

#### **KEVIN P. GALLAGHER & CHRISTOPHER KILBY**

## ABSTRACT

This paper examines the incidence and impact of environmental and social safeguards (ESS) in projects financed by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (WB). We measure the determinants of ESS project selection, the extent to which ESS are related to delays in project preparation and disbursement, and whether projects with safeguards perform differently from projects without safeguards with respect to stated World Bank development criteria. Since their introduction almost three decades ago, safeguards have been assigned to more than half of all World Bank investment projects. Consistent with practitioner complaints about the hassle associated with safeguard procedures, we find evidence of significant delays for ESS categorized projects and that ESS do not significantly improve project outcomes. What is more, we find that projects are less likely to have safeguards when the borrower holds one of the geopolitically important nonpermanent seats on the United Nations Security Council.

# **1. Introduction**

After years of policy debate and advocacy, the World Bank and other multi-lateral development banks (MDBs) have developed a series of policies commonly referred to as 'Environmental and Social Safeguards" (ESS) aimed at preventing and mitigating social and environmental harm related to loan projects. ESS have become commonplace since the late 1980s, originally in response to a number of widely publicized cases about the negative social and environmental consequences about World Bank development projects across the developing world. ESS has taken on more importance since then, as the development community's notion of economic development has broadened beyond simply raising levels of national income, but also to issues of social inclusion, climate change, air pollution, public health, and beyond. Indeed, both the "Millenium Development Goals" and the "Sustainable Development Goals" that are both embraced by the MDBs have put more emphasis on social and environmental concerns than on economic growth.

As issues such as global climate change and inequality become more pervasive, there is an increasing need to calibrate development finance toward these broader goals. To this end, MDBs have pledged to shift at least one-third of their portfolios toward financing for climate mitigation and adaptation, to sharply curb financing for coal fired power plants, and to divest in upstream oil and gas investment into the future. What is more, the MDBs and the World Bank in particular have also pledged to make their investments not only lower carbon, but more pro-poor and socially inclusive. To that end, in 2012 started a process to reform and improve their ESS framework, culminating in a new 2016 framework that went into effect in 2018.

Policy debates on these issues have far from dwindled in the face of these changes. Since their inception, developing country finance ministries and some analysts have long complained that ESS are onerous impositions by developed country shareholders that do not significantly improve the development outcomes of the projects involved (Birdsall and Morris, 2016). Policy members and advocates in the social and environmental communities have remained equally frustrated, also claiming that the ESS of the MDBs are not properly designed to safeguard the environment and social consequences of development finance (Bank Information Center, 2018).

To date, there has been little systematic analysis on the timeliness and effectiveness of ESS in the MDBs. This paper attempts to bridge that gap by examining the role of safeguards across the project cycle of the World Bank—where data is now prevalent enough to perform such an analysis. To evaluate the timeliness of World Bank projects with ESS we first examine the selection process, i.e., how projects are selected for safeguard status. We next look at how long it takes to prepare a project, i.e., the length of time from project identification to board approval. After approval, we examine the speed of disbursement. Finally, we consider project outcomes as assessed by World Bank operations staff through project ratings in Implementation Completion and Results (ICR) reports. In each setting, we account for safeguards but also project, country, and World Bank characteristics that are likely relevant for the outcome in question. We also allow for geopolitical influences that are prominent in the literature on international financial institutions.

To preview our results, the empirics largely confirm anecdotal reports but also point to patterns that have gone as yet undocumented.<sup>1</sup> Regarding the selection of projects for safeguards, we find that projects are less likely to have safeguard measures when the borrowing government holds a nonpermanent seat on the UN Security Council (UNSC), and is thus strategically important to the majority shareholders of the World Bank. Indeed, projects are 9 percentage points less likely to be placed in category B (as compared to no safeguards) when the country holds a nonpermanent seat on the UNSC, ceteris paribus. With respect to timeliness, the duration of preparation is 120 days longer for projects with safeguards than for comparable projects without safeguards, even longer for category A projects. Projects with safeguards also disburse significantly more slowly. After implementation is complete, the probability of a satisfactory ICR rating is four percentage points lower for projects with safeguards, ceteris paribus. Category A and B projects (not F) drive this result, which holds if we look at pre-2015 evaluation cohorts. However since then, projects with safeguards (specifically category B and F) have been somewhat more likely to have satisfactory outcomes. UNSC status is again a significant covariate, with higher ratings if the country held a nonpermanent seat on the UNSC at the time the project was evaluated.

The rest of this paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 reviews the history of social and environmental safeguards at the World Bank and elsewhere and surveys the existing literature. Section 3 presents a brief overview of the data. Section 4 presents empirical results. Section 5 concludes with a summary of results and a discussion of policy implications.

1

We focus exclusively on investment project lending since safeguards rarely apply to adjustment loans.

# 2. ESS: Introduction and Literature Review

ESS policies date back to the late 1980s and early 1990s as local communities affected by MDB development projects coalesced with international non-governmental organizations (INGOs) to press governments and the banks themselves to incorporate social and environmental concerns into development financing. Numerous books and articles have discussed the history and origins of these policies, and it is beyond the scope of this paper to go into them in great detail. Mikesell and William's 1992 *International Banks and the Environment* provides an overview of the lack of adequate environmental consideration in project design by MDBs during the 1970s and 1980s, specifically noting the importance of the Polonoroeste project in Brazil and the Narmada dam project in India in raising global awareness of environmental concerns in project financing (see also Wade, 1997; Wade, 2016). Such projects unified environmental activists worldwide to lobby for changes in MDB policies in the 1980s (Aufderheide and Rich 1988; Fox and Brown 1998, 51-80; Horberry 1985; Mikesell and Williams 1992). Aufderheide and Rich (1989) emphasized how international advocacy networks formed to advocate for the incorporation of safeguards in the project cycle—between local communities in host countries and INGOs such as the Environmental Defense Fund. These global advocacy campaigns have been noted as the key driver in changing World Bank policy on projects and the environment (Trócaire, 1990).

During that era the U.S. Congress held hearings that eventually led to the passage of the "Pelosi Amendment" in 1989 to address concerns regarding the environmental impact of development aid projects by the World Bank (Aufderheide and Rich 1988; Babb 2009, 186-196; Horberry; Mikesell and Williams 1992). This additional provision within the International Development and Finance Act of 1989 tied funding to "review the potential environmental impacts of development projects for which they provide funding and to make these environmental assessments publicly available" (Bank Information Center). With the United States as a controlling shareholder and major contributor of funding to MDBs, this requirement led to significant restructuring of international financial institution (IFI) practices and has been credited with refocusing the role of MDBs' aid to more sustainable development practices (Babb 2009, 186-196; Park 2010; Rich 1995, 2013).

When designed properly, ESS can bring significant benefits to many of stakeholders engaged in development bank projects. ESS may also help development banks and host countries alike meet their broader development goals.

Stakeholder	Benefit
Global	Equitable use of resources
	Enhancement of global public goods
Development banks	Greater project effectiveness
	Mitigation of environmental and social risk
	Management of reputation risk
	Realization of broader development goals
Borrower governments	Better management of natural resources
	Strengthening of institutional capacities
	Mitigation of environmental and social risk
	Realization of broader development goals
Local communities	Enhanced voice and ownership
	Reduced vulnerability
	Improved livelihoods

#### **Table 1: Benefits of Environmental Safeguards**

Source: Authors adaptation from World Bank (2010)



ESS can bring benefits to a variety of actors in the development banking process. Of course, development banks that conduct projects with minimal harm to the environment and communities can better provide public goods and help allocate scarce natural and economic resources in a more efficient manner. For the development banks themselves, ESS can create better project effectiveness by mitigating the social and environmental risks of a project and helping to address the broader development goals of their charters. Identifying ahead of time that a particular project could cause environmental degradation and/or create mass social conflict is important to maintaining project schedules and creating more certainty regarding future costs. When such risk is not accounted for the costs can be unexpectedly high, resulting in project overruns and sometimes resulting in project cancellation. Moreover, problem projects can tarnish the image of a development bank and decrease its ability to provide future services in a country or region. These same benefits hold for national governments that need to manage debt burdens and political constituencies in a manner that will maximize national benefit. ESS can help developing countries build institutions to address market failures such as environmental externalities and meet their own broader development goals and international obligations. Engaging local communities and civil society through ESS can also bring benefits by helping communities assume ownership of projects through letting their voices and concerns be heard and incorporated. Designed properly, ESS can also reduce the vulnerability of communities from certain projects and thus improve their livelihoods of such communities.

This paper draws on and builds on the literature that evaluates the political economy of the MDBs in general, and ESS in particular. Here we briefly survey the most relevant literature with respect to the MDB selection process, the timeliness of MDB project cycles, and the development outcomes of MDB projects.

First, is the literature on the political economy of the selection process at international financial institutions. The first such articles looked at the extent to which the selection process at the International Monetary Fund (IMF) is biased toward Western-driven geo-political strategies. Despite that the articles of agreement in both the IMF and the World Bank state that those institutions must follow a 'doctrine of economic neutrality' where voting decisions should be made on merit and economic grounds alone, the literature finds that Western powers at the IMF are buying influence at the United Nations (UN) with their privilege as the controlling shareholders of the IMF. Indeed, the majority of econometric studies come to this conclusion. Thacker (1999), Stone (2002, 2011) and Copelovich (2010a, b) find this to be the case when analyzing key United Nations General Assembly votes, and Dreher et al, (2009a), (2010), (2015) find such a relationship with respect to the UNSC. These papers collectively find that the controlling shareholders of the IMF—the United States, Japan, Germany, France, and the United Kingdom—seek influence at the UN and trade IMF loans for UN influence.

A smaller but growing literature appears to find the same effects with respect to development finance. Kuziemko and Werker (2006) were the first to apply such analyses to development finance, finding a similar relationship to the studies on the IMF with respect to United States bilateral aid and multi-lateral aid from the UN itself. Dreher, Sturm, and Vreeland (2009) are among the first to look at World Bank lending in this respect. They find that temporary UNSC membership is strongly correlated with the number of World Bank projects a country receives. Those authors have recently advanced this work to new levels, working from a new dataset that tracks actual voting behavior at the UNSC. Dreher et al. (2018) find that allies of the United States are likely to receive more bilateral aid when voting in line with the United States in the UNSC, and that "enemies" of the United States rewarded with loans from the IMF when they concur with the vote of the United States—whereas temporary temporary UNSC members that vote against the United States do not receive increases in aid or IMF funding.

There is also an academic literature on the timeliness of MDB lending. As mentioned earlier there is also broad perception that safeguards contribute to costly project delays and they can be seen as impositions on borrowing countries that rely on receiving project support. A recent study based on over 100 interviews with staff from various MDBs finds that ESS make it:

"... extremely difficult for borrowers and even staff to fully understand. Requirements often include time-consuming, lengthy studies to be undertaken by third-party experts (usually at the government's cost), lengthy consultations with affected parties (sometimes including unelected non-governmental organizations), extensive mitigation measures, and lengthy mandatory prior public disclosure and comment periods during which time the project cannot move ahead. These requirements supersede whatever national laws may be in place in the borrowing country—a particularly troubling point of principle for many borrowing countries, beyond the practical impacts of safeguards. (Humphrey 2015, 15)."

GEGI@GDPCenter

The World Bank's own Independent Evaluation Group partly confirm these perceptions in a comprehensive assessment of World Bank safeguard policies published in 2010. Out of a survey of more than 100 stakeholders, the World Bank found that in LAC, 60 percent of initially proposed large scale World Bank projects were avoided by clients because of ESS systems and "38 percent of task team leaders, 72 percent of social specialists, and 55 percent of environmental specialists had encountered clients who wanted to avoid all or part of a project because of safeguard policies. The impact of this chilling effect was reported by a majority of team leaders from Latin America and the Caribbean and over 40 percent from East Asia and Pacific and South Asia, which have the most active safeguards portfolios. (World Bank, 2010, 46)"

In another study, Humphrey (2016) was told by IADB environmental staff that "There was a point when some folks at the IADB were trying to court Brazil to finance that project, and the immediate response from the Brazilians was, 'Not on our life, you'll come running in here with your safeguards,'" the staffer said, in others borrowing countries.". Another cost is project delay: Humphrey estimates the length of approval time for projects on a whole (including ESS) and estimates that approval time for the World Bank is 14 months (Humphrey, 2016).

Long approval times may not necessarily be costly if they improve development outcomes. Referring back to Table 1, properly designed ESS may lead to the avoidance of harmful projects and the expansion of project benefits. There is also a literature on the impact of various MDB policies on actual development outcomes. Kilby (2015 and discussed in more detail below) actually found that World Bank projects with longer preparation periods are much more likely to have satisfactory development outcome ratings. In fact, longer preparation periods are what many INGOs advocate for, arguing that more time allows for more diligent third party review and consultation, which in turn can result in better project outcomes (Larsen and Ballesteros, 2014; Bank Information Center, 2018). That said Kilby (2015) does not specifically examine the independent impact of whether ESS project preparation led to more positive outcomes.

The first major assessment to specifically focus on ESS and outcomes was by Hicks, Parks, Roberts, and Tierney in *Greening Aid (*2008). Their study explores how ESS and other measures has impacted development financing and project selection in leading development banks. Analyzing data from 1980 to 1999, the authors found that funding for environmentally friendly aid projects grew significantly in both relative and dollar terms. However, according to the authors, the value of environmentally unfriendly projects still outweighed the value of friendly ones threefold by 1999. Yuan and Gallagher (2018) find that environmentally friendly development financing tends to flow to governments with higher human development scores and left of center parties in government. Buntaine's (2011, 2016) work finds that the Asian Development Bank at least has become more atuned to 'reputational risks' and has used ESS to steer clearer of projects that have performed poorly in the past; and that at the World Bank ESS that include accountability mechanisms led to awarding less environmentally risky projects.

In terms of evaluating ESS and actual environmental outcomes, a recent working paper finds that World Bank projects do not have an independent and negative impact on biodiversity, suggesting that such projects have the ability to be designed to do less harm (Buchanan et al, 2016). Relatedly, recent econometric work by Ray (2018) finds that social and environmental safeguards among MDBs were associated with less deforestation than projects without ESS in the Andean Amazon.

This paper builds on that previous work in the three ways. First, we adapt the discussion of the geopolitics of project selection to the ESS literature and examine the extent to which temporary UNSC membership influences the World Bank selection process for safeguards. Second, we apply econometric techniques to the process of ESS to examine whether ESS themselves are dragging the timeliness of World Bank project processes or some other factor. Third, we deploy econometric techniques to examine the extent to which ESS impact project outcomes.

# 3. Data

Our primary data source is the World Bank projects database, which covers all projects funded or supervised by the World Bank (World Bank 2018). The World Bank put safeguard policies in place in 1989 (OD 4.00, Annex A) and these policies—with changes

over time—apply to projects approved from 1990 onward.<sup>2</sup> For this reason, our sample starts with 1990, later if other data limitations apply.

The World Bank has used a number of safeguard categories: A, B, C, D, F, and U. Categories A to D reflect declining levels of environmental and social risk, with projects in category A requiring full environmental assessment, projects in category B partial assessment, and projects in C or D no further assessment. Category B is described as a "very broad category," with some projects that are "almost A" and require a detailed Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) but do not trigger special category A procedural requirements. The category also includes projects described as "solid B" projects where there is a partial Environmental Assessment (EA) or an Environmental Management Plan (EMP). Finally, some category B projects are described as "almost C" and only require a checklist EMP.<sup>3</sup> Category F (also labeled FI for Financial Intermediary loans where World Bank provides funds for on-lending) may fund subprojects that fall into categories A or B and requires environmental assessments or partial assessments if this is the case.

The left panel of Table 1 gives the breakdown by category in the largest available sample (combining categories with no environmental assessment and covering all World Bank-managed projects—including adjustment lending—approved between January 1, 1990 and June 28, 2018). Category A projects are rare (7.5% of all projects) while category B projects are common (43.1%). Financial intermediate projects are also rare (2.3%) while projects not requiring any environmental assessment (C, D, U, and unrated/ blank) account for 47% of the post-1989 sample. The right panel limits the sample to investment projects, dropping all program loans. This reduces the sample by about 1,500 observations. The vast majority of these are from the last group, those not requiring environmental assessment, because of the budget support nature of these activities. The analysis below drops these loans from the sample.

# 4. Results

As described above, we perform several different analyses. First, we examine how project and country characteristics determine selection for Safeguard status. Second, we analyze how preparation duration depends on project and country characteristics, including safeguard status. Third, we explore the factors that influence disbursement speed, again including the project's safeguard status. Finally, we estimate a performance equation and whether there is a link between safeguard status and project performance ratings.

## 4.1 Safeguard selection

Our first analysis explores correlates of safeguard designation, drawing on project data from the World Bank projects database. The estimation sample runs from 1990 to 2018. The dependent variable is an indicator variable for safeguard status; the unit of observation is the project. Appendix Table A1 provides descriptive statistics for the variables in the full sample (9,186 projects). Sixty-one percent have safeguards, 8.7% category A, 49.6% category B, and 2.7% category F. Nearly eight percent of the projects are for countries serving as nonpermanent members of the UNSC at the time of project approval. Fourteen percent of projects are supplemental loans that provide additional financing for already approved projects.<sup>4</sup> Forty-three percent of the projects have IDA funding; the table also reports the distribution of projects geographically, across functional sectors, and by type of financial instrument.<sup>5</sup>

Estimations using the Safeguard dummy as the dependent variable draw on the full sample (comparing categories A, B, and F to all other

GEGI@GDPCenter

<sup>2</sup> See Roessler (2000) for details. Categories have been added (F) and dropped (D) over time but the basic division between A, B and other categories has remained constant.

Description of category B and quotes from http://web.worldbank.org/archive/website01419/WEB/IMAGES/INTROD-5.PPT 3

The first supplemental loan was in 1951. The practice remained uncommon (~1% of lending activity) until 2007 when it increased dramatically. See 4 Kersting and Kilby (2018) for an in-depth analysis, including political economy of supplemental lending.

The sector dummies are based on sector board codes reported in the World Bank projects database; projects can have 0 to 5 sectors listed (average of 1.68 in our sample).

projects). Estimations using the Safeguard category A indicator as the dependent variable exclude projects in categories B and F from the estimation sample, thus comparing Safeguard type A projects to projects without safeguards. Likewise when the dependent variable is a dummy for category B, the estimation sample excludes projects in categories A and F; when the dependent variable is a dummy for category F, the estimation sample excludes projects in categories A and B.

Table 2 reports marginal effects from our probit estimation. All specifications include approval year dummies to control for variation in the use of safeguards over time; reported statistical significant is based on country-clustered standard errors. Results are similar with a conditional logit estimator that includes country fixed effects. Column (1) treats all categories with safeguards the same (comparing categories A, B, and F to all other projects). As expected, there are no significant differences across regions (once we control for loan size or financial instrument type). Also as expected, there are substantial differences in the incidence of safeguards across sectors. Safeguards are less common in Education, Finance, Health, Information & Communications Technology, and Public sectors than in Agriculture; they are more common in Energy, Industry, and Water and Sanitation. The incidence of safeguards also varies with financial instrument type. Safeguards are less common for Learning and Innovation Loans, Technical Assistance Loans, and "Unspecified" loans than for Adaptable Program Loans; they are more common in Financial Intermediary Loans, Investment Project Financing, Sector Investment and Maintenance Loans, and Specific Investment Loans.

Projects with IDA funding are no more likely to have safeguards than projects with no IDA funding. Supplemental loans (also called Additional Financing) are 12% more likely to have safeguards. The probability of safeguards also increases with loan amount; a doubling of the loan amount is associated with a 6 percentage point higher probability of safeguards, ceteris paribus.

Finally, there is an apparent geopolitical dimension to the application of safeguards. The probability of a safeguard designation is almost 8 percentage points lower (dropping from 61% of projects to 53% of projects) when countries hold a nonpermanent seat on the UNSC, ceteris paribus. This result holds also in a conditional logit specification that nets out time invariant country-specific effects and so is not the indirect effect of other, fixed country characteristics that impact election to the UNSC.

Columns (2), (3), and (4) consider each safeguard category separately, always comparing against the case of no safeguards. Column (2) reports results of selection into safeguard category A (high risk) versus no safeguards; the sample shrinks to 4365 because safeguard category B and F projects are excluded. Recall that relatively few projects are classified as risky (9% of the observations in Column (1)) so results are likely to differ from those in Column (1). This is reflected in some heterogeneity by region (with the high risk designation 2% less common in Latin America and the Caribbean), one change at the sector level (Social Sector projects now less likely to have safeguards), and many differences by financial instrument. Also striking is the change for UNSC membership; the "high risk" designation appears unrelated to UNSC membership.

Column (3) reports results of selection into safeguard category B (moderate risk) versus no safeguards; the sample shrinks to 8134 without projects in safeguard categories A and F. As expected since category B represents the majority of safeguard projects, results are similar to the overall results in Column (1). The estimated marginal effect for projects in East Asia and Pacific is farther from zero so that the effect now registers as statistically significant. A project's probability of category B safeguards rather than no safeguards is 8.77 percentage points lower while the borrowing country is a nonpermanent member of the UNSC.

Column (4) reports results for selection into safeguard category F (financial intermediary with possible risks) versus no safeguards; the sample shrinks to only 2824 observations. As with Column (2), there are a good number of differences from the estimation using the overall sample and again UNSC membership is not linked to safeguard status.<sup>6</sup>

Recall the description of category B safeguards as heterogeneous, including some "almost C" projects and thus suggesting a degree of discretion. The results in Column (3) suggest that this discretion is exercised in the case of nonpermanent UNSC members, with some

<sup>6</sup> Samples for Columns (2), (3), and (4) are further reduced by cases where a binary explanatory variable perfectly predicts the outcome, causing the relevant observations and the dummy variable to drop due to the nature of the probit estimation. For example, in Column (4), none of the 19 projects with an unidentified financial instrument has category F safeguards. Re-estimating via a linear probability model which does not drop observations or variables in this setting yields similar results for the key variables (negative and significant coefficient estimates for UNSC @ approval).

borderline projects avoiding a safeguard designation in these circumstances. A quick "back of the envelope" calculation finds 50 to 60 projects that would have been category B if the country was not on the UNSC were "spared" safeguards when the country was on the UNSC.

We also considered other geopolitical variables used in the aid allocation literature: World Bank Executive Board membership, UN General Assembly voting alignment, bilateral aid flows, and trade flows. While all have the expected negative sign (i.e., closer ties with the U.S. or institutional importance are weakly associated with a lower probability of safeguards, ceteris paribus), none of the coefficient estimates are statistically significant whether included individually, together with UNSC membership—which remains significant in all cases—or in other specifications that control for country fixed effects.

## **4.2 Preparation Duration**

The second analysis investigates whether projects with safeguards take longer to prepare. Preparation is the period between project identification and project approval. Identification involves discussions between World Bank staff and borrowing government officials to identify high priority projects, typically starting with the priorities laid out in the World Bank's Country Assistance Strategy. This includes a discussion of project impacts and risks, as well as possible alternatives and a timetable. It is at this phase that the safeguard designation is first assigned. The next step is detailed work by the borrowing government (though often with World Bank assistance and usually including design and impact studies). World Bank staff then assess all aspects of the proposed project (via a project appraisal including technical soundness and economic, environmental, financial, institutional, and social impact) before recommending the project to the World Bank's board of executive directors. The preparation period officially ends when the board approves the project.

World Bank data record the board approval date but not when preparation began. However, there is a work-around to estimate the start of preparation. World Bank staff use project identification numbers for internal accounting purposes, such as billing staff time and travel, and paying for consultants and external reports. Such activities begin immediately during the identification phase of project preparation and so staff should request a project identification number as soon as any project-related work begins. The World Bank started issuing bank-wide sequential project identification numbers in 1994. Because these numbers are sequential and bankwide, the project id numbers provide a noisy measure of the identification date.

Kilby (2013b) demonstrates that this data generating process fits the Stochastic Frontier Model (SFM). Here, we use a SFM to estimate preparation duration, including safeguard status as an explanatory variable and covering the period from 1994 (the start of usable project id data) to 2016.<sup>7</sup> As suggested above, the model treats sequentially issued project identification numbers as noisy measures of the project identification date and, given the project approval date, can estimate the time elapsed between identification and approval (i.e., preparation duration), as well as the impact of project and country characteristics on that duration. The unit of observation is again the project.

Figure 1 illustrates how the SFM works in this setting. Plotting the project identification number against the project approval date, the (fuzzy) lower edge of the data set defines the identification date (when World Bank staff and administrative expenses were first billed to the project).<sup>8</sup> The vertical distance between the lower line and data points (representing individual projects—with a number of countries marked for concreteness) reflects the time elapsed between identification and approval, which the SFM models as a function of project and country characteristics. Appendix Table A2 provides descriptive statistics covering 7023 projects for which all data

GEGI@GDPCenter

<sup>7</sup> The criteria for including a project in the sample are meant to ensure its project identification number is one of those from a centralized sequential system so that it captures the identification day. Projects fall in this group if they were approved on or after January 1, 1994, have project ids greater than PO20000, and less than P170000. Prior to 1994, the process was decentralized with each country having its own range of project id numbers. Under that system, project ids were issued sequentially by country within its designated range only.

<sup>8</sup> The lower edge is fuzzy for a number of reasons, e.g., the occasional repurposing of project ids issued for previous projects that did not proceed beyond identification, requesting a project id late (and billing staff time before that point to other activities), etc. All observations falling far below the line are linked to trust funds, external funding sources, or loan guarantees that may sometimes follow non-standard procedures. If we limit the sample to the standard IBRD/IDA "product line" (and thereby eliminate the observations falling far below the line), the sample falls to 4,648 observations but key results are unchanged.

were available. Approval dates range from March 31, 1994 to December 30, 2016. Project id numbers run from 31,828 to 153,154, a difference of over 120,000. This is substantially more than the number of projects covered because these id numbers are used for a wide range of internally "billable" activities within the World Bank, from economic and sector work to studies for the research department (DEC). The descriptive statistics for other variables—percentages of the various project types and categories, etc.—are similar to the first sample despite the somewhat different time period covered.

Table 3 reports estimation results from two specifications. Column (1) includes a single safeguard dummy; Column (2) includes separate dummies from categories A, B, and F. In both cases, the omitted category is no safeguards. Both specifications include the same project characteristics as in the previous analysis (log loan amount, funding source (IDA or IBRD), a supplemental loan dummy, and sector and financial instrument dummies). The results show that larger loans take longer to prepare, while supplements and projects funded with IDA money are significantly faster to prepare. No region is slower than Sub-Saharan Africa while project preparation in East Asia & Pacific, Middle East & North Africa, and South Asia is significantly faster. Compared to Agriculture, preparation is significantly quicker in Education, Finance, Health, Social sector, and Transportation projects and significantly slower in Energy, Industry, and Public sector projects. Compared to Adaptable Program Loans, preparation is significantly quicker in Emergency Recovery Loans, Financial Intermediary Loans, and Technical Assistant Loans while no other financial instrument types have significantly slower preparation times.

Turning to our key variables of interest, Column (1) includes the single safeguard dummy. This variable enters with a positive and significant coefficient estimate, indicating that projects with safeguards take longer to prepare. Translating this into more useful terms, the estimates indicate a typical preparation time of 293 days with no safeguards and 416 days with safeguards, i.e., a safeguard-related delay of 123 days. Column (2) gives the breakdown by safeguard category, with a larger positive effect for category A, and similar effects (still positive and significant) for categories B and F. Again translating these into extra preparation days, the figure is 194 extra days for safeguard category A and 116 extra days for other safeguard categories. This differential makes good sense since category A has stricter requirements than categories B and F.<sup>9</sup>

Finally, for completeness we also look at the geopolitical variables included in the previous analysis. For duration, the estimation finds that when countries are aligned with the U.S. in UNGA voting, project preparation is significantly shorter (i.e., UNGA voting alignment with the U.S. enters with a negative and significant coefficient). If we compare the theoretical extremes (always vote against the U.S. versus always vote with the U.S.), project preparation accelerates by 182 days. World Bank Executive Board membership, UNSC membership, and US bilateral aid flows also enter with a negative sign (shorter preparation for countries geopolitically important to the U.S.); the estimated coefficient for UNSC membership is marginally significant while the other two variables are not statistically significant. U.S. trade flows enter with a positive sign (controlling also for world trade overall) but results are not statistically significant.<sup>10</sup>

## 4.3 Disbursement Speed

The third analysis explores the speed of disbursement, examining cumulative disbursement as a function of the number of months since project approval. This makes use of monthly World Bank disbursement data assembled by Kersting and Kilby (2016) which cover 1990 to 2012.<sup>11</sup> Figure 2 shows cumulative disbursement curves for safeguard and non-safeguard investment projects separately. The upper curve reflects non-safeguard projects while the lower curve reflects projects with safeguards. This indicates that projects with safeguards typically disburse more slowly. The question remains whether this relationship is due to compositional differences between projects with safeguards and those without (e.g., project size, sector, funding source, etc.) and would disappear or even reverse if we control for other project differences. A multiple regression framework provides a good approach to address this question. Note, however, that regression lines are ill-suited to distinguish between these curves. Figure 3 presents the same data in a log-log form.<sup>12</sup> This

<sup>9</sup> Predicted values use the sample mean for all variables except the variable in question, i.e., we report the marginal effect at the average.

<sup>10</sup> This confirms findings in Kilby (2013b; 2015) that geopolitics impact World Bank project preparation but in those studies UNSC membership and executive board membership are also significant. The current study includes six additional years of data as well as additional covariates.

<sup>11</sup> This sample only includes projects funded through IBRD or IDA (i.e., PRODUCTLINE "PE"). It does not cover those funded through trust funds or other sources.

<sup>12</sup> This is the natural log of the number of months since approval on the horizontal axis and the natural log of the average disbursement share (rather than the

transforms the curves into two (nearly) straight lines with different intercepts and slopes.

These graphs motivate two different approaches to measuring the speed of disbursement. First consider drawing a horizontal line at some point across Figure 2, indicating a particular level of cumulative disbursements. Faster disbursement means fewer months to reach that level of disbursement. We explore this by using the number of months to reach 25%, 50% and 75% disbursed. In this analysis, the unit of observation is the project (with 4,456 observations) and the dependent variable is the number of months since project approval to reach the given threshold.<sup>13</sup> Alternatively, we can run a regression to fit the nearly linear curves in Figure 3, using the log of months and the log cumulative percent disbursed. In this latter analysis, the unit of observation is the project-month (with 316,795 observations). In this log-log specification, the link between time elapsed and disbursement is an elasticity, i.e., the percentage change in cumulative disbursement in response to a one percent change in time. Although Figure 2 (levels) shows that in absolute terms the gap between safeguard and non-safeguard projects starts small and grows larger, Figure 3 (logs) shows that in percentage terms the gap starts large and narrows. If the difference between safeguard projects and other projects survives controlling for other project characteristics and country variables, we should find a negative coefficient on the safeguard dummy indicating that projects with safeguards disburse more slowly, ceteris paribus. If the full pattern in Figure 3 holds up, we would also find a positive slope differential, i.e., a positive coefficient on the interaction between the safeguard dummy and the time variable.

Appendix Tables A3 and A4 present descriptive statistics for the disbursement analysis. Despite the different units of observation and the somewhat shorter set of years covered by the data sets, the summary statistics for variables such as Safeguard dummies, the IDA dummy, etc., are similar to those in previous tables. The approval period is measured in months since January, 1960—Stata's approach to measuring time—and ranges from 360 (January 1990) to 628 (May 2012).

Table 4 presents results for the first approach, i.e., the number of months to reach a given disbursement threshold. Columns (1) to (3) use 25%, 50%, and 75% disbursed thresholds using a single safeguard dummy; Columns (4) to (6) use separate dummies for the different types of safeguards. All specifications include country fixed effects and control for the project approval date. Negative coefficients indicate fewer months to reach the given threshold, i.e., faster disbursement.

Across all columns, relative to the country's average, larger projects, higher inflation, lower GDP, and lower population are associated with faster disbursement, ceteris paribus. Relative to Agriculture, disbursement is significantly faster in Education, Social Sector, and Transportation projects and significantly slower in Public Sector and WASH projects. Looking only at time to 25% disbursed, disbursement is also significantly faster in the Finance sector. Compared to Adaptable Program Loans, disbursement was significantly faster in Emergency Recovery Loans, Learning & Innovation Loans, and Technical Assistance Loans.

The single safeguard dummy is positive across the board but statistically significant only for 50% and 75% disbursed thresholds. Projects with safeguards take 1.9 additional months to reach 50% disbursed (as compared to projects with no safeguard designation) and 2.6 additional months to reach 75% disbursed, ceteris paribus. When we break safeguard measure into Types A, B and F, all have positive coefficients across the board, indicating slower disbursement. For projects with Type A safeguards, this effect is significant for the time to reach each disbursement threshold, running 2.7 to 4.9 months behind an equivalent project with no safeguards. For category B, the effects are somewhat smaller and only statistically significant for the 50% and 75% disbursed thresholds. For category F projects, again there is no statistically significant effect at the 25% disbursed threshold but there is a large and significant effect for other thresholds. Thus, by this metric, safeguards slow disbursement.

Our results are a bit more complex when one also considers geopolitical factors. As Kilby (2013a) and Kilby and Kersting (2016) demonstrate, alignment with the U.S. in UNGA voting has a substantial acceleration effect on the speed of loan disbursement. In addition as shown above, geopolitically important countries are less likely to face safeguards on their projects. When we include geopolitical variables in the regression, the effects of safeguards are somewhat reduced; if we include a wide battery of such variables simultaneously (UNSC membership, UNGA alignment, bilateral aid from the U.S., and trade with the U.S.), results hold only for the 75% threshold and

average of the logs) on the vertical axis.

10

<sup>13</sup> More limited year coverage in the Kersting and Kilby (2016) data set accounts for the reduced sample size.

are driven largely by category A projects. We can take this a step further and consider an interaction effect between safeguard status and UNGA voting alignment. The estimates show that UNGA voting alignment with the U.S. is associated with faster disbursement but the effect is smaller for projects with safeguards. For example, a 0.1 shift in voting alignment toward the U.S. (on a 0 to 1 scale, in a specification that controls for other geopolitical factors as well as the basic project and country characteristics) is associated with a 11.7 month reduction in time to 75% disbursed if the project does not have safeguards but only a 9.7 month reduction if the project does have safeguards. More puzzling is that the safeguard dummy itself enters with a negative and significant coefficient estimate in this interacted specification. Taken together, for cases where UNGA alignment falls below 0.3575 (about 40% of the sample), the net predicted effects of safeguards is to accelerate disbursement. This complex interaction warrants more investigation.

Table 5 shifts to the approach highlight by Figure 3. The unit of observation is the project-month; dependent variable is the log cumulative percent disbursed. The graph suggested that projects without safeguards disburse more rapidly but that the gap between nonsafeguard and safeguard projects narrows in percentage terms over the life of the project. To capture this, the specification includes both a safeguard dummy and an interaction term, log months since approval × safeguard. The first term should be negative (slower disbursement with safeguards) and the second term should be positive (narrowing gap over time).

Column (1) reports results using the single safeguard dummy; the results match the expected pattern. For each 1% increase in the months since project approval, disbursements increase by 1.2%. The coefficient estimate on the safeguard dummy is -0.123, indicating disbursements are 12.3% lower in the first month (where log months = 0) for projects with safeguards. The coefficient estimate of 0.03 on the interaction term indicates the disbursement gap between safeguard and non-safeguard projects disappears after 60 months (5 years). Column (2) finds that the effects described above are largely driven by safeguard category B projects. Geopolitical variables were not significant in either specification.

## 4.4 Project Performance

The fourth analysis examines the performance of World Bank-managed projects, making use of World Bank project outcome ratings. The analysis uses two different outcome rating measures produced by World Bank operations staff involved with the project, a dichotomous rating (Outcome\_ICR) of 0 (Unsatisfactory) or 1 (Satisfactory) and a six-point rating (OutcomeRaw\_ICR) running from 1 (Highly Unsatisfactory) to 6 (Highly Satisfactory). In the former case, we use a probit estimator; in the latter case, estimation proceeds via least squares. In either case, the sample is reduced (to 3634 observations) since ratings are not available for ongoing or recently completed projects. This smaller sample size also reflects restricting the sample to projects evaluated before 2015, as there is a notable change in the role of safeguards in determining performance starting in 2015.<sup>14</sup>

Appendix Table A5 presents descriptive statistics for the estimation sample. Outcome\_ICR averages 74%, while the mean score for OutcomeRaw\_ICR is a 4. Fifty-nine percent of available observations are projects with safeguards, and again category B accounts of the bulk of these.

Table 6 reports results from estimating project performance equations. Columns (1) and (2) report marginal effects from a probit model that uses the dichotomous overall ICR outcome rating (Outcome\_ICR) as the measure of project performance. This specification includes region dummies (since estimating country fixed effects in a probit setting is problematic); we find a higher probability of satisfactory outcomes in East Asia-Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, Latin American and the Caribbean, and South Asia as compared with Sub-Saharan Africa, a well-documented pattern for World Bank projects. There is some sectoral variation (Energy and Health doing worse and Transportation doing better than Agriculture) as well as variation by financial instrument type (Emergency Recover Loans doing better and Financial Intermediary Loan and Learning and Innovation Loans doing worse than Adaptable Program Loans).

Looking for meaningful breaks using instead the year of project approval rather than the ICR year finds no similar break. This might represent a procedural shift in how projects with safeguards are evaluated but other explanations are also consistent with these findings.



The first column includes a single safeguard indicator; the second column breaks this in category A, B, and F. Projects with safeguards have a 3.75% lower probability of a satisfactory ICR rating, ceteris paribus. This is driven by safeguard category A and B projects; the effect for the former is larger but not statistically significant (perhaps because of the small number of projects in this category). Thus, controlling for a host of other factors, we find significantly worse performance for projects with safeguards.

We also explore the role of geopolitical variables and find that nonpermanent UNSC membership at the time the ICR rating is given matters. Projects in countries that are UNSC members at the time of the ICR rating are significantly more likely to receive a satisfactory rating, ceteris paribus. At 7.3% (versus the sample mean of 74% satisfactory ratings), the effect is sizeable. Since no such relationship holds for UNSC membership at project approval (where the estimated effect is negative but not quite significant), the most straightforward interpretation is as a bias in the rating process. This result also holds in specifications that include country fixed effects (conditional logit or linear probability models).

Columns (3) and (4) use the raw outcome rating (on a 1 to 6 scale) as the dependent variable and estimate a linear model. Results for the key variables are comparable. The most notable difference is that the negative effect for safeguard category A projects is now statistically significant (likely because the increased variation in the 1 to 6 rating allows us to identify the effect even for the relatively few category A projects). The geopolitical result persists in this specification.

As noted above, these results are for evaluations completed prior to 2015. If we expand the sample through 2017 (adding 689 projects), the marginal effect of safeguards drops almost half and ceases to be statistically significant. This suggests a major shift in recent years as to how safeguard projects are evaluated. The impact of UNSC membership, however, remains the same.

# 5. Conclusions and Suggestions for Future Research and Policy

Through the Sustainable Development Goals, developed and developing country governments and civil society alike seek a global economy that raises the standard of living of the world's people in a manner that is lower carbon and more socially inclusive. Given that the private sector lacks the proper signals to steer the economy in such a direction, there is now an alignment across these multiple stakeholders that development finance is paramount to meeting the world's broad sustainable development goals. Environmental and Social Safeguards have the potential to be important tools in ensuring that development finance not only prevents harm, but does good.

There is great concern about the efficacy of ESS from a variety of places and parties. Many developing country finance ministers see ESS as onerous and ultimately not performing well enough to justify project cancellation and delay. INGOs and environmental experts see longer project preparation as the proper due diligence that will improve or at least not worsen the environmental and social ramifications of development projects. Indeed, as noted earlier, Kilby (2015) has found that project level due-diligence at the World Bank has led to better development outcomes. Nevertheless, INGOs and local community organizations have also been critical of the MDBs in general and the World Bank in particular, arguing that these entities have not done enough to safeguard projects from social and environmental harm.

Our analysis confirms that until recently the World Bank projects with safeguards take longer to prepare and disburse than those projects without safeguards. Moreover, we find that controlling stakeholders of the World Bank make exceptions for borrowers that have temporary seats on the UNSC. Building on other work that shows that controlling stakeholders issue more loans from the World Bank (and IMF) to temporary members of the UNSC. This violation of the 'doctrine of economic neutrality' embodied in the articles of agreement of the World Bank, may perhaps be increasing the level of socially and environmental destructive projects given that more projects are dispersed to these members of the World Bank. Finally, we find that those projects that have ESS are less likely to lead to positive development outcomes as measured by official World Bank metrics.

One silver lining may be that our results suggest an apparent change beginning in 2015. This may be a result of the increased scrutiny that the World Bank experienced as it worked through its four year process of ESS reform. Further research will be needed to examine

12

GEGI@GDPCenter

the extent to which this has been a permanent change, or whether a result of a global spotlight put on the institution during its reform and consultation process.

Given that the World Bank is the flagship MDB these findings are of grave concern. Future research is needed by economists and analysts from other disciplines in order to unpack the dynamics of why ESS policies have largely fallen short of achieving their stated goals. Given the urgency of the development challenges ahead of us, utmost emphasis should be put on ensuring that development finance is steered toward projects that enhance social and environmental performance with the least amount of onerosity toward borrowers, bank staff, affected communities, and the environment.

#### REFERENCES

Aufderheide, P., & Rich, B. (1998). "Environmental Reform and the Multilateral Banks." World Policy Journal 5(2):301-321.

Babb, S. (2009). Behind the Development Bank. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.

Bank Information Center (2018). World Safeguards Review, Washington, Bank Information Center, http://www.bankinformationcenter.org/our-work/safeguards/ (accessed September 10, 2018).

Birdsall, Nancy and Scott Morris (2016). Multilateral Development Banking for this Century's Development Challenges, Washington, Center for Global Development.

Buntaine, Mark (2011). "Does the Asian Development Bank Respond to Past Environmental Performance when Allocating Environmentally Risky Financing?" World Development 39(3):336-350.

Buntaine, Mark (2016). Giving Aid Effectively: The Politics of Environmental Performance and Selectivity at Multilateral Development Banks, New York, Oxford University Press.

Copelovitch, Mark S. (2010a). "Master or Servant? Common Agency and the Political Economy of IMF Lending." International Studies Quarterly 54(1):49-77.

Copelovitch, Mark S. (2010b). The International Monetary Fund in the Global Economy: Banks, Bonds, and Bailouts. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dreher Axel, Valentin F. Lang, B. Peter Rosendorff, and James Raymond Vreeland (2018). "Buying Votes and International Organizations: The Dirty Work-Hypothesis," May draft.

Dreher, Axel., Jan-Egbert Sturm, and James Raymond Vreeland (2009a). "Global Horse Trading: IMF Loans for Votes in the United Nations Security Council." European Economic Review 53(7):742-757.

Dreher, Axel, Jan-Egbert Sturm, and James Raymond Vreeland (2009b). "Development aid and international politics: Does membership on the UN Security Council influence World Bank decisions?" Journal of Development Economics 88(1):1-18

Dreher, Axel, Jan-Egbert Sturm, and James Raymond Vreeland (2010). "Does Membership on the UN Security Council Influence IMF Conditionality?." CEGE Discussion Paper (104).

Dreher, Axel, Jan-Egbert Sturm, and James Raymond Vreeland (2015). "Politics and IMF Conditionality." Journal of Conflict Resolution 59(1):120-148.

Fox, Jonathan A. and L. David Brown, eds. (1998). The Struggle for Accountability: The World Bank, NGOs, and Grassroots Movements. Boston, MA: Massachusetts Institute for Technology Press, 1998.

Hicks, Robert, Bradley Parks, J. Timmons Roberts, and Michael Tierney (2008). Greening Aid? Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Horberry, John (1985). "The Accountability of Development Assistance Agencies: The Case of Environmental Policy." Ecology Law Quarterly 12:817-869.

Humphrey, Christopher (2015). Infrastructure Finance in the Developing World: Challenges and Opportunities for Multilateral Development Bank, G-24, Washington.

Humphrey, Christopher (2016). "The 'hassle factor' of MDB lending and borrower demand in Latin America." In Global Economic Governance and the Development Practices of the Multilateral Development Banks. Susan Park and Jonathan R. Strand (Eds.). New York: Routledge. Chapter 8 (pages 143-166).

Kersting, Erasmus, and Christopher Kilby (2016). "With a little help from my friends: Global electioneering and World Bank lending." Journal of Development Economics 121:153-165.

Kilby, Christopher (2013a). "An empirical assessment of informal influence in the World Bank." Economic Development and Cultural Change 61(2):431-464.

GEGI@GDPCenter

Kilby, Christopher (2013b). "The political economy of project preparation: An empirical analysis of World Bank projects." Journal of Development Economics 105:211-225.

Kilby, Christopher (2015). "Assessing the impact of World Bank preparation on project outcomes." Journal of Development Economics 115:111-123.

Kuziemko, Ilyana, and Eric Werker (2006). "How Much Is a Seat on the Security Council Worth? Foreign Aid and Bribery at the United Nations." Journal of Political Economy 114 (5): 905-930.

Mikesell, Raymond F. and Larry Williams (1992). International Banks and the Environment - From Growth to Sustainability: An Unfinished Agenda. San Francisco, CA: Sierra Club Books.

Park, Susan (2010). World Bank Group Interactions with Environmentalists: Changing International Organisation Identities. Machester and New York: Manchester University Press

Ray, Rebecca (2018). "The Co-Benefits of Stakeholder Engagement:Environmental and Social Safeguards, Infrastructure Investment, and Deforestation in the Andean Amazon, 2000-2015," Boston University, Global Development Policy Center GEGI Working Paper, 015.

Rich, Bruce (1995). Mortgaging the World. Boston, MA: Beacon Press.

Rich, Bruce (2013), Foreclosing the Future: The World Bank and the Politics of Environmental Destruction, Washington, Island Press.

Roessler, Todd. 2000. "The World Bank's Lending Policy and Environmental Standards." North Carolina Journal of International Law and Commercial Regulation 26(1):105-141.

Stone, Randall W. (2002). Lending Credibility: The International Monetary Fund and the Post-Communist Transition. Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Stone, Randall W. (2011). Controlling Institutions: International Organizations and the Global Economy. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swedberg, Richard (1986). "The Doctrine of Economic Neutrality of the IMF and the World Bank." Journal of Peace Research 23(4):377-390.

Thacker, Strom (1999), "The High Politics of IMF Lending," World Politics 52(1):38-75

Wade, Robert H. (2016). "Boulevard to broken dreams, part 1: the Polonoroeste road project in the Brazilian Amazon, and the World Bank's environmental and indigenous peoples' norms." Brazilian Journal of Political Economy 36(1):214-230.

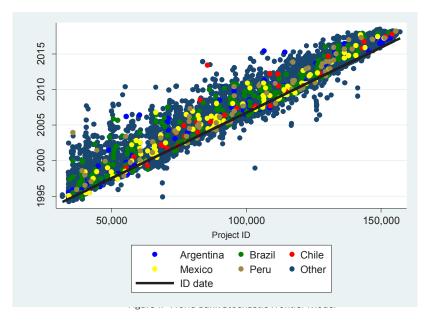
Wang, Hua, and David Bernell (2013). "Environmental Disclosure in China: An Examination of the Green Securities Policy." The Journal of Environment & Development 22(4):339-369.

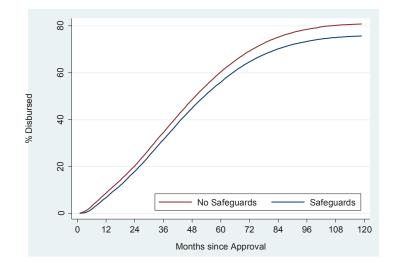
World Bank. (2010). Safeguards and Sustainability Policies in a Changing World. Independent Evaluation Group. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.

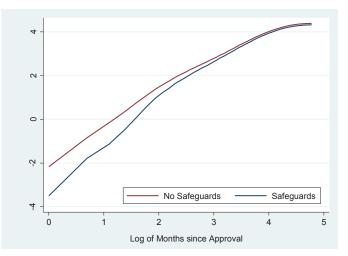
World Bank (2018). World Bank Projects Database. http://projects.worldbank.org/ Accessed 7/13/2018.

Yuan, Fei, and Kevin P. Gallagher (2018). "Greening Development Lending in the Americas: Trends and Determinants." Ecological Economics 154:189-200.









16

## **Table 1: Environmental and Social Safeguard Categories**

All Loans

Category	Count	Percent
А	826	7.5%
В	4,743	43.1%
F	257	2.3%
C/D/U/blank	5,190	47.1%
Total	11,016	100.0%Investment Projects Only
Category	Count	Percent
Category A	Count 826	Percent 8.7%
A	826	8.7%
A B	826 4,709	8.7% 49.5%

#### Table 2: Safeguard Selection

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
UNSC @ approval	-0.0786***	-0.00659	-0.0877***	0.00366
	(-3.33)	(-0.80)	(-3.35)	(0.37)
Intotalamt	0.0634***	0.0277***	0.0577***	0.0152***
	(9.41)	(5.95)	(8.44)	(6.80)
supplement	0.121***	0.0269*	0.128***	0.0234
	(5.79)	(1.83)	(5.47)	(1.45)
IDA	0.0169	-0.0162*	0.0401*	0.00221
	(0.76)	(-1.77)	(1.81)	(0.22)
Regional Dummies (Omitted Category: Sub-S	aharan Africa)			
East Asia & Pacific	-0.0323	0.0215	-0.0513**	0.0134
	(-1.38)	(1.42)	(-2.26)	(0.72)
Europe & Central Asia	-0.0325	-0.0163*	-0.0492	0.120***

	(-1.18)	(-1.82)	(-1.64)	(6.00)
Latin America & the Caribbean	-0.0148	-0.0204**	0.00351	-0.0193
	(-0.63)	(-2.33)	(0.15)	(-1.28)
Middle East & North Africa	-0.0465	0.00858	-0.0508	0.0236
	(-1.51)	(0.53)	(-1.57)	(1.05)
South Asia	-0.0215	0.00512	-0.0245	-0.00457
	(-1.08)	(0.47)	(-1.15)	(-0.20)
Sector Dummies (Omitted Category: Agricul	ture)			
Education	-0.204***	-0.0570***	-0.190***	-0.0157*
	(-9.44)	(-6.48)	(-8.90)	(-1.94)
Energy	0.121***	0.0793***	0.102***	0.0794***
	(5.99)	(4.67)	(4.39)	(4.16)
Finance	-0.139***	-0.0458***	-0.170***	0.103***
	(-4.50)	(-5.33)	(-5.30)	(5.38)
Health	-0.0804***	-0.0440***	-0.0633***	-0.0152
	(-3.44)	(-5.63)	(-2.72)	(-1.10)
Industry	0.108***	0.0199*	0.125***	0.0217
	(5.79)	(1.84)	(6.10)	(1.24)
ICT	-0.169***	-0.0325***	-0.155***	-0.0524***
	(-4.64)	(-4.68)	(-4.16)	(-4.11)
Public	-0.0942***	-0.0260***	-0.0878***	-0.0467***
	(-5.73)	(-3.21)	(-4.77)	(-4.86)
Social	0.0234	-0.0282***	0.0288	0.0187
	(1.07)	(-3.73)	(1.23)	(1.32)
Transportation	0.219***	0.143***	0.226***	0.0585**
	(13.92)	(6.87)	(12.32)	(2.55)
WASH	0.209***	0.124***	0.211***	0.108***
	(14.48)	(3.98)	(13.17)	(4.39)
Financial Instrument Dummies (Omitted Cate	egory: Adaptable	Program Loan)		
Emergency Recovery Loan	-0.0135	-0.0351***	0.0122	-0.0553***

	(-0.37)	(-4.90)	(0.31)	(-3.32)
Financial Intermediary Loan	0.230***	-0.0349***	0.244***	0.190***
	(7.10)	(-5.05)	(5.33)	(3.11)
Investment Project Financing	0.220***	0.136***	0.240***	0.0436**
	(6.24)	(3.75)	(6.35)	(2.36)
Learning and Innovation Loan	-0.263***	-0.0326***	-0.252***	-0.0539***
	(-4.74)	(-3.84)	(-4.78)	(-3.19)
Sector Investment and Maintenance Loan	0.107***	-0.00260	0.130***	0.0162
	(2.78)	(-0.13)	(3.08)	(0.27)
Specific Investment Loan	0.0767***	0.0171	0.0869***	0.00268
	(2.68)	(1.22)	(2.75)	(0.17)
Technical Assistance Loan	-0.461***	-0.0596***	-0.434***	-0.0738***
	(-14.92)	(-6.60)	(-14.63)	(-5.71)
UNIDENTIFIED	-0.184*		-0.143	
	(-1.75)		(-1.39)	
Observations	9186	4365	8134	2824

Marginal effects at sample mean from Probit Model. *z*-statistics in parentheses based on country-clustered SEs. Unit of observation: project. World Bank investment projects approved from 1990 to 2018. All specifications include approval year dummies. \* p<0.1 \*\* p<0.05 \*\*\* p<0.01

- (1) Dependent variable: =1 if Safeguard category A, B or F; full sample
- (2) Dependent variable: =1 if Safeguard category A; sample excludes B & F
- (3) Dependent variable: =1 if Safeguard category B; sample excludes A & F
- (4) Dependent variable: =1 if Safeguard category F; sample excludes A & B

#### Table 3 - Stochastic Frontier Model of Preparation Duration Impact of Safeguards

	(1)	(2)
Safeguard	0.701***	
	(9.35)	
Safeguard type A		1.024***
		(8.34)
Safeguard type B		0.670***

		(8.81)
Safeguard type F		0.699***
		(3.89)
UNGA alignment with USA	-1.042***	-1.005***
	(-5.14)	(-4.95)
Intotalamt	0.151***	0.137***
	(8.22)	(7.32)
supplement	-1.529***	-1.529***
	(-15.43)	(-15.39)
IDA	-0.303***	-0.272***
	(-4.11)	(-3.66)
Regional Dummies (Omitted Category: Sub-So	aharan Africa)	
East Asia & Pacific	-0.228**	-0.241**
	(-2.39)	(-2.53)
Europe & Central Asia	-0.118	-0.109
	(-1.18)	(-1.07)
Latin American & the Caribbean	-0.0859	-0.0632
	(-0.86)	(-0.63)
Middle East & North Africa	-0.342**	-0.338**
	(-2.54)	(-2.52)
South Asia	-0.254**	-0.265**
	(-2.44)	(-2.54)
Sector Dummies (Omitted Category: Agricult	ure)	
Education	-0.254***	-0.227***
	(-2.93)	(-2.62)
Energy	0.197**	0.193**
	(2.26)	(2.20)
Finance	-0.391***	-0.378***
	(-3.34)	(-3.19)
Health	-0.259***	-0.236**

20

GEGI@GDPCenter Pardee School of Global Studies/Boston University

	(-2.67)	(-2.43)
Industry	0.335***	0.341***
	(3.63)	(3.69)
ICT	-0.125	-0.120
	(-0.77)	(-0.74)
Public	0.493***	0.504***
	(7.54)	(7.68)
Social	-0.166**	-0.154**
	(-2.13)	(-1.97)
Transportation	-0.348***	-0.382***
	(-4.24)	(-4.61)
WASH	-0.0148	-0.0342
	(-0.19)	(-0.44)

# Financial Instrument Dummies (Omitted Category: Adaptable Program Loan)

Emergency Recovery Loan	-3.451***	-3.443***
	(-11.22)	(-11.26)
Financial Intermediary Loan	-0.867**	-0.808**
	(-2.46)	(-2.23)
Investment Project Financing	-0.0546	-0.0575
	(-0.47)	(-0.49)
Learning and Innovation Loan	-0.419*	-0.429*
	(-1.73)	(-1.78)
Sector Investment and Maintenance Loan	-0.0127	0.0203
	(-0.05)	(0.08)
Specific Investment Loan	0.00809	0.0130
	(0.08)	(0.12)
Technical Assistance Loan	-1.822***	-1.823***
	(-11.72)	(-11.73)
UNIDENTIFIED	0.373	0.383

	(0.84)	(0.87)
Observations	7023	7023

*z*-statistics in parentheses. Unit of observation: project. \* p<0.1 \*\* p<0.05 \*\*\* p<0.01

Estimation via Stochastic Frontier Model using exponential distribution and cost function. Sample restricted to investment projects.

#### Table 4: Time to 25%, 50%, & 75% Disbursement

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Safeguard	0.971	1.937***	2.608***			
	(1.58)	(2.70)	(3.18)			
Safeguard type A				2.707**	3.682***	4.953***
				(2.18)	(3.00)	(3.47)
Safeguard type B				0.865	1.739**	2.255***
				(1.40)	(2.38)	(2.77)
Safeguard type F				0.978	3.983**	7.323***
				(0.52)	(2.04)	(3.26)
Approval Period	-0.256***	-0.407***	-0.541***	-0.256***	-0.409***	-0.543***
	(-8.81)	(-10.26)	(-11.46)	(-8.82)	(-10.31)	(-11.52)
IDA	1.617	3.028*	4.243*	2.011	3.381*	4.672**
	(1.38)	(1.69)	(1.96)	(1.63)	(1.80)	(2.01)
Project Size	-1.281**	-1.326**	-0.756	-1.378**	-1.417**	-0.871
	(-2.44)	(-2.23)	(-1.27)	(-2.53)	(-2.29)	(-1.44)
Inflation	-24.43***	-45.04***	-67.24***	-24.29***	-44.65***	-66.28***
	(-3.35)	(-3.85)	(-4.10)	(-3.32)	(-3.82)	(-4.06)
GDP	30.88***	45.46***	57.96***	30.79***	45.36***	57.67***
	(8.72)	(8.38)	(8.26)	(8.71)	(8.38)	(8.26)
Population	45.77***	72.36***	96.23***	45.77***	73.03***	97.61***
	(3.52)	(4.06)	(4.54)	(3.53)	(4.12)	(4.65)
Sector Dummies (Omitted Category: Agi	riculture)					
Education	-1.956***	-2.545***	-2.355***	-1.844***	-2.492***	-2.344***

GEGI@GDPCenter Pardee School of Global Studies/Boston University

www.bu.edu/gdp

	(-3.07)	(-3.36)	(-2.75)	(-2.91)	(-3.31)	(-2.76)
Energy	0.734	-0.0165	-0.227	0.650	-0.127	-0.398
	(0.94)	(-0.02)	(-0.21)	(0.83)	(-0.14)	(-0.37)
Finance	-2.160**	-0.821	-0.477	-2.089**	-0.848	-0.606
	(-2.50)	(-0.72)	(-0.38)	(-2.35)	(-0.73)	(-0.48)
Health	0.120	0.874	0.867	0.224	0.973	0.996
	(0.18)	(0.92)	(0.83)	(0.34)	(1.03)	(0.96)
Industry	-0.281	-1.129	-2.458**	-0.260	-1.083	-2.371**
	(-0.30)	(-1.07)	(-2.22)	(-0.28)	(-1.02)	(-2.14)
ICT	0.612	0.602	0.661	0.660	0.660	0.743
	(0.49)	(0.49)	(0.47)	(0.53)	(0.54)	(0.53)
Public	5.189***	7.257***	8.085***	5.219***	7.328***	8.224***
	(8.38)	(10.07)	(10.37)	(8.43)	(10.16)	(10.52)
Social	-2.109***	-1.531**	-1.042	-2.077***	-1.507**	-1.018
	(-3.94)	(-2.50)	(-1.62)	(-3.93)	(-2.48)	(-1.57)
Transportation	-2.225***	-2.846***	-2.967***	-2.328***	-2.980***	-3.175***
	(-3.37)	(-3.94)	(-3.51)	(-3.50)	(-4.08)	(-3.66)
WASH	2.084***	1.977***	1.517**	1.992***	1.842**	1.298*
	(3.28)	(2.76)	(2.06)	(3.05)	(2.49)	(1.68)
Financial Instrument Dummies (Omitted	Category: Ad	aptable Progi	ram Loan)			
Emergency Recovery Loan	-11.73***	-12.21***	-11.05***	-11.58***	-11.93***	-10.56***
	(-6.58)	(-5.91)	(-4.69)	(-6.41)	(-5.78)	(-4.50)
Financial Intermediary Loan	-1.991	-2.866	-3.602	-1.718	-3.197	-4.626*
	(-0.77)	(-1.17)	(-1.39)	(-0.59)	(-1.20)	(-1.70)
Learning & Innovation Loan	-6.647***	-7.447***	-6.980***	-6.804***	-7.578***	-7.132***
	(-3.24)	(-3.84)	(-3.72)	(-3.31)	(-3.85)	(-3.75)
Sector Investment & Maintenance Loa	n -2.072	-1.872	-1.943	-1.980	-1.746	-1.739
	(-1.25)	(-0.98)	(-0.91)	(-1.17)	(-0.90)	(-0.80)
Specific Investment Loan	-0.0773	0.555	1.090	-0.0478	0.624	1.224
	(-0.08)	(0.53)	(0.99)	(-0.05)	(0.60)	(1.09)

Technical Assistance Loan	-6.053***	-4.885***	-2.501	-6.047***	-4.858***	-2.444
	(-4.19)	(-2.97)	(-1.25)	(-4.17)	(-2.94)	(-1.21)
Observations	4456	4456	4456	4456	4456	4456

t-statistics in parentheses based on country-clustered standard errors. All specifications include country fixed effects. \* p<0.1 \*\* p<0.05 \*\*\* p<0.01

(1&4) Dependent variable is number of months to reach 25% disbursement for investment projects

(2&5) Dependent variable is number of months to reach 50% disbursement for investment projects

(3&6) Dependent variable is number of months to reach 75% disbursement for investment projects

#### Table 5: Speed of Disbursement-II

	(1)	(2)
Months since approval (log)	1.199***	1.196***
	(69.39)	(69.69)
Safeguard	-0.123**	
	(-2.49)	
Log of Months × Safeguards	0.0300**	
	(2.25)	
Safeguard type A		-0.149
		(-1.62)
Safeguard type B		-0.139***
		(-2.78)
Safeguard type F		-0.0545
		(-0.34)
Log of Months × Safeguards type A		0.00379
		(0.16)
Log of Months × Safeguards type B		0.0333**
		(2.47)
Log of Months × Safeguards type F		0.0856**
		(2.40)
Approval Period	-0.00397***	-0.00406**

GEGI@GDPCenter

(-5.72)	(-6.00)
0.0631	0.0341
(0.85)	(0.49)
0.00829	0.0162
(0.44)	(0.81)
-0.389***	-0.378**
(-2.67)	(-2.54)
0.346***	0.347***
(2.95)	(2.99)
1.728***	1.780***
(6.36)	(6.74)
0.124***	0.108***
(4.04)	(3.51)
-0.0350	-0.0299
(-1.01)	(-0.90)
0.0635	0.0450
(1.51)	(1.04)
0.0453*	0.0366
(1.75)	(1.41)
-0.0398	-0.0379
(-1.13)	(-1.06)
-0.0259	-0.0311
(-0.54)	(-0.64)
-0.0671**	-0.0619**
(-2.46)	(-2.31)
0.138***	0.135***
(4.92)	(4.92)
0.167***	0.170***
(6.35)	(6.42)
	0.0631 (0.85) 0.00829 (0.44) -0.389*** (-2.67) 0.346*** (2.95) 1.728*** (2.95) 1.728*** (6.36) 1.728*** (6.36) 0.124*** (4.04) -0.0350 (-1.01) 0.0635 (1.51) 0.0635 (1.51) 0.0635 (1.51) 0.0453* (1.75) -0.0398 (-1.13) -0.0259 (-0.54) -0.0671** (-2.46) 0.138*** (4.92) 0.167***

WASH	-0.0705***	-0.0705**
	(-2.64)	(-2.58)
Financial Instrument Dummies (Omitted Category	v: Adaptable Prog	ram Loan)
Emergency Recovery Loan	0.673***	0.680***
	(7.05)	(7.11)
Financial Intermediary Loan	-0.109	-0.176
	(-0.73)	(-1.14)
Learning and Innovation Loan	0.0242	0.0417
	(0.26)	(0.46)
Sector Investment and Maintenance Loan	-0.0650	-0.0655
	(-1.24)	(-1.24)
Specific Investment Loan	-0.0949**	-0.0916**
	(-2.29)	(-2.23)
Technical Assistance Loan	0.147**	0.150**
	(2.52)	(2.60)
Observations	316,795	316,795

*t*-statistics in parentheses based on country-clustered standard errors. Dependent variable is log of cumulative percent disbursed. All specifications include country fixed effects.

\* p<0.1 \*\* p<0.05 \*\*\* p<0.01

#### Table 6: Project Outcomes

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Safeguard	-0.0375**		-0.115**	
	(-2.29)		(-2.38)	
Safeguard type A		-0.0631		-0.307***
		(-1.41)		(-2.92)
Safeguard type B		-0.0383**		-0.110**
		(-2.28)		(-2.19)
Safeguard type F		0.0508		0.0967
		(0.91)		(0.78)

UNSC @ approval	-0.0446	-0.0463	-0.0540	-0.0570
	(-1.55)	(-1.61)	(-0.80)	(-0.84)
UNSC @ ICR	0.0729**	0.0712**	0.266***	0.263***
	(2.25)	(2.23)	(3.44)	(3.44)
Intotalamt	-0.00582	-0.00484	-0.0230	-0.0144
	(-0.70)	(-0.55)	(-1.12)	(-0.66)
InGDP	-0.0118	-0.0123	-0.471**	-0.465**
	(-0.70)	(-0.73)	(-2.50)	(-2.45)
InPop	0.0258	0.0263	0.471	0.538
	(1.55)	(1.58)	(1.06)	(1.22)
IDA	0.0377	0.0344	0.0509	0.0121
	(1.29)	(1.14)	(0.92)	(0.21)
Regional Dummies (Omitted Category: Sub-Sahar	ran Africa)			
East Asia & Pacific	0.148***	0.149***		
	(2.81)	(2.84)		
Europe & Central Asia	0.198***	0.191***		
	(5.26)	(5.12)		
Latin American & the Caribbean	0.197***	0.197***		
	(4.70)	(4.67)		
Middle East & North Africa	0.0635	0.0636		
	(1.39)	(1.39)		
South Asia	0.0995***	0.100***		
	(2.88)	(2.91)		
Sector Dummies (Omitted Category: Agriculture)	I			
Education	0.0336	0.0301	0.0888	0.0722
	(1.50)	(1.32)	(1.64)	(1.32)
Energy	-0.0452*	-0.0441*	-0.0656	-0.0581
	(-1.69)	(-1.67)	(-0.99)	(-0.89)
Finance	-0.00649	-0.0102	0.0146	-0.00333
	(-0.24)	(-0.38)	(0.21)	(-0.05)

Health	-0.0502**	-0.0522**	-0.0873	-0.0997*
	(-2.10)	(-2.15)	(-1.65)	(-1.82)
Industry	0.0209	0.0216	-0.000726	-0.00112
	(0.84)	(0.86)	(-0.01)	(-0.02)
ICT	-0.0264	-0.0268	-0.0294	-0.0381
	(-0.69)	(-0.70)	(-0.26)	(-0.34)
Public	-0.0175	-0.0162	-0.0511	-0.0515
	(-0.89)	(-0.82)	(-0.96)	(-0.99)
Social	0.0314	0.0302	0.0489	0.0415
	(1.43)	(1.40)	(1.01)	(0.86)
Transportation	0.136***	0.136***	0.405***	0.412***
	(6.47)	(6.46)	(8.12)	(8.03)
WASH	-0.00260	-0.00354	-0.0554	-0.0542
	(-0.12)	(-0.16)	(-1.05)	(-1.00)
Financial Instrument Dummies (Omitted Category	/: Adaptable Prog	ram Loan)		
Emergency Recovery Loan	0.131***	0.135***	0.419***	0.420***
	(2.67)	(2.77)	(3.83)	(3.80)
Financial Intermediary Loan	-0.156**	-0.176***	-0.531**	-0.595***
	(-2.48)	(-2.60)	(-2.53)	(-2.85)
Investment Project Financing			0.201	0.348
			(0.40)	(0.63)
Learning and Innovation Loan	-0.114**	-0.110**	-0.287**	-0.268**
	(-2.30)	(-2.23)	(-2.12)	(-1.99)
Sector Investment & Maintenance Loan	-0.0436	-0.0437	-0.0958	-0.100
	(-1.14)	(-1.15)	(-0.85)	(-0.88)
Specific Investment Loan	-0.00773	-0.00603	-0.0242	-0.0202
	(-0.27)	(-0.21)	(-0.33)	(-0.28)
Technical Assistance Loan	-0.0169	-0.0161	-0.0700	-0.0672
	(-0.48)	(-0.46)	(-0.70)	(-0.67)
Observations	3597	3597	3602	3602

GEGI@GDPCenter Pardee School of Global Studies/Boston University

www.bu.edu/gdp

t/z-statistics in parentheses based on country-clustered SEs. Unit of observation: project. World Bank investment projects approved after 1989 & evaluated before 2015. \* p<0.1 \*\* p<0.05 \*\*\* p<0.01

(1&2) Probit Model. Dependent variable: =1 ICR Outcome Rating is Satisfactory. Marginal effects at sample mean.

(3&4) Country Fixed Effects Model. Dependent variable: ICR Outcome Rating on 1(Highly Unsatisfactory) to 6 (Highly Satisfactory) scale.

#### APPENDIX

## Table A1: Descriptive Statistics for investment project selection for Safeguards

	mean	sd	min	max
Safeguard	0.610	0.488	0	1
Safeguard type A	0.087	0.282	0	1
Safeguard type B	0.496	0.500	0	1
Safeguard type F	0.027	0.162	0	1
UNSC @ approval	0.076	0.266	0	1
Intotalamt	2.651	1.985	0	8.230
supplement	0.139	0.346	0	1
IDA	0.434	0.496	0	1
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.295	0.456	0	1
East Asia & Pacific	0.180	0.384	0	1
Europe & Central Asia	0.159	0.366	0	1
Latin American & the Caribbean	0.166	0.372	0	1
Middle East & North Africa	0.080	0.271	0	1
South Asia	0.119	0.324	0	1
Agriculture	0.215	0.411	0	1
Education	0.161	0.367	0	1
Energy	0.155	0.362	0	1
Finance	0.090	0.287	0	1
Health	0.121	0.326	0	1
Industry	0.123	0.328	0	1
ICT	0.042	0.201	0	1
Public	0.496	0.500	0	1
Social	0.185	0.388	0	1
Transportation	0.201	0.401	0	1
WASH	0.194	0.395	0	1
Adaptable Program Loan	0.044	0.204	0	1

30

Emergency Recovery Loan	0.055	0.227	0	1
Financial Intermediary Loan	0.013	0.111	0	1
Investment Project Financing	0.253	0.435	0	1
Learning and Innovation Loan	0.016	0.124	0	1
Sector Investment and Maintenance Loan	0.028	0.164	0	1
Specific Investment Loan	0.447	0.497	0	1
Technical Assistance Loan	0.119	0.323	0	1
UNIDENTIFIED	0.003	0.054	0	1
Observations	9186			

#### Table A2: Descriptive Statistics for Preparation Duration estimation

	mean	sd	min	max
World Bank Board Approval date	11/2/2007		3/31/1994	12/30/2016
ProjNum	99360.050	31785.803	31828	153154
Safeguard	0.618	0.486	0	1
Safeguard type A	0.085	0.279	0	1
Safeguard type B	0.501	0.500	0	1
Safeguard type F	0.033	0.178	0	1
UNGA voting alignment with U.S.	0.401	0.178	0	0.955
Intotalamt	2.464	2.015	0	8.230
supplement	0.162	0.369	0	1
IDA	0.426	0.494	0	1
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.297	0.457	0	1
East Asia & Pacific	0.180	0.384	0	1
Europe & Central Asia	0.165	0.371	0	1
Latin American & the Caribbean	0.167	0.373	0	1
Middle East & North Africa	0.069	0.253	0	1
South Asia	0.122	0.328	0	1
Agriculture	0.216	0.411	0	1

Education	0.158	0.365	0	1
Energy	0.158	0.365	0	1
Finance	0.090	0.286	0	1
Health	0.124	0.330	0	1
Industry	0.117	0.322	0	1
ICT	0.039	0.195	0	1
Public	0.457	0.498	0	1
Social	0.197	0.398	0	1
Transportation	0.200	0.400	0	1
WASH	0.198	0.399	0	1
Emergency Recovery Loan	0.062	0.241	0	1
Financial Intermediary Loan	0.009	0.096	0	1
Investment Project Financing	0.271	0.444	0	1
Learning and Innovation Loan	0.020	0.140	0	1
Sector Investment and Maintenance Loan	0.012	0.109	0	1
Specific Investment Loan	0.408	0.492	0	1
Technical Assistance Loan	0.134	0.341	0	1
UNIDENTIFIED	0.004	0.062	0	1
Observations	7023			

## Table A3: Descriptive Statistics for investment project speed of disbursement, months to threshold

	mean	sd	min	max
# Months to 25% disbursed	34.947	18.500	1	154
# Months to 50% disbursed	48.306	23.264	1	154
# Months to 75% disbursed	59.613	27.337	1	193
Safeguard type A	0.109	0.312	0	1
Safeguard type B	0.503	0.500	0	1
Safeguard type F	0.030	0.170	0	1
Approval Period	489.730	74.938	360	628

www.bu.edu/gdp

IDA	0.573	0.495	0	1
Project Size	17.580	1.231	13.177	21.950
Inflation	0.097	0.096	-0.164	0.959
GDP	24.209	2.208	17.067	29.065
Population	17.091	1.982	9.195	21.019
Education	0.184	0.387	0	1
Energy	0.137	0.344	0	1
Finance	0.105	0.307	0	1
Health	0.139	0.346	0	1
Industry	0.137	0.344	0	1
ICT	0.038	0.191	0	1
Public	0.670	0.470	0	1
Social	0.191	0.393	0	1
Transportation	0.239	0.427	0	1
WASH	0.204	0.403	0	1
Emergency Recovery Loan	0.050	0.217	0	1
Financial Intermediary Loan	0.022	0.148	0	1
Learning and Innovation Loan	0.026	0.160	0	1
Sector Investment and Maintenance Loan	0.051	0.221	0	1
Specific Investment Loan	0.680	0.467	0	1
Technical Assistance Loan	0.090	0.286	0	1
Observations	4456			

IBRD/IDA investment projects approved between January 1984 and December 2012. # of Months measured from approval date.

#### Table A4: Descriptive Statistics for investment project speed of disbursement, cumulative disbursement by month

	mean	sd	min	max
Log cumulative % disbursed	2.916	1.567	0	6.487
Months since approval (log)	3.410	0.976	0	4.787
Safeguard	0.631	0.483	0	1

33

Safeguard type A	0.108	0.310	0	1
Safeguard type B	0.495	0.500	0	1
Safeguard type F	0.028	0.165	0	1
Approval Period	470.256	66.086	360	628
IDA	0.571	0.495	0	1
Project Size	17.637	1.191	13.177	21.950
Inflation	0.096	0.116	-0.382	0.996
GDP	24.248	2.187	17.067	29.065
Log of population	17.151	1.970	9.195	21.019
Agriculture	0.198	0.398	0	1
Education	0.180	0.384	0	1
Energy	0.134	0.340	0	1
Finance	0.103	0.303	0	1
Health	0.142	0.349	0	1
Industry	0.132	0.338	0	1
ICT	0.035	0.183	0	1
Public	0.728	0.445	0	1
Social	0.188	0.390	0	1
Transportation	0.240	0.427	0	1
WASH	0.204	0.403	0	1
Emergency Recovery Loan	0.033	0.179	0	1
Financial Intermediary Loan	0.021	0.142	0	1
Learning and Innovation Loan	0.023	0.151	0	1
Sector Investment and Maintenance Loan	0.060	0.238	0	1
Specific Investment Loan	0.699	0.459	0	1
Technical Assistance Loan	0.090	0.286	0	1
Observations	316,795			

## Table A5: Descriptive Statistics for Project Performance estimation

34

	mean	sd	min	max
Outcome_ICR	0.74	0.44	0	1
OutcomeRaw_ICR	4.07	1.14	1	6
Safeguard	0.59	0.49	0	1
Safeguard type A	0.09	0.28	0	1
Safeguard type B	0.48	0.50	0	1
Safeguard type F	0.03	0.16	0	1
UNSC @ approval	0.08	0.27	0	1
UNSC @ ICR	0.08	0.27	0	1
Intotalamt	3.29	1.54	0.00	7.32
IDA	0.51	0.50	0	1
Education	0.19	0.39	0	1
Energy	0.13	0.34	0	1
Finance	0.11	0.31	0	1
Health	0.15	0.35	0	1
Industry	0.14	0.35	0	1
ICT	0.03	0.18	0	1
Public	0.72	0.45	0	1
Social	0.20	0.40	0	1
Transportation	0.22	0.42	0	1
WASH	0.19	0.39	0	1
EAP	0.17	0.37	0	1
ECA	0.20	0.40	0	1
LAC	0.19	0.40	0	1
MENA	0.08	0.28	0	1
SA	0.10	0.31	0	1
Observations	3646			



Boston University 53 Bay State Road Boston, MA 02215 ▲ gdp@bu.edu
✓ www.twitter.com/gdpc\_bu
⊕ www.bu.edu/gdp

# GLOBAL ECONOMIC GOVERNANCE INITIATIV

The Global Economic Governance Initiative (GEGI) is a research inititiative at Boston University's Global Development Policy Center. The GDP Center is a University wide center in partnership with the Frederick S. Pardee School for Global Studies. The Center's mission is to advance policyoriented research for financial stability, human wellbeing, and environmental sustainability.

AND AREAST

#### www.bu.edu/gdp

The views expressed in this Working Paper are strictly those of the author(s) and do not represent the position of Boston University, or the Global Development Policy Center.