

The effects of income and population on development aid: A quantitative survey of the data and the literature

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Abstract:

This paper uses all available information to establish the size of two parameters in the behavior of development aid donors: The effect of recipient income level and population size. These parameters are analyzed by two methods: A primary study of the data and a meta-analysis of the large aid allocation literature. Both methods find that both effects are robustly negative, but have a rather small size. The poverty effect is in accordance with stated donor policies, while the population effect is contrary to these policies. Six hypotheses are presented to explain the population effect.

JEL: F35, O19

Keywords: Aid allocation, poverty effect, population effect, meta-analysis

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1. Introduction: Two parameters of need

The purpose of the paper is to establish the size of two parameters in the aid allocation relation: The recipient income level and population size. While the literature generally agrees that aid does depend upon income and population, it shows an amazing range of results – our aim is to narrow the range. The literature suggests that we look for two main effects:

- E1 *A poverty effect*: Income has a negative effect on aid, so that poorer countries receive more aid. It is confirmed, but found to be small, as it only explains 10-12% of the variation in the aid share.³ A possible side effect is:
 - E1b *A middle-income effect*: The aid-income curve is convex, so the aid-income relation has a section above the best linear fit, at some middle income. It is rejected.
- E2 *A population effect*: The population size has a negative effect on aid, so that larger countries have smaller aid shares. It is confirmed, but found to be small, as it only explains 9-10% of the variation in the aid share.

Each effect is analyzed by two methods: A basic primary analysis of the data, and a meta-study of the literature. The data analysis is the most precise, but the results are not controlled for most potentially relevant factors. The meta-analysis study many estimates of the effect, which is found as one part of a large model, with many controls. Nevertheless, the meta-estimates of both effects do converge to an average, which is close to the one of the primary study. It is a strong finding that the same results are reached by both methods.

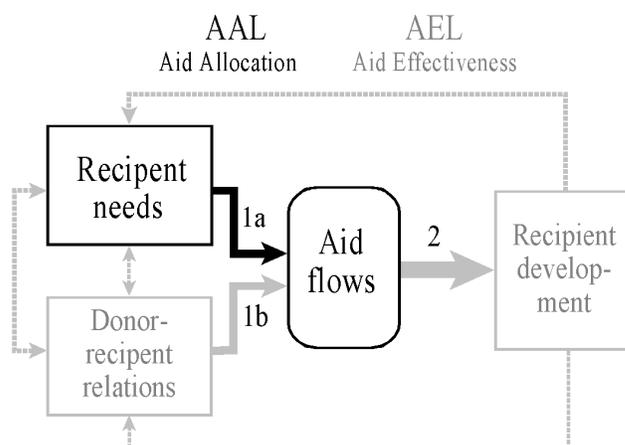
The empirical literature on aid consists of more than 300 papers,⁴ which analyze the three causal flows shown on Figure 1. The Aid Effectiveness Literature (AEL) deals with relation (2). It explores the effects of development aid on growth, savings and investment. The Aid Allocation Literature (AAL) deals with relations (1a) and (1b). It explores the choice of aid recipients and how much they receive. The paper looks at flow (1a) of the AAL: The allocation of development aid on the basis of recipient needs.

The AAL analyzes the policies of donor countries and multilateral organizations. A main theme is to compare the stated goals of donors with the pattern actually found. When they deviate, we say that the allocation process has a *policy bias*. The identification of policy biases provides insights into the behavior of donors.

3. It contributes 0.10 to 0.12 to the R^2 in regressions explaining the aid share, which is aid in percent of GDP.

4. Christensen et al (2007 and 2009) are comprehensive bibliographies of the literature.

Figure 1. The causal relations analyzed in the empirical development aid literatures



Most stated donor aims are humanitarian, with *poverty reduction* as the main goal. The poverty effect is consistent with this goal, but the low power of the effect is puzzling. We think that the main driver for the flow of AAL-literature is the fact that 90% of the variation remains to be explained by other variables. One of the other variables is population. No donor states that poverty in large countries is less important than poverty in small ones. Hence the effect of population on the aid share should be zero. However, the effect is almost as large as the poverty effect. Hence, the population effect is a policy bias.

The literature has found other policy biases. Most follow from donor-recipient relations (flow 1b on Figure 1), and are due to *historical ties*, as well as *strategic* and *commercial interests*. Historical ties and strategic interests have no obvious connections to the effects we analyze. The meta studies confirm that even when these factors are controlled for, the two effects remain. Commercial interests suggest that aid is given to countries with large and growing markets. This is the reason to expect a middle-income effect, and a positive population effect. However, the middle-income effect is rejected by the data, and the population effect is negative, so commercial interests do not explain the findings.

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 offers our primary analysis of the data, for 118 countries from 1960 to 2005. Section 3 is the meta study of the income effect, while Section 4 is the meta study of the population effect. Section 5 discusses possible explanations for the effects, notably the population effect. Section 6 concludes the paper. The studies covered by the meta-analysis are listed in Appendix A.

2. The primary data analysis

The data analyzed are: 5-year averages for the aid share, $h = \text{ODA/GNI}$ (in percent), source WDI. Initial income, $y = \ln \text{gdp}$ (GDP per capita), source Maddison (2003).⁵ Initial population, $n = \ln \text{pop}$, source WDI. The years 1960, 65, ... , 01 are used as the initial years, while the 5-year averages are for 1961-65, 1966-70, ..., 2001-05. The meta-studies in Sections 3 and 4 cover several additional measures of aid.

2.1 Looking for the three effects in the data: Data plots with kernel-curves⁶

The data are displayed on Figures 2 and 3. The kernel-curves are a descriptive device to show how well the aid share can be explained by initial income and population. These curves are a first approximation to the aid-income and the aid-population relations. With bandwidths from about 0.2 to almost 1.0, the kernel-curves look as shown. Nine observations with aid shares above 50% have been deleted. They do not change the form of the curves, but compress the big mass of data so that the graphs are difficult to read.

The first observation from the two graphs is that they show a dramatic scatter. Aid shares are all over the place. Income and population only organize a minor part of the variation; but both the poverty effect and the population effect are clearly visible on the graphs.

The aid-income kernel-curve on Figure 2 has a negative slope consistent with the poverty effect and two additional features: (1) It is less steep until about 7 – which is the income level of South Korea in 1960 or Cameroon in 2000. Thus, it matters for aid that countries are poor, but not so much if they are very poor or just poor. (2) The curve turns up at the end, so it is concave – not convex – at the middle income level. This is due to the 10 observations in the box from two small French dependencies.⁷ With and without the box, the curve is contrary to the hypothesis of a *middle income effect* (from Isenman 1975).

The aid-population relation on Figure 3 curve has an almost linear negative slope consistent with the *population effect*. China and India at the extreme right hand of the picture fits into the pattern, but would look the same without these giants.

5. He WDI data for GDP and GNI are normally the same. Ln is the natural logarithm. GDP per capita is written in small letters as *gdp*. The Maddison data covers app 164 countries, with a population above 1 million.

6. The reader may understand the kernel regressions as MA-process with a fixed bandwidth. Too low bandwidth gives a zig-zag curve and too high bandwidth makes the curve flat. With a proper bandwidth the kernel-curves show if the relations deviate from linearity.

7. *French Polynesia* has a population of 270,000, of which 10% are French. *New Caledonia* has a population of 220,000, of which 35% are French. They both receive an annual subsidy of about 15% that is classified as aid. Israel is often cited as a case of a middle income country receiving much economic aid, but aid did taper off as the country became wealthier.

Figure 2. The aid share and initial income with a kernel regression, $N = 960$

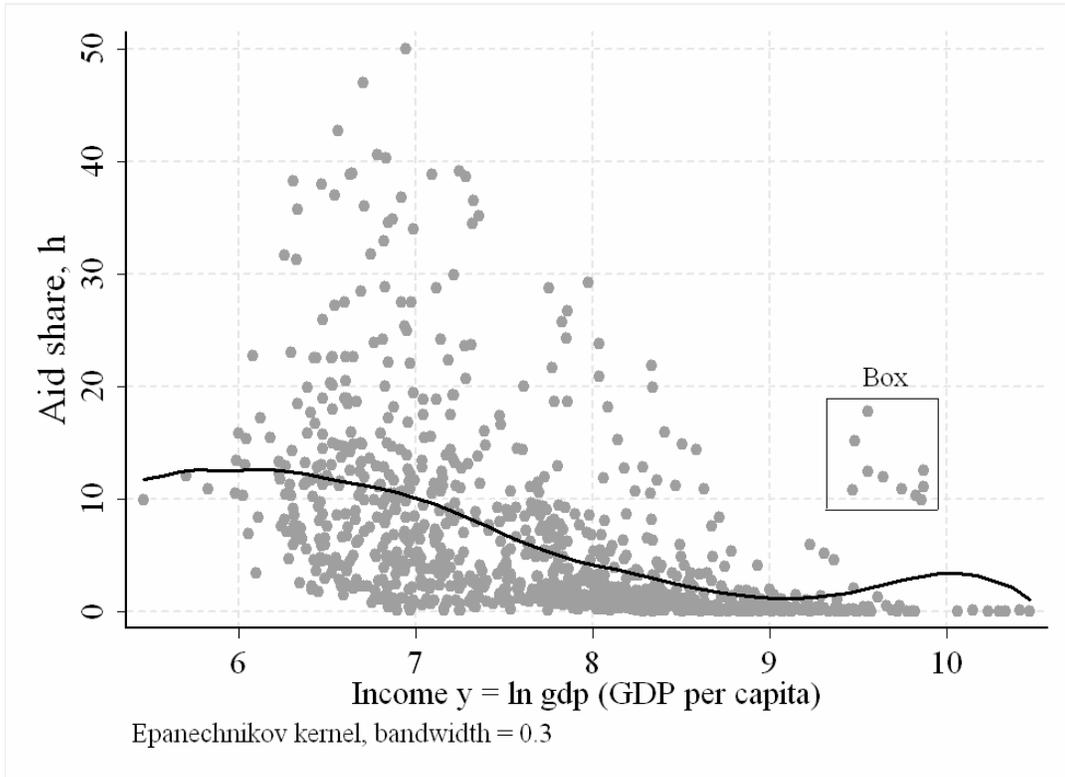


Figure 3. The aid share and initial population with a kernel regression, $N = 1,016$

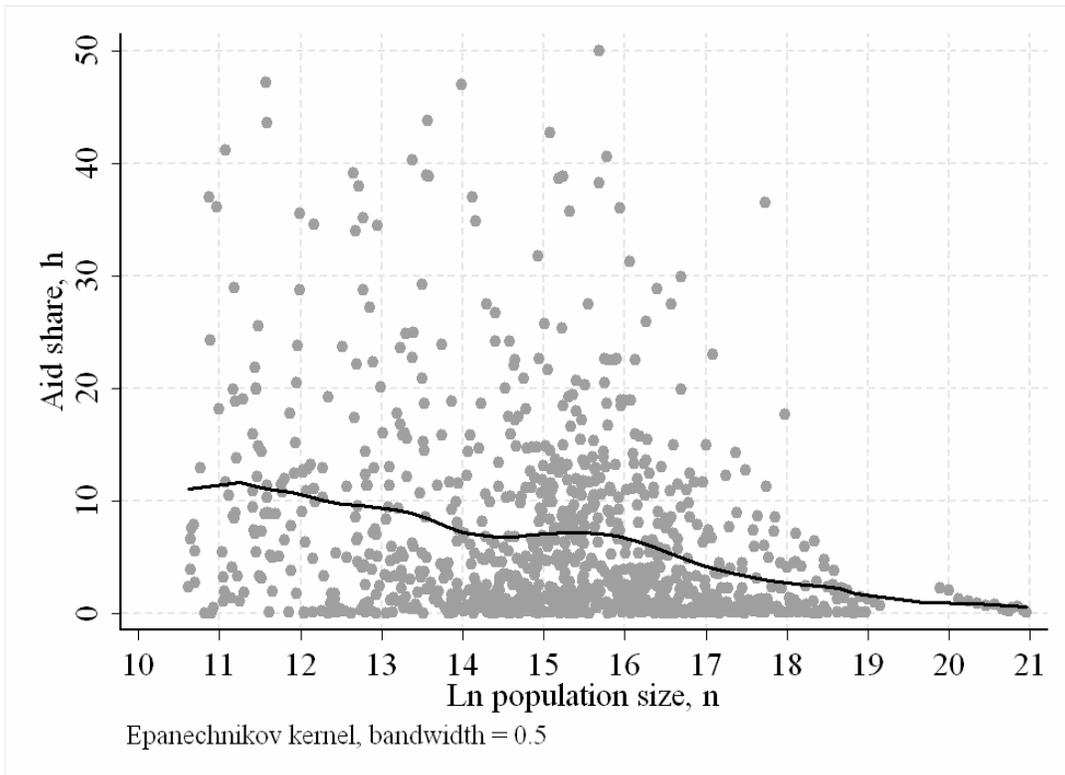


Table 1. The income and the population effects

$N = 766$	Explaining the aid share						Explaining income	
$Nc = 118$	(1)	(1b) ^{a)}	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Initial $y = \ln \text{gdp}$	-5.89	-5.04	-5.88		-5.19	-5.11		
(t-ratio)	(-14.6)	(-18.3)	(-14.6)		(-12.0)	(-11.7)		
initial $n = \ln \text{pop}$	-2.12	-1.62	-2.07	-1.72			-0.066	-0.067
(t-ratio)	(-11.7)	(-12.9)	(-12.3)	(-8.5)			(-4.3)	(-4.1)
China dummy	2.49	0.86		0.18	-9.32			0.39
(t-ratio)	(0.6)	(0.3)		(0.0)	(-2.2)			(1.1)
India dummy	1.18	-0.24		2.07	-9.18			-0.15
(t-ratio)	(0.4)	(-0.1)		(0.6)	(-2.8)			(-0.5)
All regressions contain fixed effects (FE) for the nine periods								
AR ² , including FE	0.57	0.68	0.57	0.44	0.49	0.48	0.988	0.988
AR ² , excluding FE	0.18	0.20	0.18	0.06	0.10	0.09	0.0003	0.0003

Note: All estimates with t-ratios above 2 are bolded. FE is Fixed Effects. Brackets contain t-ratios. AR² is the R² adjusted for degrees of freedom. $N = 766$ observations from $Nc = 118$ countries are included.

a. 13 observations where $h > 40$ are excluded.

2.2 Regressions explaining the aid share by income and population: Table 1

Figures 2 and 3 tell us that we may run *linear* regressions explaining the aid share, h , by population, n , and income, y , as is done in Tables 1 to 3. The regressions use fixed effects for time, and dummies for China and India. As suggested by Figure 3 these dummies are insignificant in all regressions, which also contain $n (= \ln \text{pop})$.

All LDCs except middle income oil countries and countries in transition from socialism are included. The dataset has $N = 766$ for the three variables (h , y , n) for these 118 countries. They are 72% of the potential $118 \times 9 = 1,062$ sets. However, the aid programs started in the 1960s, so the data for the first periods cover 61 and 67 countries only.

The regressions in the three tables are run as stacked OLS regressions on all available observations. This assumes that there is no simultaneity in the relations. The dummies are exogenous and so is population. Consequently there should be very little multicollinearity. This is confirmed by estimates (5) and (6) in Table 1. It appears that larger countries are poorer; but this effect is really small.

We know from the convergence literature that the correlation between y and the real growth rate, g , is about zero in the short run. A meta-analysis of the aid to growth literature (Doucouliagos and Paldam 2008b) demonstrates that causality from h to g is at most very weak. Also, we use the initial values of y . Hence, we take all causality between h and y to run from y to h , and all causality between h and n to run from n to h .

2.3 The development in the two effects over time: Table 2

Next the basic regression is run as a cross-country regression for each of the 9 periods, to see if the pattern changes over time. In particular, we expected that the poverty orientation would be stronger after the political pressures from the Cold War on aid policies ceased.

Table 2. Results for the individual periods: Explaining the aid share

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Initial $y = \ln \text{gdp}$	Initial $n = n \text{ pop}$	Constant	AR^2	N
P1, 60-65	-2.47 (-3.4)	-1.16 (-3.5)	39.00 (5.3)	0.26	61
P2, 65-70	-2.85 (-5.2)	-1.48 (-6.0)	47.56 (8.4)	0.47	67
P3, 70-75	-3.19 (-4.5)	-1.60 (-5.0)	53.23 (7.2)	0.37	70
P4, 75-80	-4.33 (-4.3)	-2.54 (-5.6)	78.82 (7.0)	0.34	79
P5, 80-85	-4.95 (-5.1)	-1.93 (-5.0)	74.89 (7.5)	0.33	88
P6, 85-90	-6.79 (-5.7)	-2.68 (-5.8)	102.42 (8.4)	0.36	97
P7, 90-95	-9.46 (-5.3)	-2.98 (-4.2)	129.53 (6.7)	0.26	101
P8, 95-00	-5.98 (-5.8)	-2.00 (-4.6)	84.46 (7.5)	0.30	103
P9, 00-05	-7.38 (-7.2)	-1.44 (-3.2)	87.44 (7.8)	0.36	100
Average	-5.27 [-2.4]	-1.98 [-3.3]	77.48 [2.9]		
All	-5.20 (-12.4)	-2.02 (-11.3)	78.02 (17.3)	0.24	766
Table 1 ^{a)}	-5.88 (-14.6)	-2.07 (-12.3)	FE for periods	0.18	766
Trend-test	-0.73 (-4.4)	-0.09 (-1.2)	8.01 (3.2)		

Note: Brackets contain t-ratios. The square brackets give t-ratios for cross period stability. The trend test is done by regressing the coefficients on a trend variable 1, ...,9 for the periods P1,..., P9.

a: Regression (2) from Table 1. The AR^2 is the one excluding FE.

Figure 4. The development over time of the two effects (from Table 2)

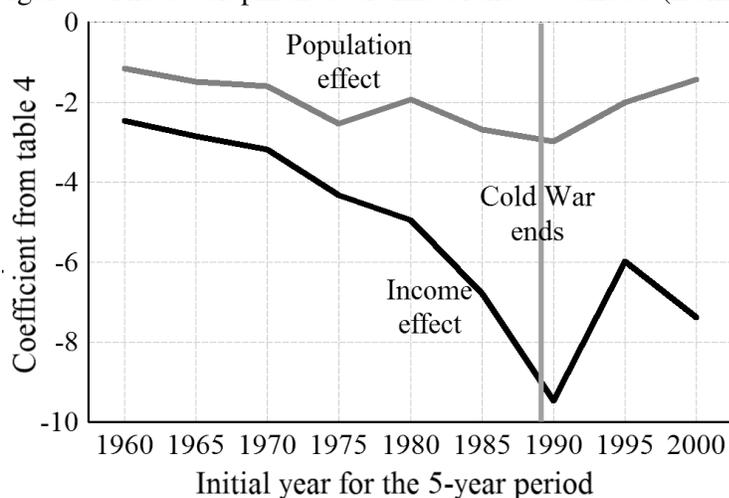


Figure 4 shows that both the poverty and the population effect increases over time. The trend-test at the bottom of the table confirms both trends, though only the poverty effect trend is

significant. The end of the Cold War interrupts both trends. Thus, the poverty orientation ceases to increase contrary to expectations.⁸

2.4 Controlling for non-linearity: Table 3

The visual impressions from Figures 2 and 3 are controlled in Table 3. We here divide the regression in the income and the population part to include as many observations as possible.

Table 3. Controlling the two effects for non-linearities

Explained: Aid share	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Poverty effect, y , $N = 771$			Population effect, n , $N = 817$		
Endogenous, y or n	-5.234		-16.902	-1.829		-0.440
	(-11.9)		(-2.4)	(-10.4)		(-0.2)
Endogenous squared, y^2 or n^2		-0.339	0.765		-0.069	-0.046
		(-11.8)	(1.7)		(-10.4)	(-0.7)
Form found (see note):	linear	a-linear	concave	linear	a-linear	a-linear
	Fixed effects for periods included, but regressions are also run without					
AR ² , including FE	0.481	0.479	0.483	0.470	0.471	0.470
AR ² , excluding FE	0.119	0.115	0.122	0.107	0.106	0.106

Notes: A-linear means that the curve is within the 50%-confidence interval of corresponding linear curve. That is (2) does not deviate from (1), and (5) and (6) do not deviate from (4).

When the three lines in each case are drawn, we have checked if the non-linear curves are inside the confidence interval of the linear curve. This is the case for (2), (5) and (6). The only possibly non-linear curve is (3) that looks as expected Figure 2. It is worth noting that we get slightly higher values for the AR²-contributions of the two effects in Table 3 than we got in the previous tables.

2.5 Summary of the primary study: The orders of magnitudes

The variables are measured in logarithmic form. Table 4 shows how the estimates should be understood. The average aid share is 8% for all 766 observations. Since 1980 the average country in Sub-Saharan Africa has received about 15% of GDP in aid. A group of countries (such as the Latin American) which are 5 times richer than the average African country receive about 9.5 percentage points less in aid. That is, they receive about 5% instead of 15%, in accordance with stated policies.

8. The regressions (1) to (5) have been re-run after deleting all 13 sets where the aid share is larger than 40%, and all 31 sets where the aid share is larger than 30%. This barely affects the results.

Table 4. The size of the estimated effect of country differences

Effect on	From estimated equation		1.5 times	2 times	5 times	10 times
	From	Coefficient ^a	Ln 1.5 = 0.41	Ln 2 = 0.69	Ln 5 = 1.61	Ln 10 = 2.30
Aid share	Income	-5.9	-2.4	-4.1	-9.5	-13.6
Aid share	Population size	-2.1	-0.9	-1.4	-3.4	-4.8
Income level	Population size	-0.07	-0.03	-0.05	-0.11	-0.16

Note a: Coefficients are from columns 1 and 6 of Table 1.

In the same way we may compare two countries at the same standard of living, where one has 10 times more people. Table 4 says that it receive 4.8 percentage points less aid. This seems an unreasonable policy bias in favor of smaller countries.

The AR^2 of the two variables is only about 0.18, of which we can ascribe about 0.10 to 0.12 to the effect of income and 0.08 to 0.11 to the effect of size. Consequently, the two variables do not explain very much. In particular, we note that the poverty of countries explains only about 11% of the variation in the aid shares.

3. Meta study 1:⁹ The poverty effect and the middle-income effect

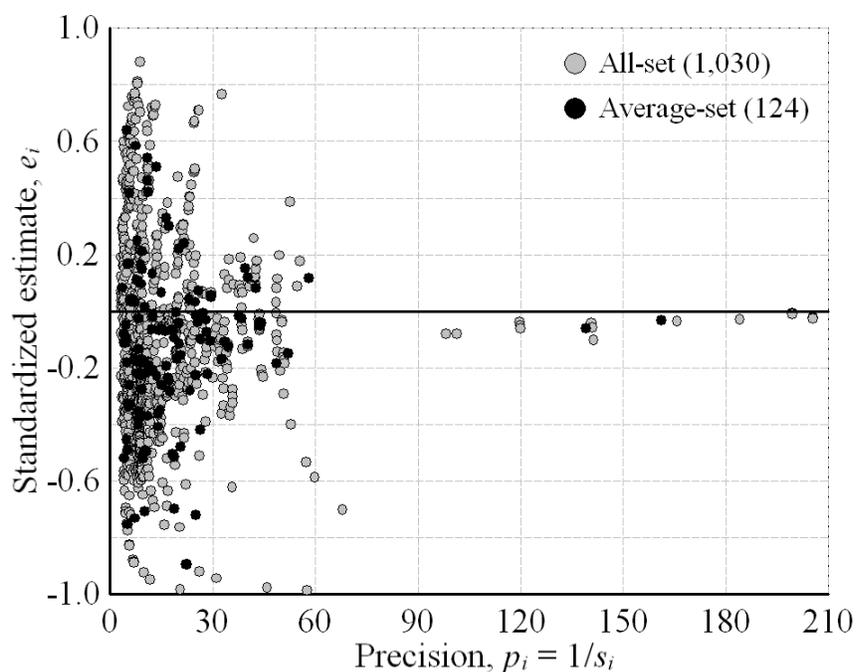
Our bibliography of the AAL (see Christensen et al, 2007) covers 166 studies, of which 124 contain a total of 1,030 estimates of the effect of income on aid. These estimates were *standardized* by a conversion into partial correlations. The meta-analysis considers (1) the *all-set* of the 1,030 estimates, and (2) the *average-set* of the average finding in each of the 124 studies. (2) is analyzed in Figure 5 only.

Throughout this section and the next: e_i are the standardized estimates, s_i and $p_i = 1/s_i$ are their standard errors and precisions, and as usual the t-ratio is $t_i = e_i/s_i$.

3.1 The funnel plot of the estimates of the poverty effect : Figure 5

Funnel plots show the (e_i, p_i) -points, i.e. the estimates over their precision. Figure 5 is the funnel plot of the all-set and the average-set of the estimates of the poverty effect. As usual, it is amazing to see how much the results vary. The reported results range from -1 to almost +1.

Figure 5. Funnel plot of the estimates of the poverty effect



9. Meta-analysis is a quantitative study of a set of estimates of the same effect in the literature. It is done in order to assess the meta-average, which is the result to which research converges – and to study if the literature has biases. A good introduction to meta-analysis is the volume by Roberts and Stanley (2005).

The plot suggests a pattern: (p1) As precision increases the funnel converges to something that is *negative*, but (p2) quite *small*. The point of convergence is the *meta-average*, which is taken as the best estimate of the true value; (p3) more negative than positive estimates are reported, so the plain average is negative too; (p4) The funnel appears to have a small downward asymmetry around the average. (p5) The pattern looks the same for the all set and the average set – hence, from now we only consider the all-set.

Ideal funnels, where the right estimator is used on the true model, are lean and symmetrical, but empirical funnels are often stubby and *asymmetric*,¹⁰ mostly due to censoring during the research-publication process. Fortunately, Figures 5 and 6 are almost symmetrical.

3.2 The FAT-PET MRA technique¹¹

Funnel graphs are very suggestive, but the suggestions (p1) to (p4) should pass formal statistical tests. Consequently, meta-analysis has developed the family of MRA-tests, which are run on the data of the funnel. The MRA estimate a variant of the following model:

$$e_i = e_0 + \beta Z_i + v_i \quad (1)$$

Here e_0 is the estimate of the population parameter of interest, while Z is a vector characterizing the estimate, such as data, specification, estimator and publication.

Like any statistical analysis (1) requires that the data are representative, and hence that funnels are symmetric. Thus, asymmetries have to be taken into account in order to estimate meta-average. Rising sample sizes should not affect the size of the estimate, but increase its precision. However, with publication bias smaller studies will search for larger effects in order to compensate for their larger standard errors. Thus, censoring should be largest at low precision. This suggests running the following regression, which is the FAT-PET MRA:

$$e_i = e_M + \gamma s_i + u_i \quad (2a) \quad \text{or, after division by } s_i: \quad t_i = \gamma + e_M p_i + v_i \quad (2b)$$

(2a) gives a better intuition, while (2b) is better to estimate, as it has less heteroskedasticity. The two parameters are the meta-average, e_M , and the asymmetry test, γ . Equation (2a) shows that the estimate of e_i converges to e_M as s_i goes to zero, i.e. p_i , goes to infinity. This is the

10. See Doucouliagos and Stanley (2008) and Callot and Paldam (2009) on funnels and their asymmetries. It is common that priors exist so that results that are equally far from the true value to both sides are unequally reasonable and hence unequally easy to publish. A typical case is provided by the aid effectiveness literature. It suffers from a sizable publication bias, caused by the reluctance of the profession to publish negative results, see (Doucouliagos and Paldam 2008a).

11. The new development of these tests (including the acronyms) is due to Stanley (2005a, 2008): MRA is meta regression analysis, PET is precision estimate test, and FAT is funnel asymmetry test.

definition of the meta-average. If the funnel is symmetrical $e = e_M$ is at the axis of symmetry for the funnel, and $\gamma = 0$. At the reverse end, for zero precision, $e_i = \gamma$. If the funnel is asymmetric γ differ from zero.¹² Equation (2b) can be expanded with control variables, Z :

$$t_i = \gamma + e_M p_i + \beta_2 Z + v_i \quad (3)$$

Also, to control for data dependencies within studies the CDA estimator can be used. In the remainder of the paper, we estimate versions of equation (2b) and (3).

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for the MRA variables used both in Section 3 and 4

	(1)	(2)		(3)	(4)
Variable	Poverty effect	Population effect	Variable	Poverty effect	Population effect
t-ratio	-1.61 (5.33)	-0.32 (6.79)	Aid in \$	0.44 (0.50)	0.41 (0.49)
s_i	0.11 (0.07)	0.10 (0.07)	Share of aid ^{a)}	0.14 (0.35)	0.16 (0.37)
Aid share	0.11 (0.31)	0.09 (0.28)	Multilateral aid	0.32 (0.96)	0.25 (0.43)
Aid per capita	0.33 (0.47)	0.34 (0.47)	World Bank aid	0.22 (0.93)	0.14 (0.34)

Note: Figures in brackets are standard deviations. The last five aid definitions are not used in Section 2.

a. Share of aid is defined as the share of various donors in the aid – it differs from one study to the next.

Descriptive statistics for the variables of our MRAs are presented in Table 5. Columns 1 and 3 are the statistics for the variables for the estimates of the income effect. Columns 2 and 4 present the statistics for the estimates of the population effect.

3.3 The FAT-PET MRA for the poverty effect: Table 6

Table 6 brings estimates of equation (2b). Columns 1 and 2 use all observations. Columns 3 and 4 bring estimates for multilateral aid, while Columns 5 and 6 consider bilateral aid. Columns 1, 3, and 5 use OLS and report two sets of standard errors: standard errors that are robust to heteroskedasticity and standard errors that are derived using clustered data analysis, correcting for data dependence. Columns 2, 4, and 6 use a mixed effects model, estimated using restricted maximum likelihood (REML). This is based on a two-level model, where estimates are nested within studies.

The meta-average, e_M (i.e., the coefficient on p_i) is an unbiased estimate of the poverty effect, corrected for selection bias. It is always small and negative, but with one exception it is significant. The partial correlation it is not fully comparable with the result in Section 2, but is

12. The FAT was developed by Egger *et al.* (1997), Sutton *et al.* (2000), Rothstein *et al.* (2005), and Stanley (2005).

clear that the results are similar. That is, the results from the entire literature support the income effect found in Section 2. The poverty effect is larger for multilateral organizations.

Table 6. FAT-PET MRA, estimates of the income effect. Explains t-ratio

Equation (2b)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	All-set	All-set	Multilateral	Multilateral	Bilateral	Bilateral
Estimator	OLS, CDA	REML	OLS, CDA	REML	OLS, CDA	REML
Asymmetry test, γ	-0.86	-0.50	-0.03	0.41	-0.70	-0.52
	(5.4, 1.7)	(1.1)	(0.1, 0.1)	(0.5)	(4.3, 1.3)	(1.1)
Meta average, e_M	-0.05	-0.06	-0.14	-0.16	-0.04	-0.06
	(3.9, 2.3)	(4.6)	(2.2, 1.5)	(5.2)	(3.6, 2.4)	(4.0)
R^2	0.03	-	0.11	-	0.03	-
K , studies	123	123	39	39	114	114
N , estimates	1,030	1,030	246	246	861	861

Note: t-ratios are reported in brackets. OLS standard errors are robust to heteroskedasticity. CDS is clustered data analysis. REML is restricted maximum likelihood. K is the number of studies, while N is the number of estimates. Bold numbers are significant at the 5% level. If a second t-ratio is added, it is derived from clustered data analysis. If the significance differ by the two t-ratios the coefficients are bold and in italics.

The asymmetry test, γ , is negative, but of dubious significance. This negative sign indicates that selection bias in this literature favor negative coefficients (as suggested by the funnel). The size of the selection bias is, however, small so that inferences are not greatly distorted by selection bias in this literature.¹³

3.4 The effect of changing the definition of aid: Table 7, columns (1) to (5)

While the aid share is the main definition of aid in the literature, a number of additional definitions, listed in Table 5 have been used. We analyze how much it matters for the results in Table 7. It is done by equation (3) where a dummy is added for the studies using the alternative definition. These results show that shares of aid allocations have a negative association with gdp (-0.14): The poverty effect is robust to the definition of aid.¹⁴

Columns 2 to 5 report the FAT-PET separately for multilateral agencies and bilateral donors. For multilateral agencies, the partial correlation between aid-to-gdp and gdp levels is -0.35. This means that income is of significant importance to their aid allocation decisions,

13. Using Monte Carlo simulations, Doucouliagos and Stanley (2007) show that for absolute values of $\gamma < 1$, the effects of selectivity on inference are modest.

14. This paper is to find the sizes of the poverty and population effects. However, the MRA can be extended to a more general model, which include dummy variables for the time period analyzed, the estimator used, the type of journal in which the study was published, and various variables that capture the specification of the aid allocation equation. The experiments done leave the coefficient on the aid share rather unchanged.

even after holding constant all other factors. The partial correlations for the share of aid, per capita aid, and total aid allocated are -0.14, -0.14 and -0.06, respectively (e.g. for share of aid the coefficient is $-0.35 + 0.21 = -0.14$). Hence, regardless of the measure of aid, the empirical literature has established the negative income effect.

Table 7. FAT-PET MRA, expanded estimates of the income effect. Explains t-ratio

Equation (3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	All-set	Multi-lateral	World Bank	Bilateral	(4) with dummies ^{a)}	Middle-income bias Linear	Non-linear
Constant, γ	-0.69	0.07	-0.51	-0.35	0.47	1.45	-0.96
Asymmetry test	(2.2, 1.2)	(0.1, 0.1)	(0.9, 0.5)	(0.9, 0.6)	(1.1, 0.7)	(4.9, 1.9)	(3.4, 1.6)
Meta average, e_M	-0.01	-0.35	-0.31	0.11	0.06	-	-
Using aid share	(0.2, 0.1)	(4.5, 3.7)	(3.9, 2.4)	(3.8, 1.9)	(1.4, 0.7)		
Share of aid for diff donors	-0.14 (3.1, 1.7)	0.21 (3.0, 1.7)	0.26 (3.5, 2.1)	-0.28 (9.9, 4.5)	-0.23 (5.5, 2.6)	-0.18 (5.6, 4.5)	-0.04 (1.3, 0.7)
Per capita aid In US \$	-0.03 (0.6, 0.3)	0.21 (2.5, 1.6)	0.41 (5.1, 3.3)	-0.14 (5.1, 2.5)	-0.09 (2.1, 1.0)	-0.11 (3.7, 2.8)	0.02 (0.8, 0.6)
Total aid In US \$	-0.03 (1.1, 0.6)	0.29 (3.4, 2.1)	0.27 (3.0, 1.9)	-0.23 (3.9, 2.0)	-0.17 (3.0, 1.5)	0.09 (3.2, 2.4)	-0.04 (1.0, 1.3)
R ²	0.07	0.17	0.25	0.13	0.25	0.14	0.06
K, studies	122	39	28	114	114	17	17
N, estimates	1,029	246	149	861	861	124	124

Note: See note to Table 6.

a: The dummies are for Australia, Japan, Canada, Italy, Germany, UK, Netherlands, and Scandinavia (Denmark, Sweden, Finland, and Norway grouped together), with the US as base

Column 3 focuses on the estimates relating to the World Bank. The partial correlation between income and aid-to-gdp is similar to all multilateral agencies (-0.31 compared to -0.35). The partial correlations for the share of aid, per capita aid, and total aid allocated are -0.05, +0.10 and -0.04, respectively. These are noticeably smaller than for all multilateral agencies. This seems to suggest that poverty is of lesser importance to the Bank,¹⁵ and is consistent with the notion that the World Bank is more inclined to fund successful projects than projects relating to poorer countries. The positive correlation for per capita aid is inconsistent with the other responses.

The results for bilateral donors are mixed. The share of aid, total aid, and per capita aid, all have a negative coefficient. However, the positive coefficient for aid-to-gdp (+0.11) in

15. Note, however, that this conclusion is drawn from past studies. There are indications that in recent years the World Bank has become more focused towards poverty reduction.

column 4 is surprising. Closer inspection of the data shows that this result might be driven by aggregation bias.¹⁶ Equation 3 was rerun with the addition of eight country dummies. The key results are reported in column 5. Now only the share of aid is statistically significant and it has a negative sign, while aid/gdp is now insignificant from zero. Of the eight country dummies, three have negative coefficients: Australia (-0.38, $t = -2.44$), the Netherlands (-0.15, $t = -2.16$), and Scandinavia (-0.18, $t = -3.13$). Italy is the only country with a positive coefficient (+0.10, $t = 2.30$).

Hence, we conclude that the accumulated evidence points quite clearly to the importance of poverty with regard to the allocation of aid for both multilateral agencies and bilateral donors.

3.5 *The middle income effect: Table 7, columns (6) and (7)*

The middle-income effect has been explored in only 17 of the 124 studies, which included both linear and non-linear income terms that attempt to define a non-linear association: aid is meant to increase with income until a certain threshold, and then a negative association should be observed. Our own analysis of the data (section 2) suggested an absence of such a middle-income effect. What does the accumulated empirical evidence suggest?

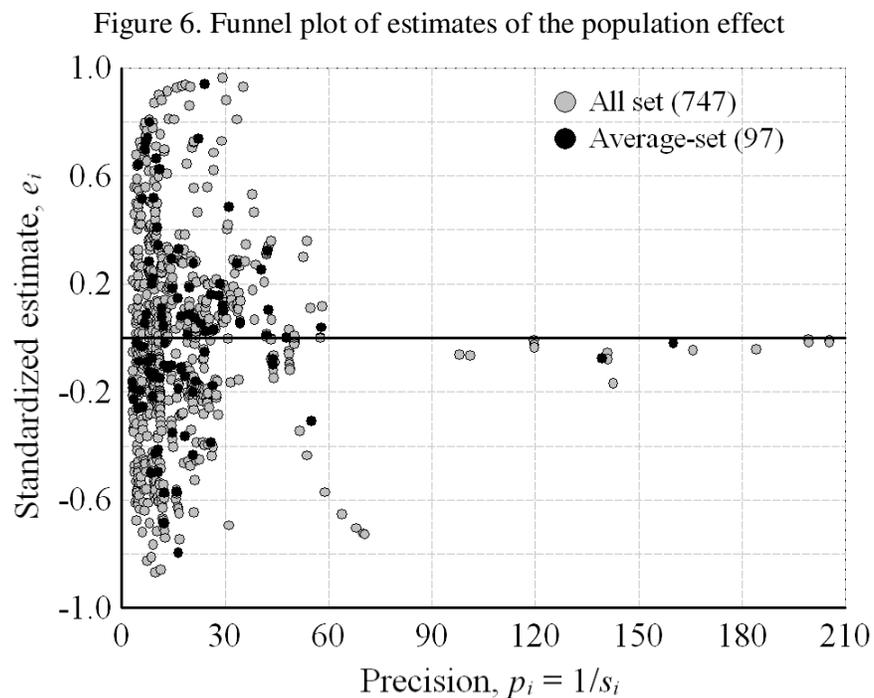
Column 6 presents the FAT-PET regression for only those linear terms that come from a non-linear model, i.e. from a model that includes both a linear term and a non-linear term. Note one important feature of this sub-group of the literature is that there are only four estimates using aid-to-GDP as the aid measure. Total aid has the required positive coefficient, though it is small. However, if aid is measured as per capita aid or as the share of aid, a negative coefficient emerges, invalidating the middle-income bias hypothesis.

Column 7 reports the FAT-PET for the non-linear term. None of these are statistically significant, even though two have the desired negative sign. The meta-analysis results presented in columns 6 and 7 reject the middle-income bias. Consequently the meta-analysis confirms the results from the study of the raw data: A small poverty effect is confirmed and the middle-income effect is rejected.

16. The choice of donor dummies was purely data driven. These are the donors for which the greater majority of individual donor estimates have been reported.

4. Meta study 2: The population effect

We adopt the same framework from Section 3 in the meta-analysis of estimates of the population effect.¹⁷ Here, the funnel plot of Figure 6 covers all the 747 reported estimates of the effect as well as the 97 estimates, using the average from each study. Once again, the funnel looks fairly symmetrical, and appears to converge to a small negative result.



4.1 The FAT-PET MRA for the population effect: Table 8

The FAT-PET results are presented in Table 8. Columns 1 and 2 are the results for all estimates pooled together. The results for multilateral agencies are presented in columns 3 and 4, while the results for bilateral donors are presented in columns 5 and 6. As was the case in table 6, we compare the results using OLS, clustered data analysis, and restricted maximum likelihood. The results are not as robust as was the case for the poverty effect.

However, the coefficient on the population effect ($1/s_i$) indicates a small negative effect once any selection bias is corrected. That is, taking all estimates into account, larger countries receive less aid. Comparing columns 3 and 4 to columns 5 and 6, the population effect is larger for multilateral donors.

17. Most studies use initial population, but some use average or even final population. Due to the strong autocorrelation in these series, this is of little importance.

Table 8. FAT-PET MRA, estimates of population effect. Explains the t -ratio

Equation (2b)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	All-set	All-set	Multilateral	Multilateral	Bilateral	Bilateral
Estimator	OLS, CDA	REML	OLS, CDA	REML	OLS, CDA	REML
Asymmetry test, γ	0.67 (2.8, 1.1)	1.30 (1.8)	0.32 (0.2, 0.1)	3.91 (2.3)	0.67 (2.8, 1.1)	0.56 (0.8)
Meta average, e_M	-0.04 (2.9, 1.3)	-0.04 (2.4)	-0.11 (0.9, 0.5)	-0.29 (5.2)	-0.04 (2.7, 1.4)	-0.02 (1.2)
R^2	0.02	-	0.03	-	0.02	-
K , studies	97	97	31	31	90	90
N , estimates	747	747	182	182	617	617

Note: See note to Table 6.

4.2 The effect of changing the definition of aid: Table 9, columns (1) to (5)

Table 9 presents the results allowing for different measures of aid allocation (this is similar to Table 8). The negative coefficient on Aid/GDP indicates that larger countries (as measured by population) receive *less* aid, as was the case with our own analysis of the data presented in Section 2. However, this is not statistically significant when clustered data analysis is used. In contrast, both the coefficient on *Share of Aid* and the coefficient on *Total Aid* are positive – the larger the country, the more aid it receives in absolute amounts, and the greater the share of all aid is distributed. These effects appear to be robust. Taken together, they suggest that donors give more aid in total to larger countries, but the share in terms of GDP is smaller for larger countries.

Columns 2 and 3 report the results for the bilateral donors and multilateral agencies, respectively. In all cases, the FAT-PET MRA results suggest that the population effect is smaller for bilateral donors than multilateral agencies. For example, in terms of aid/GDP, the coefficient for bilateral donors is -0.07, compared to -0.36 for all multilateral agencies, and -0.44 for the World Bank. This means that the World Bank gives much less aid as a percent of GDP than bilateral donors: the population bias is larger for World Bank allocations. In terms of total aid, the coefficient for bilateral donors is +0.28 (0.35-0.07), compared to +0.12 (0.48-0.36) and +0.06 (0.50-0.44), for all multilateral donors and the World Bank, respectively. That is, the larger a poor country is, the more aid in total it receives, but it receives relatively more from bilateral donors.

Table 9. FAT-PET MRA expanded estimates of the population effect. Explains t-ratio

Equation (3)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)		(6)
	All-set	Bilateral donors	Multilateral donors	World Bank	Population bias		
					Linear	Non-linear	
Constant	-1.74 (6.4, 2.9)	-1.60 (5.8, 2.7)	-0.19 (0.2, 0.1)	1.07 (1.7, 1.1)	-2.52 (2.3, 1.5)	2.59 (2.4, 1.5)	
Aid share	-0.06 (2.1, 1.2)	-0.07 (2.2, 1.2)	-0.36 (3.9, 3.4)	-0.44 (5.1, 6.9)	-	-	
Share of aid	0.22 (6.2, 2.3)	0.24 (6.5, 3.1)	0.43 (5.2, 2.5)	0.75 (8.4, 7.7)	-0.14 (1.9, 0.7)	0.07 (0.9, 0.5)	
Per capita aid	0.01 (0.1, 0.1)	0.02 (0.5, 0.3)	0.02 (0.2, 0.2)	-0.10 (1.1, 0.9)	-0.29 (6.6, 4.4)	0.16 (5.6, 3.2)	
Total aid	0.35 (9.2, 4.8)	0.35 (4.7, 8.8)	0.48 (6.5, 5.5)	0.50 (6.2, 7.6)	0.30 (6.2, 4.1)	-0.17 (4.9, 2.8)	
R ²	0.24	0.27	0.35	0.66	0.23	0.09	
K, studies	97	90	31	20	12	12	
N, estimates	747	617	182	102	89	89	

Note: See note to Tables 6 and 7.

Columns 1 to 4 focus on the linear terms that have been the major focus in this literature. Our final meta-analysis is a direct test of the non-linearities in the population bias. This involves FAT-PET regressions on the non-linear terms. Column 5 reports the FAT-PET for those linear terms that have been estimated in the context of a non-linear model. The results are essentially the same as when all the linear terms are analyzed. The one difference of note is that none of these estimates relate to aid as a percentage of GDP. This subgroup of the linear population effects literature shows that more aid is allocated in total to larger poorer countries.

Column 6 reports the FAT-PET for the associated non-linear terms. The negative coefficient on total aid indicates that it rises initially for larger poorer countries, but does so in a non-linear manner. The finding of a non-linear association is different to what we found in our own analysis presented in Section 2. However, recall that our own analysis uses a longer time period and a wider group of countries. Moreover, our measure of aid was the aid share.

5. Discussing the results

We have found very much the same results in the primary data study in the two meta studies. Both the poverty effect and the population effect are very well established, they are both rather small, and the population effect is almost as large as the income effect. Basically the two effects explain no more than 20% of the variation in the aid share. These conclusions are the main ones of the study. But we still want to discuss why these results appear.

5.1 *Explaining the low power of the poverty effect*

It is not difficult to understand that the poverty of the recipient country is a highly significant and increasing factor explaining aid allocation. This is in accordance with the expressed goal of all donors, and the rationale of development aid from the start. The goal of poverty reduction is everywhere declared to be the overriding goal of aid. Thus it is puzzling that poverty only explains 10-12% of the variation in the aid share.

One possibility is that it is an artifact, as might be suggested by Figure 1 in the introduction. Maybe the low power of the poverty effect is due to biases from other relations in the AEL-AAL complex, and in particular to the relations in the aid-income-growth nexus. The nexus is discussed and the findings as regards each relation are confronted in Doucouliagos and Paldam (2008b). Most of the causal links produce small (even dubious) effects, so all biases within the nexus are likely to be very small. Many have tried simultaneous estimation techniques on the relations in the nexus, but this rarely has a substantial effect. Thus, we can trust that the size of the poverty effect we have identified is real.

The main conclusion that follows must be that the poverty effect is dominated by the many other effects. Aid is generated by a large and complex process, where the decisions are affected by many actors, with different motives and interests. All these *other factors* somehow determine the remaining 90% of the variation in the aid flows. We believe that main driver in the research of aid allocation is to untangle the remaining 90%.

5.2 *Explaining the population effect*

One part of the 90% is the population effect. It is also a well established effect, and it is a clear example of a policy bias as it is contrary to the stated policy of the donors. Thus, we have to understand it as a result of the politico-administrative processes operating in the process of aid giving. The OECD (1969), followed by Isenman (1976), were the first to discuss the population size bias in aid allocation. Isenman proposed a number of explanations,

and since then other explanations have been proposed. We have classified the explanations into six families:

(1) *Political Influence buying*: Development aid may be seen as an attempt by the donor country – or its aid agency – to buy influence. The cost of influence is cheaper, the smaller the recipient country. This idea has several aspects: (1.1) The *bang for the buck effect*: It is important for donors to have a visible effect which can be communicated to taxpayers. (1.2) The *pond effect*: Representatives from the donor country will inevitably be relatively bigger fish the smaller the pond, and it is nicer to be a big fish. Also, a decision-maker in a recipient country has an equal amount of time available in a small and a large country. So he can allocate less to each donor in the large country. (1.3) Showing *respect* is important in international relations. Donors might want to avoid giving small nations a proportionate amount in aid because the resulting small amount might appear to be insulting to the recipient nation. Note that these three factors may affect multilateral aid allocation as much as they affect bilateral aid allocation.

(2) *Results of the power distribution in international organizations*: It appears that small countries have disproportionately more power in international organizations. This applies especially to the UN. Also, small nations tend to have less interest in power-politics, and consequently their interests are more concentrated on the economy. Thus, small countries may get a disproportionate share of aid for two reasons: (a) they have relatively more power, and (b) they may sell their support to large nations in their power-play in exchange for aid.¹⁸

Many argue that with the end of the Cold War, political considerations in the allocation of aid have diminished. The empirical analysis in Table 2 does not support this view. Also, the points noted under (1) and (2) extend beyond the context of the Cold War.

(3) *Commercial interests*: As argued in the introduction this should have the reverse effect on the population effect from the one found: Commercial interests should favor countries with large and growing markets.

(4) *LDC Status seeking*: Countries often aim for larger international status. This is more realistic the larger the country. (4.1) To receive aid is a sign of weakness, so international status seeking reduces the demand for aid more so for larger countries. Also, it is likely to reduce the supply of aid for two additional reasons: (4.2) Status seeking by new countries will create rivalry with countries having such a status already, which may be wealthy donors. Thus, tensions will occur between the donor community and the large LDCs. (4.3) Large

18. This is further analysed in the literature on the relation between aid and the way countries vote in the UN general assembly, as pioneered by Wittkopf (1973) and Rai (1980). See also Dreher and Sturm (2006). Another body of literature analyses how small countries may get a relatively good deal in international organizations as they are able to free ride. This literature took off from Olson and Zeckenhauser (1966).

LDCs may undertake their own aid programs as tools to seek status. It then becomes awkward for a donor to give aid to a country that gives aid itself. Reversely, smaller countries may pursue aid seeking strategies as they can not obtain a high status anyhow. Also, they may want to get donors into their country as a counterweight to local powers.

(5) *Country size and black spots*: It is well known that most (if not all) countries have black spots that cause unfavorable comments in the international press.¹⁹ It may be an ethnic conflict, or a lack of one or another civil liberty, it may be corruption, etc. *Ceteris paribus*, the number of black spots is likely to increase with country size. This can make aid allocation problematic and potentially embarrassing for donors in the eyes of their own citizens, and in the eyes of the international community. The same applies to white spots, but they are less newsworthy. Thus, if the supply of aid depends negatively on the amount of negative press, the small countries have an advantage.

(6) *Aid effectiveness*: Aid is more visible in small countries and might, hence, be easier to monitor. Further, Dowling and Hiemenz (1985) argue that larger countries are more vulnerable to bottlenecks and inefficiencies, and this might make them less attractive to donors. There seems to be no support in the AEL for the notion that aid is less effective in larger countries than in smaller, so for now this point will be disregarded.

The first five points are part of a broader argument supported by other evidence, so it appears that they all have some empirical value. However, several are overlapping, and their importance is likely to have changed over time. Consequently, we are not, at present, able to assign weights to the importance of the five factors.

5.3 *Should the results differ for bilateral and multilateral donors?*

Several empirical studies have focused exclusively on the issue of bias in the aid allocation process of multilateral agencies. Examples include Cline and Sargen (1975), Arvin, Rice and Cater (2001), and Neumayer (2003c), while many others explore the behavior of both bilateral and multilateral donors.

Cline and Sargen (1975) argue that multilateral agencies tend to be protected from ‘temporary political oscillations’ so that they can be expected to be more focused on economic criteria for aid allocation. Other aspects of multilateral agency allocations include the administrative and organizational efficiency of the agencies and their effectiveness in allocating funds on the basis of need (see, for example, the references in Arvin, Rice and Cater 2001, and the study by Barrett and Heisey 2002). There are also important agency and

19. A dozen papers in the AAL consider the importance of the news coverage in the donor countries of events in the recipient countries for aid to the same countries. See, for example, Belle and Hook (2000) and Belle (2003).

governance issues involved. For example, Congleton (2006, p. 335) argues that given their nature: “International agencies are predicted to be underfinanced, undermonitored, and under-sanctioned.” Moreover, there is the important issue of bilateral donors influencing the allocation decisions of multilateral agencies (Neumayer 2003c, and Kilby 2006).

Thus, it is unlikely that the same mix of policy pressures operate on bilateral and on multilateral donors.

6. Concluding remarks

The paper has assessed the importance of the need of the recipient country for the development aid they receive. The analysis looks at two variables measuring need: Income level and population. For both variables, we have looked at all available data and all empirical studies. That is, we have looked at about 800 data points and the cumulative knowledge reached by 40 years of research. Both our own study and the meta studies tell the same story:

Income: Donors normally proclaim poverty alleviation as the main reasons for allocating aid. The poverty effect should appear as an inverse association between aid allocation and income, and it certainly does. The effect is slightly smaller for multilateral than for bilateral donors. The effect is almost linear throughout the observed data range, and the evidence does not support the notion of a middle-income bias. However, the poverty effect explains only about 10% of the variation in the data. Thus, even when the income-aid relation is both significant and robust it is not a very powerful relation – many other factors count for the allocation of aid.

Population: It is not the expressed aim of donors to support small rather than large countries, so there should be no effect of population. However, population size has a significant negative effect on aid. The evidence shows that the population bias is stronger for multilateral organizations, and that it is stronger still for World Bank allocations. The population effect is almost as strong as the poverty effect.

A priori, it is unclear if the humanitarian and development orientation of bilateral versus multilateral agencies is the largest. On the one hand, it can be argued that bilateral donors are more likely to pursue their own national and foreign policy interests and, hence, potentially downplay humanitarian concerns. On the other hand, multilateral agencies may be ineffective and under-resourced to meet humanitarian obligations. The donors might also be influenced in their allocations by the interests of large contributors. The evidence reviewed in this paper show that multilateral agencies are, on average, less predisposed towards allocating aid on the basis of humanitarian concerns: the income effect is weaker when aid is measured as the share of aid while the population effect is stronger.

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Appendix A: The studies covered

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