



# Bibliographical Note

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his report has drawn on a wide range of World Bank documents and on numerous outside sources. World Bank sources include ongoing research as well as country economic, sector, and project work. These and other sources are listed alphabetically by author and organization in two groups: background papers and references. The background papers were commissioned for this report and are available on the *World Development Report 1999/2000* World Wide Web page (<http://www.worldbank.org/wdr/>). In addition, some background papers will be made available through the Policy Research Working Paper series or as other World Bank publications, and the rest will be available through the World Development Report office. The views they express are not necessarily those of the World Bank or of this report.

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The team consulted with the Asian Development Bank (ADB), the Bank for International Settlements (BIS), the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the International Labour Organization (ILO), the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD),

the World Trade Organization (WTO), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the German Development Forum, the Commonwealth Secretariat, the U.K. Department for International Development (DFID), the Overseas Economic Cooperation Fund (Japan), the Foundation for Advanced Studies on International Development (Japan), and the Institute of Southeast Asian Studies (Singapore).

## Endnotes

### Introduction

1. Pritchett 1997.
2. Among some of the more widely cited papers on why and how convergence is not happening are Bernard and Durlauf 1996; Easterly and Levine 1997; Pritchett 1997, 1998; Quah 1993; and Sachs and Warner 1997b.
3. Some papers that find strong evidence of conditional convergence are: Barro 1991; Mankiw, Romer, and Weil 1992; Sachs 1996; and Sala-i-Martin 1997. Caselli, Esquivel and Lefort (1996) suggest the convergence rate to country-specific steady states could be even faster than the cross-country rate of two percent per year.
4. See Aziz and Wescott (1997) on the need for macro policy complementarity and Stiglitz (1998a) on the need for a broader approach involving a range of elements.
5. Lewis 1955.
6. Stiglitz 1998b.
7. Devarajan, Easterly, and Pack 1999.
8. Levine and Renelt 1992.
9. Easterly and Fischer 1995.
10. Psacharopoulos 1994.
11. World Bank 1991.
12. Buckley 1999.
13. Stiglitz 1999b.
14. Stiglitz 1996.
15. Stiglitz and Uy 1996.
16. Evans and Bataille 1997; Isham, Narayan, and Pritchett 1994; World Bank 1991, 1997d.
17. Buckley 1999.
18. Evans and Battaile 1997.
19. This box is drawn largely from the World Bank's Social Capital Web Page (<http://www.worldbank.org/poverty/scapital/index.htm>).
20. Coleman and Hoffer 1987; Francis and others 1998.
21. Drèze and Sen 1995.
22. Narayan and Pritchett 1997.
23. Portes and Landolt 1996.
24. Evans and Bataille 1997.
25. Buckley 1999.
26. WHO 1999.
27. UNDP 1998.
28. WHO 1999.
29. World Bank 1999k.
30. WHO 1999.
31. Easterly 1999.
32. Thomas 1999.
33. World Bank 1999a; Dollar 1999.
34. North 1997.
35. A complete political economy model needs to include an agent with the authority to establish or alter the rules under which any game is played. In the national context the government is such an agent. It is neither a benevolent despot maximizing a societal welfare function nor a neutral umpire, but a privileged, self-interested agent in the game. Moreover, government consists of layers of agents who are responsible to each other and to outside constituencies in differing ways. For a general treatment of rule makers, see Altaf (1983).
36. The examples in this and the following four paragraphs are drawn from the last two *World Development Reports* (World Bank 1998m; World Bank 1997d), unless otherwise noted.
37. Burki and Perry 1998.
38. Burki and Perry 1998.
39. Ravallion and Chen 1998.
40. UNDP 1998.
41. Ravallion and Chen 1998.
42. World Bank 1998.
43. WHO 1999.
44. Jamison 1993.
45. See Ridley (1997) on future disease threats in an urban environment.
46. Walt 1998.
47. Fredland (1998) explores the wider political and psychological consequences of AIDS for the course of development in Sub-Saharan Africa.
48. WHO 1999; Marsh 1998.
49. WHO 1999.
50. There are now between 50–100 million cases of dengue fever worldwide (Rigau-Perez and others 1998). See Howson, Fineberg, and Bloom (1998).
51. Mortality tends to be higher in HIV-positive patients infected by the tuberculin bacillus (Del Ano and others 1999). On South Africa see Millard (1998).
52. Although some 70 percent of the nearly 47 million cases of HIV are in Africa, the disease is also spreading rapidly in South and Southeast Asia with the poor being most affected. See Tibaijuka 1997; *Lancet* 1996; *New England Journal of Medicine* 1996; *Financial Times*, "Toll from AIDS Heaviest Among the World's Poor." June 24, 1998; Caron 1999; *Financial Times*, "AIDS May Kill Half South African Youth." October 10/11 1998. The intergenerational effects of AIDS are described starkly in UNESCO (1999), which notes that by 2000, 13 million children in Sub-Saharan Africa will have lost one or both parents to the disease.
53. See *The Economist* (1999f) and AIDS Analysis (1998) on loss of life expectancy in several African countries.
54. This is proving to be an exceedingly by complex task with many leads being pursued. See *The Economist* 1998b; *Financial Times*, "Simple to Identify, Difficult to Destroy." July 16, 1998.
55. Good 1999; *Business Week* 1998.
56. *New England Journal of Medicine* 1997.
57. Nearly two thirds of all infections caused by staphylococcus aureus in Europe are methicillin-resistant and also resistant

to most other antibiotics. Howson, Fineberg, and Bloom (1998); *Lancet* 1998; *New England Journal of Medicine* 1998; Cohen 1992. Walsh (1999) describes the attempt to modify vancomycin to cope with new superbugs. See also *Business Week* (1999).

58. *Oxford Analytica*, "Africa: HIV/AIDS Concentration." December 1, 1998. TB is not just a serious problem for low-income countries and is also spreading in middle-income countries such as Russia, see Feschbach (1999); Farmer (1999).

59. In Southeast Asia alone, 10–15 million people cross borders each year. *Oxford Analytica*, "Southeast Asia: Spreading Diseases." July 15, 1998; Guerrant 1998.

60. *The Economist* 1998a.

61. Curtis and Kanki 1998.

62. Ambio 1995; *The New York Times*, "Malaria, A Swamp Dweller Finds a Hillier Home." July 21, 1999.

63. See John and others (1998) on surveillance procedures; WHO 1999.

64. Harvard Working Group 1994; Ewald and Cochran 1999. On the infectious causes of many malignancies, including cancers, see Parsonnet (1999).

65. Jamison, Frank, and Kaul 1998; Walt 1998; Howson, Fineberg, and Bloom 1998; *The Economist* 1998c.

66. Watson and others 1998.

67. This box is based on Gardner-Outlaw and Engelman (1997); Rogers and Lydon (1994); Seckler and others (1998); and "World Day for Water, 22 March 1999," a news release issued jointly by UNEP and United Nations University.

68. Peterson 1999.

69. Commentators sometimes downplay the role of technology in globalization, pointing out the limited extent of global communications just a hundred years ago. In fact, U.S. exports in the late 1900s are only 1 percent higher as a percentage of GDP than they were in the late 1800s, and international capital movements are a smaller percentage of output than they were in the 1880s (*International Herald Tribune*, May 23, 1999). But the absolute levels are clearly much larger. Trade has a much broader base that involves a far larger percentage of manufactures and services, and finance includes more short-term investment that relies on highly sophisticated information technology.

## Chapter 1

1. Analyses of the recent growth in trade flows (Baldwin and Martin 1999) and capital flows (Bordo, Eichengreen, and Kim 1998; Obstfeld and Taylor 1999) have identified factors that were also present during the period of globalization before World War I and, more important, factors that are unique to the end of the 20th century.

2. Recent work by Frankel and Romer (1999) brings out strongly the relationship between trade and income growth. In fact, their results suggest that a 1 percentage point increase in the trade-to-GDP ratio raises income per capita by between 0.5 and 2 percent.

3. Anderson 1999.

4. *The Economist* 1999d; *Oxford Analytica*, "East Asia, Electronic Commerce." June 1, 1999.

5. Kleinknecht and der Wengel 1998.

6. Bank lending to developing countries dropped by \$75 billion in 1998, but official development assistance increased by

\$3.2 billion to \$51.5 billion (*Financial Times*, "Bank Loans Cut to Emerging Economies." May 31, 1999; *The Economist* 1999e).

7. The cost of a three-minute transatlantic call dropped from \$31.58 in 1970 to less than \$1 in 1998. Computer use is increasing at a dramatic pace as more and more people gain access to the Internet. Access speeds themselves have risen from 14.4 kilobytes to 10 megabytes per second. *Financial Times*, "Banker's Black Hole." July 21, 1999.

8. Feldstein 1998.

9. Eberstadt 1998.

10. Higgins and Williamson 1997; Horioka 1990; Kosai, Saito, and Yashiro 1998.

11. Average fertility rate in Mexico has fallen from 7.0 in the mid-1960s to 2.5 in the late 1990s (*The New York Times*, "Smaller Families to Bring Big Change in Mexico." June 8, 1999).

12. Attanasio and Banks 1998.

13. Giddens 1998.

14. Costa 1998.

15. Peterson 1999.

16. Deaton 1998.

17. Vamvakidis and Wacziarg 1998.

18. UNCTAD 1998.

19. OECD 1998. Much of the foreign direct investment in developing countries goes to fewer than 20 East Asian and Latin American economies (Fry 1995).

20. Until the early 1990s, reducing financial repression was viewed as a way to support growth but was not considered as important as other factors. New research is changing that perception. Financial deepening, including the development of well-functioning stock markets, is now seen as contributing substantially to future growth, principally by improving the allocation of resources. The relationship to growth is stronger in some regions than in others, and the evidence quite plausibly suggests that well-regulated banking systems facilitate growth. The availability of equity financing and venture capital closely parallels industrial progress and is especially important to small and medium-size enterprises seeking to exploit new technologies and to industries that depend heavily on external funding. Of course the causation could run both ways (Fry 1995). Data for five industrial countries between 1870 and 1929 show that financial intermediation spurs output. These results buttress the findings for more recent periods, as well as Gerschenkron's, which were based on his historical studies of European countries (Gerschenkron 1962; Gregorio and Guidotti 1995; Levine 1997, 707; Levine and Zervos 1998c; Rajan and Zingales 1998; Rousseau and Wachtel 1998).

21. Fry 1995.

22. Levine 1997.

23. Flannery 1998; Knight 1998.

24. Dobson and Jacquet 1998.

25. Eichengreen and others 1999; McKinnon 1991.

26. Goldstein 1998.

27. UNDP 1999.

28. Bennell 1997.

29. *Far Eastern Economic Review* 1998; Urata 1996.

30. Foreign direct investment accounted for 14 percent of financing for fixed assets in China between 1979 and 1997, out of a total of \$220 billion (Guo 1998).

31. Prahalad and Liebhenthal 1998.
32. The number of interfirm technology arrangements recorded by UNCTAD rose from an annual average of 300 in the mid-1980s to 600 in the mid-1990s. Those involving firms from developing countries have quadrupled from 10 per year to 40 (UNCTAD 1998; Kobrin 1997).
33. McKinnon 1998.
34. In its attempt to upgrade the 1988 accord, the Basle Committee has proposed a number of changes, including the use of both ratings by external agencies to determine banks' capital ratios and internally defined credit ratings of certain banks (*Financial Times*, "Radical Banking Reforms Announced." June 4, 1999).
35. Between 1990 and 1997 the United States alone admitted close to a million immigrants each year. See Population Reference Bureau (1999).
36. Oceania encompasses Australia, New Zealand, and the South Pacific islands.
37. Zlotnik 1998.
38. Kane 1995.
39. U.S. Committee for Refugees 1996.
40. Cohen and Deng 1998.
41. For a recent examination of European migration policies see Faini (1998). His analysis of wage differences and demographic pressures suggests that West European countries are more likely to see migration from North Africa than from Eastern Europe. See also Dervis and Shafiq (1998). For a recent exploration of the impact of demographic changes on migration, see Teitelbaum and Winter (1998).
42. Borjas 1998.
43. Bohning and de Beiji (1995) examine the effects of policies that attempt to facilitate the entry of migrant workers into labor markets. Faini (1998) assesses the difficulties faced by migrants as they assimilate into European countries. As they do, intense ethnic rivalries can develop that have little to do with the level of unemployment or the degree to which migrants displace existing workers in service or low-skilled jobs.
44. Carrington and Detragiache 1998.
45. From IMF, *International Financial Statistics*, cited in Russell and Teitelbaum (1992) and Taylor and others (1996).
46. See the evidence assembled on this point in Taylor and others (1996). In addition, see the evidence on remittances from Asian migrants to the Gulf States in Amjad (1989).
47. Castles 1998.
48. The influx of immigrants from Russia to Israel in the first half of the 1990s encouraged the growth of moderately skill-intensive sectors. See Gandal, Hanson, and Slaughter (1999).
49. Greif 1998.
50. Redding 1998; Skeldon 1998.
51. Redding 1998.
52. Meyer and others 1997.
53. *The New York Times*, "Human Influences on Climate Are Becoming Clearer." June 29, 1999.
54. *Nature* 1998.
55. *Science* 1999.
56. Around this long-run average there is likely to be a lot of variation. Already over the past 30 years the average winter-time temperature in northern latitudes is 4–5°C higher, up to 10 times the global average (*Financial Times*, "Stormy Forecast." June 3, 1999).
57. Apart from methyl chloride and methyl bromide, whose concentrations have remained roughly constant, the rising burden of chlorofluorocarbons is entirely traceable to human activity and began rising in the early 20th century (Butler 1999). The relationship between atmospheric gases and warming was first discerned by the great French mathematician Jean-Baptiste Fourier in an article published in 1824 (Christianson 1999).
58. While higher carbon dioxide concentrations could enhance plant growth and increase efficiency of water use, changes in tissue chemistry will render some plants less palatable. Heat and water stress on vegetation will offset some of the gains from an increase in the concentration of carbon dioxide (*Science* 1997, 496).
59. One alarming possibility is the melting and eventual disappearance of Himalayan glaciers in about 40 years, leading initially to flooding and then to the drying up of the rivers feeding the Indian plains (*New Scientist* 1999). Although current research suggests that climate change should not significantly disrupt the U.S. economy or agriculture, the impact on some regions of the country could be quite severe (Lewandrowski and Schimmelpfennig 1999).
60. The flooding in Bangladesh, Central America, and China in 1998 prompted Argentina and Kazakhstan to call for a cap on developing countries' greenhouse gas emissions that would be incorporated into the Kyoto Agreement at the Buenos Aires meetings in November 1998.
61. Sims (1999) describes the regulatory problems confronting China.
62. Flavin 1997.
63. Prescott-Allen 1995.
64. Madeley 1995a.
65. Speech at the World Economic Forum 1999, quoted in the *New York Times*, February 7, 1999.
66. Hay and Shleifer 1998.
67. Root 1998.
68. Garrett 1998; Rodrik 1998b.
69. Alesina 1998.
70. Boniface 1998. However, Pegg (1999) argues that the likelihood of new states appearing is low. Regions within countries prefer autonomy to secession, and, as in the case of Somaliland, external recognition of sovereignty is granted reluctantly.
71. Panizza (1999) finds that fiscal decentralization is positively correlated with ethnic fractionalization and level of democracy (as well as with country size and per capita income).
72. IMF 1997, 1998c.
73. Wetzel and Dunn 1998.
74. Gavin and Perotti 1997.
75. Alesina and Spolaore 1997. The end of the Cold War and the social history of these countries largely explain the appearance of 22 new countries between 1991 and 1998.
76. Wiseman 1997.
77. Research suggests that the absence of any significant devolution of authority is related in part to the quality of governance at different levels (Huther and Shah 1998).
78. Shah 1997.
79. The future course of decentralization will depend upon the experiences with ongoing experimentation in countries with

both centralized and more diffuse political regimes (Willis, Garman, and Hoggard, 1999).

80. Tyler 1997.

81. A fairly typical study of a sample of municipalities in Latin America indicates that building the capacity of local organizations is a function of leadership and community participation (Fiszbein 1997).

82. Verdier 1998.

83. Brockerhoff and Brennan 1998.

84. Khilnani 1997.

85. Lloyd-Sherlock 1997. Although a current and reliable global headcount of the urban poor is unavailable for developing countries, scattered evidence suggests that the number is significantly higher than the estimated 300 million for 1988 (Haddad, Ruel, and Garrett 1998).

86. Bourguignon 1998; Fajnzylber, Lederman, and Louyza 1998.

87. Tonry 1997.

88. Caldeira 1996.

89. Szreter 1997.

90. World Bank 1979.

91. Begg 1999. Globalization and the advances in information technology sharpen the competition between cities.

92. Krugman (1998a) notes the neglect of spatial issues in economics texts. However, geographers have not neglected spatial issues and locational decisions. And during the 1960s and 1990s, economists made notable contributions to the field of urban development. But recent advances in economic modeling have raised the profile of urban economics and its importance to economists more generally (Boddy 1999; Martin 1999).

93. Scott 1976. Elster (1989) strikes a similar note when he discusses how social norms might be weakened in modern society because of mobility, the ephemeral nature of interaction, and the pace of change. Although the public provision of safety nets for the poor to replace informal kinship- or patron-based insurance schemes has been widely discussed, creating viable schemes is and will remain a considerable challenge.

94. Crystal 1997.

95. Satterthwaite 1996. Curitiba, Brazil, is a famous example of efficient transport planning and land use. But the virtual absence of other success stories is testimony to the difficulties confronting municipal regulatory agencies. Prudhomme and Lee (1998), show that urban sprawl and the speed with which trips can be made strongly affect the nature of the labor market.

96. An analysis of urban economic growth in Australia, measured by the increase in the price of labor, finds that growth is dependent on the quality of life, as reflected by the availability of community services, local administration, public amenities, the degree of congestion, and the initial level of human capital (Bradley and Gans 1998).

97. ILO 1998. See also Porter (1998).

98. Mani 1996.

99. Despite two decades of decentralization, urban authorities have only a meager amount to invest. Most are still largely dependent on national (or higher levels of subnational) governments and international agencies (Satterthwaite 1996).

100. Cohen 1998; Kremer 1993; ILO 1998.

101. Fujikura 1998. In order to act on environmental concerns, the community needs the support of laws and government regulations that provide access to information on pollution. Without such access, individuals, groups, and NGOs are handicapped. Even in the European Union and Japan, obtaining such information is often difficult, and the situation is much worse in developing countries (*New Scientist* 1998).

## Chapter 2

1. Drabek and Laird 1998.

2. This is not to suggest that the WTO is the only international institution committed to facilitating the expansion of international trade. The International Monetary Fund and the World Bank share these goals and have designed programs to achieve them. These institutions are also taking steps to promote interagency coordination, including the formulation of a "coherence" approach to policymaking. The foundations of this approach are laid out in the "Report of the Managing Director of the International Monetary Fund, the President of the World Bank, and the Director General of the World Trade Organization on Coherence," October 2, 1998.

3. Srinivasan 1998. François, McDonald, and Nordström (1996) found that the static impact of the Uruguay Round on developing countries raised national incomes by 0.3 percent. Harrison, Rutherford, and Tarr (1996) found gains of 0.38 percent.

4. Foroutan 1996; Harrison 1994; Krishna and Mitra 1998; Levinsohn 1993. In contrast to evidence cited here, the impact of trade on firms' performance through economies of scale, external economies of scale, and learning by doing is relatively weak (see Tybout 1998).

5. Feenstra and others 1997.

6. Aw and Batra 1998; Clerides, Lach, and Tybout 1998.

7. See chapter 6; Fujita, Krugman, and Venables 1999; Glaeser 1998; Puga 1998; Venables 1998.

8. Quigley 1998.

9. Bolbol (1999), among others, points to the benefits for Arab countries of joining the rule-based WTO.

10. As of February 10, 1999. See the World Trade Organization's internet site ([www.wto.org](http://www.wto.org)) for the latest information on membership.

11. Kleinknecht and der Wengel 1998.

12. See Frankel (1997). This result must be interpreted carefully, as increased interregional trade flows may have encouraged policymakers to sign the RTA, in turn generating more intraregional trade. The very fact that establishing causality is difficult gives some credence to the notion that RTAs are associated with greater interregional trade flows.

13. Rodrik 1994.

14. The nation named in the complaint can appeal the panel's decision, and the case moves to an appellate body for review.

15. Baldwin and Venables 1995.

16. See Finger and Schuknecht (1999) for evidence on the minuscule amount of textile liberalization that has occurred since the end of the Uruguay Round.

17. As could happen with measures justified on phytosanitary grounds. See Hertel, Bach, Dimaranan, and Martin (1996);

Hertel, Martin, Yanagishima, and Dimaranan (1996); Krueger (1998); Srinivasan (1998); Thomas and Whalley (1998); and Trela (1998).

18. Rodrik 1994.

19. Usually this compensation is in the form of enhanced access to other markets in the same economy, a practice that is likely to have detrimental effects on import-competing firms in those markets. Anticipating such compensation, these firms are likely to oppose businesses that favor reversing the reforms in the first place. And if a country reverses its reforms without offering compensation, it may well find itself a defendant in a complaint brought under the WTO's dispute settlement mechanism. Such a flagrant breach of WTO obligations is likely to result in sanctions against the offender, often in the form of reduced market access. Again, foreseeing this chain of events, the exporters will apply pressure not to reverse the reforms in the first place. In both cases, binding lower trade barriers into the country's WTO obligations sharpens the incentives of domestic parties who have an interest in preserving the improved access to domestic markets and signals to the private sector that the trade reforms are there to stay.

20. Finger and Winters 1998.

21. Fung and Ng 1998.

22. Keesing 1998.

23. Michalopoulos 1999; Short 1999.

24. For a careful study of the differential effects of trade flows on the concentrations of a number of pollutants, see Antweiler, Copeland, and Taylor (1998). See also box 4.7.

25. Feenstra 1998.

26. EBRD 1998.

27. These laws are sanctioned by a WTO agreement (Jackson 1997, 1998; *Financial Times*, "Developing World Leads in Anti-dumping," October 29, 1998).

28. For a series of case studies of the detrimental effects of antidumping actions see Finger (1993) and Lawrence (1998). The recent surge in antidumping cases in Europe and the United States against Asian steel producers highlights the effect antidumping laws can have on market access. As Asian countries try to stabilize their output levels, they find themselves faced with export restrictions that hinder their efforts. Tharakan (1999) presents proposals for the reform of antidumping laws, while Horlick and Sugarman (1999) offer proposals to reform the application of these laws to "nonmarket" economies.

29. Burtless and others 1998; Cohen, D. 1998; *The Economist*, 1999b; Hufbauer and Kotschwar 1998; Rodrik 1997, 1998a; Williamson 1998.

30. For a careful survey of this debate see Cline (1997). Anderson and Brenton (1998) offer a more recent analysis of the effect of trade and technology on income inequality in the United States.

31. Aghion and Williamson (1998) provide a conceptual and empirical analysis of the effect of globalization on income inequality and growth.

32. Prusa 1997.

33. For a recent survey of the costs of adjusting to trade reform see Matusz and Tarr (1998) and UNDP (1999).

34. Lawrence 1996.

35. Burtless and others 1998.

36. Graham 1996; Rodrik 1997.

37. Maskus 1997.

38. Countries are attaching increasing importance to the dispute settlement mechanisms. The substantial attention given to international trade disputes over imports of genetically modified foods, bananas, and beef into the European Union and magazine imports into Canada highlights this attention.

39. Ostry 1997, 1998.

40. Anderson (1999) provides a succinct account of these and other issues for trade reform.

41. Ryan (1998) provides an in-depth analysis of the intellectual property rights issue too.

42. Hoekman and Anderson 1999.

43. Josling 1998a, 1998b.

44. Laird 1997.

45. Josling 1998a.

46. Hoekman and Anderson 1999; Ingco and Ng 1998.

47. World Bank 1998o.

48. James and Anderson 1998; Roberts and DeRemer 1997.

49. However, this agreement has already come under pressure with disagreements between the European Union and the United States over genetically modified crops and food, in particular beef. Some have gone so far as to advocate banning international trade in genetically modified crops, in direct contravention of WTO rules. See *Financial Times*, "Genetically Modified Trade Wars," February 18, 1999, and *The Economist* (1999a).

50. Kerr (1999) assesses the prospects for future agricultural trade disputes, pointing to the increased burdens that they will place on the WTO's Dispute Settlement Mechanism.

51. For a recent analysis of the effects of introducing more competition into the maritime sector, see François and Wooton (1999).

52. Deardorff and others 1998. This potential development reinforces the argument that Western firms can expect to face growing competition from developing countries in most areas of international trade.

53. Cairncross 1997.

54. Hoekman and Djankov 1997b.

55. In addition to the traditional disciplines of most favored nation treatment and national treatment, there were disciplines on market access that in effect prohibited nations from using six particular restrictions on service suppliers. See Hoekman and Primo Braga (1997) for details.

56. Hoekman 1996.

57. Krueger 1998.

58. Negotiations in the telecommunications and financial service sectors have been completed since the signing of the Uruguay Round. While useful, sector-specific negotiations only permit countries to make trade-offs of commitments within each sector rather than across sectors, where the differences in national cost levels and the gains from liberalization are likely to be greater. See WTO (1998a) for an account of the financial services agreement concluded in December 1997.

59. For a qualitative discussion of the importance of these networks for trade see Krugman (1995), and Feenstra (1998). Hummels, Ishii, and Yi (1999) carefully document the rise of trade in vertically differentiated products. Deardorff (1998) pro-

vides a novel theoretical treatment of production fragmentation across borders.

60. Cairncross 1997.

61. Graham 1996.

62. UNCTAD 1997.

63. Yeats 1998.

64. For recent estimates of the effects of infrastructure and transportation on trade flows, see Bougheas, Demetriades, and Morgenroth (1999).

65. Graham 1996; Vernon 1998.

66. For an analysis of how corporate tax rates and rules on the repatriation of profits affect firms' location decisions, see Mutti and Grubert (1998).

67. Vernon 1998.

68. See chapters 6 and 7 for a more extensive discussion of urban issues.

### Chapter 3

1. Bordo, Eichengreen, and Irwin 1999.

2. Recent evidence suggests that investors' appetite for high-risk investment vehicles remains strong. Despite the 1998 collapse of Long-Term Capital Management, which was at the heart of the hedge fund crisis, estimates show that the total amount invested in risky hedge funds in early 1999 was less than 2 percent lower than it was a year earlier. See *The Economist* (1999c).

3. This section draws on various editions of the IMF's *International Capital Markets*. Mussa and Richards (1999) present a detailed overview of the magnitude and composition of capital flows in the 1990s.

4. Foreign direct investment (FDI) involves investments in companies that account for more than 10 percent of the recipient company's assets. In contrast, foreign portfolio investment (FPI) refers to purchases of foreign liquid financial assets. In practice, the distinction is not clear cut, since financial transactions may involve elements of both. However, portfolio investment is presumed to have higher liquidity and to be more "foot-loose" than FDI. For a further discussion of the definition and measurement of foreign investment, see Lipsey (1999). FDI and FPI should not be confused with short-term borrowing from abroad.

5. See Eichengreen and Mussa (1998).

6. For a detailed account of the pace of capital account liberalization, see Quirk and Evans (1995) and recent editions of the IMF's *Annual Report on Exchange Rate Arrangements and Exchange Restrictions*.

7. This discussion of foreign direct investment draws on IFC (1998), Knight (1998), Mallampally and Sauvart (1999), and UNCTAD (1998).

8. The canonical survey on these issues is found in Caves (1996), chapter 7. See also Oxley and Yeung (1998).

9. UNCTAD 1998.

10. UNCTAD 1998.

11. Mallampally and Sauvart (1999) report that by 1997 there were 1,794 double-taxation treaties in effect.

12. UNCTAD 1996, 1998.

13. For a detailed analysis of the geographic distribution of foreign investment, see Lipsey (1999).

14. The case for liberalizing international capital flows was laid out succinctly by the IMF's Deputy Managing Director Stanley Fischer in a speech in September 1997. See "Financial Instability," *Oxford Analytica*, November 4, 1998. For a careful discussion of the effects of international capital mobility on the efficiency of the worldwide allocation of resources, see Cooper (1999).

15. World Bank 1998b.

16. This discussion draws on Caprio and Klingebiel (1996), Demirgüç-Kunt and Detragiache (1998), Eichengreen and Rose (1998), Goldstein (1998), Goldstein and Turner (1996), and World Bank (1998h).

17. Eichengreen 1999.

18. "Financial Instability," *Oxford Analytica*, November 4, 1998.

19. Eichengreen and Rose 1998.

20. Widespread borrowing is more likely when inadequate corporate governance systems undermine monitoring and other measures to restrict risk-taking.

21. Kaminsky and Reinhart 1998; Calvo 1999.

22. Goldstein and Hawkins 1998.

23. Radelet and Sachs 1998.

24. Leipziger 1998.

25. By extension, global contagion provides a rationale for global banking standards (Goldstein 1997).

26. Rodrik 1998c. However, the evidence presented in Quinn (1997) points to the positive effect of capital account liberalization on growth.

27. For a detailed analysis of the nature, causes, and consequences of financial contagion, see IMF (1999b). Evidence of the correlation between key financial variables, thought to be a central feature of contagion, is marshaled in Wolf (1999).

28. For a comprehensive list of all of the measures promoted to enhance the stability of the international financial system, see IMF (1999a).

29. The relative importance of capital markets and bank intermediation is determined in part by national policies. See Berthélemy and Varoudakis (1996).

30. Levine 1997, 1998.

31. Stiglitz 1999a.

32. Levine (1998) presents cross-country evidence of the importance of creditors' rights and other legal institutions in facilitating banking sector development. Demirgüç-Kunt and Detragiache (1998) find that the impact of domestic financial liberalization on the probability of a banking crisis is greater in nations with widespread corruption, inefficient bureaucracies, and little respect for the rule of law. See also G-22 Committee (1998b).

33. "Financial Infrastructure," *Oxford Analytica*, November 9, 1998.

34. Dewatripont and Tirole 1994.

35. Garcia 1996, 1998; Lindgren and Garcia 1996.

36. Kane 1998.

37. Litan 1998.

38. Calomiris 1997.

39. See G-22 Committee (1998a).

40. Krugman 1998b.



41. For an account of the difficulties caused by provincial banks in Argentina's bank crisis in 1995, see Leipziger (1998).
42. It has recently been argued that banking activities have become so complex that senior bank executives are unlikely to know (and in some cases to understand) the consequences of their employees' actions (*Financial Times*, "Too Much on Their Plate." February 4, 1999). Holders of subordinated debt may be similarly disadvantaged.
43. Evanoff 1998; Calomiris 1997, 1999.
44. Calomiris 1997.
45. *Financial Times*, "G7 Offers Shelter from Storm." February 22, 1999. The Group of Seven industrial nations set up a "financial stability forum" in February 1999 designed to strengthen surveillance and supervision of the international financial system. Central bankers, finance ministry officials, and supervisory officials will serve on this committee. Initially, members will come from Group of Seven countries.
46. Goldstein 1997, 1998. High capital requirements come at a cost—the opportunity cost of forgone lending that lower capital requirements could sustain.
47. For an extensive discussion of the pros and cons of the admission of foreign banks, see Caprio (1998). See also Calomiris 1999 and EBRD 1998.
48. Claessens, Demirgüç-Kunt, and Huizinga 1998.
49. Hellman, Murdock, and Stiglitz 1998; Stiglitz 1999a.
50. Peek and Rosengren 1997.
51. World Bank 1998h; Eichengreen 1998, 1999; Eichengreen and Mussa 1998; Johnston, Darbar, and Echeverria 1997; McKinnon 1991.
52. Harwood 1997; Johnston 1997.
53. A theoretical and empirical analysis by Rodrik and Velasco (1999) concludes that measures to restrict short-term borrowing are desirable.
54. Feldstein 1999; Eichengreen and Mussa 1998; McKinnon and Pill 1998.
55. Two recent studies of the East Asian and Latin American experience with capital controls are broadly supportive of their use (Le Fort and Budnevich 1998; Park and Song 1998). Dornbusch (1998) explores the pros and cons of various restrictions on capital inflows, pointing out situations in which such controls improve economic performance.
56. Caprio 1998; Eichengreen 1998. In 1997 Malaysia introduced controls on both short-term capital inflows and certain capital outflows. Although it is too soon to determine the overall impact of these measures, since 1997 foreign direct investment in Malaysia has not been affected any more adversely than in neighboring countries that did not impose controls.
57. Johnston, Darbar, and Echeverria 1997; Reinhart and Reinhart 1998; Velasco and Cabezas 1998; United Kingdom 1998; *Oxford Analytica*, "Financial Regulation." December 29, 1998.
58. An alternative is to permanently raise reserve requirements on foreign deposits or capital adequacy requirements on foreign borrowings.
59. The evidence in Edwards (1998a) suggests that these controls had a temporary effect on interest rate differentials between Chile and overseas markets. For information on Chilean capital controls, see Chumacero, Laban, and Larrain (1996); Cooper (1999); Eichengreen and Fishlow (1998); Hernández and Schmidt-Hebbel (1999); and Valdes-Prieto and Soto (1996). For a critical survey of the effects of capital controls, see Dooley (1996).
60. Baliño, Bennett, and Borensztein (1999).
61. For a lengthy discussion of the effects of dollarization on developing countries, see Baliño, Bennett, and Borensztein (1999).
62. Such a run might be caused by an increase in foreign interest rates.
63. Calomiris (1999) has proposed changing the IMF's role to include a discount window lending facility that would provide liquidity to qualified countries. See also Feldstein (1999).
64. The need for interventions can be seen in another way. Recent studies have suggested that the best predictor of a crisis is the ratio of short-term foreign indebtedness to reserves. Thus, if a firm borrows more short-term money abroad, its government—if it wishes to maintain a prudential stance—must set aside more funds in reserves, typically holding these reserves as U.S. Treasury bills or similar instruments from other industrial economies.
65. Eichengreen 1998.
66. Borensztein, De Gregorio, and Lee 1998; UNCTAD 1998. Of course, foreign direct investment is not the only source of technology transfer—patent licensing schemes were used in Korea and Japan in the early stages of the countries' development. See Kim and Ma (1997).
67. Wacziarg 1998.
68. Borensztein, De Gregorio, and Lee 1998.
69. Berthélemy, Dessus, and Varoudakis 1997.
70. De Mello 1997.
71. This evidence is taken from Kozul-Wright and Rowthorn (1998).
72. Kinoshita and Mody 1997.
73. De Mello 1997.
74. Kozul-Wright and Rowthorn 1998.
75. See Moran (1999) for detailed case studies of each of these policy instruments. Moran did find that information dissemination and purely promotional initiatives by developing countries are effective tools for boosting foreign direct investment.
76. Gastanaga, Nugent, and Pashamova 1998.
77. World Bank 1997d.
78. Vernon 1998.
79. *Oxford Analytica*, "Energy Investment." February 1, 1996.
80. Blomström and Kokko 1997.
81. Claessens and Rhee 1994; Demirgüç-Kunt and Levine 1995; Levine and Zervos 1998a.
82. Levine 1997; Levine and Zervos 1998a, 1998b.
83. Saudagaran and Diga 1997.
84. Levine 1997, 1999. Strong shareholder rights may also play a role in reducing excess short-term foreign borrowing by company managers.
85. Bryant 1995; Eichengreen and Kenen 1994; Sachs and McKibbin 1991.
86. Rajan 1998.
87. ADBI 1998.
88. Rajan 1998.
89. Bergsten 1998.

## Chapter 4

1. World Bank 1992b.
2. Pearce and others 1996.
3. World Bank 1998g.
4. Antarctica Project 1999.
5. Watson and others 1998.
6. Imber 1996; Porter and others 1998.
7. Grossman and Krueger 1995.
8. For information on Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan, see World Bank (1998l). For China, see Chinese State Council (1994). Since 1994 senior Chinese officials have reiterated their concerns about environmental issues, and the government has invested considerable resources in protecting air and water. But much remains to be done (see World Bank 1997a). Agenda 21, the principal agreement to emerge from the Rio Earth Summit, committed national leaders to action programs organized under the following six themes: quality of life, efficient use of natural resources, protection of the global commons, management of human settlements, waste management, and sustainable economic growth. See Flavin (1997) and World Bank (1997b).
9. Wapner 1995; Zurn 1998.
10. Cesar 1998.
11. Below-market sales of timber concessions constitute another subsidy that affects the rate of deforestation. In 1990 the Indonesian government sold timber concessions at prices far below prevailing market prices, capturing only 17 percent of the value of the trees and costing the treasury more than \$2.1 billion in forgone revenue. By contrast, the Brazilian government's decision in 1988 to cancel tax credits for ranchers who cleared land slowed deforestation in the Amazon significantly—and saved the government money. Subsidies for building roads affect deforestation because access roads markedly increase the probability that a forest will be converted to agricultural use. Chapter 5 discusses the complexities of government support for infrastructure investments, but one thing that is clearly important is to take the environmental impact of such decisions into account (Roodman 1997).
12. Eskeland and Fezzioglu 1994.
13. Anderson and McKibbin 1997.
14. The transition economies of Eastern Europe and Asia have shown that it is politically possible to phase out these subsidies fairly rapidly. China's subsidies for coal, which is the source of 70 percent of the country's energy, fell from 61 to 11 percent over 1984–95, cutting government costs from \$25 billion in 1990–91 to \$10 billion in 1995–96 (Watson and others 1998).
15. World Bank 1998f. More recent estimates from Malawi suggest that middle-income customers may receive as much as \$180 in annual subsidies.
16. Roodman 1997.
17. World Bank 1996a.
18. It should be noted that poorly maintained diesel buses can be a serious source of pollutants. Even so, making the switch from private cars to buses nearly always reduces urban air pollution dramatically. In Mexico City, for example, taking a bus instead of driving a car equipped with a catalytic converter reduces nitrogen oxide emissions by 40 percent per passenger-

mile, hydrocarbon emissions by 95 percent, and carbon monoxide emissions by 98 percent. If the car does not have a converter, the reductions are even greater (Ornusal and Gautam 1997).

19. See Goulder (1994), however, who suggests that carbon taxes would not be efficient in the United States because they would be likely to replace income taxes—which are even more broadly based.

20. World Bank 1999d.
21. Elster 1988; Schlicht 1985.
22. Madeley 1995b.
23. de Fontaubert 1996.
24. Peterson 1993.
25. Rose and Crane 1995.
26. French 1997; Ornusal and Gautam 1997.
27. Chomitz and Kumari 1998.
28. Lampietti and Dixon 1995. Clearly, these numbers are very rough estimates that will vary dramatically from forest to forest.
29. Perrings 1995.
30. Lampietti and Dixon 1995. It should be noted that these species were all “prominent”—grizzly bears, whooping cranes, and bald eagles—rather than different types of beetle.
31. World Bank 1998g; Porter and others 1998. GEF funding for ozone projects amounted to nearly \$126 million by mid-1999, according to World Bank sources.
32. The Kyoto meeting is officially termed the Third Conference of the Parties to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change.
33. No limits on emissions in developing countries (other than the economies in transition) were set at the Kyoto meeting.
34. However, the ozone hole over Antarctica continues to grow (*The Sciences* 1997).
35. WRI 1998.
36. French 1997; Miller 1995.
37. Seaver 1997.
38. Barrett 1998a, 1998b.
39. French 1997.
40. UNEP 1999.
41. Barrett 1998a, 1998b.
42. Sell 1996; Seaver 1997.
43. Sell 1996.
44. Sell 1996.
45. Seaver 1997.
46. World Bank 1998m.
47. Barkin and Shambaugh 1996.
48. Miller 1995.
49. Barrett 1998a, 1998b.
50. Barrett 1998a, 1998b.
51. Seaver 1997.
52. Pearce and others 1996.
53. Hourcade 1996.
54. Sell 1996.
55. Roodman 1997.
56. The United States is only indicative of a wider trend; public sector energy R&D expenditure fell sixfold in the United Kingdom and fourfold in Germany and Italy between 1984 and 1994 (President's Committee of Advisors on Science and Technology Panel on Energy Research and Development 1997).

57. To enforce an agreement, whether based on taxes or on quotas, it might be necessary to charge offsetting, or even punitive, charges on imports from countries that have failed to make or live up to commitments for greenhouse gas reductions. This suggests the possible use of fines (such as those contemplated in the European Union for violations of the fiscal stabilization pact) or economic sanctions. But it would be difficult to deny imports related to greenhouse gas emissions without, in effect, prohibiting trade with the offending country, since carbon dioxide-producing energy is required for virtually all production. Calculating the optimal punitive tariff also turns out to be very complex, and present multilateral trade rules do not allow trade restrictions based on how a product was made. As mentioned earlier, the credibility of trade sanctions is strongly linked with the costs and benefits of treaty compliance, and in this case many countries might find their costs of imposing sanctions to be larger than the benefits of enforcing treaty compliance (Stiglitz 1997; Barrett 1998c; World Bank 1998d).

58. Sell 1996.

59. Stiglitz 1997.

60. World Bank 1998d.

61. Cooper 1998.

62. Stiglitz 1997.

63. World Bank 1998k.

64. Trading mechanisms are not free from controversy. At Kyoto some developing countries opposed trading, seeing it as a mechanism for wealthy countries to buy their way out of emissions restrictions and transfer those limits to poor countries, where such limits would interfere with development (Anderson 1998).

65. World Bank 1998d.

66. Watson and others 1998.

67. Calculated from World Bank (1999i). This is clearly a poor way to measure stocks of biodiversity. Many of these plants and animals will be present in more than one country, and many of the animals are not threatened with extinction. The point remains, however, that the majority of species left on the planet resides in developing countries.

68. Heywood 1995.

69. Madeley 1995a.

70. Miller 1995.

71. Simpson, Sedjo, and Reid 1996.

72. The convention contains only vague language on payment for genetic resources. Article 15 states that contracting parties will share in “a fair and equitable way the results of research and development and the benefits arising from commercial and other utilization of genetic resources . . . [on] mutually agreed terms,” without defining a framework for the terms or the words “fair and equitable.” Industrial countries have encouraged the notion that biodiversity is a global good that should not be assigned to nations as property, while at the same time arguing that companies should be able to patent products they develop from plants and animals. Without some kind of reform, resource transfers for such drugs will continue to run from developing to industrial countries rather than the other way. Despite the value of the drugs developed from the rosy periwinkle, for instance, Madagascar still receives nothing in royalty pay-

ments—although it should be noted that this situation developed before the Rio Convention (Munson 1995; Miller 1995).

73. Sell 1996.

74. Miller 1995.

75. Simpson, Sedjo, and Reid 1996. This figure is low. While many thousands, if not millions, of species are represented in each hectare, dividing the total number of endemic species types by the total number of hectares in western Ecuador produces a small number of endemic species per hectare.

76. Regional agreements (such as the Joint Comprehensive Environmental Action Program for the Baltic, which supports information flows, technical assistance, and environmental funding) can also play an important role in preserving genetic biodiversity and habitats (Freestone 1999).

77. Charnovitz 1996.

78. Freestone and Makuch 1998.

79. Charnovitz 1996.

80. Charnovitz 1996.

81. *The Economist* 1998d; Howse and Trebilcock 1996.

82. Howse and Trebilcock 1996.

83. In Costa Rica there is evidence that species in high-altitude forests are dying out because climate change is lifting cloud cover above the forests (see, for example, Holmes 1999).

84. Watson and others 1998.

85. Watson and others 1998.

86. WRI 1998.

87. World Bank 1998e.

88. This program falls under the auspices of the Kyoto Protocol's Clean Development Mechanism.

89. Goodman 1998.

## Chapter 5

1. Subnational elections are held in 71 out of 75 multiparty democracies for which data were available. The total number of multiparty democracies in the world, as classified by Freedom House, is 117. See appendix table A.1 for details on decentralization and Freedom House (1998) for multiparty democracy classification.

2. Decentralization and devolution are used synonymously throughout the chapter.

3. Smith 1996. See also Dahl (1986) and Stepan (1999) on the relation between democracy and decentralization. In a strict sense, only a constitutional democracy can credibly guarantee that the prerogatives of subunits will be respected.

4. Treisman 1998.

5. Hommes 1996.

6. Litvack 1994.

7. Musgrave and Musgrave 1973; Oates 1972; Tiebout 1956.

8. Ostrom, Schroeder, and Wynne 1993.

9. Junaid Ahmad contributed to the writing of this box, which is also based on Ablo and Reinikka (1998) and a note by Paul Smoke.

10. Breton 1996.

11. A number of studies are available, though they tend to focus on a particular sector within a country (King and Ozler 1998; Ablo and Reinikka 1998) or a particular tier of government within a country (Faguet 1998; World Bank 1995b).

They all support the notion that the consequences of decentralization depend on the way it is designed and implemented.

12. King and Ozler 1998.

13. Burki, Perry, and Dillinger 1999.

14. Litvack, Ahmad, and Bird 1998.

15. Ahmad and Craig 1997.

16. Local governments generally have access to a more complete set of information about both the population's preferences and their own resources and performance. This information gives local authorities an advantage in delivering the appropriate mix of services. But the fact that the central government may not share this information complicates the task of monitoring the local government's performance and establishing the true need for financial assistance. For a discussion of these issues and the means of overcoming them, see Ravallion (1999a, 1999b) and Burgess (1998).

17. Bird and Rodriguez 1999.

18. Ahmad and Craig 1997.

19. For means of resolving this issue, see Ravallion (1999b).

20. Ravallion 1999a.

21. Ravallion 1999b.

22. Alderman 1998.

23. World Bank 1999h.

24. Ravallion 1999b.

25. Faguet 1998.

26. Tanzi 1996.

27. China, which is neither wealthy nor a federation, is a notable exception. Subnational entities are responsible for a large share of the tax collection and for expenditures (box 5.5). Comparable data from China were not available for figures 5.1 and 5.2.

28. Gavin and Perotti 1997 (Latin America); McKinnon 1997 (United States); Spahn 1998 (Western Europe). For further discussions of macroeconomic stability and decentralization, see Fornasari, Webb, and Zou (1999); McLure (1999); Prud'homme (1995); Sewell (1996); Shah (1998); Tanzi (1996); and Wildasin (1997). For a discussion on decentralization and growth, see Davoodi and Zou (1998); Xie, Zou, and Davoodi (1999). For the relation between decentralization and the size of government see Jin and Zou (1998); Persson and Tabellini (1994); Quigley and Rubinfeld (1997). For an overall review of decentralization and growth see Martinez-Vasquez and McNab (1997).

29. de Figueiredo and Weingast 1998.

30. Linz and Stepan 1997; Elster and Slagsrad 1993.

31. Weingast 1995.

32. In "bottom-up federations" like the European Union and the United States, the constituent members decide upon the initial set of rules. Such federations tend to generate a much weaker center than top-down ones. See de Figueiredo and Weingast (1998).

33. Ordeshook and Shvetsova 1997.

34. This box is based on Bahl (1999b); Lall and Hofman (1994); Qian and Weingast (1997); Wong (1998); World Bank (1995a). *The Washington Post*, February 27, 1999, reported in "China Praises Sichuan Election" on the local election that took place in Buyun (Sichuan Province) after the people there had forced the township's leader out of office for governing badly.

The article also reported that similar protests against corrupt or abusive officials were occurring around the country. Information on corruption is from the *Financial Times*, March 5, 1999, "Officials Arrested over Chinese Fraud Scandal" and "Tentacles of Corruption May Threaten the State."

35. Public spending has been found to be biased in favor of the least populous regions in Brazil and Argentina, which have territorial representation in both houses. In contrast, public spending per capita does not vary significantly across Mexican and U.S. states, where territorial representation is applied only to the Senate (Gibson, Calvo, and Falleti 1999).

36. This was also the practice in the United States until 1913 and in Argentina until 1994.

37. In Brazil, for example, it is estimated that roughly 40 percent of senators have been governors and that many senators aspire to be governors. Further, in the 1991–94 legislature, approximately 35 percent of the sitting deputies exhibited a preference or actually gave up their seat for a state-level post. In this context, national parliamentarians are more likely to care about pleasing their constituents and the governor of their state than about the national good (Stepan 1999).

38. Ordeshook and Shvetsova 1997.

39. In contrast, plurality or first-past-the-post systems virtually guarantee parliamentary majorities (Lijphart 1994).

40. Carey 1997. Even when coalition partners have enough power to block change, they may not have enough leverage to effect positive change on their own (Alesina and Perotti 1997; Roubini and Sachs 1989). Evidence for both Latin America and Europe shows that the central government's ability to respond decisively to shocks, restrain expenditures, and contain the size of government is lower in countries with proportional representation. In Europe, however, budgetary rules seem to help overcome these problems (Hallerberg and von Hagen 1997; Stein, Talvi, and Grisanti 1998).

41. Gamble and others 1992. See Lijphart (1994) for a full discussion.

42. Lijphart 1994.

43. This section is based on Ordeshook and Shvetsova (1997).

44. For a discussion of this point in the Latin American context, see Willis, Garman, and Haggard (1999).

45. In Yugoslavia, the first competitive elections were held at the subnational level and were won by regional and ethnic nationalist parties. The civil wars occurred before there was a nationwide election. In the founding election in Nigeria in 1959, there were virtually no elected representatives of nationwide parties, a situation that directly contributed to the escalation of ethnic tensions and the civil war over the Biafran secessionist attempt (Stepan 1999).

46. The integration of party structures can be built into the political system in a variety of ways. In Germany, for example, the upper house, which represents subnational interests, has very limited powers. But half of the lower house is elected with the use of regional lists that are controlled by the same parties that elect candidates to Länder (state) positions (Ordeshook and Shvetsova 1997).

47. Oates 1972; Tiebout 1956; Musgrave and Musgrave 1973.

48. Donahue 1997.

49. Musgrave 1997.
50. Hemming and Spahn 1998.
51. This model is the traditional Tiebout (1956) one of “voice” and “exit.”
52. For a discussion of these assumptions and their relevance to the fiscal federalist model, see Oates (1998).
53. Manning 1998; Fay and others 1998.
54. Wetzel and Dunn 1998.
55. The number of school districts in the United States decreased markedly in the 1950s as jurisdictions tried to put together groups of students large enough to run grade-differentiated primary schools. Germany has reduced the number of municipalities (Gemeinden) by half. The United Kingdom has eliminated a tier of subnational government in Scotland, Wales, and the metropolitan areas of England. With the exception of France, the lowest tier of subnational government in large OECD countries has an average population of about 5,000–7,000. In Japan, however, this figure can run as high as 39,000, and in the United Kingdom, it can reach 109,000.
56. Vaillancourt 1998.
57. The number of municipios in Brazil increased from 3,000 to nearly 5,000 in the 15 years following the return of democracy. The new constitution of the Philippines recognizes not only 1,605 cities and municipalities but also nearly 42,000 neighborhood organizations (barangays) as units of local government.
58. For a discussion of these trade-offs in the context of the European Union, see Alesina and Wacziarg (1998).
59. Diamond 1999.
60. See Wildasin (1997) for a further discussion on the topic.
61. The property tax is potentially one of the best sources of revenues for local governments. For a discussion of problems and possible reforms of the property tax, see Dillinger (1992).
62. For further discussion of subnational tax reform see Bahl and Linn (1992), Bird (1999), McLure (1999), Norregaard (1997), and Vehorn and Ahmad (1997). See also Bird, Ebel, and Wallich (1995) and Bird and Vaillancourt (1999) for country-specific examples and Inman and Rubinfeld (1996) for a more theoretical treatment.
63. The Scandinavian countries, which have allocated substantial taxing powers to their local governments, are a rare exception. See Litvack, Ahmad, and Bird (1998).
64. Diamond 1999.
65. This section is largely based on Bahl and Linn (1992).
66. This box is based on McLure (1999); Bird and Gendron (1997); and Inman and Rubinfeld (1996). For a discussion of subnational VATs see Bird and Gendron (1997).
67. Bahl and Linn 1992; Bahl 1999a.
68. See Ter-Minassian and Craig (1997) for a more detailed discussion.
69. Ter-Minassian and Craig 1997.
70. In the United States, states that have formal controls on borrowing have lower debt levels on average (Poterba 1994) but they are equally prone to serious fiscal crisis (Von Hagen 1991). In addition, these controls are self-imposed and not the result of federal government mandates—that is, they have been voluntarily written by state assemblies into state constitutions rather than imposed by the central government.
71. Stotsky and Sunley 1997.
72. In the United Kingdom each municipal council has the authority to set its salary scales, but 90 percent of them participate in collective bargaining with the national public employees’ union. In Germany subnational governments are required by statute to adhere to agreements negotiated jointly with the federal government and public employees unions.
73. Smith 1996. More generally, the expected payoffs affect participation. Individuals must believe that the benefits they will receive will exceed the costs of their time, labor, and money (Hirschman 1970; North 1990; Ostrom, Schroeder, and Wynne 1993).
74. Galeotti 1992.
75. Bridges 1997; Hawley 1970.
76. Poterba 1994.
77. Dahl 1971.
78. Stren 1998.
79. The 1994 Popular Participation Law formalized the role of community organizations as watchdogs at the municipal level, granting them the right to report suspected wrongdoing to the Senate (Campbell 1998).
80. Tandler 1997; Vivian 1994; Zaidi 1999.
81. World Bank 1992a.
82. O’Donnell, Schmitter, and Whitehead 1986.
83. Wiseman 1997.
84. Boeninger 1992; Przeworski and Limongi 1997.
85. Diamond 1996.
86. Bird and Vaillancourt 1999.
87. Dillinger and Webb 1999a.
88. Under the revised local government code effective in 1992, central government agencies were required to transfer to subnational units specific activities (including agricultural extension, forest management, local hospital operations, primary health care programs, local roads, water supply, and communal irrigation infrastructure). To finance these costs local governments received a larger share of national tax revenues. In the first year of implementation, the code required the central government to provide funds to cover the cost of personnel devolved to the local governments in addition to the increase in revenue sharing.
89. A number of countries seem to be faring reasonably well, but none has emerged as an unmitigated success.

## Chapter 6

1. Hohenberg 1998.
2. Glaeser and Rappaport 1998.
3. Richardson (1987) provides evidence from Brazil, France, Peru, and the United States on the high cost of city living.
4. Shukla 1996.
5. Mazumdar 1986; Mills and Becker 1986.
6. Krugman 1993; Quigley 1998.
7. Dumais, Ellison, and Glaeser 1997; Glaeser 1997; Jaffe, Trajtenberg, and Henderson 1993.
8. Henderson 1998; Henderson, Lee, and Lee 1998.
9. Lucas 1998.
10. Brown and McCalla 1998.
11. Rousseau 1995; Thomas 1980.
12. Ales and Glaeser 1995.

13. Gertler 1997.
14. Yeates 1997.
15. Black and Henderson 1998.
16. Gaspar and Glaeser 1998.
17. Choe and Kim 1999.
18. UNCHS 1996.
19. Tarver 1995.
20. Lucas 1998; Mills 1998; Tacoli 1998.
21. Henderson 1998.
22. Head and Ries 1995.
23. Ades and Glaeser 1995.
24. Henderson and Kuncoro 1996.
25. Gertler 1997.
26. This calculation assumes per capita costs of \$150 for water, \$300 for sewers. It also assumes that 30 percent of the urban population has no access to potable water and that 40 percent lack access to sewers. GDP figure from World Bank (1998l).
27. Mayo and Angel 1993.
28. Mohan 1999.
29. The subject of local tax revenue sources is beyond the scope of the WDR. A key reference is Bahl and Linn (1992). Property taxes remain the key revenue source for many cities because they are relatively easy to collect, although collections are often incomplete and discriminatory. In theory land taxation is a nondistortionary source of funding, but in practice assessing pure land values is difficult. All land has been improved to some degree, tempting governments to overassess.
30. Dailami and Leipziger 1998.
31. AB Assesores 1998; Freire, Huertas, and Darce 1998.
32. Peterson and Hammam 1997.
33. Peterson and Hammam 1997; Dailami and Leipziger 1998.
34. Private communication with S. Mayo (Lincoln Institute), 1998.
35. Colgan 1995.
36. Colgan 1995.
37. Markusen 1998.
38. Miranda and Rosdil 1995; Bradbury, Kodrzycki, and Tannenwald 1997.
39. ILO 1998.
40. Markusen 1998.
41. Bertaud and others 1997.
42. Cour 1998a.
43. Cour 1998b.

### Chapter 7

1. World Bank 1994.
2. Upward mobility in Karachi, Pakistan, is discussed in Altaf and others (1993). A case study of Karachi is presented in chapter 8.
3. Kessides 1998; Evans 1998.
4. Brown and McCalla 1998.
5. Douglass 1992.
6. WRI 1996. An earlier WHO study (1986) estimated the reduction at 40–50 percent.
7. WHO 1995.
8. Chhabra and others 1998.
9. WRI 1996.
10. WRI-WHO 1999.
11. World Bank 1994.
12. WRI 1996.
13. UNDP 1998.
14. World Bank 1997a.
15. WRI 1996; Harpham and Tanner 1995. For recent evidence on urban differentials in the United States, see Claudio and others (1999).
16. WRI 1996; Haddad, Ruel, and Garrett 1999.
17. Other determinants are important as well, including cultural and political alienation, ethnic conflicts, and media violence. See also Bourguignon (1998).
18. Zaidi 1998.
19. Bourguignon 1998. A recent estimate for South Africa places the costs of crime and violence at 6 percent (at least) of the country's GDP (*Business Times*, February 14, 1999).
20. World Bank 1994.
21. Rosen 1993.
22. Rosen 1993.
23. In many cities (Bogotá, Karachi, Manila, and Taipei, for instance) the rich remain vulnerable to crime and kidnappings. Even the most stringent security measures are unable to guarantee personal safety. See Simon Romero, "Cashing in on Security Worries," *The New York Times*, July 24, 1999.
24. G. Shah 1997.
25. Chaplin 1999.
26. Tynan and Cowen 1998.
27. Foreman-Peck and Millward 1994.
28. Anderson 1988.
29. Shugart 1997.
30. *Financial Times*, April 29, 1999.
31. A report issued by the French Auditor's Office (Cour des Comptes) for the water and wastewater sector in January 1997 reported a lack of transparency in a number of instances and found that in some cases private participants appeared to be preventing good information from reaching elected officials. The report did conclude that water services overall were delivered satisfactorily. See Shugart (1997) for a discussion.
32. "Gestion de l'eau: renégociations en chaîne des contrats avec les groupes privés," *Les Echos*, March 25, 1999.
33. Pirez 1998.
34. Quoted in Root (1998).
35. See chapter 8 for a case study of Karachi.
36. Hardoy and Satterthwaite 1990.
37. Campbell 1998; Stren 1998.
38. Root 1998.
39. Harpham and Stuttaford 1999.
40. Mayo and Angel 1993.
41. Hasan 1997a; Leitman and Baharoglu 1998; Lloyd-Sherlock 1997.
42. Espinosa and López Rivera 1994; UNCHS 1996; World Bank 1996b.
43. Buckley and Mayo 1989; UNCHS 1996. Although the UN strategy formally endorsed the enabling approach, strong advocates appeared much earlier. The 1979 *World Development Report* proposed an urban housing strategy for developing countries that would focus on encouraging the private sector to improve the housing supply (World Bank 1979).

44. Reforms should include the following: developing property rights and expanding land registration, streamlining the regulatory process and regulations to reduce housing costs, encouraging greater competition in housing construction, providing trunk infrastructure at full cost recovery, fostering the development of mortgage financing systems, and, particularly, improving access to credit and targeting subsidies (Mayo and Angel 1993; UNCHS 1996).

45. Strong, Reiner, and Szyrmer 1996; Struyk 1997.

46. Gilbert and Gugler 1992; Hasan 1997a.

47. WRI 1996.

48. Whittington, Lauria, and Mu 1991.

49. *The Wall Street Journal*, "Populist Perrier? Nestle Pitches Bottled Water to World's Poor." June 18, 1999.

50. Atlaf 1994a.

51. Atlaf 1994b.

52. World Bank 1994.

53. Solo 1999.

54. Porter 1996; Cowen and Tynan 1999.

55. Porter 1996.

56. World Bank 1993a.

57. Porter 1996.

58. Blackett 1994; World Bank 1994; WRI 1996.

59. On condominal sewers, see Watson (1995) and World Bank (1992b). But because households often convert from dry latrines to pour-flush systems without connecting to proper drain fields, these systems may discharge into open street drains. Such patterns have been documented in Gujranwala, Pakistan; Kumasi, Ghana; and Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso. See Atlaf (1994a); Atlaf and Hughes (1994); Whittington and others (1993).

60. Hasan 1998.

61. Ingram 1998.

62. Kitano 1998.

63. Rabinovitch 1992; WRI 1996.

64. Copenhagen is an example of a city that has reduced automobile dependency by revitalizing downtown housing and street life and restricting parking in the city center. Freiburg's improvements to public transport have focused on extending and upgrading its light rail system, which uses buses as feeders. Perth has had limited success trying to discourage automobile use by integrating bus services with the newly constructed electric rail system. See UNCHS (1996).

65. WRI 1996.

66. Burgess 1999; Frigenti and Harth 1998; Graham 1994.

67. Haddad, Ruel, and Garrett 1999.

68. World Bank 1999e.

69. Mitlin and Satterthwaite 1998.

70. UNCHS 1996.

71. Douglass 1992; Evans 1998.

72. Japan's neighborhood police stations, or *kobans*, provide a model of effective community policing. A vast network of community-based crime control organizations operating in neighborhoods, schools, and workplaces is credited with reducing crime rates in Japan, which are very low and falling. The Crime Prevention Associations have 540,000 local liaison units. Officers are required to visit every family and business in their neighborhoods at least twice a year and to provide many community services, such as helping to organize newsletters, meetings, and sports events. The koban system is highly effective in

crime control: in 1989 koban officers were responsible for 73 percent of all arrests and 76 percent of all the theft cases that were solved. See Zaidi (1998).

73. Ayres 1997.

74. Hasan 1998.

75. Conger 1999.

76. Participatory budgeting has also been introduced in cities in Mexico and Venezuela. See Campbell (1998) and Coelho (1996).

77. World Bank 1992a.

78. Anderson 1998.

79. Fujikura 1999.

80. Afsah, Laplante, and Wheeler 1997.

## Chapter 8

1. Hoekman and Djankov 1996.

2. World Bank 1998c.

3. Egypt benefited significantly from its participation in the Gulf War (1990–91) and subsequently received substantial debt relief from the United States and others.

4. World Bank 1998c.

5. Hoekman and Djankov 1997a; World Bank 1998c.

6. Kenny 1999.

7. Hoekman, Konan, and Maskus 1998.

8. Konan and Maskus 1997.

9. Hoekman and Konan 1999.

10. EBRD 1998.

11. Long and Kopanyi 1998; Vittas and Neal 1992.

12. Abel and Szakadat 1997–98.

13. Long and Kopanyi 1998.

14. Calomiris 1997.

15. Souza 1996.

16. Mendes 1999.

17. The state governments are assigned a value-added tax (VAT), which they assess and collect directly. As the highest-yielding revenue source in Brazil, the VAT gives the states an independent power base, particularly in the wealthy southeast, where it is the principal source of state revenues.

18. Afonso 1992; Rezende 1995.

19. Mainwaring 1997.

20. Two of the 26 states, Bahia and Ceará, have since undertaken substantial adjustment and reform. See Dillinger and Webb (1999).

21. Dillinger 1997.

22. After the plan was introduced in mid-1994, annual inflation (as measured by the INPC index) fell from 929 percent in 1994 to 22 percent in 1995, 9 percent in 1996, 4.3 percent in 1997, and 2.5 percent in 1998.

23. Ter-Minassian and Craig 1997.

24. An option worth exploring is prohibiting all government lending to subnational governments. Argentina and Colombia, for example, leave subnational financing entirely to the private sector; a practice that so far has forestalled any claims for federal debt relief.

25. The case study is based on Hasan, Zaidi, and Younus 1998.

26. Mahmood 1999.

27. Zaidi 1997.

28. Hasan 1997b.

29. World Bank 1999j. Food processing, beverage preparation, and trading activities have begun to multiply in the periurban villages, helping to supplement household incomes (Baker 1999).

30. Brautigam 1997.

31. World Bank 1999j.

32. Lele and Christiansen 1989. Only 20 percent of farmland in Tanzania is in farm blocks of more than 10 hectares. In Kenya 43 percent of farmland is in units of over 200 hectares (Tomich, Kilby, and Johnston 1995).

33. Buckley 1997.

34. EIU 1998.

35. Carr 1993. More generally in Tanzania, food crops are still given priority over cash crops because of the fear that it will be impossible to sell cash crops and buy food at the end of the growing season.

36. On average, Sub-Saharan African countries pay freight charges on their exports that are 20 percent higher than those paid by exporters in East Asia. Additional costs abound in Tanzania because of delays in customs clearance, inefficient cargo handling facilities, and high forwarding charges (Hertel, Masters, and Elbehri 1998). The building of a cargo center with refrigeration facilities at Nairobi's Jomo Kenyatta Airport will provide the capacity for handling 160,000 tons per year of horticultural and other produce. This will be helpful for Tanzanian producers, but more capacity at Arusha's airport or at Dar es Salaam might be more advantageous (*Financial Times*, "Kenyan Air Cargo Capacity Boosted." June 2, 1999).

37. Islam 1997.

38. Gautam and Anderson 1998.

39. Tendler 1997.

40. The contrast with East Asia is instructive. In China's Fujian and Guangdong provinces as well as in Taiwan (China), the "relational networks" created in the hinterland of towns have served as the basis of highly successful industrial clusters that make effective use of subcontracting arrangements and reach out to international markets. See Hayami (1998) and the discussion in chapter 1.

41. After reviewing constraints on growth in the manufacturing sector, Tybout (1998) concludes that the primary problems revolve around uncertainty about policies and demand, weak laws, and corruption.

42. Transparency International 1998.

43. Bennell 1997.

44. Yudkin 1999; *Nature* 1999.

45. Cole and Phelan (1999) associate the research output of a country with its wealth and with the number of research scientists, but also with a culture that attaches a high value to scientific achievement and with competition among universities to attract talent of the highest caliber.

46. See Wambugu (1999) and Lipton (1999). Between 1994 and 1998, the acreage devoted to transgenic crops worldwide rose from 4 million acres to 70 million acres. But little of this was in Africa, where the yields of staples such as potatoes and maize are the lowest for any region. Cramer (1999) draws attention to the importance of research on cashew nut tree varieties, grafting techniques, and processing methods so as to en-

able African countries to raise yields as well as enlarge their export market share of processed nuts.

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