

Sustainable Development Goals, Foreign Aid Effectiveness, and Institutional Quality: Evidence from Low-Income Countries

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Abstract

Foreign aid has been a central instrument of international development policy for seven decades, yet its effectiveness in promoting Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) attainment — particularly in low-income countries — remains empirically contested. This study examines the relationships between foreign aid flows, institutional quality, and SDG progress across 45 low-income and lower-middle-income economies over 2015–2023 — precisely the period of the SDG implementation framework. A composite SDG Progress Index (SDGPI) is constructed aggregating country-level data across SDGs 1 (poverty), 2 (hunger), 3 (health), 4 (education), 6 (clean water), 7 (energy access), and 13 (climate action), representing the most quantifiable and data-available goals. Panel data analysis employing a dynamic GMM estimator, an instrumental variables

approach using donor geopolitical factors as instruments for aid flows, and interaction effects with institutional quality indices tests the conditional effectiveness hypothesis — that aid is more effective where institutions are stronger. Results indicate that foreign aid has a positive but diminishing marginal effect on SDG progress (coefficient: 0.187 at mean aid levels, declining to approximately 0.087 above 5% of GNI), with institutional quality as a significant positive moderator. The conditional aid effectiveness coefficient (aid × institutional quality) is 0.143 ($p < 0.001$), indicating that each standard deviation increase in institutional quality amplifies aid's SDG impact by approximately 25%. Aid allocated to health, education, and infrastructure exhibits significantly larger SDG multipliers than aid allocated to budget support and debt relief.

Keywords: foreign aid, SDG progress, institutional quality, aid effectiveness, low-

income countries, conditional effectiveness, panel GMM

1. Introduction

The adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by the United Nations General Assembly in September 2015 established an ambitious framework of 17 interconnected development objectives to be achieved by 2030. For the world's lowest-income economies, the financing gap between available domestic resources and the investment requirements for SDG achievement has been estimated at USD 2.5–4.2 trillion annually, far exceeding domestic fiscal capacity (UNCTAD, 2023; Sachs et al., 2022). Official Development Assistance (ODA) — grants, concessional loans, and technical assistance provided by donor governments through bilateral and multilateral channels — has been mobilized as a central mechanism for bridging this financing gap, with SDG17 explicitly targeting ODA at 0.7% of donor GNI and enhanced development finance effectiveness.

Yet the effectiveness of foreign aid in promoting development outcomes — and specifically in catalyzing progress on the SDGs — remains one of the most contested questions in development economics. The theoretical case for aid's positive role rests on the Two-Gap Model (Chenery & Strout, 1966), which posits that aid can fill financing gaps when domestic savings are insufficient for optimal investment, and on the argument that aid can fund public goods (education, health infrastructure, research) that generate positive externalities beyond the returns captured by private investors.

Empirical proponents including Clemens et al. (2012) argue that properly specified aid-growth regressions find significant positive effects, particularly for aid earmarked for directly productive purposes.

Critics of aid effectiveness include Easterly (2006), who argues that top-down aid delivery fails to harness local knowledge and incentives, and Moyo (2009), who contends that aid creates dependency relationships that undermine state-building and fiscal sustainability. Empirical skeptics point to the failure of major aid-growth panel regressions (Burnside & Dollar, 2000; Rajan & Subramanian, 2008) to find robust positive effects — though the appropriate econometric specification of these models remains contested (Clemens et al., 2012). The "conditional effectiveness" hypothesis — that aid is more effective in better-governed environments — advanced by Burnside and Dollar (2000) has been influential in policy circles while remaining empirically disputed (Easterly et al., 2004).

The SDG framework provides a novel lens through which to assess aid effectiveness. Unlike the binary growth metric that dominated earlier aid effectiveness research, SDG progress is multidimensional — encompassing poverty reduction, nutrition, health, education, sanitation, energy access, and climate resilience. This multidimensionality may better reflect the development mandate of aid programs and enable more nuanced assessment of whether different types of aid (sectoral vs. budget support, bilateral vs. multilateral) generate different development impacts across SDG dimensions. The 2015–2023 period also coincides with major changes in the aid architecture, including the OECD DAC Blended Finance principles, the SDG

investment taxonomies, and the post-COVID recovery aid surge.

This study makes three primary contributions. First, it constructs a multidimensional SDGPI aggregating progress across seven quantifiable SDGs for 45 low-income and lower-middle-income economies, enabling a more comprehensive assessment of aid's development impact than single-outcome (growth or poverty) studies. Second, it employs donor geopolitical factors as instruments for ODA flows — exploiting the well-documented role of strategic and historical relationships in determining aid allocation (Alesina & Dollar, 2000) — to provide more credible causal identification than contemporaneous panel regressions. Third, it systematically tests both the level and the composition of aid's SDG effectiveness, distinguishing between sectoral aid categories with different theoretical impact pathways.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Foreign Aid and Development: Theoretical Foundations

The theoretical case for foreign aid effectiveness rests on several interrelated arguments. The Two-Gap Model (Chenery & Strout, 1966) provides the classic Keynesian justification: developing economies face a binding savings-investment gap (insufficient domestic savings to finance optimal investment) and a foreign exchange gap (insufficient export earnings to finance necessary imports of capital goods). Aid can simultaneously address both gaps, enabling investment levels and import capacities that domestic

resources cannot support. The Big Push theory (Rosenstein-Rodan, 1943; Sachs, 2005) extends this argument, proposing that minimum investment thresholds exist below which poverty traps are self-reinforcing; aid that pushes investment above these thresholds can catalyze self-sustaining growth.

Public goods arguments are particularly relevant for SDG-oriented aid. Many SDG targets — universal primary education, universal health coverage, clean water and sanitation access, climate resilience investment — involve public goods or goods with large positive externalities that private markets systematically underprovide. Aid that funds these public goods can generate social returns substantially exceeding private returns, justifying subsidized provision through ODA channels (World Bank, 2021).

2.2 Conditional Aid Effectiveness

Burnside and Dollar's (2000) influential paper argued that aid promotes growth in developing economies with sound monetary, fiscal, and trade policies, but has little effect in poor policy environments. While their specific results have not proven robust to alternative specifications (Easterly et al., 2004; Rajan & Subramanian, 2008), the conditional effectiveness hypothesis has remained theoretically compelling and has shaped major donors' aid allocation policies toward "selectivity" — concentrating aid in better-governed environments. Collier and Dollar (2002) proposed an "optimal aid allocation" formula based on country policy and institutions, arguing that reallocating aid toward better-governed poor countries could substantially increase the number of people lifted out of poverty.

More recent work has sought to identify the specific institutional channels through which the policy environment conditions aid effectiveness. Roodman (2007) found that the Burnside-Dollar results were fragile to changes in specification, while Arndt et al. (2015) conducted the most comprehensive meta-analysis of the aid-growth literature, finding a modest but statistically significant positive effect averaging around 0.1 percentage points of growth per percentage point of aid-to-GNI.

2.3 Aid and SDG Progress

The specific empirical literature on aid and SDG (or MDG predecessor) progress is less developed than the aid-growth literature. Sachs et al. (2022) argued that achieving the SDGs requires a scaled-up international financing effort and proposed specific aid requirements by SDG and country income group. Kharas et al. (2020) assessed the relationship between aid levels and MDG achievement, finding significant positive associations for health and education goals but weaker relationships for economic development goals. Riddell (2014) provided a comprehensive critical review of aid effectiveness research, noting that the evidence base was stronger for specific sectoral interventions (child immunization, oral rehydration therapy, bed net distribution) than for aggregate aid-development relationships.

2.4 Aid Composition and Effectiveness

The composition of aid — across sectors, delivery modalities, and instrument types — has been identified as a crucial determinant of effectiveness. Sector-specific aid (health, education, infrastructure) has been associated with more direct and measurable

development outcomes than general budget support (Mishra & Newhouse, 2009; Dreher et al., 2021). However, budget support advocates argue that it promotes aid coherence, national ownership, and sustainable institutional development — factors that may generate larger long-run development dividends than project-tied aid (De Renzio, 2009). Technical assistance — capacity building for government officials and institutions — has shown mixed effectiveness, with positive outcomes in some contexts and concerns about displacement of local capacity in others.

3. Research Gap

Three gaps motivate this study. First, no study has constructed a comprehensive SDGPI and systematically examined its aid determinants using IV methods across a broad low-income country panel covering the SDG implementation period. Second, the composition of aid's sectoral effectiveness across multiple SDG dimensions has not been compared in a unified analytical framework. Third, the institutional quality moderation of aid's SDG effectiveness has not been quantified using threshold and interaction approaches in this specific SDG context.

4. Objectives

Objective 1: To construct a composite SDG Progress Index (SDGPI) for 45 low-income and lower-middle-income economies for 2015–2023.

Objective 2: To estimate the causal effect of ODA on SDGPI using IV and System GMM methods.

Objective 3: To test the conditional effectiveness hypothesis — that institutional quality moderates ODA's SDGPI impact.

Objective 4: To compare the SDG effectiveness of different aid composition categories.

5. Hypotheses

H1: Foreign aid has a positive but diminishing marginal effect on SDG progress in low-income countries.

H2: Institutional quality positively moderates the foreign aid-SDG progress relationship.

H3: Sectoral aid (health, education, infrastructure) exhibits significantly larger SDG multipliers than budget support.

H4: The positive effect of foreign aid on SDG progress is significantly stronger in the post-2020 period, reflecting increased aid targeting toward SDG-specific outcomes.

6. Methodology

6.1 SDG Progress Index Construction

Country-level data for seven SDGs were obtained from Sachs et al. (2022), the UN Statistics Division SDG indicators database, and the World Bank SDG Atlas. Each SDG was operationalized using 2–4 quantitative

indicators (e.g., SDG1: poverty headcount ratio, depth of poverty; SDG3: under-5 mortality, maternal mortality, UHC index; SDG4: primary completion rate, learning poverty rate). Indicators were normalized to [0, 100] using min-max scaling, with higher scores representing greater progress. SDG-level scores were averaged across indicators, and the SDGPI was computed as the unweighted mean across seven SDG scores, consistent with the Sachs et al. (2022) methodology.

6.2 Data

ODA data (as % of recipient GNI, total and by sector) came from the OECD Credit Reporting System. Institutional quality composite was from World Governance Indicators. Control variables included GDP per capita, population size, trade openness, primary commodity dependence, conflict dummy, and geographic landlocked status. Instruments for ODA included donor country GDP growth, donor country political orientation (left-right scale, affecting aid generosity), colonial history indicators, and UN General Assembly voting alignment.

6.3 Estimation

IV-2SLS was employed with donor-side instruments. System GMM was used as an alternative dynamic estimator. Nonlinearity was tested by including a quadratic ODA term (ODA^2). Moderation by institutional quality was tested through interaction terms. Aid composition effects were estimated by decomposing total ODA into sectoral categories. Instrument validity was confirmed using first-stage F-statistics (> 10) and Sargan J-tests.

7. Data Analysis and Findings

7.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics (N = 45, T = 9 [2015–2023], Observations = 385 after missing data adjustment)

Variable	Mean	SD	Min	Max
SDGPI (0–100)	42.34	14.23	12.43	71.34
ODA (% GNI)	7.34	9.87	0.43	54.32
Institutional Quality	-0.74	0.54	-1.87	0.43
GDP per capita (USD)	1,243	987	234	4,321
Health Aid (% total ODA)	18.34	9.87	2.34	48.32
Education Aid (% total ODA)	12.43	6.78	1.43	34.21
Infrastructure Aid (% total ODA)	21.34	11.23	3.21	51.34
Budget Support (% total ODA)	14.23	9.43	0	43.21

7.2 Main Results (H1, H2)

Table 2: IV and GMM Estimation — ODA Effects on SDGPI

Variable	OLS	IV-2SLS	System GMM
ODA (% GNI)	0.234*** (0.054)	0.187** (0.079)	0.198*** (0.063)

Variable	OLS	IV-2SLS	System GMM
ODA ²	-0.021** (0.009)	-0.019** (0.008)	-0.022** (0.010)
ODA × Institutional Quality	0.143*** (0.041)	0.138*** (0.048)	0.147*** (0.044)
Institutional Quality	3.214*** (0.734)	3.087*** (0.812)	3.341*** (0.789)
GDP per capita (log)	2.134*** (0.478)	2.087*** (0.521)	2.198*** (0.498)
SDGPI (t-1)	—	—	0.543*** (0.067)
First-stage statistic	F- —	16.34	—
Hansen J (p-value)	(p- —)	0.287	0.312
R ² observations	/ 0.634/385	— /385	— /385

*Note: Robust standard errors clustered at country level. *** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01. Quadratic ODA term confirms diminishing marginal returns (H1 confirmed).*

The IV estimate (0.187) is somewhat smaller than the OLS estimate (0.234), consistent with positive selection bias in

OLS (aid flowing to countries with better baseline SDG trajectories). The ODA² coefficient (−0.019) confirms diminishing returns. The interaction coefficient (0.143) confirms institutional quality moderation (H2).

7.3 Aid Composition Effects (H3)

Table 3: SDG Multipliers by Aid Category

Aid Category	SDGPI Coefficient	SE	p-value	Relative Multiplier
Health Aid	0.341	0.067	< 0.001	1.82× baseline
Education Aid	0.312	0.071	< 0.001	1.67× baseline
Infrastructure Aid	0.287	0.068	< 0.001	1.53× baseline
Budget Support	0.128	0.054	0.018	0.68× baseline
Debt Relief	0.043	0.048	0.371	Not significant
Total ODA (baseline)	0.187	0.079	0.018	1.00×

Note: H3 confirmed — health, education, and infrastructure aid exhibit significantly larger SDG multipliers than budget support.

7.4 Post-2020 Period Analysis (H4)

Split-sample analysis comparing 2015–2019 and 2020–2023 periods finds a significantly larger ODA-SDGPI coefficient in the latter period (0.231 vs. 0.156, Chow F = 4.32, p = 0.038), consistent with H4 — increased aid

targeting toward SDG-specific outcomes in the COVID recovery period improved aid effectiveness.

8. Discussion

The IV results provide credible causal evidence that foreign aid positively and significantly promotes SDG progress in low-income countries, with diminishing marginal returns at high aid intensity levels. The institutional quality interaction — confirming the conditional effectiveness hypothesis — has important implications for aid allocation: the SDGPI return to each dollar of aid is approximately 25% larger in countries with one standard deviation higher institutional quality, providing empirical support for governance-selective aid allocation while also highlighting the opportunity cost of excluding low-institution countries from effective aid engagement. The aid composition finding is the most directly actionable: reorienting aid portfolios from budget support and debt relief toward health, education, and infrastructure could substantially increase the SDG impact of existing ODA flows without requiring donor budget increases.

9. Theoretical Implications

The study enriches development economics theory in several respects. The confirmation of diminishing returns to aid provides empirical grounding for debates about optimal aid volumes — suggesting that beyond approximately 5% of GNI, additional aid flows face rapidly declining SDG marginal impact, potentially reflecting

absorptive capacity constraints. The institutional quality moderation finding validates the conditional effectiveness hypothesis in a specifically SDG-oriented framework, contributing to the theoretical understanding of how governance conditions the public goods provision capacity that aid funds. The composition effect findings contribute to the theory of aid channels, demonstrating that sectoral aid generates larger SDG multipliers than budget support — consistent with the theoretical prediction that earmarked aid for specific public goods minimizes leakage and misallocation.

10. Practical Implications

For donor governments and multilateral organizations, the findings strongly support increasing the share of ODA allocated to health, education, and infrastructure relative to budget support, and developing more rigorous SDG-targeting frameworks for aid allocation decisions. The institutional quality moderation implies that governance-improving aid (technical assistance for public financial management, anti-corruption programs, civil service reform) has high indirect returns through its amplification of other aid flows' SDG impact. For recipient governments, the findings highlight the importance of institutional quality as a prerequisite for maximizing the development return on ODA flows — suggesting that governance reform is not merely a donor conditionality requirement but a high-return development investment.

11. Conclusion

This study provides IV-identified panel evidence that foreign aid significantly promotes SDG progress in low-income countries, with positive but diminishing marginal returns and significant institutional quality moderation. Health, education, and infrastructure aid generate the largest SDG multipliers, while budget support and debt relief exhibit substantially smaller effects. The post-2020 period shows stronger aid-SDG linkages, potentially reflecting improved targeting. These findings support a reformed aid architecture that emphasizes sectoral effectiveness, governance complementarity, and sustained investment in the institutional infrastructure needed to convert financial flows into development outcomes. Future research should employ project-level microdata and randomized evaluation designs to identify specific SDG-effective aid delivery modalities within the aggregate categories examined here.

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