

# THE ROLE OF DEVELOPMENT FINANCE INSTITUTIONS IN FRAGILE ECONOMIES

MASEDI SESELE



DBSA

# THE ROLE OF DEVELOPMENT FINANCE INSTITUTIONS IN FRAGILE ECONOMIES

Masedi Sesele <sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Knowledge Management and Research Unit, Development Bank of Southern Africa,  
South Africa

Email: [masedis@dbsa.org](mailto:masedis@dbsa.org) <sup>4</sup>

## ABSTRACT

This research explores how development finance institutions (DFIs) can effectively operate in fragile economies and identifies investment sectors with the highest growth potential. It examines the roles and strategies DFIs should adopt, the challenges they face, and offers policy recommendations to enhance development finance in such environments. The study utilizes a systematic literature review on fragile states and DFIs' involvement, supplemented by a case study to highlight successful economic interventions. It begins by analysing the concept of state fragility, focusing on economic, political, and social factors necessary for recovery and growth. Key findings highlight that DFIs play crucial roles in fragile economies by supporting pioneering businesses, offering patient, adaptable, and risk-tolerant financing, and addressing gender disparities. Additionally, DFIs contribute through trade finance, advisory services to both firms and governments, and infrastructure development. These actions position DFIs as vital catalysts for economic stability, private sector growth, and long-term resilience in fragile contexts. However, a notable limitation of the research was the scarcity of available data and low engagement from key informants, which restricted the case study analysis to a single country. Despite this, the research offers valuable, practical recommendations for development finance practitioners and policymakers. It emphasizes actionable strategies that can increase the effectiveness and developmental impact of DFIs in fragile economies. Ultimately, the study underscores the importance of targeted investment in fragile states, arguing that such interventions are essential for reducing fragility and fostering sustainable economic progress, benefiting both the nations involved and their populations in the long term.

**Keywords:** Fragile States, Development Finance, Economic Growth, Data Availability, Investment

## INTRODUCTION

Fragility and conflicts prevent countries from achieving sustainable development goals. Despite efforts to elevate global poverty over the past few decades, there is a growing number of the world's population which continues to live in extreme poverty. Of those living in extreme poverty, 76,5 percent is in fragile economies where almost one-quarter of the world's population lives (OECD, 2020). Fragile states differ from each other but tend to share common features such as a divided society with opposing views and no shared identity. These states have inadequate government capacity and lack the capability to perform basic functions such as taxation, and providing security, the rule of law and economic infrastructure. These states also lack legitimacy with many of their own citizens and have few formal enterprises. The workforce cannot therefore reap the economies of scale and specialization which results in an unproductive and impoverished population (Collier, et al., 2019). Development finance institutions (DFIs) have a mandate to achieve development impact including in the world's most fragile states to bring job and economic opportunities to societies that need them most. However, investing in these states is complex with significantly higher associated risks and costs. Unlike commercial lenders, DFIs are more tolerant of higher risks as they often pool financing and operate under explicit development mandates. They can also leverage their capacity to use public funding to de-risk investments while using their expertise, networks, and influence to mobilise collaborative approaches to project co-investment. Therefore, the objective of this study is to assess key roles and approaches required by DFIs when investing in fragile economies.

## BACKGROUND

The term fragile economies can describe a heterogeneous group of countries with problems of governance, security, and development. Initially, the fragile state agenda focused on conflict and post-conflict countries (Maier, 2010). But this has since been broadened to cover aspects of security, economic and social development as well as political representation and governance (Maier, 2010). African scholars such as Ncube and Jones (2013) have found fragility difficult to define due to the term being fluid and partly because it represents a continuum, with states moving in and out of it. This depends on a nation's ability to respond to internal and external shocks. The main attributes of fragility, however, include the inability to deliver essential services due to weak capacity and institutions, poor policies, and political instability.

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2020) described fragility as the combination of exposure to risk and insufficient coping capacity of the state, systems, and/or communities to manage, absorb, or mitigate those risks. It further stated that fragility can lead to negative outcomes, including violence, poverty, inequality, displacement, and environmental and political degradation (OECD, 2020). The African Development Bank (AfDB) defines fragility as a condition of elevated risk of institutional breakdown, societal collapse, or violent conflict. Furthermore, fragility is an imbalance between the strains and challenges (internal and external) a state and society face and their ability to manage them (AfDB, 2022). The AfDB shifts the concept paradigm from "fragile states" to "fragile situations" to reflect that fragility can manifest at the local, national, or regional level in any country regardless of its political or socio-economic standing (AfDB, 2022). The DBSA defines fragility as countries or situations with unique development challenges that are exposed to risk arising

from fragility and conflict where institutions of governance and communities cannot manage or mitigate those risks (DBSA, 2021). Fragility contexts can negatively impact development outcomes, including violence, poverty, inequality, displacement, and environmental and political degradation (DBSA, 2021).

Fragility also includes vulnerability to climate change and natural disasters (Azour & Selassie, 2023). Economic growth theory has shown that the accumulation of physical and human capital, as well as technical progress, may have a positive impact on growth (Maier, 2010). Fragile states have, however, accumulated less capital than others and have lower rates of technological progress, which hinders their growth potential (Maier, 2010). The issues facing fragile economies reinforce each other as the society is divided into two opposing groups where one group tends to believe that the state is captured by the other and, therefore, undermines the legitimacy of the state (Collier, Gregory, & Ragoussis, 2019). Because of this lack of legitimacy, the state cannot rely on members of society for compliance or community engagement, resulting in the state failing. The lack of legitimacy and inadequate state functions results in lack of business confidence and employment opportunities. This leaves fragile economies exposed to shocks which the state cannot cushion and as such the frequency and severity of adverse shocks keep derailing attempts to escape from fragility (Collier, et al., 2019).

The study by McKechnie, et al. (2018) states that fragile economies are dominated by the agriculture sector, as on average they have a higher proportion of employment within this sector. The process of moving labour out of lower-productivity agriculture and into high-productivities is crucial for structural change (McKechnie, Lightner, & Velde, 2018). The current state of development finance in fragile economies has shown that although overseas development assistance (ODA) remains a critical source of financing for governments in fragile states, the desired level of economic growth remains unachieved (MENA-OECD, 2018). ODA from Western funders is larger than foreign direct investment (FDI) in these states but not all ODA is intended for long-term development purposes as some is allocated for humanitarian needs which do not align with Africa's agenda. ODA accounts for 28 percent of financial flows in fragile states while FDI accounts for 22 percent (MENA-OECD, 2018). The record of DFIs in fragile economies has received criticism as they have been accused of adopting risk-averse investment strategies and transactional approaches to investment deals, putting financial returns above development impact (Collier, et al., 2021). DFIs have invested in well-off markets and safer sectors, thus sourcing very few new opportunities in fragile markets.

Fragile economies are characterised by environments with a heightened exposure to investors' risk combined with a low government capacity to mitigate, manage, or absorb these risks (Abel, Hammond, Hyslop, Lahidji, & Mandrella, 2016). As such, the business climates in these economies are not enabling. The Doing Business Report (World Bank, 2019), which compares business regulation for domestic firms in 190 economies shows that fragile economies are among the lowest ranked countries in the world with Somalia, Yemen, South Sudan, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and the Central African Republic as examples. Table 1 shows that Libya is ranked 186 and scores poorly across all indicators, as since the 2014 relapse in conflict, the country has lacked basic regulations and institutional mechanisms that support the creation and operation of private firms. Iraq also ranks 171 and has performed poorly on indicators such as getting credit and trading across borders. Fragility in some nations such as Iraq, can also be attributed to the impact of the United States invasion of the country

in 2003 which resulted in the disbanding and dismantling of the Iraqi military and bureaucracy. This exacerbated economic stagnation, terrorism, criminality, and crumbling infrastructure issues which are still present today (Flibbert, 2013).

**Table 1: 2019 Doing business ranking globally**

Economy	Global rank	Starting a business	Dealing with construction	Getting electricity	Registering property	Getting credit	Protecting minority investors	Paying taxes	Trading across	Enforcing contract	Resolving insolvency
Jordan	104	106	139	62	72	134	125	95	74	108	150
West Bank and Gaza	116	171	157	85	84	22	161	107	54	123	168
Egypt, Arab Rep	120	109	68	96	125	60	72	159	171	160	101
Lebanon	142	146	170	124	105	124	140	113	150	135	151
Iraq	171	155	103	126	113	186	125	129	181	143	168
Libya	186	160	186	136	187	186	185	128	128	141	168

**Source:** MENA-OECD (2018) and World Bank (2019)

Studies such as Velde (2011) estimated the aggregate impact of DFIs on investment (especially during financial crises and in post-conflict periods) and the ability of DFIs to improve energy efficiency. The results from the study showed that a one percentage point increase in DFI as a percentage of gross domestic product would lead to a 0.8 percentage point change in the investment to GDP ratio. Hence, DFIs could be seen as a useful tool to promote investment and growth in poor countries. Comparable results were found in studies like Schreiner & Jacob Yaron (2001) and Humphrey & Michaelowa (2019).

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHOD

To address the objectives of the study, the methodology followed two approaches. Firstly, a systematic review of existing literature regarding fragile economies and the role and involvement of DFIs in these economies. The systematic literature review approach is preferred as it provides a comprehensive overview of literature related to a research question and synthesizes previous work to strengthen a particular topic's foundation of knowledge, while adhering to the concepts of transparency and bias reduction (Williams, Jr., et al., 2021). Secondly, a case study was conducted to identify evidence of economic success in a fragile state using the Liberian construction sector. The use of a qualitative case study is ideal for the purpose of this study, as unpacking the dynamics of successful intervention of development finance initiatives in a fragile state provides lessons learnt that can be replicated in other fragile settings. It also provides practical solutions which have a proven record of success in a fragile state. Through a desktop search of successful development finance interventions in fragile states, a number of projects were identified (in countries such as Afghanistan and Mauritius), and questionnaires were sent to key informants in each project. The key informant in Liberia was the only respondent, hence it has been the only included case study in this analysis.

## RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The research results and discussion section are divided into two subsections. The first is the systematic literature review section which is divided into subsections and documents both local and international literature on fragility and the distinct roles and challenges facing development finance institutions. The second is the case study analysis section of the construction sector in Liberia which documents a successful intervention of development finance in a fragile country.

### Systematic Literature Review

#### Fragility and inequality

The African Development Bank strategy for addressing fragility and building resilience in Africa highlighted horizontal inequalities, social exclusion and gender inequalities as key drivers of fragility that will need to be explicitly addressed in operational areas (AfDB, 2022). Social drivers of fragility can be pushed by the demand of individuals or groups in a society for inclusion and access to services, resources, and opportunities that if not met leads to grievances, social tensions, rebelliousness, and violence (AfDB, 2022). Gender inequality is another important driver of fragility, as conflict and fragility affect women, men, girls, and boys differently. Women and children have been historically marginalised, and conflict can further cause greater gender inequalities and increase the vulnerability of women and children (AfDB, 2022).

In their study, Koch (2008) highlighted how women and girls are often disproportionately affected by conflict as opposed to men and boys. In conflict affected states, girls' enrolment in primary and secondary school has been found to drop drastically as they are forced to stay home and assist with household duties (Koch, 2008). The enrolment of boys in school has in some states also been negatively affected as they are forced to drop-out of school and take part in the violence. There is also inequality regarding healthcare in fragile states as wounded men compete with women who require health services such as giving birth (Koch, 2008). Women and girls are also often tasked with the burden of taking care of the wounded and the elderly in their households and the society at large which puts more strain to their own well-being (Koch, 2008).

In terms of employment, there is mixed evidence regarding how country level fragility and conflict affect people. It is, however, evident that with men having been involved in the conflict, most households will be led by women, who will have the sole responsibility of providing financially for their households. In some literature, this has driven women into income generating long hours work in the informal sector such as farming (Quek, 2019; ILO, 2003; Nelson-Núñez, 2019). However, in some instances, women accept work in formal sectors which were left by men when taking part in the conflict (Koch, 2008). The violence experienced by people is also different in fragile states as men are likely to be wounded and die in the fighting, but for women, gender-based violence increases substantially. In the absence of law and order, the trafficking of women and sexual exploitation increases drastically. Women are unable to arm and protect themselves and lack the mobility to flee the violence. Men may also suffer from gender-based violence but because of the stigma involved, the degree of it is unknown.

## Escaping Fragility

### Structural changes

The analysis of the economic growth theory models has shown that in order to foster growth in fragile states, capital and labour productivity are highly essential (Solow, 1956). Escaping the poverty trap and fragility will therefore involve social, political, and economic stability within these states. That in turn will cause structural changes and the efficient use of factors of production – shifting from lower to higher production activities. Wen (2016) provided an analysis of China's rapid rise from a backward agrarian society to an industrial powerhouse in 35 years. The study showed how China's shift from rural agriculture and informal services towards growth driven industrial sectors has resulted in its rapid economic growth. The structural shift from low to high productivity activities will result in underemployment and unproductive jobs being replaced by more productive jobs in the formal private sector. This will result in more jobs being created and the overall national income of the country increasing (Collier, et al., 2021). Household income can increase and as such they can engage in spending on education, healthcare, and savings which according to the Solow growth theory can foster growth (Solow, 1956).

The shift to industrialise an economy also involves the support of critical infrastructure such as roads, power generators and financial services. Fragile economies also have a limited export base when excluding natural resources and as such the firms' growth in these states is limited. The structural change will allow for the development of an export base for fragile economies which will increase firm-level growth and create trading channels with the rest of the world (Collier, et al., 2021). With increased firms and an increased export base, governments in fragile states will have an opportunity to broaden their tax base and increase their tax revenue to enable them to provide basic public goods and services and improve infrastructure. These structural changes are difficult to attain and require the government to create an enabling environment where the private sector can thrive (Noman & Stiglitz, 2015). The structural change process is driven by the private sector as firms have a competitive incentive to improve efficiencies and productivity. Without productivity growth and structural change, fragile economies have become stuck in low development equilibria with stagnating or falling growth rates (Noman & Stiglitz, 2015)

### Pioneering firms

The environment in fragile economies is not conducive for economic activity to take place, as such pioneering firms are essential as they take the first investment steps (Covin, et al., 2000). Market pioneering is a commonly recognized form of corporate entrepreneurship where a firm is first to offer a distinctively new product, introduce a new process or enter and create a new market in fragile economies (Covin, et al., 2000). Pioneer firms are regarded as "first movers" in fragile economies and have the advantage of accessing unexploited natural resources, using low-cost labour, provide basic services and have open entry to the market with little competition (Collier, et al., 2019). By embarking in investment in uncharted fragile territory, pioneering firms will provide knowledge regarding the market structure and how to navigate it. Pioneering firms also provide jobs and training to the members of the society, support infrastructure and stimulate the local market. The risk of pioneer firms going under is high as they have no prior knowledge of the local market conditions and as such will experience the necessary trial and error phases.

The start-up cost of establishing these firms in these economies is also extremely high. The firms have to consider developing non-existent infrastructure, navigating the regulatory environment, labour training and the possibility of failure due to unprofitability, conflict, or political uncertainty (Collier, et al., 2021). A perfect example is the Southern Sudan Beverages Ltd which was a pioneering investment in South Sudan owned by SABMiller Group. The firm was established in 2009 and later went out of business in 2016 (Brewver, 2009). The pioneering firm which was at the time the pride and joy of South Sudan was unable to survive the 20-month civil war which killed more than 10 000 people and further forced two million from their homes and left 4,6 million people with severe food insecurity (Jones, 2015). The South Sudan brewery experienced shortages of fuel, raw material, and foreign currency. It lacked financing and lacked domestic inputs as the banking sector in South Sudan was underdeveloped and the local agricultural and industrial development was weak. This resulted in the majority of the inputs such as maize, malt, bottles and bottle tops being imported from neighbouring countries (Jones, 2015).

### State building

The OECD (2008) has defined state building as the endogenous process to enhance capacity, institutions and legitimacy of the state driven by state-society relations and this involves the process of states functioning more effectively. The OECD (2008) has prioritised state-building as the central objective of international partnership in fragile situations and in countries emerging from conflict and state building therefore remains an essential aspect in escaping fragility (OECD, 2008). The process of state building involves reciprocal relations between a state that delivers services for its citizens and social and political groups that constructively engage with their state. The process also involves legitimizing the state by amongst other aspects, ensuring its ability to provide services effectively and equitably to its people. As such legitimacy is both a means and an end for successful state building (OECD, 2008). The development of administrative capacity within a state is also key for state building as a state cannot exist without administrative structures such as a functioning civil service and a public economic management system.

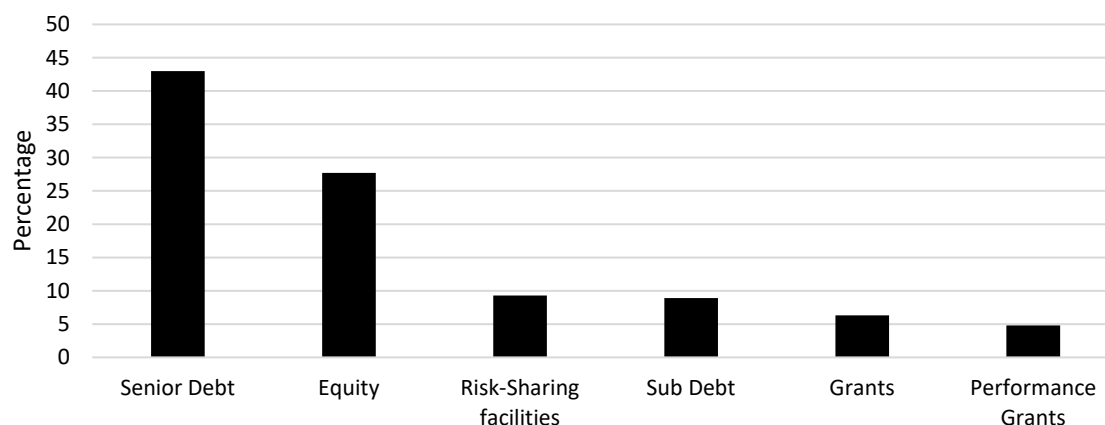
This also involves the ability of the state to raise funds through taxation which ensures that the state has a stake in its citizens' prosperity and the citizens can hold the state accountable for its performance or management of their taxes. In the context of a fragile state, the establishment of a resilient state is of the utmost importance as a resilient state must be able to effectively deliver functions that match the expectations of its society (OECD, 2008). Managing the process of change and external and internal shocks associated with it remains important as failure to do so may generate violence and fragility. Failure of a state to be inclusive of all societal or political groups can also lead to the excluded groups challenging the state which can result in violence. In state building, it is therefore important for the state to engage and negotiate with all groups especially marginalized ones such as women and people with disabilities, to avoid undermining state building efforts overall (OECD, 2008).

## The key role of DFIs in fragile economies

### Supporting Pioneering firms

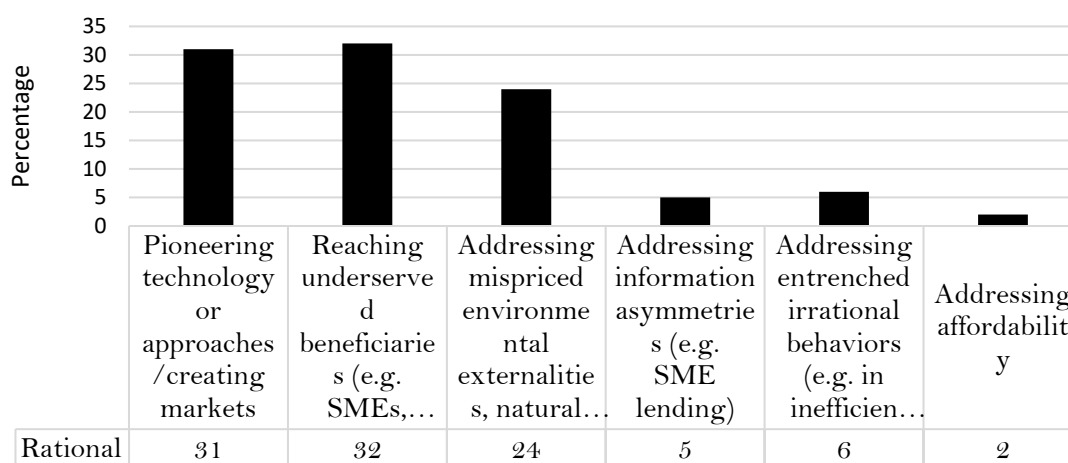
One role DFIs can play in fragile states is by expanding their toolkit and providing support to pioneering firms. This is a mutually beneficial activity as in order for DFIs to identify sectors with high growth potential in fragile economies, supporting the entrance of pioneering firms in different sectors of a fragile economy will provide information regarding the risk and benefit within such sectors through experiences that they have faced (IFC, 2017). The generated information can reduce uncertainty and allow DFIs to have more information on which sector to invest in. There are several channels through which DFIs can support pioneering firms and the private sector as a whole. One of the channels is through subsidy mechanisms. Traditionally, subsidies would be provided by the government, however, governments in fragile states lack the fiscal, administrative, and financial capacity to do so (IFC, 2017). Therefore, there is a role for DFIs to play by providing subsidies to pioneering firms as part of their financing role (IFC, 2017). DFIs can provide subsidies through blended financing mechanisms where they combine commercial financing terms with subsidies linked to specific costs, benefits, and risks. Blended concessional finance is a significant tool which DFIs can use to increase finance for private sector projects to help address Sustainable Development Goals and mobilise private capital (IFC, 2017). Between 2014-2016, DFIs had financed a total project value of more than USD 15 billion by various blended finance solutions. Figure 1 shows the various financial products used by DFIs.

Senior concessional loans and equity are more prevalent but there was also use of risk sharing facilities, subordinated loans, and grants. The sectors that were most targeted by the concessional resources were infrastructure, banking, and agriculture, while climate change was the most prevalent theme within these sectors (IFC, 2017). Figure 2 shows the rationale for using blended finance as identified by DFIs. Most projects were based on pioneering technology or creating markets and projects reaching underserved beneficiaries. DFIs can also play a role in actively seeking out such firms that are willing to participate in pioneering new markets in fragile states and support them through such subsidies. However, the design of the subsidy allocation mechanism should support market creation and not give an advantage to the recipient that goes beyond the first mover/pioneer costs that it bears (IFC, 2017). DFIs also have a role to play in providing technical assistance and capacity building to firms in fragile economies through providing subsidized advisory services that support job training, market assessment and costly activities which pioneering firms need to undertake. DFIs can also go beyond firms and provide technical and capacity building support to governments in fragile states to help market creation which will in turn decrease the cost faced by firms entering these markets (IFC, 2017).



**Figure 1: Concessional Commitments by Instrument, 2014-2016**

**Source:** International Finance Corporation (2017)



**Figure 2: Rationale for using blended finance, 2014-2016**

**Source:** International Finance Corporation (2017)

### Patient, flexible and risk tolerant financing

Assuming local intermediaries exist, a recommended investment strategy by DFIs in fragile states would be to use local intermediary institutions to channel capital into these environments which can bring overhead costs down and leverage on the superior contextual knowledge of local intermediaries (CDC, 2019). A DFI, the British International Investment (2019), reported that based on previous experience in fragile states, a level of flexibility and diversification is required by DFIs when selecting which sectors to invest in. In some fragile economies, traditional ideas of which sector to invest in and which ones not to may be cast aside (CDC, 2019). DFIs are expected to invest in traditional sectors such as infrastructure but in certain fragile economies, it may be more beneficial to invest in other emerging sectors. Some emerging sectors can require more attention and face greater execution risk, therefore DFIs should play a role in identifying sectors which are below the government radar, and which provide goods and services which have an unmet demand. The British International Investment has invested in commercial property and car hire firms in Sierra Leone. These are sectors which on the surface do not reflect a development agenda but based on local knowledge do actually facilitate development in the area (CDC, 2019). DFIs also have a role

to play in implementing more risk tolerant investment strategies in fragile economies through, for example, increasing equity participation in environments where early-stage equity markets are underdeveloped. The advantages of equity investment for DFIs are that they provide a degree of patience as there is less pressure for firms to generate immediate returns. They also allow for firms to prioritise long-term growth and provide a sense of stability during times of volatility (Carter, 2020). Equity investments also allow for DFIs to have better control of management decisions as in more fragile economies, a more direct approach is required.

### Addressing inequalities

Conflict affects people differently; however, the reconstruction post-conflict provides an opportunity for transforming gender relations in a positive direction. DFIs have a role to play in addressing gender inequalities in fragile states, in order to provide inclusive growth and ensure the full participation of women within the economy (AfDB, 2022). As part of their strategy to address fragility, the AfDB has developed a targeted program for empowerment of women to strengthen their roles as agents of change in the peace and state-building process (AfDB, 2022). The AfDB has highlighted that the political, economic, and legal empowerment of women is a key element that will suffuse their work in fragile economies. The gender strategy guides the engagement of the AfDB on the continent in terms of supporting gender equality through national development strategies and through their own operations. Their strategy involves encouraging the participation of women in peace and state-building at all levels and paying attention to the impact of gender-based violence faced by women during conflict situations (AfDB, 2022). The AfDB follows the High-Level Panel on Fragile States recommendations regarding addressing fragility by supporting women's livelihoods through entrepreneurship support and securing land tenure for women in building resilience (AfDB, 2022). The AfDB gender strategy provides another role for DFIs in supporting health and education services in fragile states in order to ensure women and girls' non-discriminatory access to and participation in these services.

### Supporting Trade Finance

The experience of the International Finance Corporation (IFC) in fragile states has led to the rise of other roles which DFIs can play in fragile economies (IFC, 2019). One such role is supporting trade financing in fragile states. The IFC has supported trade finance in fragile economies through the Global Trade Finance Program (GTFP) which extends and complements the capacity of banks to deliver trade financing by providing risk mitigation in new or challenging markets where trade lines may be constrained (IFC, 2019). Trade is essential for growth and is a key driver of integration and opportunities for local enterprises.

### Providing advisory services to firms and government

Because of their experience, knowledge, and expertise, DFIs have a role to play in terms of providing advisory services to governments and firms in fragile economies (AfDB, 2019). This was evident in Sierra Leone where the AfDB provided critical strategic advisory services during the preparation of the country's third generation agenda for prosperity 2013-2018. The AfDB provided advice on gender empowerment, international competitiveness, and green growth. Giving advice on green growth and transitioning to renewables is important in fragile

economies, however, DFIs should prioritise economic growth above green initiatives. The AfDB continues to play a leadership role in sectors such as transport and water in the country (AfDB, 2019). The IFC has also played a role in providing advisory services in fragile states through the Creating Markets Advisory Window program and the Fragile and Conflict Situations Africa program (IFC, 2019). Both programs have provided advice in fragile economies to build capacity and strengthen the private sector. The Africa program in particular has provided advisory resources for investment teams that work on early-stage opportunities in fragile states in Africa (IFC, 2019). Both experiences have shown how DFIs can play a larger role in advising governments and firms in fragile states.

### **Types of investment required in fragile economies**

Fragile economies need investment which creates jobs, spurs economic growth, generates tax revenues, bolsters infrastructure, and creates a sense of hope for their people (Levy, 2016). The creation of decent jobs is key to reducing poverty and improving the standard of life in fragile states. DFIs should focus on replacing informal unstable jobs with formal stable jobs or rather improve the quality of informal jobs (Carter & Petr Sedlacek, 2019). Collier, et al. (2021) has emphasized the need for catalytic investments in fragile states as they affect multiple nodes of an economic network. These types of investments have a direct and indirect multiplier effect on the entire economy and result in knowledge transfers, capacity building, reduction in the price of intermediate inputs and economies of specialisation. DFIs also have to promote investments that are conflict sensitive as the inflow of resources in resource-scarce fragile environments will cause locals to fight amongst each other for control of these resources which may cause more harm than good (Collier, et al., 2021). These conflict sensitive investment strategies involve sector and project-specific analysis and accounting for the evolving nature of the conflict cycles. Before the establishment of the fragile and conflict situations Africa program, the IFC had implemented the Conflict Affected States in Africa program which provided a conflict sensitive approach based on the assessment of the political risks associated with an investment. The program also analysed the fragility induced impacts that an investment could provoke and accordingly adjusted for it (IFC, 2013).

### **Challenges faced by Development Finance Institutions in fragile economies**

Challenges facing DFIs in their efforts to invest in fragile economies include macroeconomic elements such as the political and economic instability in fragile states which create difficult environments for DFIs and the private sector to thrive (Collier, et al., 2021). Other elements include the infrastructure deficiencies. The weak human capital in fragile states also poses a challenge to DFIs in terms of investing in them as it limits the supply of investment opportunities as there is a limited work force available (Maier, 2010). The weak physical and mental health of individuals in fragile states may affect the supply of productive labour (Maier, 2010). Due to acts of violence and conflict, individuals in fragile states are exposed to traumas on a scale not known to the rest of the world, which will likely cause psychological and mental health issues. As such, even when DFIs provide support for pioneering firms in such states in order to create job opportunities, these firms may not reach their full productive capacity.

Human development and training may be required to increase the overall cost of investment (Maier, 2010). Other challenges such as lack of state capacity and lack of information on local markets will also increase the overall costs of operating in fragile economies. Another challenge that DFIs face when investing in fragile states is the rigid investment requirements that have been placed by DFI shareholders which the DFIs should meet. These investment requirements can include investing at commercial terms, losses and risk aversion and maintaining environmental, social and governance standards (Collier, et al., 2021). These requirements are standard and therefore unsuitable for different environments which presents a challenge and as such limits the DFIs' ability to make development impact in fragile economies. Investing in fragile economies does have higher risks, inevitable financial losses and returns may not materialise until after many years. As stated before, DFIs investing in fragile states requires patience, which may not be part of the investment requirements made by shareholders.

Besides limits posed by shareholders, DFIs themselves can have internal barriers towards investing in fragile economies (Collier, et al., 2021). These include a corporate structure which prioritizes successful deal making, which will encourage risk aversion behaviour which will steer DFIs into investing in high income countries, where returns are guaranteed (Collier, et al., 2021). This is fear of failure behaviour which will limit the DFIs' reach into fragile economies, which deserve greater assistance than already developed or developing countries and will have a larger development impact on the states that require it more. This risk aversion behaviour can also be motivated by the reputational risk associated with investing in fragile economies as environmental, social and governance standards may not be met and as such create a bad reputation for the DFIs. Standards should be adjusted to account for the scope of work required in these environments and should not be compared with standards in place in more developed countries (Collier, et al., 2021).

### **Policy considerations for improving development finance in fragile economies**

Having examined some of the challenges facing DFIs in investing in fragile economies, it is clear that some of these challenges can be addressed by changes in policies within DFIs that will allow them to play a more meaningful role in fragile economies. The first would be a change in the corporate culture of DFIs which fosters risk aversion and deal making. In fragile economies, success should be redefined away from deal making and more towards job creation. DFIs' staff members should be rewarded also for the productive jobs created from projects and not only on the basis of deals and transactions made. Fragile economies carry more risk and as such high-risk tolerant policies are required from DFIs and room for failure should be provided, as there will be knowledge gained from such experiences that will provide more insight into the market structures that can be used for better project preparation in the future. It does remain unclear how much risk is enough, as too much risk and recklessness can also be a problem and proper risk mitigation techniques will therefore be required.

One such technique would be for DFIs to establish a working relationship with governments and civil society groups within these fragile economies in order to gain more insight from those within the country, in order to better scope the potential for investment in certain sectors. Working relationships should also be established amongst multiple DFIs themselves in multiple forms. One such form can be through the co-financing of projects in fragile economies in order to share risk and develop more expertise. The collaboration amongst DFIs can also

go further into information sharing on experiences in different fragile states. The Commission for State Fragility, Growth and Development from the International Growth Centre of the London School of Economics held a meeting with multiple DFIs across the world. The participating DFIs agreed to cooperate in rolling out pilot interventions in some fragile states. The participating DFIs including the AfDB agreed to enhance collective dialogue amongst development agencies to leverage on diverse skills and improve complementarity, manage financial and non-financial risks, and work together on reforms to strengthen business environments in fragile states (AfDB, 2020).

### **Case study of successful investments in fragile states**

#### Construction Sector in Liberia

Fragility in Liberia is characterised by poor governance and fifteen years of brutal conflict, which have made the country one of the poorest in the world, as ordinary citizens feel ostracized from the political and decision-making process. Fragility is also manifested in the failure of the state to deliver basic services to citizens. Liberia has one of the worst public sectors in West Africa, with inadequate quality of policy delivery and public investment management, according to the AfDB's 2020 Country Resilience Fragility Assessment. Therefore, youth are more likely to express their displeasure toward government through constant demonstrations. Moreover, access to opportunities is determined by background, the urban-rural divide, social classes, ethnolinguistic identities, and education leading to various forms of exclusion. Social mobility for marginalized groups is low due to multidimensional inequalities, livelihood constraints, low human development and emerging forms of intolerance. Liberia identified infrastructure reconstruction and capacity building as being key to the country's recovery, economic growth, and poverty reduction after almost 14 years of civil war which undermined its human development and devastated the country's construction sector. In 2012, it was reported by the Ministry of Public Works that only about 970 construction firms operated in the country, which were mostly shell companies set up for contract farming and subcontracting, and as such were unable to execute public work (McKechnie, et al., 2018). The Doing Business Report ranked Liberia 179 out of 189 countries in 2016, as the conditions for doing business in the country were very severe (World Bank, 2016). The underdevelopment of the local construction sector in Liberia was attributed to the lack of a business conducive environment in the state which was a result of a number of factors. The local construction sector also lacked management and engineering capacity which means the local contractors are too incapacitated to manage large projects. There was also a lack of financing from the financial sector which in itself was underdeveloped and as such contractors were unable to source credit to fund projects. The weather conditions in Liberia also restricted the progress of construction projects as heavy rainfalls are experienced throughout the year.

Other challenges in the sector include the lack of equipment within the construction sector and when importing equipment into the country, logistical constraints were experienced due to the lack of road and port infrastructure. Road infrastructure is particularly important not only to facilitate trade but also to connect individuals across various parts of the country. Such investment into road infrastructure was required in Liberia but because of its post conflict nature, which results in substantial risk, investors were unlikely to participate. In order to address the issues of lack of capacity in the construction sector and the lack of road infrastructure in the state, the Liberian government engaged the foreign private sector in

highway construction and maintenance through Output and Performance Based Road Contracts (OPRC). The agreement was that a contractor would be awarded a 10-year contract to produce a detailed design and rehabilitate a highway and provide maintenance throughout the period of the contract. The infrastructure would be the property of the government though the contractor would be paid throughout the period of the contract (McKechnie, et al., 2018). The OPRC approach is preferred in fragile states as because of its long-term nature, risk is reduced as the government is more likely to make payments to the contractor and not default. It is also ideal for the contractor to maintain the infrastructure and not the government as the contractor would have better knowledge and capacity.

The project for Liberia was for the Red Light – Gate 15 – Gbarnga – Ganta – Guinea Border and Cotton Tree to Buchanan roads (Gericke, et al., 2014). The World Bank administered Liberia Reconstruction Trust Fund provided funding for the OPRC project with a USD 108,9 million grant combined with an International Development Association credit of USD 67,7 million and additional government funding of USD 72,8 million (World Bank, 2017). The World Bank further extended an additional credit of USD 90 million to scale up the project by including an additional road and to finance road safety improvements. Once Liberia put in place the first OPRC, two Chinese contractors were successful and were responsible for the construction and the maintenance of the infrastructure for the 10-year duration. One of the Chinese contractors employed and trained 900 Liberians and 54 Chinese for the construction of the roads as well as for equipment operation. On the construction site, mobile plant operators, surveyors and general workers were Liberian with only a few workers being foreigners (McKechnie, et al., 2018).

This case study is an illustration of how an initiative-taking government leadership, supported by multilateral development banks was critical in bringing private participation into fragile economies. With this entire experience, the World Bank, being a partner and financier, has gained invaluable knowledge with regards to how OPRC can be incorporated and used to foster infrastructure investment in fragile states. This knowledge can be shared with other development finance institutions to establish an investment path into fragile states. Beyond the construction sector, the AfDB through the Government of Liberia, has invested in transport and energy infrastructure in the country, and indirectly, through multi-country assistance benefitting the other three Mano River Union countries (Sierra Leone, Guinea, and the Republic of Côte d'Ivoire). As of August 2022, the AfDB's investment portfolio for Liberia comprised 18 ongoing and recently approved operations, with a total financial commitment of USD 478 million. The active portfolio spreads across five sectors and is heavily invested in infrastructure, roads (USD 262 million) and energy (USD 105 million). The transport sector accounts for the largest share of the portfolio (56 percent), followed by energy (22 percent), agriculture and rural development (12 percent), and multi-sectors (4 percent). In the energy domain, the AfDB is co-sponsoring investments, cooperating with other development partners, aimed at providing modern, adequate, and affordable energy systems in Liberia. Core investments include renewable energy, power transmission and distribution, and rural electrification.

## CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The first objective of this research was to investigate and establish an approach for DFIs to navigate fragile environments and which roles they should play in fragile economies. The second objective was to determine how DFIs can identify and participate in investment sectors with the most growth potential within these fragile economies. The research first analysed fragility, and the measures required to escape it from an economic, political, and social point of view. The study also investigated key challenges facing DFIs in fragile economies and recommended key policy considerations for improving development finance in these economies. The findings from the study highlight that measures required to escape fragility include structural changes, pioneering firms, and state building. The study also highlights the roles DFIs can play in fragile states such as supporting pioneering firms, providing patient, flexible and risk tolerant financing and addressing gender inequalities. Other added roles include supporting trade finance, providing advisory services to firms and governments and fostering infrastructure development.

The study also found that in order to navigate fragile environments, a recommended investment strategy by DFIs would be to use local intermediary institutions to channel capital into these environments. This can bring overhead costs down and leverage on the superior contextual knowledge of local intermediaries. The challenges facing DFIs in fragile economies include macroeconomic elements, infrastructure deficiencies and rigid investment requirements that have been placed by DFI shareholders which the DFIs should meet. DFIs themselves can have internal barriers towards investing in fragile economies. These include a corporate structure which prioritizes successful deal making and encourages risk aversion. These challenges can be addressed by changes in policies within DFIs that will allow them to play a more meaningful role in fragile economies. These findings recommend that investment committees in DFIs should make use of them when reviewing transactions from these environments and when identifying investment sectors in fragile states. The main limitation facing this research was the lack of available data and low response rate from key informants when compiling the case study analysis which limited the analysis to one country, Liberia to the exclusion of Afghanistan and Mauritius as comparative case studies. Areas for future research include further research on specific financing instruments and an analysis of their development impact in fragile states.

## REFERENCES

- Abel, A., Hammond, D., Hyslop, D., Lahidji, R., & Mandrella, D. F. (2016). The OECD fragility framework. Retrieved November 1, 2022, from <https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/sites/9789264267213-7-en/index.html?itemId=/content/component/9789264267213-7-en>
- ADB. (2005). Asian Development Bank to Help Expand Cellular Phone Services in Afghanistan. Retrieved July 13, 2022, from <https://www.adb.org/news/adb-help-expand-cellular-phone-services-afghanistan>
- AfDB. (2019). African Development Bank Group Strategy for Addressing Fragility and Building Resilience in Africa 2014-2019. African Development Bank Group. Retrieved July 14, 2022
- AfDB. (2020). African Development Bank joins other Development Finance Institutions to deepen private investment in fragile states. Retrieved July 1, 2022, from <https://www.afdb.org/en/news-and-events/press-releases/african-development-bank-joins-other-development-finance-institutions-deepen-private-investment-fragile-states-34310>
- AfDB. (2022). Bank Group's Strategy for Addressing Fragility and Building Resilience in Africa (2022-2026). Retrieved May 12, 2022, from <https://www.afdb.org/en/documents/bank-groups-strategy-addressing-fragility-and-building-resilience-africa-2022-2026>
- Aker, J. (2008). Does digital divide or provide? The impact of cell phones on grain markets in Niger. Washington, DC: Centre for Global Development.: Working Paper 154
- Azariadis, C., & Stachurski, J. (2004). Poverty Traps. The University of Melbourne Department of Economics Research Paper Number 913
- Azour, J., & Selassie, A. A. (2023). Africa's Fragile States Are Greatest Climate Change Casualties. Retrieved from <https://www.imf.org/en/Blogs/Articles/2023/08/30/africas-fragile-states-are-greatest-climate-change-casualties>
- Brewver. (2009). Southern Sudan Beverages. Retrieved June 8, 2022, from <https://brewver.com/breweries/10904/Southern-Sudan-Beverages>
- Carter, P. (2020). Opinion: Here's how private equity investment can work for development DEVEX. Retrieved June 14, 2022, from <https://www.devex.com/news/opinion-here-s-how-private-equity-investment-can-work-for-development-96450>
- Carter, P., & Petr Sedlacek. (2019). CDC Investment works How job creation fits into the broader development challenge. Retrieved June 17, 2022, from <https://assets.cdcgroup.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/25143804/How-job-creation-fits-into-the-broader-development-challenge.pdf>
- CDC. (2019). British International Investment: Development Finance Institution What have we learnt about investing in fragile and conflict-affected states? Retrieved June 14, 2022, from <https://www.bii.co.uk/en/news-insight/insight/articles/what-have-we-learnt-about-investing-in-fragile-and-conflict-affected-states/#:~:text=Investments%20in%20fragile%20and%20conflict,the%20rule%20of%20Iaw%20weak>
- Collier, P., Gregory, N., & Ragoussis, A. (2019). Pioneering Firms in Fragile and Conflict-Affected States. World Bank Group Policy Research Working Paper (8774)
- Collier, P., Kriticos, S., Logan, S., & Sacchetto, C. (2021). Strengthening development finance in fragile contexts. International Growth Centre State Fragility Initiative. Retrieved from [https://www.theigc.org/sites/default/files/2021/03/Strengthening-development-finance-in-fragile-contexts\\_Final.pdf](https://www.theigc.org/sites/default/files/2021/03/Strengthening-development-finance-in-fragile-contexts_Final.pdf)

- DBSA. (2011). Development Planning Division Working Paper Series No. 23 Doing business in post-conflict and fragile states: Challenges and risks. Halfway House: Development Planning Division Development Bank of Southern Africa. Retrieved from <https://www.dbsa.org/sites/default/files/media/documents/2021-03/DPD%20No23.%20Doing%20business%20in%20post-conflict%20and%20fragile%20states-%20Challenges%20and%20risks.pdf>
- DBSA. (2021). DBSA Fragile States Policy Framework – May 2021. Midrand: DBSA.
- FLIBBERT, A. (2013). The Consequences of Forced State Failure in Iraq. *Political Science Quarterly*, 128(1), 67-95
- G. Covin, J., P. Slevin, D., & B. Heeley, M. (2000). Pioneers and followers: Competitive tactics, environment, and firm growth. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15(2), 175-210
- Gericke, B., Henning, T., & Greenwood, I. (2014). Review of Performance Based Contracting in the Road Sector - Phase 1. Washington, DC: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank
- Humphrey, C., & Michaelowa, K. (2019). China in Africa: Competition for traditional development finance institutions? *World Development Elsevier*, 120(C), 15-28
- IFC. (2013). IFC's Conflict Affected States in Africa Initiative Final Report for CASA's First Cycle (2008 – 2013). Retrieved July 15, 2022, from <https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/67a3690a-8e7e-43a2-86ec-c81e14f21b30/IFC+CASA+I+Final+Report.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=kxAaG0T>
- IFC. (2017). International Finance Corporation DFI Working Group on Enhanced Blended Concessional Finance for Private Sector Projects. Retrieved June 9, 2022, from [https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/a8398ed6-55d0-4cc4-95aa-bcbabe39f79f/DFI+Blended+Concessional+Finance+for+Private+Sector+Operations\\_Summary+R....pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=IYCLe0B](https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/a8398ed6-55d0-4cc4-95aa-bcbabe39f79f/DFI+Blended+Concessional+Finance+for+Private+Sector+Operations_Summary+R....pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=IYCLe0B)
- IFC. (2019). Generating Private Investment in Fragile and Conflict-Affected Areas. International Finance Corporation. Retrieved June 2022, 9, from <https://www.ifc.org/en/insights-reports/2019/201902-fcs-study>
- IFC. (2019). Global Trade Finance Program. Retrieved July 14, 2022, from [https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/industry\\_ext\\_content/ifc\\_external\\_corporate\\_site/financial+institutions/priorities/global+trade/gtfp](https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/industry_ext_content/ifc_external_corporate_site/financial+institutions/priorities/global+trade/gtfp)
- ILO. (2003). Poverty And Employment in Crisis Situations: The Gender Dimensions. International Labour Organization. Geneva, Switzerland
- Jones, S. (2015). South Sudan brewery closure would be no small beer as civil war wreaks havoc. Retrieved June 8, 2022, from <https://www.theguardian.com/global-development/2015/aug/13/south-sudan-brewery-closure-would-be-no-small-beer-as-civil-war-wreaks-havoc>
- Jones, S., & Howarth, S. (2012). Supporting Infrastructure Development in Fragile and Conflict-Affected States: Learning from Experience. Retrieved June 27, 2022, from [https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/57ebe67de5274a0eba000011/FCAS\\_infrastructure\\_final\\_report\\_0.pdf](https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/57ebe67de5274a0eba000011/FCAS_infrastructure_final_report_0.pdf)
- Kaplan, S. D., & Teufel, F. (2016). The role of road networks in addressing. *Africa Economic Brief African Development Bank Group*, 7(5)
- Kaplan, S. D., & Teufel, F. (2016). The role of road networks in addressing AfDB. Retrieved June 27, 2022, from [https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Publications/AEB\\_Vol\\_7\\_Issue\\_5\\_The\\_role\\_of\\_road\\_networks\\_in\\_addressing\\_fragility\\_and\\_....pdf](https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Publications/AEB_Vol_7_Issue_5_The_role_of_road_networks_in_addressing_fragility_and_....pdf)

- Koch, J. (2008). Does Gender Matter in Fragile States? DIIS Policy Brief, Danish Institute for International Studies. Copenhagen, Denmark
- Lee, N., & Sami, A. (2019). Centre for global development Still Lending (Mostly) After All These Years. Retrieved June 14, 2022, from <https://www.cgdev.org/blog/still-lending-mostly-after-all-these-years>
- Levy, J. (2016). World Bank Unlocking investment opportunities in fragile markets. Retrieved June 15, 2022, from <https://blogs.worldbank.org/voices/unlocking-investment-opportunities-fragile-markets>
- Maier, R. (2010). Growth and Equity in Fragile States. Netherlands Institute for International Relations Clingendael Conflict Research Unit. The Hague, Netherlands.
- MCIT. (2002). Ministry of Communications and Information Technology. Retrieved July 13, 2022, from <https://mcit.gov.af/en/node/6949>
- McKechnie, A., Lightner, A., & Velde, D. W. (2018). Economic Development in Fragile Contexts. Supporting Economic Transformation. Retrieved from [https://set.odi.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/SET-Econ-Development-in-Fragile-States\\_Final-report.pdf](https://set.odi.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/SET-Econ-Development-in-Fragile-States_Final-report.pdf)
- MENA-OECD. (2018). Background Note FDI in fragile and conflict affected economies in the Middle East and North Africa: trends and policies. OECD & Islamic Development Bank
- Ncube, M., & Jones, B. (2013). Drivers and Dynamics of Fragility in Africa. Africa Economic Brief, 4(5)
- Nelson-Núñez, J. (2019). Women's Work in Fragile States: Evidence from a Firm-Level Dataset in Somaliland. *Social Politics*, 26(3), 419-443
- Noman, A., & Stiglitz, J. (2015). Industrial policy and economic transformation in Africa. New York: Columbia University Press.
- OECD. (2008). State Building in Situations of Fragility. Retrieved July 15, 2022, from <https://www.oecd.org/dac/conflict-fragility-resilience/docs/41212290.pdf>
- OECD. (2020, April 19). States of Fragility 2020. Retrieved April 2022, 19, from OECD iLibrary: <https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/sites/5d27ed4c-en/index.html?itemId=/content/component/5d27ed4c-en>
- OECD. (2020). States of Fragility 2020. Retrieved April 21, 2022, from <https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/sites/ba7c22e7-en/index.html?itemId=/content/publication/ba7c22e7-en#:~:text=The%20OECD%20characterises%20fragility%20as,absorb%20or%20mitigate%20those%20risks>
- QUEK, Y. (2019). Women's Work Amid Fragility and Conflict Key Patterns + Constraints. Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace, and Security
- Rose, D. (2011). 9/11: The Tapping Point. Retrieved July 13, 2022, from <https://www.vanityfair.com/news/2011/09/preventing-9-11-201109>
- ROTBURG, R. I. (2003). Failed States, Collapsed States, Weak States: Causes and Indicators. Retrieved June 2022, 1, from [https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/statefailureandstateweaknessinatimeoferror\\_chapter.pdf](https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/statefailureandstateweaknessinatimeoferror_chapter.pdf)
- Schreiner, M., & Jacob Yaron. (2001). Development Finance Institutions: Measuring Their Subsidy. World Bank Publications - Books, 13983
- Solow, R. M. (1956). A Contribution to the Theory of Economic Growth. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 70(1), 65-94
- Sweet, S., Lane, B., Lewin, D., Sephton, J., & Petini, I. (2006). The Economic and Social Benefits of Mobile Services in Bangladesh. Ovum for GSM Association.
- Velde, D. W. (2011). The role of development finance institutions in tackling global challenges. London: Overseas Development Institute (ODI).

- Wen, Y. (2016). Federal Reserve Bank of St. Louis China's Rapid Rise: From Backward Agrarian Society to Industrial Powerhouse in Just 35 Years. Retrieved June 6, 2022, from <https://www.stlouisfed.org/publications/regional-economist/april-2016/chinas-rapid-rise-from-backward-agrarian-society-to-industrial-powerhouse-in-just-35-years>
- Williams, Jr., R. I., Clark, L. A., Clark, W. R., & Raffo, D. M. (2021). Re-examining systematic literature review in management research: Additional benefits and execution protocols. *European Management Journal*, 39(4), 521-533
- World Bank. (2003). Afghanistan - Emergency Communications Development Project (English). Retrieved July 13, 2022, from <https://documents.worldbank.org/en/publication/documents-reports/documentdetail/391521468740673621/afghanistan-emergency-communications-development-project>
- World Bank. (2016). Doing Business 2016. Retrieved July 7, 2022, from <https://www.doingbusiness.org/content/dam/doingBusiness/media/Annual-Reports/English/DB16-Full-Report.pdf>
- World Bank. (2016). World Bank Development Report. Retrieved July 13, 2022, from <file:///C:/Users/06253/Downloads/9781464806711.pdf>
- World Bank. (2017). Liberia Country Program Evaluation: 2004–2011. Retrieved July 7, 2022, from [https://ieg.worldbankgroup.org/sites/default/files/Data/reports/Liberia\\_cpe.pdf](https://ieg.worldbankgroup.org/sites/default/files/Data/reports/Liberia_cpe.pdf)
- World Bank. (2019). Doing Business 2019 Training for Reform. Washington DC: The World Bank Group