Technology, Law and Finance*

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Abstract

Combining data on credit, construction, and a land reform in Rwanda, this paper shows that the complementarity between technology and law can overcome financial frictions and stimulate investment. Using quasi-experimental variation in 3G internet from two sources, we show that mobile connectivity shifts borrowers from microfinance to banks and improves loan terms without affecting default rates. 3G internet facilitates the distribution of land titles, which are used as a collateral for bank loans and promote construction investment. The availability of collateral accounts for 80% of the effect of mobile internet on collateralized loans and 4% of the building volume growth.

JEL: G21, G23, O33

Keywords: Banks, Credit, High-speed Internet, Mobile, Technological Change

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1 Introduction

The internet has brought lasting changes to contemporary societies, exerting influence on political engagement (Gavazza et al., 2019; Enikolopov et al., 2020; Manacorda and Tesei, 2020; Guriev et al., 2021), employment opportunities (Hjort and Poulsen, 2019; Bircan and De Haas, 2020; Bahia et al., 2023), social media (Braghieri et al., 2022; Fujiwara et al., 2023), and more, as reviewed by Hjort and Tian (2024). At the same time, digitalization has the potential to transform financial markets and institutions by reducing the cost of securing property rights and streamlining the electronic registration and transfer of assets, aligning with seminal works by De Soto (2000), Djankov et al. (2007) and Besley et al. (2012).

The complementarity between technology and law can amplify the impact of property rights reforms and alleviate the classical financial frictions preventing access to finance. In fact, internet has the potential to decrease the cost of participation in these reforms, since the acquisition of information and property-related documentation becomes less expensive. At the same time, technology can foster broader synergies with financial institutions, as they can verify property rights in real time and establish a collateral system, thus enabling individuals to leverage their assets to access credit from banks. Such a transformative process is especially significant in low- and middle-income countries characterized by weak institutional frameworks (La Porta et al., 1998; Besley and Persson, 2011) and severe financial frictions (de Mel et al., 2009; Kaboski and Townsend, 2012; Kaboski, 2024).

This paper offers an empirical contribution to examining this complementarity. We investigate the circumstances under which the combination of technology and property rights expands the range of financial products available to individuals, enhances credit and investment. Initially, we analyze whether the introduction of mobile internet affects the borrowers' choice of financial institutions between microfinance institutions (MFIs) and commercial banks. Subsequently, we delve into the role of collateral in this reallocation process and its effects on construction investment. Our study is centered on Rwanda, which presents an ideal setting due to its extensive administrative data on financial decisions, a reform that introduced a digitally-empowered system of property rights and collateral, along with detailed data on 3G coverage, the primary source of

internet connectivity at the time of the reform.

In addition to studying the rollout of mobile internet across municipalities, our empirical investigation also exploits two distinctive instrumental variables that identify variation in mobile internet independent of local confounding factors. First, the heterogeneous distribution of lightning strikes in Rwanda's municipalities that affects the development of mobile internet infrastructures, as outlined in Manacorda and Tesei (2020). Second, Rwanda's topography, which significantly impacts its telecommunications, as demonstrated by Yanagizawa-Drott (2014), also including the highly uneven availability of 3G technology across the country. In this regard, we use the quantification of "incidental coverage" by Björkegren (2019), which measures mobile signal availability based on idiosyncratic topographic features, such as a municipality's proximity to the electric grid and its location on different sides of a hill's slopes.[1] Importantly, we show that these two sources of internet availability are exogenous to and uncorrelated with income and other predetermined characteristics.

To conduct the empirical tests, we employ extensive administrative data sources from Rwanda. Our primary dataset, obtained from the Credit Reference Bureau, spans from 2008 to 2015 and includes detailed loan-level information from all regulated credit institutions operating within Rwanda. In particular, the registry reports information on all loans granted by *both* commercial banks and MFIs, which is essential for our research and uncommon in most credit registries. This comprehensive dataset includes details on the loan amount, lending rate, collateral status, default, and borrower attributes like location, age, gender, and marital status for each loan. In total, our dataset comprises information on 113,897 distinct individuals across 337 municipalities. Each borrower is uniquely identified by a numerical code, facilitating the tracking of their lending engagements over different time periods and across lenders.

We augment this dataset by incorporating data on 3G mobile internet coverage from the GSM Association, which reports annual 3G coverage across all Rwandan municipalities from 2008 to

[1] A *municipality* refers to the third level administrative subdivision in Rwanda, corresponding to the so-called *sector*. There are 5 provinces in Rwanda that are subdivided into 30 districts. Each district is in turn divided into sectors. Overall, there are 416 sectors.

2015. Notably, the introduction of 3G mobile internet at the country level occurred in 2011, providing a key source of time-series variation in internet connectivity. We also add information on the instrumental variables, which provide a source of cross-sectional variation by municipality. Data on lightning strike frequency is obtained from the Global Hydrology Resource Center, whereas data on incidental coverage are from Björkegren (2019).

The empirical analysis also includes information on a digitally-empowered reform that introduced property rights and a collateral system. The Land Tenure Regularization (LTR) program marked the initiation of a land tenure system, accomplished through the "development and maintenance of the digital registry" and the creation of "digital records for over 10 million land parcels" connected to banks through the mortgage registry (World Bank, 2018, 2020). To analyze the implementation of this reform and its relation to the internet, we collaborate with the Rwanda Land Management and Use Authority, building and examining novel data on the distribution of land certificates, the number of transactions, and the share of mortgaged lands at the municipal level. Finally, to measure the real effects of this reform on construction investment and real estate, we use novel satellite data on building volumes elaborated by Pesaresi and Politis (2023).

Our primary finding is that the arrival of mobile internet in Rwanda affected individuals' financial decision-making and induced a reallocation away from microfinance institutions towards banking, without overall effects on inclusion, echoing the findings of Breza and Kinnan (2021) in India. Our analysis reveals that increased mobile internet availability leads individuals to shift from MFIs to commercial banks, as shown by a 3.4 percentage points increase in the probability of having a loan from a commercial bank and a 3.6 percentage points decrease in the probability of having an MFI loan in response to a one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage. Additionally, a one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage leads to a 1.1 percentage points higher probability that an MFI customer switches to a commercial bank. This transition does not alter overall financial inclusion, defined as the likelihood of individuals receiving a loan from any financial institution.[2]

[2]To understand the heterogeneity behind these effects, we observe that socioeconomic differences between municipalities are central, while individual-specific traits play no discernible role. This underscores the inclusive nature of internet technologies in this context, rejecting evidence of discrimination based on observable characteristics like

Furthermore, this study highlights the stimulating impact of mobile internet on borrowing opportunities and access to banking. Borrowers with access to mobile internet tend to have larger outstanding loan amounts without adverse effects on interest rates and without changes in default rates. For switchers from MFIs to commercial banks, especially those in the upper tail of the interest rate distribution, we observe a significant reduction in the lending rate and without changes in default also in this case. The stable default rates, despite increased loan volumes, suggest that the availability of collateral is a critical factor restricting financial access. Although these borrowers were creditworthy due to their land ownership and cash flows, they lacked formal proof of ownership for banks, forcing them to borrow from MFIs.

After verifying these steps, we investigate one important mechanism driving this change: mobile internet facilitates the acquisition of land titles, which enhances access to collateral, bank loans, and promotes construction investment. Our first finding shows that land reform is implemented more quickly and effectively in municipalities with greater mobile coverage. A one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage raises the likelihood of over 50% of land titles being disbursed in the first year by 16 percentage points and boosts the total number of transactions by 14%.

Additionally, land is more frequently used to access the financial system: a one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage results in a 1.7 percentage point rise in the share of mortgaged lands at the municipality. This is reflected in credit bureau data, which shows that a one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage raises the probability of a collateralized bank loan or mortgage by 0.6 and 0.8 percentage points. Finally, using a municipality panel with satellite data on local building volumes, we find that a one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage leads to an 8.3 percentage point increase in local building growth.

In order to quantify the effect of this study, we decompose the role of collateral as a mediator of the effect of mobile internet on banking and investment. Following the work of Doerr et al. (2022), we employ a Sobel-Goodman (SG) test and assess the mediation effect of land titles on the impact of 3G coverage on the probability of receiving a bank loan. The findings reveal that

gender, marital status, and age.

approximately 35% of the effect of mobile internet on the probability of receiving a bank loan is indirect and facilitated by our proxy of land certificates' availability, whereas the remaining 65% is directly attributed to mobile internet.[3] To further explore construction investment, we estimate the impact of internet access on the likelihood of receiving a collateralized loan and on building volume growth. Our findings reveal that 80% of the internet's effect on collateralized loans and 4% of its effect on building volume growth are mediated by land titles. While the latter figure may seem modest, it is important to note that collateralized loans and mortgages represented only 2% of total lending in Rwanda. As a result, the elasticity of building volume growth to collateralized loans exceed the unit and is sizeable.

Our findings are robust to a wide range of tests, changes in the sample, and model specification. We replicate our analysis at a more aggregated bank-municipality-year level and find that the results remain unaffected. Then, we test different definitions of the dependent variables, the main predictors, and the instrumental variables. Results are valid when we replace the main instrumental variables (lightning strikes and incidental coverage) with pre-determined physical characteristics that are inputs into these variables: the altitude of a municipality and the coverage of wood, water and sand. This delivers similar estimates, with a higher precision and a first stage F-statistic exceeding 100. At the same time, reduced-form estimates for both IV strategies show results in line with our main specifications. The findings are also robust to the inclusion of control variables, aiming to control for municipality time trends, and to the confounding effects of reforms other than the expansion of the 3G, such as the introduction of the Umurenge Savings and Credit Cooperatives (U-SACCOs) and the rolling out of the fiber, which happened in the period covered in our analysis. Finally, our results on the mediation role of land collateral are robust to a falsification test focusing on the availability of the fiber-optic technology and the implementation of a sequential g-estimation procedure that produces comparable quantifications (Acharya et al., 2016).

[3] The "direct effect" of mobile internet is a residual effect and catches many potential channels through which the internet may make individuals seek bank credit: better job opportunities (Hjort and Poulsen, 2019; Caldarola et al., 2023), higher income (Bahia et al., 2023; Calderone et al., 2018), and lower information frictions (Gupta et al., 2023).

This paper contributes to the literature on property rights and legal systems by showing how technology can interact with law to facilitate the acquisition and utilization of property rights for accessing financial markets. A seminal work by La Porta et al. (1998) studies property rights' legal rules and enforcement, and its impact on stock market participation. Similarly Djankov et al. (2007) emphasize property rights and the collateral's pivotal role in credit market development. Another seminal contribution by Besley et al. (2012) finds that moral hazard matters for the welfare effects of improved property rights and collateral systems. Our research is especially close to a recent paper by Djankov et al. (2022), who analyse comprehensive data on titling and urban development for multiple countries. They observe that novel information technologies drive an improvement in property right protection through a reduction in time and cost. Our paper resonates with this study and identifies the role of technology in promoting both forms of rights through a major decline in their cost of acquisition and enforcement.

The paper also connects with the literature on land titles and how technology interacts with these reforms (Besley and Ghatak, 2010; Besley et al., 2012; Manysheva, 2021). Two recent papers also offers interesting insights related to our work. Montero (2022) studies a land reform in El Salvador showing that cooperative property rights affect specialization, productivity, and worker equity. Acampora et al. (2022) provide a random subsidy to incentive owners to rent out land, which generates long-term effects since the land rental market remains active upon the subsidy expiration. Our work resonates with the findings that lands may be inefficiently allocated and reforms can spur investment and productivity. A strand of this literature directly studies the effects on credit availability. Ali et al. (2017) look at the land tenure regularization program in Rwanda and suggest that it could expand access to finance. Deininger and Goyal (2012) consider a land registry computerization in an Indian state to argue that this reform increased credit supply by facilitating third party access to registry information and reducing banks' cost of extending credit. We contribute by studying with granular administrative data how the complementarity between internet technologies and a land reform alleviate financial frictions and allow the transition from microfinance to commercial banks. In this respect, this paper aligns with the broader literature on the relevance of collateral for accessing bank credit, as highlighted by recent work of Ioannidou

et al. (2022), the importance of technology in mortgage lending (Fuster et al., 2019), and the expanding role of household finance in emerging markets, as reviewed by Badarinza et al. (2019).

Finally, our research contributes to the literature emphasizing the role of new internet technologies in information access and dissemination. Internet technologies, notably mobile internet, impact various societal aspects, from political perceptions (Guriev et al., 2021) to social organizations, protests (Manacorda and Tesei, 2020), and financial outcomes (Gao and Huang, 2020; Hvide et al., 2022). We highlight the indirect impact of mobile internet on information spread in linked markets, aligning with cross-market spillover effects discussed by Bos et al. (2018). In this respect, our paper adds to a growing literature documenting the impact of new IT technologies on banking (Core and De Marco, 2021; Kwan et al., 2024; Mazet-Sonilhac, 2021; Lin et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2022; Pierri and Timmer, 2022; D'Andrea et al., 2023; D'Andrea and Limodio, 2024).

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 discusses the institutional setting in Rwanda. Section 3 outlines the data and key empirical specifications. Section 4 examines the results related to credit and the transition to banks, while Section 5 explores the mechanisms underlying our findings and the interplay between technology and law. Section 6 provides various robustness checks, and Section 7 concludes.

2 Institutional Setting

2.1 Credit Market in Rwanda

Historically, Rwanda's credit market faced numerous challenges, including limited access to financing, lack of financial infrastructure, and inadequate regulatory frameworks. The formal banking sector, consisting of commercial banks and other financial institutions, was primarily concentrated in urban areas, leaving a significant portion of the population (about three quarters of the population is rural based), particularly those engaged in agricultural and informal sectors, with limited access to formal credit channels.

To address the financial needs of underserved populations, microfinance institutions emerged as key players in the credit market. MFIs provided small loans, savings accounts, and other

financial services to individuals, primarily in rural and peri-urban areas. These institutions played a role in promoting financial inclusion, especially for micro and small-scale entrepreneurs who lacked access to traditional banking services. By leveraging group lending methodologies and maintaining close relationships with borrowers, MFIs helped fill the gap left by formal banks and stimulated economic activity at the grassroots level.

In recent years, Rwanda has made significant strides in strengthening its credit market, fostering financial sector development, and enhancing access to credit for both individuals and businesses. Financial inclusion increased from 48% to 93% between 2008 and 2020, and the share of adult population using services and products from commercial banks increased from 14 to 36% over the same period (Access to Finance Rwanda, 2020). These changes have been driven by a combination of factors, including economic development, policy reforms, and technological advancements.

Formal banks have sensibly expanded their reach. With improved regulatory frameworks and technological advancements, formal banks have been able to extend their services to previously underserved areas. Nowadays, they offer a wide range of financial products and services, including loans, savings accounts, and digital banking solutions, and play a central role in facilitating investments, supporting businesses, and promoting economic growth.

Parallel to the expansion of formal banking, there has been a shift away from microfinance institutions as the primary source of credit for individuals and small businesses. While microfinance played an important role in providing financial services to the unbanked population, the growth of formal banking has gradually reduced the reliance on microcredit. This shift can be attributed to several factors, such as increased awareness and confidence in formal banking systems, improved regulatory frameworks, and the availability of alternative credit options.

In this paper, we show that technological advancements have contributed to facilitating the expansion of formal banking and the transformation of the credit market in Rwanda. In particular, the widespread adoption of mobile internet has made banking products more accessible, convenient, and cost-effective.

2.2 Mobile Internet

In the last two decades, Rwanda has made significant strides in improving its information and communication technology (ICT) connectivity. Following the devastating civil conflict from 1990 to 1994, the country recognized the potential of ICTs as catalysts for economic development and growth. In line with this vision, the "Vision 2020" program was launched in 2000, aiming to transform Rwanda into a middle-income knowledge economy by 2020. In the government development program Vision 2020, ICT was identified as one of the key drivers for achieving growth and development (Republic of Rwanda, 2012).

The government has taken various steps to establish a foundation for high-speed connections. Initially, the focus was on attracting private-sector investments through the introduction of enabling laws and the establishment of a regulatory authority for the ICT sector. Subsequently, the country privatized its incumbent telecommunications operator and fostered wireless competition, thereby encouraging additional private-sector investments. Concurrently, the government ensured that new technologies were accessible nationwide, not limited to commercially lucrative areas. Finally, the transparent and dedicated public administration played a crucial role in promoting ICT adoption and building trust between businesses and the government (UN-OHRLLS, 2017).

Mobile technology has become pervasive in Rwanda. In 2015, the country ranked third in Africa in terms of the percentage of the population covered by 3G, following South Africa and Lesotho (GSMA, 2015). The Rwanda Utilities Regulatory Authority (RURA) reported 3.8 million mobile internet subscriptions among a population of almost 11.5 million, surpassing the average for the continent and least developed countries. The impressive diffusion of mobile technology can be attributed to several factors, with affordability being a key driver. Rwanda boasts the cheapest price per gigabyte of data in East Africa when considered as a percentage of per capita income. Consequently, it is often regarded as a positive example for low- and middle-income countries transitioning to a modern economy. The country serves as a benchmark for broadband installation, penetration, and successful implementation of ICT investments.

By leveraging these advancements in mobile technology and ICT infrastructure, Rwanda has laid the groundwork for exploring the impact of mobile internet on access to credit. The widespread

availability and affordability of mobile internet have opened new avenues for financial inclusion and the development of the banking sector. In the following sections, we delve into the specific effects of mobile internet on banking, highlighting its role in promoting traditional banking and facilitating the transition from microfinance.

2.3 The Land Tenure Regularization Program

In the aftermath of the civil conflict, the large-scale migration of returnees had a dramatic impact on land ownership, escalating tensions and land conflicts, making land reform a crucial condition to ensure social stability and improve land use management and investments. With this background, in 2009 the government of Rwanda launched the Land Tenure Regularization program, a reform aimed to regulate the ownership and control of the lands, enhance land utilization, and promote its efficient management (Abbott and Mugisha, 2015).

In order to successfully complete such a large-scale initiative, the National Land Authority of Rwanda experienced a significant expansion of its activity, collecting and centralizing a massive amount of data on parcels. After allowing for a period of corrections and addressing objections, with a large-scale mobilization of citizens involving approximately 110,000 people, the data was digitized to facilitate the issuance of land titles. By the year 2012, the database had accumulated information on an impressive 10.4 million land parcels.

The LTR program introduced a land tenure system based on the digital registry (World Bank, 2020). This registry played a pivotal role in favoring access to formal credit since land titles could be used as collateral for loans and thus facilitated access to credit for the landowner (Besley and Ghatak, 2010; Acampora et al., 2022; Manysheva, 2021). In line with this argument, in 2013 all financial institutions in Rwanda were connected to the digital registry, which made it easier the tracking and verification of land ownership.

The execution of the land reform highly benefited from the expansion of mobile internet, with digital advertising playing a prominent role. Recognizing the ubiquity of mobile phones as one of the most diffused modes of communication in the country, the National Land Authority initiated an extensive online advertising campaign, further strengthened by the introduction of its Twitter

account in March 2011 (Schreiber, 2017). Mobile internet was used in two ways to promote the program and provide timely updates on its progress: directly, being a network where people could search for information and gain knowledge about the land certificates; and indirectly, as a channel through which people could learn about other sources of information such as radio broadcasts, TV programs and local public meetings.

In this paper, we leverage both the role played by mobile internet in promoting land reform and the availability of the digital registry, and show that part of the effect of mobile internet on banking is channeled through a digitally-empowered land collateral. The latter reduces information frictions between borrowers and commercial banks and allows individuals to move away from microfinance institutions towards formal banking.

3 Data and Empirical Strategy

3.1 Data

Our study uses comprehensive loan-level data obtained from the Credit Reference Bureau (CRB), a private credit bureau regulated by the National Bank of Rwanda (NBR). The dataset encompasses loans provided by all supervised credit institutions in Rwanda, including commercial banks, microfinance institutions, and savings and credit co-operatives (SACCOs), which are government-backed financial institutions aimed at enhancing financial inclusion for Rwandan citizens. The loan-level information is reported on a monthly basis, from January 2008 to December 2015, with no minimum loan size requirement. The credit registry data, that we aggregate at the yearly level, offers a highly representative view of the total banking sector loans.

In our baseline analysis, we focus on loans granted to individuals. For each loan, we have access to information such as the loan amount and price, borrower's location (down to the municipality level), and borrower characteristics like age, gender, and marital status. After cleaning the data, we compile a comprehensive dataset that captures the local currency lending activities of banks

and MFIs for 113,897 unique individuals across 337 municipalities.[4] Borrowers are identified with a unique numerical code that allows us to track their lending activity over time and across lenders.

To examine the impact of mobile internet on commercial banking, we incorporate data on mobile phone coverage from the GSM Association (GSMA), a global trade association representing the interests of the mobile phone industry. The data, obtained through a partnership with Collins Bartholomew[5], provide yearly geolocated information on mobile coverage in Rwanda from 2008 to 2015.[6] The dataset distinguishes between the availability of 2G, 3G, and 4G technologies, with 3G coverage accounting for most of the variation over the sample period. Our data allow us to measure the penetration of 3G at a very disaggregated geographical level, ranging between 1 km^2 on the ground (for high-quality submissions based on a geographic information system (GIS) vector format) to 15-23 km^2 (for submissions based on the location of antennas and their corresponding radius of coverage) (GSMA, 2015). For the purpose of our analysis, we map the adoption of mobile internet at the municipality-year level. Figure 1 presents a visual representation of the coverage of 3G in Rwanda.

To address endogeneity concerns and establish a causal relationship between the 3G technology and access to credit, we construct two instrumental variables (IVs) using external datasets. The first IV is based on the frequency of lightning strikes, which we obtain from the Global Hydrology Resource Center (GHRC) in Huntsville, Alabama. Data on lightning strikes are collected through the spaceborne Optical Transient Detector (OTD) on Orbview-1, and the Lighting Imaging Sensor (LIS) onboard the Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) satellite, respectively. The LIS detection efficiency ranges from 88% during the night, to 69% at noon. The OTD has an efficiency of 52% during the night and 37% at noon. All the data are top-coded and released in the LIS/OTD

[4] It is worth noting that the total number of municipalities in Rwanda is 416, and the missing municipalities in our sample are a result of the inability to differentiate between municipalities with the same name but in different districts within the credit bureau data. Additionally, we exclude observations where borrowers have missing age information to ensure the accuracy of the analysis and avoid including borrowers who may be under the age of 16 in our balanced panel analysis.

[5] Collins Bartholomew is a digital mapping provider.

[6] The GSM network is the dominant standard in Africa and covers around 96% of the market share. These data come from submissions made directly by mobile operators for the purposes of constructing roaming coverage maps for end users.

Gridded Lightning Climatology Data Collection. For each grid cell, time and lightning are summed and scaled for the sensor precision's rate providing as outcome daily, monthly, seasonal, or yearly data. We follow the methodology in Manacorda and Tesei (2020) and improve in precision, using a grid resolution of 0.1 instead of 0.5. The left panel of Figure 2 illustrates the map of average lightning frequency by municipality, this time-invariant measure represents the first IV for mobile internet coverage.

The second IV is incidental coverage, and captures the variation in mobile internet based on the combination of geographical attributes with the preexisting electric grid. Rwanda's topography, characterized by hilly terrain, influences the cost of providing mobile internet to nearby villages. To account for this, we compute a measure of fictitious coverage that would have resulted if mobile operators had built towers along the entire network of power lines. This variable is constructed following the work by Björkegren (2019), and allows us to capture idiosyncratic variation based on the interaction between geography features and the electric grid.[7] The right panel of Figure 2 plots the map of average incidental coverage by municipality, which represents the second IV for mobile internet coverage.

To understand the underlying mechanisms behind our findings, we incorporate additional data from the Rwanda Land Management and Use Authority's land dashboard, which provides information on land certificates, transactions, and mortgaged lands, that we use to study the spillover effects of mobile internet. While data on land titles are available at the district level, we obtain proprietary data at the municipality level from the authority to further analyze the relationship between land collateral and bank credit access. We integrate this dataset with data on building volumes from the Global Human Settlement Layer project (GHSL). This contains global spatial information describing the human presence on Earth, relying on the design and implementation of spatial data processing technologies that allow automatic data analytics and information extraction from large amounts of heterogeneous geospatial data including global, fine-scale satellite image data streams, census data, and crowd sourced or volunteered geographic information sources. In

[7] Data on incidental coverage have been kindly provided by Daniel Bjorkegren.

particular, we employ the GHS-BUILT-V database with data on building volumes constructed by Pesaresi and Politis (2023), which is based on the joint study satellite data from Sentinel-2, Landsat, and global DEM data and is available every five years. We then use these additional data to assess the relationship between mobile internet and local construction growth, exploring whether the former plays a role in promoting real estate markets.

Lastly, we gather municipality-level data from the National Institute of Statistics (NISR) and the Integrated Household Living Conditions Survey (EICV). These data capture various indicators related to local economic and financial activities, focusing on the period prior to the introduction of the 3G mobile technology (before 2011). By incorporating these municipality-level controls, we aim to reinforce the robustness and comprehensiveness of our empirical analysis.

Table 1 presents summary statistics of the main variables used in our empirical analysis. Panel A examines access to credit, specifically the probability of having an outstanding loan, and separately having a loan with a commercial bank or a microfinance institution, and identifies the switching borrowers. Panel B provides yearly average characteristics of the bank credit relationship: outstanding amount, interest rate, the probability that the loan is secured and the share of loans that are past due, hence in a state of default. Panel C reports data on land titles and building volumes. Finally, panels D and E present summary statistics for the main predictor, 3G mobile coverage, and its instrumental variables, including lightning frequency and incidental coverage.

3.2 Identification

A concern with the estimates of a model in which we regress credit features on mobile internet is that new technologies are unlikely to be randomly allocated across areas, potentially generating a bias in the estimates of model parameters. In order to deal with this concern, we use an IV strategy that exploits exogenous differential rates of 3G adoption across Rwandan municipalities.

The first instrument is lightning frequency, which leverages the negative correlation between frequent lightning strikes and mobile connectivity. During storms, frequent electrostatic discharges can disrupt the signal transmitted by ground-based antennas, thereby reducing both the supply

and demand for mobile phone services. This, in turn, hampers the profitability of technology investments and discourages the adoption of mobile services (ITU, 2003). Therefore, areas with a higher incidence of lightning strikes are expected to exhibit slower adoption of mobile technologies compared to areas with lower lightning frequency (Manacorda and Tesei, 2020). Figure 3, left panel, provides initial evidence supporting this hypothesis in the context of Rwanda. We observe that municipalities below and above the median of lightning strikes had zero 3G coverage before the introduction of the technology in 2011, after which their trends diverge in a monotonic manner.

The second instrument is incidental coverage, and builds on the heterogeneity in the cost of providing mobile internet to different areas based on their proximity to the existing electric grid and the topography of their land. Operating mobile towers connected to the electric grid is more cost-effective than establishing standalone towers. Hence, a tower's transmitter has a higher probability of being constructed close to the existing grid. However, only places that are visible from a height of 35 meters above the tower are likely to receive mobile coverage, and that depends on the topography of the area. Exploiting this heterogeneity in the interaction between the presence of the electric grid and land characteristics, we create a measure of incidental coverage. We anticipate that areas with higher incidental coverage exhibit higher 3G rates. Figure 3, right panel, supports this expectation, as municipalities below and above the median of incidental coverage had zero 3G internet before 2011, after which their trends diverge in a monotonic manner.

To further support our preliminary evidence, we present a balance table in Table A1 in the appendix. This table compares the mean values of geographical and socioeconomic indicators, before the introduction of 3G in 2011, for municipalities in different quartiles of the distribution of lightning strikes and incidental coverage. This analysis allows us to explore the potential correlation between our instruments and the predetermined characteristics of the municipalities. Regarding lightning strikes, the results are particularly reassuring. In each of the examined quartiles, the two groups of municipalities exhibit similar socioeconomic indicators, suggesting comparability in terms of pre-existing characteristics. While there are slight differences in some geographical characteristics, these variations are not substantial and are difficult to link with a change in the trend in access to credit unrelated to the introduction of the 3G. As for incidental coverage, the results

are similar. Apart from some correlations with socioeconomic indicators around the median, there are no significant differences throughout the distribution. Although the absolute differences in mean values around the median are small, we further control for these correlations to ensure that our results are not biased, as discussed in the robustness section.

Overall, the analyses in Figure 3 and Table A1 support the validity of our instruments by demonstrating that the two groups of municipalities, divided based on lightning strikes frequency and incidental coverage, show different trends after the introduction of the 3G while they are largely comparable in terms of pre-existing geographical and socioeconomic characteristics.

Importantly, we define our IVs as the interaction between lightning strikes and incidental coverage with a dummy post-2010. This definition further mitigates potential bias arising from the non-random allocation of mobile internet across different municipalities, and helps us identify the causal effect of mobile internet on banking.

3.3 Empirical Methodology

To examine the effects of mobile internet on access to credit, the probability of switching to banking, and bank loan characteristics, we employ a balanced panel dataset at the borrower-year level.[8] Our baseline model is the following:

$$Y_{imt} = v + \beta_1 3G\ Coverage_{mt} + \alpha_i + \phi_t + \varepsilon_{imt} \tag{1}$$

where i denotes the borrower, m her municipality, and t the year. The dependent variable Y_{imt} differs depending on the specification. In the main one, which focuses on access to credit, Y_{imt} is a binary variable that takes the value of 1 if an individual i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with any financial institution, or separately with a commercial bank or a MFI, at time t, and 0 otherwise. When examining the transition to banks or MFIs, Y_{imt} is a binary variable that equals 1 when individual i, in municipality m, switches to the banking sector (or the MFI

[8] When examining the effect on bank loan characteristics, the methodology is similar but we use an unbalanced panel dataset based on outstanding relationships.

sector) at time t or before, and 0 otherwise. When focusing on loan characteristics, Y_{imt} is a continuous variable that represents the amount of the outstanding loan, the default rate or the associated interest rate. The key independent variable of interest is $3G\ Coverage_{mt}$, which is the standardized measure of the percentage of mobile internet coverage in municipality m, at time t. We control for borrower fixed effects (α_i) to account for unobserved time-invariant characteristics of borrowers that may be correlated with the dependent variable. Additionally, we include time-fixed effects (ϕ_t) to capture common time-varying shocks affecting all borrowers simultaneously, such as changes in economic conditions. We estimate Equation (1) using a linear probability model (LPM) and compute robust standard errors clustered at the municipality level to address potential heteroskedasticity and correlated errors within the same municipality.[9]

By estimating this model, we examine the relationship between 3G internet coverage and access to credit, switching behavior, and loan characteristics while controlling for individual and time-specific factors.[10]

To address endogeneity concerns, we employ a two-stage least squares (2SLS) methodology. The first stage, outlined earlier, exploits the relationships between mobile internet coverage and the two instruments: lightning frequency and incidental coverage. The 2SLS equations are as follows:

$$3G\ Coverage_{mt} = q + \delta_1 Z_{mt}^{light} + \delta_2 Z_{mt}^{incid} + \theta_i + \xi_t + \epsilon_{imt} \tag{2}$$

$$Y_{imt} = v + \beta_1 3G\ \widehat{Coverage}_{mt} + \alpha_i + \phi_t + \varepsilon_{imt} \tag{3}$$

where $3G\ Coverage_{mt}$ is instrumented by Z_{mt}^{light} and Z_{mt}^{incid}. The first instrument (Z_{mt}^{light}) is the interaction between the time-invariant average of lightning strikes Z_m^{light} and a dummy variable post-2010, which takes a value of 1 after 2010. This accounts for the fact that before 2011, 3G internet was not available in Rwanda.[11] The second instrument (Z_{mt}^{incid}) is the interaction between

[9] The choice of the LPM allows to interpret the estimates consistently with the Local Average Treatment Effect (LATE) interpretation (Imbens and Angrist, 1994) and removes the incidental parameters problem, that would be particularly relevant for maximum likelihood estimators in our setting.

[10] The analysis of bank loan characteristics, which focuses on the intensive margin of the credit relationship, uses a specification at the borrower-bank-year level. This allows to include bank-time fixed effects, which further controls for time-varying demand side factors.

[11] The 3G technology was officially introduced in 2010. However, during the first year, less than 8% of the

the time-invariant average of incidental coverage Z_m^{incid} and the dummy variable post-2010.[12] The other variables are defined as in Equation (1).

Equation (3) represents the second stage, where the dependent variable (Y_{imt}) is regressed on the predicted values of $3G\ Coverage_{mt}$ (denoted as $3G\ \widehat{Coverage}_{mt}$) obtained from the first stage, along with borrower fixed effects (α_i), time fixed effects (ϕ_t), and the error term (ε_{imt}).

The identification assumption underlying our model is that any correlation between lightning strikes and incidental coverage with municipality characteristics remained unchanged at the time of the introduction of the 3G technology. Indeed, we identify the effect of the change in the impact of lightning strikes and incidental coverage on the outcomes of interest, assuming that any changes in this impact occurred solely due to the update in mobile internet technology.

Table 2 presents the first-stage estimates as specified in Equation (2). Columns 1 to 3 correspond to the sample of Rwandan municipalities, with one observation for each municipality-year. Column 1 uses lightning strikes as the sole instrument for 3G coverage. Column 2 employs incidental coverage as instrument. Column 3 includes both instruments simultaneously. Columns 4 to 6 reconsider the sample of all borrowers included in the credit registry. The coefficients for lightning strikes are negative and statistically significant, while the coefficients for incidental coverage are positive and statistically significant, aligning with our hypothesis. Furthermore, the F-statistics are generally high, surpassing typical threshold values, indicating instrument relevance.

4 Results on Credit and Transition to Banks

This section outlines the main findings of our study, emphasizing the impact of mobile internet on access to bank credit, the transition of borrowers from microfinance to formal banking, and bank loan characteristics. Additionally, we present evidence on the mechanisms behind our findings, showing the complementarity between technology and law in creating a collateral system. Finally, we perform robustness checks to validate the reliability of our results. To estimate these effects,

country was connected.

[12] In the robustness section we also adopt for an alternative version of the two instruments, in which Z_m^{light} and Z_m^{incid} are interacted with a linear time trend t.

we follow the empirical methodology outlined in Section 3.

4.1 Access to Bank Credit

We investigate the impact of mobile internet on borrowers' access to the bank credit by constructing a balanced panel dataset covering the period from 2008 to 2015.[13] For each borrower-year pair, we identify whether the borrower has an outstanding loan with any financial institution, and separately, whether the loan is obtained from a commercial bank or a microfinance institution. We define three dummy variables: $Probability\ (Any\ Loan)_{imt}$, indicating whether borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan in year t; $Probability\ (Bank\ Loan)_{imt}$, indicating whether the loan is from a bank; and $Probability\ (MFI\ Loan)_{imt}$, indicating whether the loan is from a MFI. We use these as the dependent variables in the baseline OLS regression of Equation (1).

The results, shown in Table 3, suggest a mild positive relationship between mobile internet and the probability of getting a loan, although the coefficient is statistically indistinguishable from zero. When we decompose the results between loans granted by commercial banks and microfinance institutions, we observe considerably different patterns. Column 2 of Table 3, which refers to $Probability\ (Bank\ Loan)_{imt}$, shows a positive and statistically significant coefficient, indicating that higher 3G coverage in the municipality is associated with a higher probability of obtaining a loan from a commercial bank. On the other hand, column 3, which refers to $Probability\ (MFI\ Loan)_{imt}$, shows a negative and statistically significant coefficient, suggesting that mobile internet is negatively associated with the likelihood of accessing loans from MFIs.

To address endogeneity concerns and claim for causality, we replicate our analysis using the 2SLS methodology in equation (3). The results, reported in columns 4 to 6 of Table 3, confirm those from the OLS regressions. The effect of mobile internet on the probability of getting a loan remains statistically indistinguishable from zero. However, when examining the decomposition, we find a significant positive effect on the probability of obtaining a loan from a commercial bank and a significant negative effect on the probability of obtaining a loan from a microfinance institution.

[13] More precisely, the panel is "almost" balanced, since we remove observations for which borrowers are younger than 16 years old.

The coefficients indicate that a one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage is associated with a 3.4 percentage point increase in the probability of having a loan from a bank (column 5) and a 3.6 percentage point decrease in the probability of having a loan from a MFI (column 6).[14] These results imply that the impact of mobile internet on access to credit is heterogeneous: it positively affects access to formal banking, while negatively affecting access to microfinance.

Our findings corroborate the idea that mobile internet is an important channel which contributes to financial graduation and the move towards commercial banks. On the extensive margin, potential borrowers endowed with the new internet technology prefer commercial banks to MFIs. On the intensive margin, incumbent borrowers transition to formal banking. This reallocation story is further supported by direct evidence presented in Section 4.2.

In low- and middle-income countries, including those in Africa, efforts to establish a developed financial system that promotes long-term credit and economic growth have often fallen short. Numerous regional and national policies have been implemented over the past four decades to facilitate this development but with limited success. The fact that new technologies, such as mobile internet, facilitate the transition from an informal microcredit system to a formal and well-structured banking system is a powerful result. Previous studies have shown the importance of microfinance as a first stage for borrowers, who then seek banking credit (Banerjee et al., 2015). Other studies have highlighted the transformative role of credit bureaus in underdeveloped countries, enabling borrowers to build credit history and become transparent to banks (Pagano and Jappelli, 1993; Padilla and Pagano, 1997). Some research has even demonstrated the complementary actions between microfinance and credit bureaus (De Janvry et al., 2010). What this paper adds to the literature is the identification of another potential factor, internet technologies, which smooths the transition from an informal microcredit sector to a formal and well-developed banking sector.

[14] The p-values of the Hansen J-statistic associated with the specifications in columns 5 and 6 are 0.39 and 0.94, respectively. This indicates that the overidentifying restrictions on the instruments are not rejected, providing further support for the instrument validity.

4.2 Direct Evidence on the Transition to Banks

We examine the transition of borrowers from microfinance institutions to commercial banks, by introducing in our setting a dependent variable ($Probability\ (of\ Switching)_{imt}$), which measures the probability that a borrower, with her initial credit account in a MFI (bank), switching to a bank (MFI) at a later stage.

The analysis proceeds as follows. We identify four types of borrowers: 1) those who only have relationships with banks throughout the period analyzed, 2) those who only have relationships with MFIs, 3) those who initially have a relationship with a MFI and later switch to the banking sector, and 4) those who initially have a relationship with a bank and later access a MFI. The sample is then divided into two groups: "First MFI" consisting of borrowers whose initial relationship was with a MFI; and "First bank" consisting of borrowers whose initial relationship was with a commercial bank. Separately for each group, we estimate OLS and 2SLS regressions with $Probability\ (of\ Switching)_{imt}$ as the dependent variable, using equations (1) and (3).

The results are presented in Table 4. Columns 1 and 2 focus on the probability of switching to banks for borrowers whose initial relationship was with a MFI, using OLS and 2SLS respectively. Estimates from column 2 indicate that a one standard deviation increase in 3G mobile coverage is associated with a 1.1 percentage point increase in the probability of switching to banks. Columns 3 and 4 focus on the probability of switching to MFIs for borrowers who started with a banking relationship. Contrary to the previous findings, estimates from column 4 show that a one standard deviation increase in 3G mobile coverage is associated with a 1.1 percentage point decrease in the probability of switching to MFIs.

These results are consistent with those in Section 4.1 and provide direct evidence of the positive effect of mobile internet on the intensive margin of the transition from microfinance to formal banking. When endowed with mobile internet, incumbent MFI borrowers relatively increase their probability of moving to commercial banks.

Given the focus of the paper on the banking sector, all subsequent analyses are dedicated to examining the impact of mobile internet on banks and bank loans.

4.3 Heterogeneity in Access to Bank Credit

We investigate whether the effect of mobile internet on accessing a commercial bank loan is heterogeneous along different dimensions. We modify the baseline specifications in Equations (1) and (3) considering time, socio-economic, and borrower-specific factors that may influence the relationship between our main predictor and access to bank loans. We rely on a dynamic specification to account for time heterogeneity, while we use splitting samples techniques to highlight potential differences coming from socio-economic and borrower-specific attributes. Our results provide insights into which groups benefit the most from the availability of mobile internet and how different factors shape this relationship.

We use an event study to investigate the dynamics of the effect. By focusing on the year of the introduction of 3G in each municipality, we observe the evolution over time of the effect of mobile internet by estimating the following model:

$$Y_{imt} = \nu + \sum_{k=-6}^{4} \beta_K I\{K_{mt} = k\} + \alpha_i + \phi_t + \varepsilon_{imt} \tag{4}$$

where K indicates the relative year from the introduction of the 3G ($K_{mt} = t - year\ 3G_m$), β_k are the coefficients associated with each (relative) year, and the other variables are defined as in equation (1). We set the year before the arrival of the 3G as the omitted category.

Figure A1 shows the event study associated with the OLS regression. The graph demonstrates the lagged nature of the effect, indicating that the impact of mobile internet on bank loans takes time to materialize. The effect becomes significant after two years following the introduction of 3G and it is notable in magnitude. Importantly, the analysis allows us to highlight the absence of pre-trends, suggesting that there were no systematic differences in bank loan access trends between municipalities with and without 3G prior to its introduction, reinforcing the validity of our identification strategy. Overall, the event-study analysis provides compelling evidence of the lagged and significant effect of mobile internet on accessing a commercial bank loan.

In order to examine other forms of heterogeneity, we conduct additional tests based on the socio-economic characteristics of the municipalities in our sample. First, we split the sample into

rural and urban municipalities based on the share of the urban population. Second, we divide the municipalities into poorer and wealthier using data from Household Surveys (EICV). Finally, we distinguish municipalities with a physical bank branch from those without one. The results of these tests are presented in Table 5, panel A.[15] We observe that the effect of 3G coverage appears to be larger in urban and wealthier areas, and where a physical bank branch is present. Although none of these differences are statistically significant, our findings suggest that the effect of mobile internet on accessing a commercial bank loan may be more pronounced in more developed regions, being negligible in extremely rural and the poorest areas of the country. Overall, these results highlight the importance of considering local economic conditions when analyzing the effects of internet technologies on banking.

To further investigate the potential heterogeneous effects of mobile internet, we leverage the individual characteristics of the borrowers in our sample. We divide the sample based on the gender, marital status (single versus married), and age (young versus adult) of the borrower. The results of these tests are summarized in Table 5, panel B. We find that the effect of 3G coverage on the probability of obtaining a loan from a commercial bank is homogeneous across different borrower characteristics. Although there may be slight variations in the magnitudes, these differences are not statistically significant. Whether borrowers are female or male, single or married, young or adult, the effect on their likelihood of obtaining a loan from a commercial bank remains relatively similar. This uniform effect implies that the adoption of mobile internet has broad positive implications, regardless of individual borrower characteristics.

The latter has important implications for policymakers, which may create an enabling environment for individuals to access and utilize formal banking services by promoting the development of mobile infrastructure and improving internet connectivity.

[15] A municipality is defined to be rural if the share of urban population is equal to zero. A municipality is poor if it is above the median of the poverty index.

4.4 Bank Loan Characteristics

By investigating the relationship between 3G coverage and loan characteristics, our analysis aims to shed light on how the availability of mobile internet influences the nature and extent of bank lending activities. We exploit the granularity of our data and present results at the individual borrower-bank-year level, focusing on borrowers who have accessed bank loans. In this way, we examine the impact of mobile internet along the intensive margin of the credit relationship.[16]

Our primary findings are presented in Table 6, columns 1 and 2 and show that a one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage is associated with an increase in outstanding loan amount by 6.5%, which indicates that borrowers who have access to 3G tend to have larger outstanding loan balances. At the same time, we find no evidence of an effect on interest rates, i.e. borrowers with access to mobile internet show larger outstanding loan amounts without experiencing adverse effects on loan prices. These findings point to the beneficial role of mobile internet in enhancing borrowing opportunities and loan terms for individuals accessing commercial bank loans, and are corroborated by aggregate-level results in Table B1 in the appendix. Furthermore, we find no effects on the probability that the loan is in past due. This suggests that the effect on bank lending is on top of credit quality and has to do with mobile internet reducing financial frictions.

As a second step, we focus on borrowers who initially have a loan with a MFI, exploring the heterogeneous effect of mobile internet on loan conditions for those who switched to a commercial bank.[17] The model estimated is the following:

$$Y_{imt} = v + \beta_1 3G\ \widehat{Coverage}_{mt} + \beta_2 3G\ \widehat{Coverage}_{mt} \times Switcher_i + \alpha_i + \phi_t + \varepsilon_{imt} \tag{5}$$

where Y_{imt} measures either the amount of loan outstanding or the average interest rate for borrower i, in municipality m, in year t. The main predictors are: i) the standardized 3G coverage ($3G\ \widehat{Coverage}_{mt}$) in municipality m, at time t, instrumented by lightning strikes and incidental

[16] The panel dataset is unbalanced and based on outstanding relationships.

[17] We consider the credit characteristics of the borrower, without conditioning on having a loan with a formal bank.

coverage; and ii) $3G\ \widehat{Coverage}_{mt}$ interacted with $Switcher_i$, a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, whose first loan is with a MFI, then switches to a bank. The four instruments that we use are: 1) Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_m^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; 2) Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_m^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; 3) Z_{mt}^{light} interacted with $Switcher_i$; and 4) Z_{mt}^{incid} interacted with $Switcher_i$.

The results, presented in Table 6, columns 3 and 4, provide insights into how mobile internet affects the loan characteristics of borrowers who switch from MFIs to commercial banks. Different from the borrowers keeping their relationships with MFIs, for whom access to the 3G internet has no effect, switchers experience a relative increase in loan outstanding and a significant decrease in the average interest rate.[18] These findings highlight the role of mobile internet in facilitating and enhancing the loan conditions for switchers.

The results in Table 6 provide compelling evidence that mobile internet influences bank loan characteristics. Columns 3 and 4, which specifically focus on borrowers who switch to banks, indicate that mobile internet particularly contributes to better credit terms and improved financial opportunities for switchers. Taken together, these findings have relevant implications for policymakers, financial institutions, and individuals seeking to leverage the benefits of new internet technologies.

5 The Complementarity between Technology and Law

At the core of the paper lies the hypothesis that technology reduces the costs associated with accessing and utilizing property rights, enabling individuals to obtain land titles and leverage them as collateral for loans. This synergy between technology and law allows individuals to overcome traditional financial barriers that hinder their access to banks, thereby making microfinance institutions and informal loans the primary options for most individuals.

[18] Figure A2 in the appendix plots the distribution of interest rates for switchers, distinguishing between pre and post-switching. The chart shows that borrowers in the upper tail of the distribution particularly benefit from becoming bank customers.

This section aims to test this hypothesis. We partner with the Rwanda Land Management and Use Authority and gain access to comprehensive information on land certificates, transactions, and mortgaged lands at the municipality level.

5.1 The Collateral Channel

One of the milestones of the Rwandan economy is the land, which is the main source of income for most of the population. In the aftermath of the civil conflict, the large-scale migration of returnees had a dramatic impact on land ownership, escalating tensions and land conflicts, making land reform a crucial condition to avoid social tensions, ensure social stability, and improve land use management and investments. With this background, in 2009 the government of Rwanda launched the Land Tenure Regularization program. This reform aimed to regulate the ownership and control of the lands, enhance land utilization, and promote its efficient management and administration (Abbott and Mugisha, 2015).

Within the LTR initiative, data on land parcels were digitized to facilitate the issuance of ownership certificates. By the year 2012, the main database had accumulated information on more than 10.4 million land parcels. In this way, the LTR program introduced a land tenure system based on the digital registry (World Bank, 2020), which played a pivotal role in favoring access to formal credit. In fact, all banks in Rwanda were connected to the digital registry, which made it easier the tracking and verification of land ownership—a crucial step in allowing the third-party validation of titles as collateral.

Mobile internet played a crucial role in informing people and disseminating the reform, especially its procedures, purposes, and technical aspects. Government agencies, officials, and institutions extensively utilized social media platforms, online newspapers, and micro-blogging sites to connect with the public and provide timely updates on the program's progress.[19] Furthermore, the widespread use of mobile phones in Rwanda made disseminating information through the mobile internet particularly effective. In this way, the LTR program reached a larger audience and

[19] In March 2011, the RNRA launched its Twitter account @Lands_Rwanda and created a Facebook page (https://www.facebook.com/LandsRwanda/).

engaged with individuals directly, such as through social networking forums.

To provide evidence that the collateral channel partly explains the effects of mobile internet on banking, we provide the following steps. First, we present statistics on the speed of registration of land transactions and construction investment, and show the relevance of the LTR in reducing transaction costs. Second, we show the concurrent positive relationship between 3G internet coverage and the timing and number of land title transactions. Third, we examine the association between 3G internet coverage and the amount of mortgaged land parcels. Fourth, we analyze the relationship between 3G internet coverage and bank credit collateral. Fifth, we show the existence of a positive relationship between the availability of 3G internet and the growth rate of building volumes. Finally, we quantify the extent to which the effect of mobile internet on banking outcomes is mediated through the collateral channel.

Figure 4 illustrates the average number of days required to register a land transaction between 2004 and 2019.[20] The solid red line represents Rwanda, while the solid green line the average across Sub-Saharan African countries. Prior to the reform, Rwanda ranked among the poorest performers in Africa, with an average registration time exceeding 350 days, compared to the Sub-Saharan average of approximately 100 days. Following the introduction of the reform, there has been a significant improvement, with the registration time plummeting from over 300 days to less than 40 days in under five years. This transformation propelled Rwanda to lead the continent in terms of registration speed. This technical advancement translated into tangible outcomes, largely due to the concurrent rollout of mobile internet, which played a crucial role in disseminating information about the reform, including its procedures, objectives, and technical aspects, thereby facilitating its implementation.

Table 7 directly focuses on the relationship between 3G coverage and land transactions, using data at the municipality level. The empirical methodology is the same as in Equation (3), with data aggregated at the municipality level. The only difference is that the period of analysis ends in 2013, which includes the hot phase of the LTR program.[21] Our dependent variables

[20] Data are sourced from the Doing Business Indicators published by the World Bank.
[21] Around 80% of all transactions were completed by 2012.

are: 1) 50% *Benchmark*, a dummy variable indicating that at least 50% of the transactions have been made in the first year of the program; and 2) *Asinh* (*Number of Transactions*), the inverse hyperbolic sine transformation of the cumulative of the total number of transactions in municipality m and year t, scaled by the number of parcels in the municipality. Estimates in Table 7 show a positive relationship between 3G internet coverage and our proxies of the availability of land certificates, suggesting a role for mobile internet in promoting the LTR program and facilitating the marketing of land titles. Specifically, the 2SLS results in columns 3 and 4 show that a one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage is associated with a 15 percentage point higher probability of disbursing at least 50% of the titles in the first year of the reform, and a 13% increase in the total number of transactions.[22]

Next, in Table 8, columns 1 and 2, we study the relationship between 3G internet coverage and the amount of mortgaged lands. Our dependent variable is the share of mortgaged parcels over the total amount of parcels. Since these data are only available in cross-section, our results are suggestive of the relationship between mobile internet and mortgaged lands.[23] In column 1, we report the OLS cross-sectional results, where the share of mortgaged lands is regressed on the level of 3G coverage in 2011. In column 2 we report the associated 2SLS estimates. The results show a positive relationship between mobile internet and mortgaged parcels. Specifically, a one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage is associated with a 1.7 percentage point increase in the share of land parcels used as collateral.

Table 8, columns 3 to 6, provides further insights into the relationship between mobile internet and access to collateralized loans and bank mortgages. The analysis is based on a balanced panel dataset from the credit registry, and the methodology follows Equation (3). Our dependent variables are: 1) *Probability* (*Bank Collateral*), a dummy variable that indicates whether the bank loan is backed by collateral; and 2) *Probability* (*Bank Mortgage*), a dummy variable indicating whether the loan is a mortgage issued by a commercial bank. The results confirm those in the

[22] Results are confirmed using a simple dummy variable indicating whether at least one land transaction has been implemented in municipality m, in year t.

[23] Figure A3, in the appendix, provides a visual representation of the share of mortgaged lands.

previous columns. A one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage is associated with a 0.6 percentage point higher probability of a bank loan being backed by collateral (column 5) and a 0.8 percentage point higher probability of the loan being a mortgage issued by a commercial bank (column 6). This suggests that individuals in areas with better access to mobile internet are more likely to benefit from collateralized loans.

Table 8, columns 7 and 8, concludes with a further analysis of the relationship between mobile internet and the local growth of building volumes. The hypothesis is that increased access to credit, particularly mortgages, facilitated by mobile internet, should correlate with higher growth rates in local construction. The results support this hypothesis as column 8 shows, since a one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage is associated with an 8.3 percentage point increase in the growth rate of building volumes during the period 2010-2015.

Our findings, taken together, provide robust evidence of the role mobile internet plays in promoting land reform and its impact on accessing formal credit through the collateral channel, potentially stimulating local real estate markets.

To conclude and refine our analysis, we offer a Sobel-Goodman mediation test to quantify how much of the effect of mobile internet on banking is mediated through the effect of the former on the LTR (Doerr et al., 2022).[24] We report estimates from the Sobel-Goodman test in Table 9. Consistently with our story, we find that approximately 35% of the probability of receiving a bank loan is due to an indirect effect facilitated by the acquisition of the collateral,[25] whereas 65% is directly attributed to mobile internet. The "direct effect" of mobile internet is a residual effect and catches many potential channels through which the internet may make individuals seek bank credit: better job opportunities (Hjort and Poulsen, 2019), higher income (Bahia et al., 2023; Calderone et al., 2018), and lower information frictions (Gupta et al., 2023). Then, when

[24] The Sobel-Goodman test is an application of the delta method. The idea is that when a mediator is included in a regression analysis with the independent variable, the effect of the independent variable is reduced and the effect of the mediator remains significant. The Sobel-Goodman test is a specialized t-test that provides a method to determine whether the reduction in the effect of the independent variable, after including the mediator in the model, is a significant reduction and therefore whether the mediation effect is statistically significant.

[25] These results are corroborated by the findings in Table A2 in the appendix. Here, we implement sequential g-estimation following Acharya et al. (2016) and show that two-thirds of the total effect of mobile internet on the probability of accessing a bank loan is not mediated through land titles.

repeating our estimation using as dependent variable the probability of receiving a collateralized loan, we find that the direct effect of mobile internet decreases to 20% and is borderline significant, while the indirect effect mediated by the land titles accounts for 80% of the total impact. This quantification points to the pivotal role of collateral in securing a mortgage and steering individuals from MFIs, which lack this product, towards commercial banks. In conclusion, we also conduct a mediation analysis for local building volumes and find that approximately 4% of the total effect is attributable to the indirect effect mediated by land titles. While this number may seem small in comparison with the other coefficients, it is essential to highlight that the mortgage market in Rwanda was at its infancy during this time period. Before the arrival of internet, less than 0.1% of loans were collateralized or defined as mortgages, while this proportion grew to 2% by the end of the sample. We can convincingly argue that part of this growth emerged from the introduction of 3G internet and the facilitation of receiving a land title. Importantly, a potential interpretation of our mediation analysis implies that an 80% increase in collateralized loans and mortgages due to the land titles in a market that is only 2% large, gives 1.6% and explains a 4% increase in building volume. As a result, the corresponding implies elasticity of construction investment to the availability of loans and mortages exceeds one and is close to 2.5.

6 Robustness

We conduct a series of robustness checks to gauge the sensitivity of our main results to different specifications.

6.1 Model Specification

Firstly, we replicate our analysis on banking by aggregating data at the bank-municipality-year level. We estimate the following model:

$$Y_{bmt} = v + \beta_1 3G\ \widehat{Coverage}_{mt} + \alpha_{bm} + \phi_{bt} + \varepsilon_{bmt} \tag{6}$$

where b denotes the commercial bank, m the municipality, and t the year. The dependent variable Y_{bmt} captures different loan characteristics, including the number of loan relationships, the number of switching borrowers from microfinance institutions, the total amount of outstanding loans, the average interest rate, and loans in default. Bank-municipality fixed effects (α_{bm}) account for unobserved time-invariant characteristics that may be specific to each bank-municipality pair, while bank-year fixed effects (ϕ_{bt}) capture common time-varying shocks that affect the bank in a particular year. Estimates, reported in Table B1, confirm those in the main text. A one standard deviation increase in 3G coverage is associated with a 13% increase in the number of loans granted, a similar increase in the number of borrowers switching from the microfinance sector, a 29% increase in total loan outstanding, and no significant effect on average interest rates and loans in default.

6.2 2SLS Specification

Then, we make several modifications to the main 2SLS specification reported in Table 3. Our original dataset is made of 190,138 individual borrowers. Since we lack information on the age of some of them, we decide to drop these borrowers from the main analysis.[26] As a first robustness check, we test the sensitivity of our results to this choice. Estimates from the model considering the full sample are reported in Table B2 in the appendix. As we can see from the table, all the coefficients are unaffected. They keep their sign and magnitudes, as well as their statistical significance.

When studying the effect of mobile internet on access to bank credit, our main dependent variable is a dummy indicating whether the borrower has an outstanding loan with a bank (MFI). An alternative definition might refer to the first year since the borrower becomes a bank (MFI) client. We create a staggered measure of bank (MFI) loan that takes value 1 from the first year in which the borrower has an outstanding loan with the lender. Our analysis is reported in Table B3 in the appendix. Results are coherent with those in Table 3. The magnitude of the coefficient

[26] This is relevant when we create the balanced panel dataset.

associated with bank loans is higher, whereas that associated with MFI loans is lower.

Our main predictor is the share of 3G coverage in the municipality. As a first robustness check, we substitute this variable with a dummy that takes value 1 from the first year in which the municipality is reached by mobile internet. Our analysis, which resembles a two-way fixed effects regression, is reported in Table B4 in the appendix. The setting, in the OLS framework, also allows for the application of the methodology introduced by Sun and Abraham (2021), which accounts for time heterogeneity in the treatment effect. As we can see from the table, 3G coverage is associated with an increase in the probability of having a loan with a bank of about 10 percentage points, and a similar decrease in the probability of having a loan with a MFI. As a second robustness check, we create a predictor which weights 3G coverage for population density and total population. Results from these revised specifications are reported in Table B5 in the appendix and are in line with those in Table 3, with larger magnitudes.

In the main analysis, we adopt a version of the instruments where the latter are the interactions of the time-invariant component of Z and a dummy post-2010. As a robustness check, we replicate our analysis by using two alternative definitions of the instruments. First, we interact the time-invariant component of Z with a linear time trend. Second, we interact the baseline instruments with the linear time trend. Results are reported in Table B6 in the appendix and are qualitatively in line with those in Table 3, but larger in magnitudes.

Our 2SLS estimates use two instruments for one endogenous variable. The textbook motivation for this choice is statistical efficiency. However, there is a deeper reason based on the fact that this allows for heterogeneous treatment effects. In an influential paper, Imbens and Angrist (1994) show that estimand from a 2SLS with multiple IVs can be interpreted as a positively weighted average of LATEs for subpopulations whose treatment status is affected by the instruments (thus allowing for heterogeneous treatment effects). This result holds for any number of instruments, as long as the monotonicity condition is satisfied.[27] Recently, Mogstad et al. (2021) extend the framework of Imbens and Angrist (1994) and show that these results can be generalized if a partial

[27] In our case, the monotonicity condition requires all individuals to respond more to lightning strikes than to incidental coverage, or vice versa

monotonicity condition is satisfied.[28] Throughout the paper, we first show that our estimates do not suffer from overidentification problems. Then, we provide direct evidence of the validity of using multiple instruments. First, we follow Mogstad et al. (2021) and find that, in our case, the null hypothesis of negative weights is rejected at conventional levels (p = 0.000), while a test of the null of positive weights does not reject and generates a high p-value of 1.0. Second, we replicate our analysis by instrumenting 3G coverage with a single instrument, i.e. lightning strikes and incidental coverage, separately. Results are reported in Table B7 in the appendix and are consistent with our main findings.

Table B8 in the appendix presents estimates where we replace our instruments, lightning strikes and incidental coverage, with predetermined geographical features that are inputs into these IVs: the altitude of the municipality and the percentage covered by wood, water, and sand. Our results confirm those presented in Table 3, showing larger magnitudes and higher F-statistics (above 100).

To conclude this series of tests on the 2SLS strategy, Table B9 presents reduced form regressions. Columns 1 and 2 display estimates when lightning strikes and incidental coverage are used as predictors. Columns 3 and 4 focus on altitude, wood, water, and sand coverage. Estimates from both IV strategies are consistent with our main specifications.

6.3 Controlling for correlates of 3G internet

Our basic identification assumption can be violated if underlying trends affect the outcomes of interest and correlate with the 3G coverage. To control for these confounding factors, we augment our specifications with several economic and socio-demographic municipality characteristics. The group of control variables is selected taking into account table A1 and includes: 2G coverage, which controls for alternative mobile technologies; total population, urban population, and

[28] The partial monotonicity condition is that the Imbens and Angrist (1994) monotonicity condition is satisfied for each instrument separately, holding all of the other instruments fixed. In our case, a sufficient condition for partial monotonicity is that all individuals are at least as likely to have 3G coverage if they live in municipalities with a low frequency of lightning strikes or in municipalities with higher incidental coverage. However, unlike the Imbens and Angrist (1994) monotonicity condition, partial monotonicity does not restrict heterogeneity in the relative impacts of different instruments; it allows for some individuals to respond more to lightning than to incidental coverage, and for others to respond more to incidental coverage than to lightning

employed population, which control for demographic and economic features; the number of total bank branches, which control for bank physical infrastructures; and a dummy for the presence of a primary road, which controls for the level of connection of the municipality. For variables obtained from the 2012 Census, we use an interaction with the dummy post-2010. Table B10 reports the estimates related to this augmented specification. The coefficients keep the same sign as in the baseline regressions and remain statistically significant. Interestingly, the magnitudes in columns 1 and 2 are slightly affected by the inclusion of control variables.

In addition, we augment our baseline estimates by incorporating province-by-time fixed effects to control for trends at the province level. The results, presented in Table B11, remain qualitatively consistent with the baseline. However, the IV estimates suffer from reduced statistical power, likely due to the decreased variation in our instruments within provinces.

6.4 Contemporaneous MFI Reform

In 2009, the government of Rwanda launched the Umurenge SACCOs (U-SACCOs) program, with the aim to boost up rural savings and increase financial inclusion. The program helped people to have access to credit through U-SACCOs, build credit history, and eventually access commercial banking (Agarwal et al., 2023). Since the program became effective in 2011, we test whether the coefficients associated with mobile internet may capture part of the (confounding) effects generated by the U-SACCOs expansion. We test this alternative hypothesis by augmenting our main specification with the inclusion of a dummy variable for the presence of a U-SACCO in the municipality. Estimates from these regressions are reported in Table B12 in the appendix. Our coefficients remain unaffected, indicating that the effect of mobile internet on the probability of having a bank loan is orthogonal to the nationwide U-SACCO program.

6.5 High-Speed Fiber and Bank Supply

In 2008, the government of Rwanda began rolling out a national fiber optic backbone that was completed at the end of 2010, with over 3,000 kilometers of fiber, distributed to all 30 districts. This capillary terrestrial fiber optic backbone, which facilitates the transfer of high-speed data

across the country, can be a confounder if associated with our main predictor. To test this hypothesis, we combined information on the national fiber-optic backbone from AfTerFibre Maps, with those of the Liquid Telecom private network. We generate a dummy variable for the presence of fixed broadband at the municipality level and augment our main specifications with this variable. Results are reported in Table B13 and are in line with those in Table 3.

We also check the sensitivity of our results in Table 7, which are related to the collateral channel, to the presence of fixed broadband. When examining the impact of mobile internet on land transactions, the expectation is that the effect is specifically driven by the ability of mobile internet to facilitate the dissemination of information about the land reform program through channels such as social media. If this is the case, a horse-race test with fixed broadband, which represents a different mode of internet access, should not affect the main results. This is because fixed broadband is generally associated to the functioning of banks and their branches, as in D'Andrea et al. (2023), and less likely to be directly linked to the promotion of the LTR through the web and social media platforms. To overcome the endogeneity of the presence of fixed broadband, we instrument this variable using the presence of post-colonial surfaced roads, in line with the works by Dalgaard et al. (2022) and Barjamovic et al. (2019). In particular, we exploit the fact that underground fiber-optic cables are mainly laid along highways and by city roads (Nyarko-Boateng et al., 2019; Redifer et al., 2020) together with the availability of post-colonial road maps from the Perry-Castañeda Library Map Collection of the University of Texas.[29] Results from this falsification test are reported in Table B14 and provide robust evidence in favor of the collateral channel as advocated in Section 4.

6.6 Alternative Mechanisms

An alternative channel through which land titles might affect banking and investment could be the reduction of uncertainty over land ownership resulting from the reform. This possibility is inspired

[29] We digitize the map of all surfaced roads in Rwanda in 1975 (the oldest map available in the archive) and use them as a source of exogenous variation for fiber deployment. The map of fiber-optic connections and post-colonial roads in Rwanda is presented in Figure A4 in the appendix.

by a substantial body of literature on the topic, recently expanded by the work of Adamopoulos et al. (2024). To explore this in depth, we utilize the comprehensive measures implemented by the Government of Rwanda to resolve ownership disputes and uncertainty. The reform was supported by "the large-scale mobilization of citizens, up to around 110,000 people, to assist in adjudicating disputes" (World Bank, 2020).

We digitized data from a 2014 district-level list of disputes from Kyewalabye (2014), presented in Figure A6, which shows that the share of parcel disputes was minimal, averaging below 0.15%. To assess whether these disputes influenced the likelihood of receiving bank and MFI loans, we replicated the results from Table 3, incorporating an interaction between 3G coverage and the standardized share of disputes. As shown in Table B15, this interaction is small and statistically insignificant.

While this test does not rule out the significance of securing property rights, it suggests that uncertainty over ownership was not a critical issue in this context. The minimal level of disputes and the lack of a measurable effect on loan access indicate that other channels, such as the enhanced ability to use land as collateral, are more pivotal in explaining the reform's impact on financial access and investment.

In our final robustness check, we examine whether the distribution of land titles is correlated with the underlying value of the land. While Table 5 indicates that urban municipalities experienced much larger effects than rural ones, we provide an additional test using geographic heterogeneity in land suitability for Rwanda's top two crops, coffee and tea. Both panels of Figure A6 display the suitability maps for these crops, which show a valuable lack of correlation and provide variation across different municipalities.

A key theoretical model of land title demand would predict that the reduction in information costs from mobile internet rollout would yield greater benefits where the expected return on land is higher, hence a higher distribution of titles where land is more productive. We test this prediction in Table B16 by interacting the 3G coverage variable with the standardized suitability for coffee and tea. The results confirm that in municipalities with higher suitability, there is a significantly higher probability of surpassing the 50% threshold for the number of distributed titles, both in

OLS and IV estimations.

7 Conclusion

This paper investigates the complementarity between technology and law in alleviating financial frictions and promoting investment in low and middle-income countries. Leveraging comprehensive datasets from the credit registry of Rwanda alongside a land reform, with additional data on land and satellite data on building volume, we offer compelling evidence on the impact of mobile internet on banking and construction investment. Specifically, we show that increased mobile connectivity, as indicated by expanded 3G coverage, enhances access to land. This, in turn, enables individuals to access bank credit by utilizing land titles as collateral and investing in construction.

Our findings reveal that expanded 3G coverage is associated with a higher probability of obtaining a bank loan, a decrease in the likelihood of securing a microfinance loan, and no significant change in overall access to finance. Importantly, we observe a transition among borrowers from microfinance institutions to banks, driven by the transformative role of mobile internet in fostering the land reform. This transition to bank credit is facilitated by the availability of digitally-empowered land collateral.

Our research further highlights that mobile internet enhances construction investment by accelerating the distribution of land titles and promoting the use of land as collateral. Our estimates show that areas with better internet coverage experience faster land reform implementation, a higher likelihood of land titles being distributed, and a greater number of land transactions. This, in turn, leads to increased use of land as collateral, as evidenced by a rise in the share of mortgaged lands and an associated growth in construction activity.

The mediation analysis emphasizes the importance of collateral in channeling the benefits of mobile internet towards banking and investment. Our results suggest that a significant portion of the internet's impact on access to collateralized loans and construction investment is mediated by land titles. While the effect of internet coverage on building growth appears modest, it reflects the relatively small share of collateralized loans in the overall lending market, underlining the strong elasticity of building growth to collateralized lending.

Finally, our findings are robust across various tests, alternative specifications, and different definitions of key variables. The results persist even when employing different instruments and controlling for potential confounding factors, such as other concurrent reforms. By illustrating how mobile internet, in combination with a property rights reform, alleviates financial frictions, this study contributes to the literature on technology, property rights, and financial market access, while offering practical insights for policymakers seeking to harness digital tools to promote inclusive economic growth.

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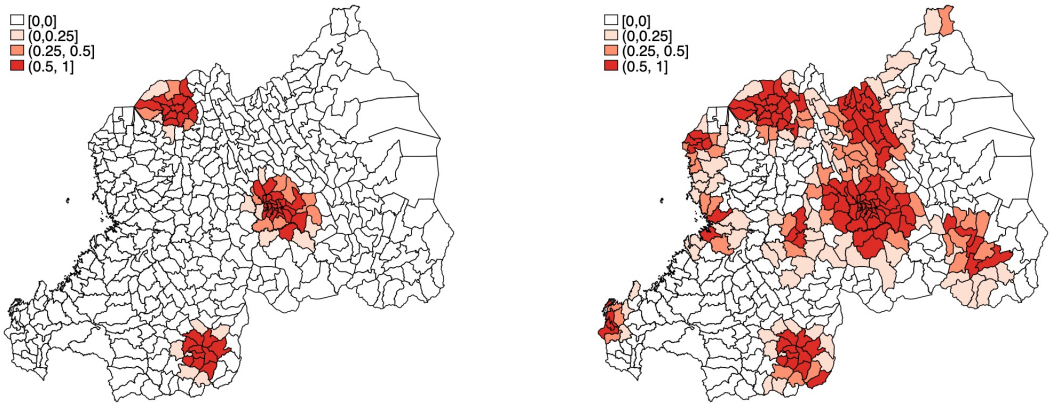
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Figures

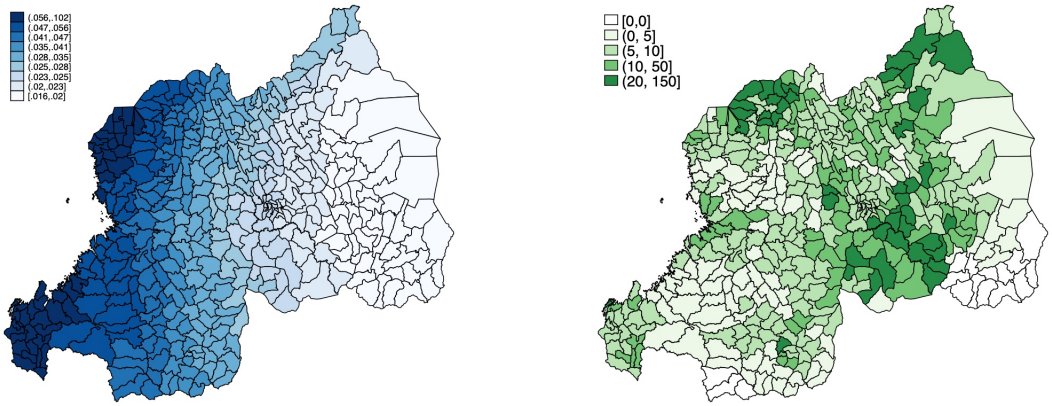
Figure (1) 3G coverage in Rwanda



2008 2015

Notes: This figure plots the diffusion of the 3G mobile internet by municipality in Rwanda (percentage of coverage). The panel on the left refers to 2011, the first year of the introduction of 3G. The panel on the right refers to 2015, the last year for which we have data on 3G coverage. Source: GSMA.

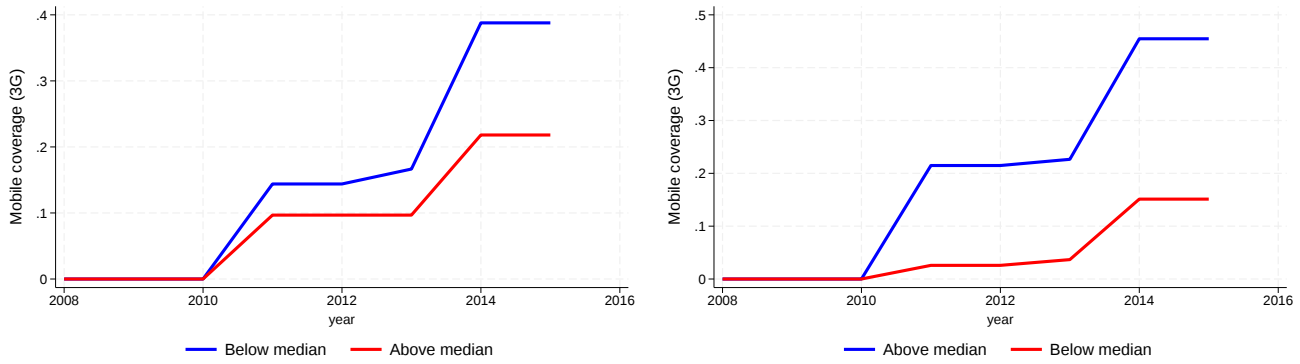
Figure (2) Cross-sectional variation mobile internet: Lightning frequency and incidental coverage



Lightning frequency Incidental coverage

Notes: This figure shows the average frequency of lightning strikes and incidental coverage, by municipality in Rwanda. On the left panel, there is lightning frequency, a time-invariant indicator computed as the yearly average of strikes in the municipality, during the period 1998-2013. On the right panel, is incidental coverage (Björkegren, 2019), a time-invariant measure of the fictitious coverage that would have resulted had the operator built towers for mobile internet along the full network of power lines. Sources: GHRC and Björkegren (2019).

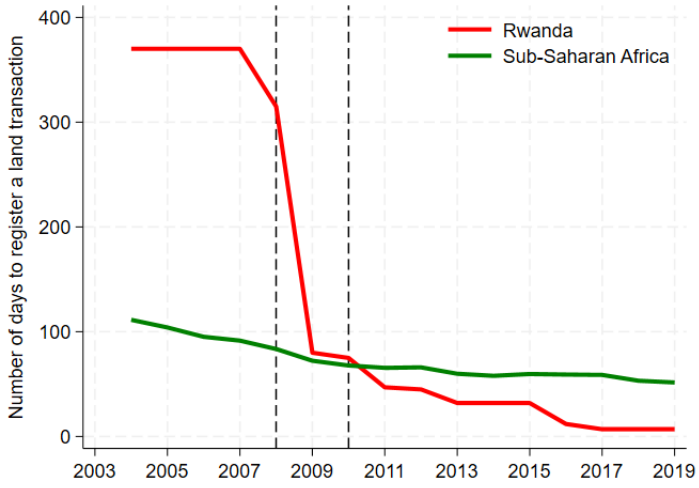
Figure (3) 3G coverage, lightning frequency, and incidental coverage



Lightning frequency Incidental coverage

Notes: This figure provides visual evidence in support of the relevance of our instruments. On the left, we focus on lightning strikes. On the y-axis is a measure of 3G mobile coverage. On the x-axis are years. The solid blue line refers to municipalities with lower than median lightning frequency. The solid red line refers to municipalities with above median lightning frequency. On the right, we focus on incidental coverage. On the y-axis is a measure of 3G mobile coverage. On the x-axis are years. The solid blue line refers to municipalities with higher than median incidental coverage. The solid red line refers to municipalities with lower than median incidental coverage.

Figure (4) Registration time for land titles



Notes: This figure plots the average number of days to register a land transaction between 2004 and 2019. The red solid line represents Rwanda, while the green solid line shows the average across Sub-Saharan Africa countries. The vertical lines sign the years of the LT reform. Source: World Bank Doing Business.

Tables

Table (1) Summary statistics

	n	mean	sd	p50	min	max
	PANEL A: Access to credit					
Probability of Any Loan	909168	0.28	0.45	0.00	0.00	1.00
Probability of Bank Loan	909168	0.14	0.34	0.00	0.00	1.00
Probability of MFI Loan	909168	0.16	0.37	0.00	0.00	1.00
Switching borrowers	909168	0.09	0.29	0.00	0.00	1.00
	PANEL B: Bank loan characteristics					
Outstanding loan	124,806	2011.88	3665.80	693.11	16.67	27859.83
Interest rate	124,388	19.20	5.73	19.00	6.14	70.10
Past due	123,284	0.04	0.13	0.00	0.00	1.00
Collateral	128,639	0.12	0.32	0.00	0.00	1.00
	PANEL C: Land titles and Building volumes					
50% benchmark	2022	0.12	0.33	0.00	0.00	1.00
Number of transactions	2022	0.23	0.32	0.00	0.00	1.00
Share land mortgaged	337	0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.23
Growth building volumes	337	0.25	0.12	0.24	0.00	0.58
	PANEL D: 3G coverage					
3G coverage	2696	0.12	0.28	0.00	0.00	1.00
Std 3G coverage	2696	0.03	1.02	-0.40	-0.40	3.24
	PANEL E: Instrumental variables					
Lightning frequency	2696	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.10
Std Lightning	2696	0.03	0.83	0.00	-1.24	4.10
Incidental coverage	2696	10.66	12.20	9.54	0.00	135.43
Std Incidental	2696	0.01	0.83	0.00	-0.91	10.81

Notes: This table reports summary statistics for the main variables in the empirical analysis. Panel A refers to access to credit: the probability of having an outstanding loan (and separately with a bank or a MFI-SACCO). Panel B focuses on borrowers' bank credit accounts: outstanding loans (in thousands of Rwandan francs), interest rates (in percentage terms), past due (as a share of outstanding amount), and collateral (a dummy variable indicating that the loan is secured). Panel C reports data on land titles and building volumes: a dummy variable indicating whether the number of land transactions in the municipality has reached 50% of the total in the first year of the reform, the log of the number of transactions, scaled by the total number of parcels, the share of land mortgaged, and the delta log of building volumes, evaluated between 2010 and 2015. Panel D shows the summary statistics for the main predictor: 3G Mobile coverage (and its related standardized measure). Finally, Panel E focuses on the two instruments: average lightning frequency and Std Lightning, the interaction between the standardized lightning frequency and a dummy post-2010; average incidental coverage and Std Incidental, the interaction between the standardized coverage and a dummy post-2010. The standardizations have been implemented on the sample of all Rwandan municipalities.

Table (2) First stage regressions

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	All municipalities			Credit Registry sample		
	Standardized 3G coverage					
Std Lightning	-0.156***		-0.141***	-0.341***		-0.330***
	(0.048)		(0.046)	(0.079)		(0.079)
Std Incidental		0.250***	0.240***		0.231***	0.207***
		(0.052)	(0.050)		(0.067)	(0.064)
Municipality FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
Borrower FE	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
F-statistic	10.64	23.17	17.74	18.49	11.81	16.22
Obs.	2696	2696	2696	909165	909165	909165
Adj. R sq.	0.540	0.551	0.557	0.607	0.593	0.613
Mean Dep. Var.	0.032	0.032	0.032	0.276	0.276	0.276
S.D. Dep. Var.	1.024	1.024	1.024	1.302	1.302	1.302

Notes: This table reports estimates of the first stage presented in equation (2). The dependent variable is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. The main predictors are: $Std\ Lightning_{mt}$, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning $Std\ Lightning_{m}$, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; $Std\ Incidental_{mt}$, the standardized average of incidental coverage $Std\ Incidental_{m}$, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. Columns 1 and 3 refer to the sample of all municipalities in Rwanda between 2008 and 2015. Columns 2 to 4 refer to a balanced sample at the borrower level. Obs. refers to the number of observations; Adj. R sq. is the adjusted R2; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the municipality (borrower) and year level. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (3) Mobile Internet and the Probability of having a loan

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Probability of					
	Any Loan	Bank Loan	MFI Loan	Any Loan	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.002	0.018***	-0.017***	-0.002	0.034***	-0.036***
	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.006)	(0.012)	(0.012)
Estimation	OLS	OLS	OLS	IV	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic				16.22	16.22	16.22
Obs.	909165	909165	909165	909165	909165	909165
Adj. R sq.	0.480	0.374	0.370			
Mean Dep. Var.	0.284	0.136	0.164	0.284	0.136	0.164
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.451	0.343	0.370	0.451	0.343	0.370

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Any Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. In the IV specifications, we instrument our main predictor with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. Columns 1 to 3 refer to OLS estimates. Columns 3 to 6 refer to 2SLS estimates. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Adj. R sq. is the adjusted R2; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (4) Mobile Internet and Transition to banks

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Probability of Switching from			
	MFI to Bank		Bank to MFI	
Std 3G coverage	0.007***	0.011***	-0.006***	-0.011**
	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.001)	(0.005)
Estimation	OLS	IV	OLS	IV
First MFI	Yes	Yes	No	No
First BANK	No	No	Yes	Yes
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic		16.47		13.89
Obs.	514372	514372	380974	380974
Adj. R sq.	0.255		0.296	
Mean Dep. Var.	0.010	0.010	0.034	0.034
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.100	0.100	0.181	0.181

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*of Switching to Bank*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, whose first financial relationship was with a MFI, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (*of Switching to MFI*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, whose first financial relationship was with a bank, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. In the IV specifications, we instrument our main predictor with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. Columns 1 and 3 refer to OLS estimates. Columns 2 and 4 refer to 2SLS estimates. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Adj. R sq. is the adjusted R2; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (5) Heterogeneity - Socioeconomic and Borrowers' characteristics

	(1) Rural	(2) Urban	(3) Poorer	(4) Wealthier	(5) No branches	(6) Branches
	Probability of Bank Loan					
Std 3G coverage	0.009	0.032*	0.003	0.044***	0.024	0.034**
	(0.021)	(0.017)	(0.032)	(0.011)	(0.017)	(0.016)
Estimation	IV	IV	IV	IV	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	10.51	8.47	9.88	9.31	12.32	6.64
Obs.	482259	426906	338929	570236	397445	511720
Mean Dep. Var.	0.099	0.179	0.106	0.154	0.107	0.159
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.298	0.383	0.308	0.361	0.309	0.366
	(1) Female	(2) Male	(3) Single	(4) Married	(5) Young	(6) Adult
Std 3G coverage	0.029**	0.037***	0.050***	0.030**	0.037***	0.030**
	(0.012)	(0.013)	(0.017)	(0.012)	(0.012)	(0.014)
Estimation	IV	IV	IV	IV	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	14.17	16.89	12.84	16.46	16.64	15.62
Obs.	324226	584939	106749	802416	466877	442288
Mean Dep. Var.	0.137	0.136	0.178	0.131	0.136	0.136
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.343	0.382	0.337	0.343	0.343

Notes: This table reports estimates from 2SLS as presented in equation (3). The dependent variable is *Probability* (*of Bank Loan*), a dummy equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t, instrumented by: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. Panel A. Columns 1 and 2 distinguish between rural and urban municipalities. Columns 3 and 4, between poorer and wealthier municipalities. Columns 5 and 6, between municipalities with a bank branch and those without. Panel B. Columns 1 and 2 distinguish between females and males. Columns 3 and 4, between singles and married. Columns 5 and 6, between young and old. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (6) Mobile Internet and Bank loan characteristics

	(1) Volume of Loans	(2) Lending Rate	(3) Past Due Loans	(4) Volume of Loans	(5) Lending Rate	(6) Past Due Loans
Std 3G coverage	0.063**	0.154	-0.004	0.032	-0.077	-0.018
	(0.025)	(0.154)	(0.007)	(0.032)	(0.207)	(0.020)
Std 3G coverage				0.159***	-2.235***	-0.008
× Switcher				(0.054)	(0.660)	(0.022)
F-test (p-value)				0.001	0.001	0.010
Estimation	IV	IV	IV	IV	IV	IV
First MFI	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Bank-year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No
SW F-statistic	22.44	21.64	22.47	18.96	19.00	8.03
Obs.	104766	104423	106462	110391	79081	109613
Mean Dep. Var.	6.750	18.51	0.037	6.609	20.71	0.050
S.D. Dep. Var.	1.421	5.472	0.135	1.287	8.603	0.158

Notes: This table reports estimates from 2SLS as presented in equation (3). The dependent variables are as follows: $Volume\ of\ Loans$, the natural logarithm of the total amount of outstanding loans by borrower i, in municipality m, in year t; *Lending Rate*, the average interest rate on the loan; and *Past Due Loans*, a dummy taking unit value when the loan is past due and hence in a state of default. The main predictors are: *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t; and $Std\ 3G\ coverage \times Switcher_i$, where the latter is a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i switches to a bank, and zero otherwise. The four instruments are: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; and the two above interacted with $Switcher_i$. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics. Obs. refers to the number of observations. Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable (we refer to the share of past due amount in columns 3 and 6), S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable, and are reported for the natural logarithm of loan volume, the lending rate and the share of past due loans. Fixed effects are at the borrower and bank-year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (7) Mobile Internet and Land titles

	(1) 50% Benchmark	(2) Number of Transactions	(3) 50% Benchmark	(4) Number of Transactions
Std 3G coverage	0.173***	0.047***	0.147*	0.128***
	(0.020)	(0.007)	(0.080)	(0.036)
Estimation	OLS	OLS	IV	IV
Municipality FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic			19.19	19.19
Obs.	2022	2022	2022	2022
Adj. R sq.	0.577	0.804		
Mean Dep. Var.	0.122	0.229	0.122	0.229
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.327	0.316	0.327	0.316

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3), by using data at the municipality level. The dependent variables are as follows: 50% *Benchmark*, a dummy variable equal to one if the number of land transactions in municipality m has reached 50% of the total in the first year of the reform; and $Number\ of\ Transactions$, the inverse hyperbolic sine of the cumulative function of transactions in municipality m, scaled by the total number of parcels in the municipality. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t, instrumented by: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. Columns 1 and 2 refer to OLS estimates. Columns 3 and 4 refer to 2SLS estimates. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Adj. R sq. is the adjusted R2; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the municipality and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (8) Mobile Internet, Land mortgaged, Bank collateral and Building volumes

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	Share of Land Mortgaged		Probability of Bank Collateral	Probability of Bank Mortgage	Probability of Bank Collateral	Probability of Bank Mortgage	Growth Building Volumes	
Std 3G coverage	0.024***	0.017***	0.009***	0.003***	0.006**	0.008***	0.011**	0.083*
	(0.003)	(0.005)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.005)	(0.035)
Estimation	OLS	IV	OLS	OLS	IV	IV	OLS	IV
Borrower FE	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Year FE	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
SW F-statistic		18.52			16.22	16.22		7.87
Obs.	337	337	909165	909165	909165	909165	337	337
Adj. R sq.	0.528		0.499	0.512			0.613	
Mean Dep. Var.	0.014	0.014	0.015	0.016	0.015	0.016	0.248	0.248
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.034	0.034	0.120	0.125	0.120	0.125	0.123	0.123

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3) (by using data at the municipality level in columns 1,2,7 and 8). The dependent variables are: *Share* (*Land Mortgaged*), the share of land mortgaged in municipality m; *Probability* (*Bank Collateral*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan in year t backed by collateral, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (*Bank Mortgage*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has mortgage with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Building volumes*, the delta log of building volumes in municipality m, between 2015 and 2010. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t, instrumented by: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. In columns 7 and 8 we control for the initial level of building volumes and population. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Adj. R sq. is the adjusted R2; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year level (columns 3 to 6). Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the district or municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

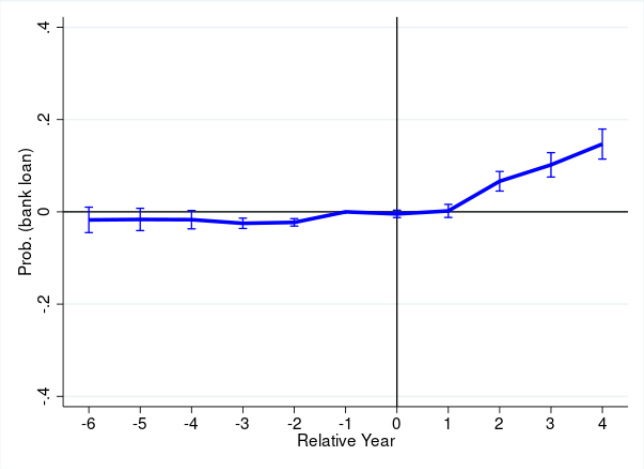
Table (9) Sobel-Goodman mediation test

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	Probability of		Growth
	Bank Loan	Bank Collateral	Building Volumes
Sobel	0.013**	0.005**	0.003***
Aroian	0.013**	0.005**	0.003***
Goodman	0.013**	0.005**	0.003***
Indirect Effect (Collateral)	0.013**	0.005**	0.003***
Direct Effect (Mobile Internet)	0.021**	0.001	0.080**
Total Effect	0.034**	0.006^{+}	0.083**
Proportion Indirect	**37%**	**80%**	**3.6%**

Notes: This table reports Sobel-Goodman mediation test. The outcome variables are: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; and *Probability* (*Bank Collateral*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan in year t backed by collateral, and zero otherwise; *Building volumes*, the delta log of building volumes in municipality m, between 2015 and 2010. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. The mediation variable is 50% *Benchmark*, a dummy variable equal to one if the number of land transactions in municipality m has reached 50% of the total in the first year of the reform. The first three rows report the Sobel, Aroian, and Goodman tests. The last row indicates the proportion of the total effect of mobile internet on the dependent variable that is mediated through land titles. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

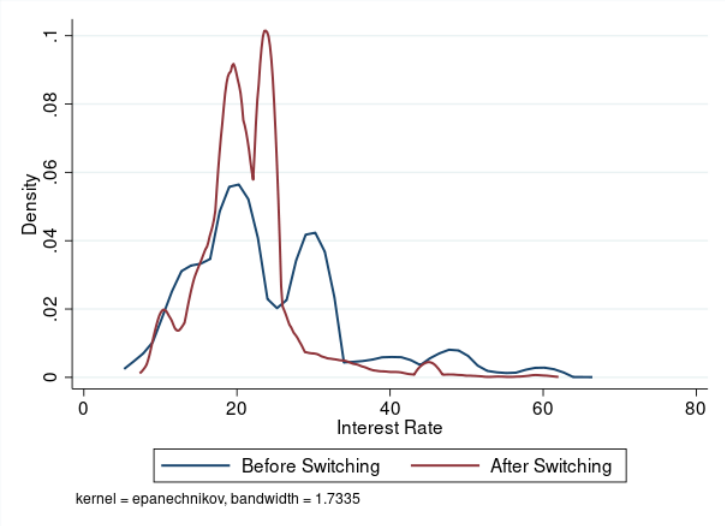
Additional figures and tables

Figure (A1) The dynamic effect of mobile internet on access to bank credit



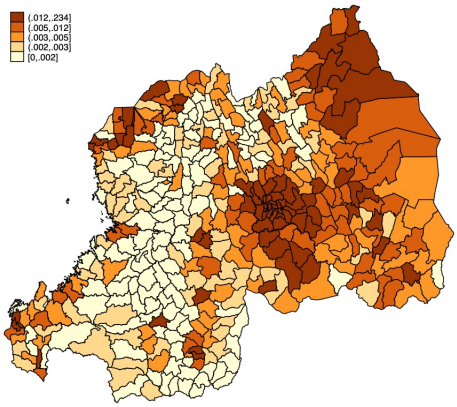
Notes: This figure shows a staggered DiD event study. The treatment group is made up of borrowers in municipalities covered by the 3G technology. The control group is made up of borrowers in municipalities not reached by the 3G technology. Year 0 corresponds to the first year in which the municipality is reached by mobile internet. On the y-axis is *Prob.*(*bank loan*), the probability that the borrower has an outstanding loan with a commercial bank. The blue solid line refers to coefficients. 90% confidence intervals are also reported.

Figure (A2) Distribution of interest rates for borrowers switching from MFIs to banks



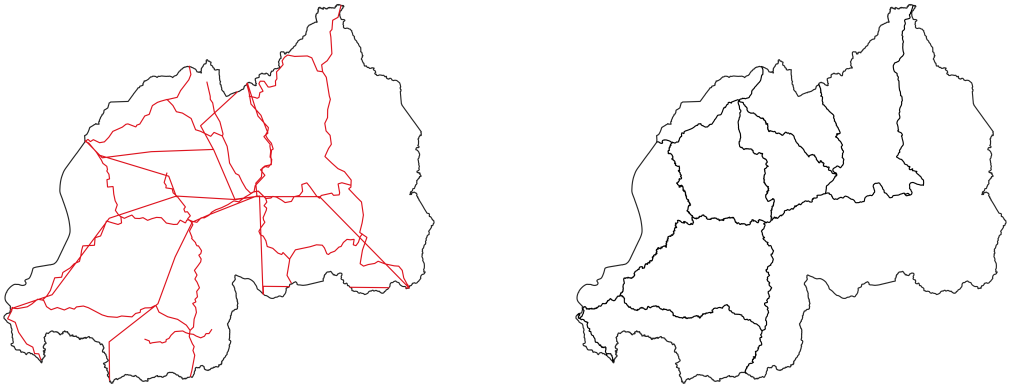
Notes: This figure plots the density function of interest rates for the sample of switchers to banks. The blue solid line refers to the density of interest rates before the switching, i.e., when the borrower is still a client of the MFI. The red solid line refers to the density after the switch.

Figure (A3) Share of mortgaged land parcels



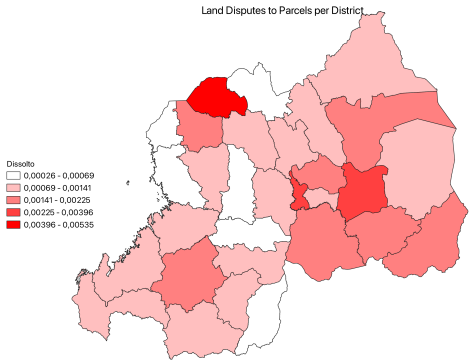
Notes: This figure plots the share of mortgaged land parcels, by municipality in Rwanda. Source: Land Management and Use Authority.

Figure (A4) Distribution of fiber-optic cables and post-colonial roads



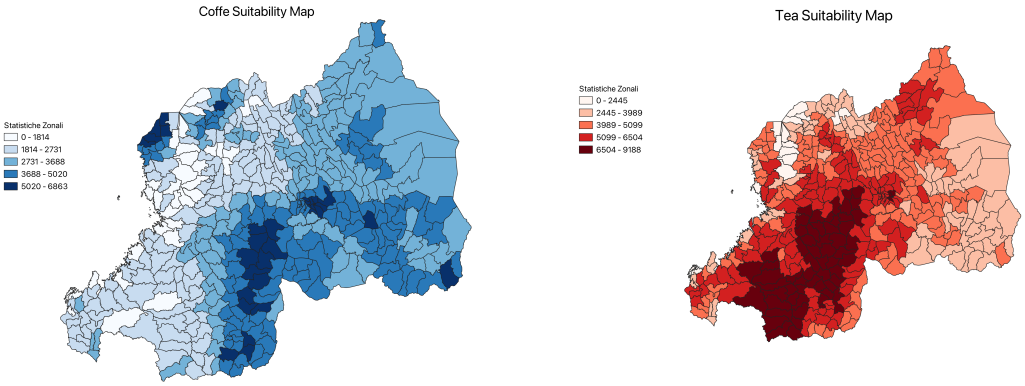
Notes: The left panel of the figure plots fiber-optic lines as in 2015. The public fiber was deployed in 2010, while private fiber complemented the main lines from 2014. The right panel plots surfaced roads as in 1975, from the Perry-Castañeda Library Map Collection.

Figure (A5) Share of Land Titles subject to Disputes



Notes: This figure reports the percentage of land titles subject to a dispute settlement action as of 2014. The average share of parcels subject to dispute is 0.146%, with a standard deviation of 0.111%. This dataset is available at the district level and is reported by Kyewalabye (2014).

Figure (A6) Land Suitability to Coffee and Tea



Notes: Both panels report statistics on land suitability elaborated by the Food and Agriculture Organization, FAO, in their GAEZ v4 Data Portal. The left panel presents the suitability measures for coffee, while the right those for tea.

Table (A1) Balance table: Municipalities by quartiles of lightning and incidental coverage

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
	25th Percentile			50th Percentile			75th Percentile			
	PANEL A: Lightning Strikes (Z^{light})									
	Below	Above	Diff.	Below	Above	Diff.	Below	Above	Diff.	N. mun.
2G coverage	.93	.928	(.01)	.937	.92	(.08)	.924	.942	(-.09)	337
Mean altitude	1.499	1.839	**(-1.06)**	1.582	1.922	**(-.91)**	1.673	1.988	**(-.69)**	336
Wood	.04	3.453	**(-.26)**	.024	5.175	**(-.32)**	.683	8.349	**(-.37)**	336
Water	3.008	1.042	**(.26)**	1.629	1.437	(.03)	1.866	.535	(.22)	336
Sand	0	.001	(-.04)	.001	0	(.08)	.001	0	(.07)	336
Main Power line	.226	.246	(-.03)	.232	.25	(-.03)	.222	.298	(-.12)	336
Hospital	.143	.115	(.06)	.131	.113	(.04)	.119	.131	(-.03)	336
ln Population	10.175	10.03	**(.31)**	10.117	10.016	(.22)	10.057	10.095	(-.09)	337
ln Urban	3.583	2.644	(.15)	3.622	2.138	(.24)	2.736	3.298	(-.09)	337
Unemployment	.036	.031	(.13)	.037	.028	(.21)	.033	.031	(.06)	337
Night lights	.404	.700	(-.12)	.763	.49	(.09)	.674	.484	(.07)	337
Poverty Index	1.049	.984	(.16)	.996	1.004	(-.02)	.997	1.008	(-.03)	337
ln Conflicts	.145	.435	**(-.31)**	.242	.482	(-.23)	.318	.494	(-.16)	337
Bank branches	.762	.743	(.01)	.863	.633	(.10)	.75	.741	(0.00)	337
	PANEL B: Incidental Coverage (Z^{incid})									
	Above	Below	Diff.	Above	Below	Diff.	Above	Below	Diff.	N. mun.
2G coverage	.956	.845	**(.49)**	.969	.888	**(.41)**	.974	.913	**(.36)**	337
Mean altitude	1.734	1.806	(-.16)	1.693	1.810	**(-.27)**	1.669	1.779	(-.23)	336
Wood	.604	8.586	**(-.38)**	.447	4.726	**(-.27)**	.083	3.425	-(.25)	336
Water	1.756	.866	(.14)	2.197	.878	(.18)	3.079	1.026	(.24)	336
Sand	.001	0	(.03)	.001	0	(.07)	0	.001	(-.07)	336
Main Power line	.274	.143	(.23)	.287	.195	(.15)	.229	.245	(-.03)	336
Hospital	.139	.071	(.16)	.15	.095	(.12)	.084	.134	(-.11)	336
ln Population	10.091	9.993	(.23)	10.111	10.022	(.19)	10.102	10.054	(.10)	337
ln Urban	3.481	1.063	**(.44)**	4.237	1.527	**(.45)**	3.191	2.774	(.07)	337
Unemployment	.034	.027	(.19)	.038	.026	**(.3)**	.028	.034	(-.14)	337
Night lights	.77	.193	(.23)	1.006	.249	**(.27)**	.774	.577	(.06)	337
Poverty Index	.988	1.037	(-.16)	.968	1.032	(-.18)	1.03	.990	(.11)	337
ln Conflicts	.411	.217	(.20)	.454	.272	(.17)	.289	.387	(-.10)	337
Bank branches	.866	.393	(.25)	1.054	.444	**(.28)**	.583	.802	(.11)	337

Notes: This table reports a balance table on average municipalities' characteristics, in 2010, by quartiles of the instruments. Panel A refers to the lightning strike frequency. Panel B refers to incidental coverage. Columns 1 to 3 use the 25th percentile of the distributions as a threshold. Columns 4 to 6 use the 50th percentile. Finally, Columns 7 to 9 use the 75th percentile. Column 10 reports the number of municipalities. For each tern of columns is reported whether municipalities are below or above the threshold and the normalized difference as proposed in Imbens and Wooldridge (2009). This is the difference in averages by treatment status, scaled by the square root of the sum of the variances, and represents a scale-free measure of the difference in distributions. Values exceeding 0.25 are considered sensitive for linear regressions. The list of covariates under evaluation is the following: the coverage of 2G; mean altitude; the percentage of wood, water, and sand; an indicator of the presence of a main line power/hospital; the log of the population and the urban population; the unemployment rate; an indicator of night lights and poverty (computed with respect to the average value in the district); a measure of conflict; and the number of bank branches.

Table (A2) Sequential g-estimation

	(1)	(2)	
	Probability of		
	Bank Loan	Bank Loan	Total Effect
Std 3G coverage	0.008***	0.020*	0.034***
	(0.003)	(0.011)	(0.012)
Estimation	OLS	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic		16.22	16.22
Obs.	909165	909165	909165
Adj. R sq.	0.001		
Mean Dep. Var.	0.136	0.136	0.136
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.343	0.343

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variable is *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise. This variable has been de-mediated by regressing it on the mediator, 50% *Benchmark*, a dummy variable equal to one if the number of land transactions in municipality m has reached 50% of the total in the first year of the reform. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. We instrument it with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. Column 3 reports the total effect as in Table 3, which we use as a benchmark. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Adj. R sq. is the adjusted R2; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Robustness

Table (B1) Mobile internet and aggregate bank characteristics

	(1) Number of Loans	(2) Number of Switchers	(3) Volume of Loans	(4) Lending Rate	(5) Past Due Loans
Std 3G coverage	0.130**	0.118***	0.285***	0.279	-0.012
	(0.065)	(0.034)	(0.091)	(0.287)	(0.017)
Estimation	IV	IV	IV	IV	IV
Bank-municipality FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Bank-year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	15.97	15.97	15.62	15.70	15.97
Obs.	12695	12695	12459	12467	12695
Mean Dep. Var.	1.307	0.171	8.650	18.75	0.011
S.D. Dep. Var.	1.301	0.420	1.696	5.375	0.078

Notes: This table reports estimates from 2SLS as presented in equation (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Number of Loans*, the natural logarithm of the total number of loans by bank b, in municipality m, in year t; *Number of Switchers*, the natural logarithm of the total number of switchers to banks; *Volume of Loans*, the natural logarithm of the total amount of outstanding loans; *Lending Rate*, the average interest rate on the loan; and *Past Due Loans*, the share of loans that are in past due and hence in a state of default. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t, instrumented by: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable (we refer to the share of past due amount in column 5), S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable, and are reported for the natural logarithm of loan volume, the lending rate and the share of past due loans. S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the bank-municipality and bank-year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B2) Mobile internet and access to credit—All borrowers

	(1)	(2)
	Probability of	
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.033***	-0.035***
	(0.012)	(0.013)
Estimation	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	15.76	15.76
Obs.	1.268e+06	1.268e+06
Mean Dep. Var.	0.157	0.190
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.363	0.392

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. We instrument it with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B3) Mobile internet and access to credit—First relationship

	(1)	(2)
	Probability of	
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.048***	-0.025*
	(0.015)	(0.014)
Estimation	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	16.22	16.22
Obs.	909165	909165
Mean Dep. Var.	0.163	0.189
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.369	0.392

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. We instrument it with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B4) Mobile internet and access to credit—Two-way fixed effects

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Probability of			
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Dummy 3G	0.057***	-0.105***	0.094***	-0.110***
	(0.011)	(0.016)	(0.036)	(0.035)
Estimation	OLS	OLS	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic			19.17	19.17
Obs.	909165	909165	909165	909165
Mean Dep. Var.	0.136	0.164	0.136	0.164
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.370	0.343	0.370

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Dummy* $3G$, a dummy variable for the presence of 3G, in municipality m, at time t. We instrument it with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B5) Mobile internet and access to credit—Weighted 3G coverage

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Probability of			
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.051**	-0.047**	0.049***	-0.048***
(weighted)	(0.022)	(0.020)	(0.017)	(0.017)
Estimation	IV	IV	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	9.669	9.669	11.63	11.63
Obs.	905574	905574	905574	905574
Mean Dep. Var.	0.137	0.163	0.137	0.163
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.370	0.343	0.370

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage* (*weighted*), the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t, weighted by population density (columns 1 and 2) and total population (columns 3 and 4). We instrument it with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B6) Mobile internet and access to credit–Alternative versions of the instruments

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Probability of			
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.056***	-0.086***	0.047***	-0.070***
	(0.017)	(0.022)	(0.015)	(0.018)
Estimation	IV	IV	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	11.55	11.55	13.06	13.06
Obs.	909165	909165	909165	909165
Mean Dep. Var.	0.136	0.164	0.136	0.164
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.370	0.343	0.370

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. In columns 1 and 2 we instrument our predictor with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a linear time trend; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a linear time trend. In columns 3 and 4 we instrument our predictor with two other instruments: the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning interacted with a post-2010 dummy $\times$ a linear time trend; the standardized average of incidental coverage interacted with a post-2010 dummy $\times$ a linear time trend. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B7) Mobile internet and access to credit—Single instruments

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Probability of			
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.036**	-0.035**	0.018	-0.037**
	(0.015)	(0.015)	(0.017)	(0.018)
Estimation	IV	IV	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	18.49	18.49	11.81	11.81
Obs.	909165	909165	909165	909165
Mean Dep. Var.	0.136	0.164	0.136	0.164
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.370	0.343	0.370

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std* 3*G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. We instrument it with two instruments, but separately: in columns 1 and 2, Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; in columns 3 and 4, Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B8) Mobile internet and access to credit—Geographical instruments

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Probability of			
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.048***	-0.049***		
	(0.009)	(0.009)		
Altitude			-0.021***	0.024***
			(0.006)	(0.006)
Wood			0.001	0.003
			(0.012)	(0.009)
Water			-0.008**	0.008*
			(0.003)	(0.004)
Sand			0.014***	-0.008***
			(0.001)	(0.001)
Estimation	IV	IV	OLS	OLS
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	861.54	861.54		
Obs.	906990	906990	906920	906920
Adj. R sq.			0.374	0.370
Mean Dep. Var.	0.136	0.163	0.136	0.163
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.369	0.343	0.369

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. We instrument it with four instruments: the mean altitude of the municipality m, and the percentage of its territory covered by wood, water and sand, all interacted with a dummy post-2010. In columns 3 and 4, we also provide the reduced form counterpart of this regression. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Adj. R sq. is the adjusted R2; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B9) Mobile internet and access to credit—Reduced form

	(1)	(2)
	Probability of	
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std Lightning	-0.013**	0.012**
	(0.006)	(0.006)
Std Incidental	0.003	-0.008*
	(0.004)	(0.004)
Estimation	OLS	OLS
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes
Obs.	909165	909165
Adj. R sq.	0.372	0.369
Mean Dep. Var.	0.136	0.163
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.369

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS as presented in equation (1). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictors are: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; and Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. Obs. refers to the number of observations; Adj. R sq. is the adjusted R2; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B10) Mobile internet and access to credit—Additional controls

	(1)	(2)
	Probability of	
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.037***	-0.028*
	(0.013)	(0.014)
Estimation	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	17.34	17.34
Obs.	931774	931774
Mean Dep. Var.	0.155	0.183
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.361	0.386

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. We instrument it with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B11) Mobile internet and access to credit—Province trends

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Probability of			
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.012***	-0.018***	0.027	-0.049**
	(0.005)	(0.006)	(0.020)	(0.013)
Estimation	OLS	OLS	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Province-Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	Yes	Yes	11.63	11.63
Obs.	909165	909165	909165	909165
Mean Dep. Var.	0.136	0.164	0.136	0.164
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.370	0.343	0.370

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std* 3*G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. We also instrument it with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and province by year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B12) Mobile internet and access to credit—Controlling for the U-SACCO program

	(1)	(2)
	Probability of	
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.035***	-0.037***
	(0.012)	(0.011)
Estimation	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	16.26	16.26
Obs.	909165	909165
Mean Dep. Var.	0.136	0.164
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.370

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. We instrument it with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B13) Mobile internet and access to credit—Controlling for broadband internet

	(1)	(2)
	Probability of	
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.033***	-0.035***
	(0.012)	(0.011)
Estimation	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	16.31	16.31
Obs.	909165	909165
Mean Dep. Var.	0.136	0.164
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.370

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std* 3*G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. We instrument it with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B14) Broadband internet and land transactions

	(1) 50% Benchmark	(2) Number of Transactions
Std 3G coverage	0.162**	0.013***
	(0.082)	(0.037)
Fiber	0.002	-0.024
	(0.063)	(0.028)
Estimation	IV	IV
Municipality FE	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	19.43	19.43
SW F-statistic	50.83	50.83
Obs.	2022	2022
Mean Dep. Var.	0.121	0.229
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.327	0.316

Notes: This table reports estimates from 2SLS as presented in equation (3), by using data at the municipality level. The dependent variables are as follows: 50% *Benchmark*, a dummy variable equal to one if the number of land transactions in municipality m has reached 50% of the total in the first year of the reform; and *Number of Transactions*, the inverse hyperbolic sine of the cumulative function of transactions in municipality m, scaled by the total number of parcels in the municipality. The main predictor is *Fiber*, a dummy variable indicating the presence of a fiber-optic cable, in municipality m, at time t, instrumented by: $Z_{mt}^{old\ road}$, the dummy for the presence of an old surfaced road, interacted with a dummy post-2009 (since 2010 is the year of introduction of broadband). SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the municipality and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B15) Mobile internet and land disputes

	(1)	(2)
	Probability of	
	Bank Loan	MFI Loan
Std 3G coverage	0.042**	-0.035**
	(0.019)	(0.017)
Std 3G coverage × disputes	-0.018	-0.002
	(0.025)	(0.021)
Estimation	IV	IV
Borrower FE	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic	5.90	5.90
Obs.	909165	909165
Mean Dep. Var.	0.136	0.164
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.343	0.370

Notes: This table reports estimates from 2SLS as presented in equation (3). The dependent variables are as follows: *Probability* (*Bank Loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a bank in year t, and zero otherwise; *Probability* (MFI *loan*), a dummy variable equal to one if borrower i, in municipality m, has an outstanding loan with a MFI in year t, and zero otherwise. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. This variable has been interacted with the variable *disputes*, measuring the standardized share of land parcels subject to disputes in municipality m, during the year 2014. We instrument both variables with two instruments: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_{m}^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_{m}^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Adj.R sq. is the adjusted R2; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the borrower and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

Table (B16) Mobile internet and profitable lands

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	50% Benchmark			
Std 3G coverage	0.118***	-0.059	0.159***	0.104*
	(0.030)	(0.101)	(0.020)	(0.061)
Std 3G coverage × coffee	0.051***	0.144***		
	(0.016)	(0.055)		
Std 3G coverage × tea			0.067***	0.082***
			(0.024)	(0.028)
Estimation	OLS	IV	OLS	IV
Municipality FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SW F-statistic		12.52		17.04
Obs.	2022	2022	2022	2022
Adj. R sq.	0.584		0.587	
Mean Dep. Var.	0.122	0.122	0.122	0.122
S.D. Dep. Var.	0.327	0.327	0.327	0.327

Notes: This table reports estimates from OLS and 2SLS as presented in equations (1) and (3), by using data at the municipality level. The dependent variable is 50% *Benchmark*, a dummy variable equal to one if the number of land transactions in municipality m has reached 50% of the total in the first year of the reform. The main predictor is *Std 3G coverage*, the standardized measure of 3G mobile coverage, in municipality m, at time t. This is interacted with $coffe$ a standardized variable measuring the average suitability of municipality m to coffee, in columns (1) and (2); and is interacted with *tea* a standardized variable measuring the average suitability of municipality m to tea, in columns (3) and (4). Both are instrumented by: Z_{mt}^{light}, the standardized yearly average frequency of lightning Z_m^{light}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010; Z_{mt}^{incid}, the standardized average of incidental coverage Z_m^{incid}, in municipality m, interacted with a dummy post-2010. Columns 1 and 3 refer to OLS estimates. Columns 2 and 4 refer to 2SLS estimates. SW F-statistics reports the Sanderson-Windmeijer multivariate F-statistics; Obs. refers to the number of observations; Adj. R sq. is the adjusted R2; Mean Dep. Var. refers to the mean of the dependent variable; and S.D. Dep. Var. refers to the standard deviation of the dependent variable. Fixed effects are at the municipality and year levels. Standard errors, in parentheses, are clustered at the municipality level. ***, ** and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.