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Reducing Hunger and Undernutrition

The HANCI Donor Index 2012

Measuring Donors' Political Commitment to Reduce Hunger and Undernutrition in Developing Countries

Dolf J.H. te Lintelo, Lawrence J. Haddad and Rajith Lakshman

September 2013

The IDS programme on Strengthening Evidence-based Policy works across seven key themes. Each theme works with partner institutions to co-construct policy-relevant knowledge and engage in policy-influencing processes. This material has been developed under the Reducing Hunger and Undernutrition theme.

The development of this material has been led by IDS who holds the copyright.

The authors would like to warmly thank Stuart Gillespie and various other colleagues within and outside of IDS for their generous reflections and comments on the HANCI Donor Index as it was being developed. Rupinder Kaur and Nasiha Tasneem provided valuable research assistance.

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THE HANCI DONOR INDEX 2012: MEASURING DONORS' POLITICAL COMMITMENT TO REDUCE HUNGER AND UNDERNUTRITION

Dolf J.H. te Lintelo, Lawrence J. Haddad and Rajith Lakshman

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Abbreviations

CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CDI	Commitment to Development Index
COP	Conference of the Parties
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
DFID	Department for International Development
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GNI	Gross national income
HANCI	Hunger and Nutrition Commitment Index
HDI	Human Development Index
HRCI	Hunger Reduction Commitment Index
IDS	Institute of Development Studies
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NBSAPs	National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans
NCI	Nutrition Commitment Index
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OECD–DAC	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development – Development Assistance Committee
PCA	Principal component analysis
SUN	Scaling Up Nutrition
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WHO	World Health Organization

Executive summary

What is HANCI?

Following a first phase of research that focused on developing countries, this second phase of the Hunger and Nutrition Commitment Index (HANCI) scrutinises donor government commitment to reducing hunger and undernutrition in developing countries.

The HANCI Donor Index has been created to:

- rank donor governments on their political commitment to tackling hunger and undernutrition in developing countries;
- measure what donors achieve and where they fail in addressing hunger and undernutrition – providing greater transparency and public accountability;
- praise donor governments where due, and highlight areas for improvement;
- support civil society to reinforce and stimulate additional commitment towards reducing hunger and undernutrition;
- assess whether improving donor commitment levels leads to a reduction in hunger and undernutrition.

Why measure political commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition?

Globally, levels of hunger and undernutrition remain unacceptably high.

Hunger and undernutrition are among the most persistent global development challenges. At the global level, insufficient progress has been made towards achieving Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 1. Globally, the number of undernourished people has been static, at 870 million, for the past five years, and the prevalence of stunting has remained high in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa at around 40 per cent (FAO 2012b). One in eight people do not get enough food to be healthy and lead an active life. Undernutrition contributes to the deaths of 3.1 million children under five each year – 45 per cent of the global total (Black *et al*. 2013).

Progress towards reducing hunger and undernutrition has been highly variable.

Many developing countries have benefited from substantial economic growth during the past two decades. For growth to have maximum impact, the poor must benefit from the growth process, enabling them to use additional income for improving the quantity and quality of their diet, and for accessing health and sanitation services, whereas governments need to use additional resources for public goods and services to benefit the poor and hungry. Thus, **economic growth is necessary but not sufficient to rapidly accelerate reduction of hunger and malnutrition unless it is equitable** (FAO 2012b).

A high level of donor commitment is essential to prioritise the fight against hunger and malnutrition (FAO 2012b).

This is because donor countries can have a substantial impact on how the prevalence of hunger and undernutrition in poorer countries develops. This influence manifests itself not just through overseas aid but also through the consequences of international cooperation and domestic trade and environmental policies.

HANCI has been created with the view that transparency and accessible data are key to holding governments to account.

Monitoring government action empowers people to demand more from their governments. With millions of lives at stake, greater public accountability on this key development issue is essential.

The research methodology

Indicators

We compared **23 donor countries** for their performance on **14 indicators of political commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition**. We looked at two areas of donor government action:

- policies, programmes and legal frameworks;
- public expenditures.

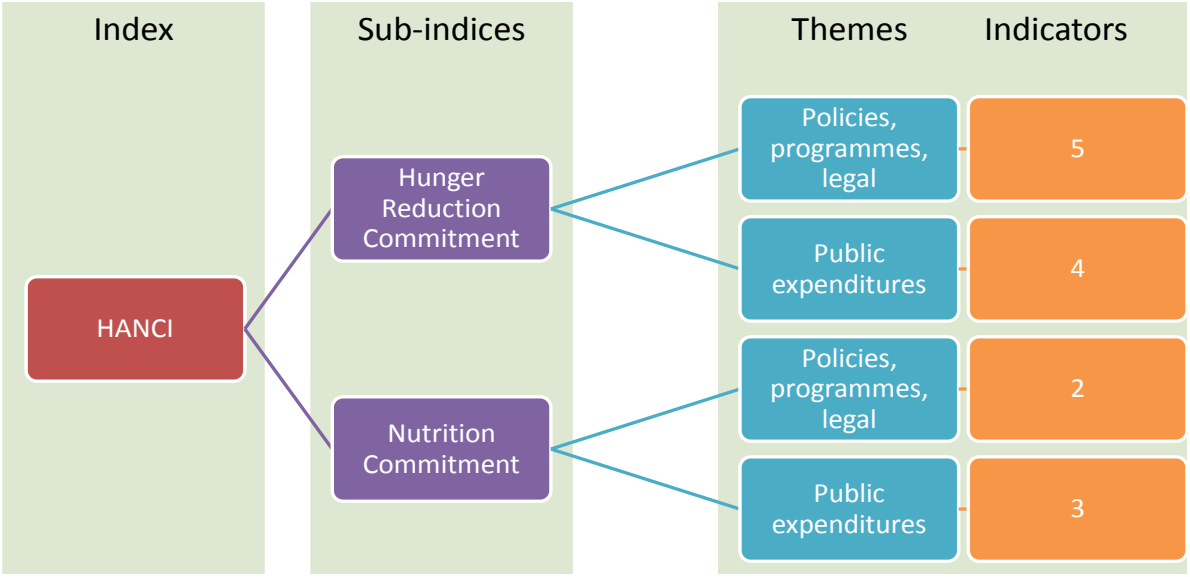
The HANCI Donor Index rankings compare countries against one another, using 14 indicators spanning the dimensions of agriculture and food security, nutrition, climate change, gender, and social protection. These broadly assess whether countries:

- commit to and disburse financial assistance, do so enduringly, and keep in mind their capacity to give support and the estimated funds needed to tackle the problems;
- establish domestic policy action that is coherent with anti-hunger and undernutrition objectives of its foreign aid policy (especially in relation to climate change and agricultural sector protection);
- engage in international agreements and treaties that help address hunger and undernutrition.

Critically, the HANCI Donor Index assesses countries' performance in the light of their ability to contribute to reducing hunger and undernutrition in the developing world. The index hence puts the absolute size of aid volumes and performance on policy pledges within context: those countries with bigger shoulders need to carry a heavier burden.

Spending indicators include the amount of aid given to agriculture and food security, nutrition, social protection and climate change relative to a country's wealth and to the required need. Aid spending is further assessed for its endurance and consistency over the past decade, in order to determine which donors 'stay the course'. Policy, programme and legal indicators assess donors' domestic policy action on climate change, biofuels, and unfair protection of the agricultural sector, and assess international collaboration to protect biodiversity and to support the international Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement.

Figure ES.1 Structure of HANCI for donor countries



HANCI measures commitment to reduce hunger and commitment to reduce undernutrition separately, because **hunger and undernutrition are not the same thing**. Hunger is the result of an empty stomach, and caused by people having insufficient income or social and economic entitlements to access food. Hunger makes people more susceptible to disease and thus leads to increased illness and death. Hunger strongly undermines development. To 'cope' with hunger, families can be forced to sell vital assets such as farming tools, often perpetuating their vulnerability to hunger. Hunger can mean that children (particularly girls) are taken out of school so they can work; it causes communities to migrate away from their homes; and, at worst, it leads to permanent destitution, prostitution, and child trafficking. Hunger also contributes to the onset of armed conflict (Foresight Project 2011: 3).

Undernutrition is related to, though subtly different from, hunger. Undernutrition is not only a consequence of hunger, but can also exist in the absence of hunger, and can be caused by non-food factors. Undernutrition results from both a critical lack of nutrients in people's diets and a weakened immune system. In a vicious cycle, poor nutritional intake can make people more susceptible to infectious diseases while exposure to disease can lower people's appetite and nutrient absorption. Undernutrition in the first 1,000 days of a child's life (from conception until the age of two) has lifelong and largely irreversible impacts because it impairs a child's physical and mental development. Undernutrition increases the risk of chronic diseases and premature death in adulthood, and negatively affects people's lifelong ability to learn, be economically productive, earn income and sustain their livelihoods, and thus perpetuates poverty. In short, undernutrition undermines all aspects of development.

Because hunger and nutrition are not the same thing, we investigate both hunger reduction commitment and undernutrition reduction commitment using distinct measures. For instance, donor governments can financially support childcare and child feeding programmes and invest in sanitation: such measures are critical for improving nutrition, though less clearly related to hunger. Conversely, emergency food aid or agricultural development programmes can help to reduce hunger by increasing food availability, but are often not aimed at achieving a balanced diet. By separately analysing nutrition commitment and hunger reduction commitment, we identify how donors prioritise action on hunger and/or undernutrition.

Key findings

The UK is among the leading countries in the fight against hunger and undernutrition

The United Kingdom (UK) has achieved the highest score out of 23 countries associated with the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) for spending, policies and treaty commitments that could help to reduce hunger and undernutrition in developing countries. Just beating Canada and Denmark, the UK owes its high score in particular to its strong performance on policy, programme and legal indicators. It does well on supporting the SUN movement and biodiversity protecting agreements, and has relatively low levels of protection of domestic agricultural markets. In terms of spending, the UK has a strong record delivering on its commitments for nutrition; while its Official Development Assistance (ODA) for nutrition has not been the highest, it has been stable and enduring over the past decade. However, the UK scores poorly when compared to other countries on several spending indicators: its levels of aid funding for agricultural development, food security and climate change are comparatively low.

Canada does well on policies, programmes and legal indicators. It supports the SUN movement, does well in terms of low protection of agricultural markets, sets relatively low biofuel blending mandates, and is among the top performers in terms of delivering on its greenhouse gas emission reduction pledges. Its performance on spending indicators is variable. Canada leads in terms of its enduringly stable financial support for agriculture and food security over the past decade. It also does fairly well on this for nutrition. However, Canada also shows weak spending performance on social protection and climate change adaptation and mitigation.

Denmark scores well for spending indicators. It gives a solid performance in terms of supporting nutrition (second highest of all countries), and this support is stable and enduring. It also invests well in climate change adaptation and mitigation. However, spending support for climate change is not entirely coherent with policy action. Denmark does poorly in terms of delivering on its greenhouse gas emission reduction pledges, yet is leading on the development of domestic climate change adaptation strategies and plans. As a European Union (EU) member state, Denmark's biofuel mandates are among the highest. Denmark is a member of the SUN movement and does fairly well in terms of its relatively low protection of domestic agricultural markets (within the group of 23 countries) and support for biodiversity agreements.

Germany and **Ireland** complete the group of countries leading on commitment. Germany performs strongly on most policy, programme and legal framework indicators, somewhat contrasting with its scores on spending indicators. Ireland gains especially strong scores on biodiversity, endorsement of SUN, and is among the top donors investing in social protection. Ireland also shows enduring and stable financial support for agriculture and food security.

Table ES.1 The HANCI Donor Index: scores, rankings and country groupings

	Hunger and Nutrition Commitment Index Score	Hunger Reduction Commitment Score	Nutrition Commitment Score	Hunger and Nutrition Commitment Index Rank	Hunger Reduction Commitment Rank	Nutrition Commitment Rank
United Kingdom	78	34	44	1	4	1
Canada	74	36	38	2	2	3
Denmark	73	32	41	3	6	2
Germany	65	29	36	4	9	5
Ireland	61	31	30	5	7	8
Sweden	59	21	38	6	14	3
Belgium	58	27	31	7	11	6
Spain	57	35	22	8	3	13
Luxembourg	53	26	27	9	12	9
Finland	52	37	15	10	1	20
Norway	51	28	23	11	10	11
France	50	25	25	12	13	10
Australia	50	34	16	12	4	18
Switzerland	48	30	18	14	8	15
Japan	47	16	31	15	18	6
Netherlands	43	20	23	16	16	11
New Zealand	37	21	16	17	14	18
Italy	29	10	19	18	21	14
United States of America	29	12	17	18	20	17
Greece	23	5	18	20	23	15
Portugal	23	10	13	20	21	21
Austria	23	17	6	20	17	22
South Korea	22	16	6	23	18	22

Green = leading on commitment (top 1/3rd)
Orange = moderate commitment (middle 1/3rd)
Red = relatively low commitment (bottom 1/3rd)

Commitment to reducing hunger is not the same as commitment to reducing undernutrition

Several countries score well on commitment to reduce hunger but poorly on commitment to reduce undernutrition, and vice versa. For instance, Australia ranks 4th on the Hunger Reduction Commitment Index (HRCI) but 18th on the Nutrition Commitment Index (NCI); Finland is 1st on the HRCI but 20th on the NCI; while Sweden and Japan do much better on the NCI (3rd and 6th respectively) than on HRCI (14th and 18th).

South Korea, Portugal, Greece and Austria rank lowest on the HANCI Donor Index

South Korea is a relatively new donor. Its spending on hunger and nutrition is relatively low, and it is not a member of the SUN movement. However, it does fairly well in terms of offering stable and enduring financial support for agriculture and food security, it has relatively low biofuel mandates, and is putting policies in place to deal with climate change adaptation.

While Greece and Portugal are in the throes of prolonged economic downturns and extremely vulnerable public finances, Austria is not. Austria invests relatively little in nutrition, agriculture and food security, social protection, and climate change adaptation and mitigation. Its investments in agriculture, food security and nutrition are not very stable over time. In terms of policy, Austrian biofuel mandates are among the highest (as an EU member). Austria does, however, do well in terms of relatively low agricultural protection and in putting in place strategies and plans to address climate change adaptation.

Good development partners could do more for hunger and nutrition

Donors championing the cause of hunger and nutrition are not necessarily the biggest spenders. The ten highest HANCI donor rankings are not strongly correlated to the share of the gross national income (GNI) given as aid. This also suggests that countries that have a relatively good track record on international development like France, Norway, the Netherlands and Switzerland, who are not in the top ten HANCI rankings, could do more for hunger and nutrition.

1 Introduction

Hunger and undernutrition are among the most persistent global development challenges. At the global level, insufficient progress has been made towards achieving Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 1. At the global level, the number of undernourished people has been static at 870 million for the past five years, and the prevalence of stunting has remained high in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa at around 40 per cent (FAO 2012b).

There are many reasons[1] for insufficient progress in reducing hunger and undernutrition. One of these is a 'lack of political will' or political prioritisation (FAO 2012b: 22). Political commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition would be shown by purposeful and decisive public action, through public policies and programmes, public spending and legislation that are designed to tackle these twin problems.

Hunger and undernutrition reduction are currently on donor agendas. In April 2013, the Irish government inaugurated its Presidency of the European Union with the hosting of a conference on Hunger, Nutrition and Climate Justice. In June 2013, the British government, led by the Prime Minister David Cameron, hosted an event ahead of the G8 summit which successfully sought to persuade donor as well as developing countries to make new commitments aiming to address hunger and undernutrition and to be accountable for doing so. In May 2012, health leaders worldwide adopted the Maternal, Infant and Young Child Nutrition Plan at the 65th World Health Assembly, agreeing to commit to reducing the number of stunted children in the world by 40 per cent by 2025. Underpinning much of this is the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement, which seeks to galvanise and guide public and private action towards improved nutrition outcomes, especially for the worst off.

How will we know whether commitments like these are being made, if they will be met, and if all countries are pulling their weight?

The Hunger and Nutrition Commitment Index (HANCI) is a new tool to assess the extent of government commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition. Its objective is to develop a credible measure of the commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition to help focus support and pressure for change. The measurement of hunger and nutrition outcomes alone is not a sufficiently strong accountability mechanism, largely because attribution is difficult. There are many factors contributing to hunger and undernutrition outcomes, many of which neither recipient nor donor governments can control. However, in the absence of transparency and better information on what governments are doing to address the situation, it is very difficult to link outcomes with government action or inaction. We thus need to be able to track donor governments' commitment.

How might measuring political commitment change anything? The theory of change behind the HANCI is that: (1) by credibly measuring commitment it will strengthen our ability to hold governments to account for their efforts in reducing undernutrition and hunger; (2) if civil society is better able to hold governments to account, then it can apply pressure and ensure that hunger and undernutrition are put high on development agendas; (3) governments can hold themselves to account in their efforts to keep hunger and undernutrition high on the

[1] The Global Strategic Framework for Food Security and Nutrition (cited in FAO 2012a) identifies the following causes of hunger and malnutrition: 'lack of good governance to ensure transparency, accountability and rule of law, which underpin access to food and higher living standards; lack of high-level political commitment and prioritization of the fight against hunger and malnutrition, including failure to fully implement past pledges and commitments and lack of accountability; lack of coherence in policymaking within countries, but also globally and regionally; lack of prioritization of policies, plans, programmes and funding to tackle hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity, focusing in particular on the most vulnerable and food insecure populations; war, conflict, lack of security, political instability and weak institutions; and weak international governance of food security and nutrition'.

agenda: the index can help them to track and prioritise their efforts because it is constructed on the basis of performance in different areas (policy, legal and expenditure); and (4) commitment can be linked to outcomes, to allow all to assess the 'value added' of different commitments and effort.

Following the recently released HANCI for developing countries (te Lintelo *et al*. 2013), this report presents the HANCI for *donor countries*. It aims to bring a greater measure of transparency and accountability to the functioning of donor countries in supporting developing countries to address hunger and undernutrition. The HANCI Donor Index uniquely compares 23 donor countries for their relative performance in key areas contributing to hunger and undernutrition reduction. It uses 14 commitment indicators assessing donor spending and policy choices relating to agriculture, food security, nutrition, social protection, gender equity, climate change, and trade. The HANCI is calculated using secondary (government-owned) data. The report further presents findings from primary research in four donor countries: Germany, Ireland, the UK and the Netherlands.[2]

1.1 The HANCI Donor Index: what's new?

The HANCI Donor Index substantially builds on (and replaces) the Hunger Reduction Commitment Index (HRCI) for donors (te Lintelo *et al*. 2011), drawing on its theory of change and methodology. The HANCI Donor Index also presents several innovations.

- It consistently applies a fair share approach, to assess countries' capacity and responsibility for providing support.
- It introduces a new set of indicators across the familiar themes of expenditures, and policies, programmes and legal frameworks.
- It covers a greater range of countries in which primary research is conducted.

Table 1.1 provides a short overview.

1.1.1 HANCI dissemination

If the HANCI Donor Index is to add value by highlighting donors' successes and deficits in commitment to ending hunger and undernutrition, it has to be well known and easy to access. We have begun the first phase of setting up mechanisms and channels for outreach and have developed a communications plan.

A new website has been launched (www.hancindex.org). It will be regularly updated to provide the latest information on the project and to provide access to relevant background papers, presentations, and the latest data. Users interested in the project can subscribe to receive updates. The website includes a number of interactive data visualisation applications. These present HANCI findings in a number of ways and allow users to interact with and explore the underlying data.

Multimedia products such as an animated film and photo-slideshows have been developed to explain the HANCI and reflect the views and experiences of communities most affected by hunger and undernutrition. These will also be available on the HANCI website and on YouTube (http://youtu.be/PKv6G0Zw4UI), and the animated film has already been embedded on various websites of other interested parties.

[2] The report is called the *HANCI Donor Index 2012* because all data were collected in 2012.

Table 1.1 Overview of HANCI Donor Index features compared with the HRCI for donor countries

Features			HANCI 2012	HRCI 2011
Focus			Hunger and nutrition commitment	
Themes			Public expenditures Policies, programmes and legal frameworks	
Secondary data				
	Countries		23	21
	Indicators		14	10
	Index construction			
		Indicator values aggregated	Normalised values, at theme level	
		Ranking scheme	Borda	
Primary data				
	Countries		The UK Ireland Germany The Netherlands	The UK
	Experts interviewed		91	26
Website			www.hancindex.org	www.hrcindex.org

The HANCI reports have led to a range of media interviews with the HANCI authors, including radio broadcasts with the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) World Service, BBC Radio 5, Radio Moscow, and a feature-length production by Al Jazeera television. The reports have also received substantial positive coverage by social media and in the blogosphere. Irish and Canadian ministers have commented and tweeted on the index and policymakers in Norway and the Netherlands are seeking to improve their rankings on future index editions. Annex 1 provides an overview of media coverage of the HANCI Donor Index during June 2013.

The remainder of this report is structured as follows. Chapter 2 focuses on the HANCI methodology, discussing both secondary and primary data collection and use. Chapter 3 presents the HANCI donor country rankings, based on secondary data analysis. Chapter 4 discusses the empirical functioning of the index and the findings from a sensitivity analysis. Chapter 5 presents findings from primary research for Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands and the UK. It is followed by a brief set of conclusions in Chapter 6.

2 Methodology

2.1 Building the HANCI Donor Index using secondary data

Index construction involves decisions about what indicators to include and how to weight each. Indices need to be critically evaluated on the following aspects (Ravallion 2010):

- conceptual clarity;
- transparency about trade-offs within the index;
- robustness tests (openness on the quality of data and on the weights used);
- a critical perspective on policy relevance.

The following sections reflect on these aspects. We start with a conceptualisation of key terms, followed by a discussion of the methodological choices involved in developing the HANCI Donor Index based on secondary data. We then reflect on the research methodology for the collection and use of primary data.

2.1.1 Conceptualising political commitment of donor countries

The concept of political commitment can be broken down into components of government action and intention (te Lintelo *et al*. 2011). The difficulty of identifying and measuring intention leads us to focus on government action[3] towards hunger reduction and improved nutrition. Actions of particular interest concern sustained material, legal and financial efforts (The Policy Project 2000). Government action addressing social problems typically takes the form of a combination of legislation and policy or programmatic action, with both underpinned by public spending.

Commitment of donors, when assessed, tends to be done from a singular angle focusing on aid spending profiles, as for instance demonstrated by recent assessments of nutrition commitment (Coppard and Zubairi 2011; Mutuma 2012; Di Ciommo 2013). Others combine this with attempts to assess the quality of donor–recipient relations (ONE 2013). The HANCI Donor Index is inspired by the approach of the Commitment to Development Index (CDI) (Roodman 2012), which critically assesses the coherence of donor policy in and beyond the realm of aid. Accordingly, the HANCI Donor Index interrogates donors' aid profiles and assesses domestic policy choices and engagements in international legal agreements that have a bearing on hunger and nutrition outcomes in developing countries. The HANCI Donor Index contains indicators on two themes: (1) public spending, and (2) policies, programmes and legal frameworks.

How do we apply these themes to hunger and undernutrition? We chose to relate the index to the term 'hunger' because hunger resonates with non-experts, and the index is designed to help those who want to motivate non-experts to put pressure on their governments to act. Hunger is the body's way of signalling that it is running short of food and needs to eat something. Hunger can lead to malnutrition (SUN 2010). Nevertheless, hunger, undernutrition and food insecurity are not the same thing (Foresight Project 2011). For example, an individual can be food insecure and suffering from undernutrition, but not hungry, because while the quality of his or her diet is poor, the bulk may be sufficient to satiate.

[3] For the purpose of building an index that compares countries, this project focuses on national-level governments. This aggregates political will at a high level and is thus not suitable for identifying differences in commitment at a lower level of aggregation, such as across departments or between levels of administration.

The operationalisation of the HANCI is informed by definitions of food security and nutrition security. 'Food security exists when all people at all times have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life' (CFS 2009). A broad interpretation of this definition recognises that individuals' access to adequate food that fully satisfies nutritional needs must be understood in conjunction with non-food factors that enable a person to metabolise their food and use the nutrients to support growth, to maintain the body and to carry out basic life functions (CFS 2012). The concept of nutrition security makes such aspects more explicit. Thus, nutrition security is achieved when secure access to an appropriately nutritious diet is coupled with a sanitary environment and adequate health services and care, to ensure a healthy and active life for all household members (SUN 2010).[4]

Accordingly, the HANCI Donor Index considers how donor countries can undertake action relating to key dimensions of food availability, access, stability and utilisation emphasised in the food security definition, and also actively seeks to address food, care-related and other non-food aspects of nutrition more explicitly identified in the nutrition security definition.

2.1.2 Indicator and country selection criteria

The HANCI distinguishes (levels of) political commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition from actual hunger and nutrition outcomes. While political commitment should drive such lagged outcomes and outcomes should affect commitment in turn, there are many other factors that drive hunger and undernutrition. Commitment should therefore not be confused with outcomes, and should be measured separately. This general principle was applied to assess developing countries' commitment (te Lintelo *et al*. 2013), and applies even more strongly for donor countries' commitment. Bilateral donor action will, in most cases, only indirectly affect hunger and undernutrition outcomes, as technical and financial aid are mediated by the apparatuses of recipient country governments, and increasingly so to ensure their ownership.

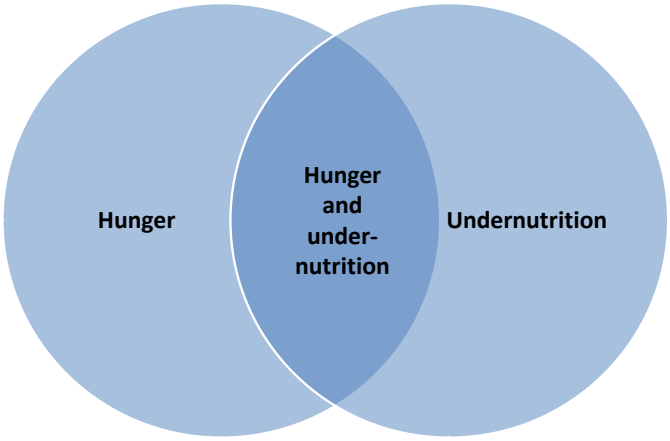
Hunger, undernutrition, and the commitment to fighting hunger and undernutrition are imprecise concepts and need to be approximated by several variables. We use a theory-based approach to the selection of the index items and are guided by four general principles.

First, indicators should cover donor support towards major aspects of efforts to reduce hunger and to enhance nutrition: food availability (production and market availability), food access (the ability to access and purchase food), and food utilisation (including non-food factors affecting individuals' ability to use food to build and maintain nutrition status and to carry out basic life functions). We include a variety of indicators that (1) address only hunger; (2) address both hunger and nutrition; and (3) focus only on nutrition (Figure 2.1). For instance, donors can provide aid for direction nutrition interventions such as vitamin A supplementation programmes, or to indirect nutrition interventions such as improved sanitation. However, support for such important nutrition interventions rarely aims to address hunger *per se*. Conversely, emergency food aid can help to reduce hunger, but is often not aimed at achieving a balanced diet.

Second, because 'malnutrition is often misperceived by policymakers as a basic food problem, rather than a complex multisectoral problem' (Headey 2011: 30), we looked for indicators that span the various sectors, including agriculture, food security, nutrition, gender, social protection, and trade policy.

[4] At the global level, undernutrition, especially among children, increasingly coexists with overweight and diet-related chronic diseases and micronutrient malnutrition. While this double burden of malnutrition is growing (FAO 2012b), the HANCI focuses on undernutrition because we are unable to find suitable indicators of political commitment to address over-nutrition for which data are available across a wide range of countries.

Figure 2.1 Aspects covered by HANCI indicators



Third, we considered how donors support different types of interventions:

- *direct* interventions (e.g. ODA to basic nutrition);
- *indirect* interventions (e.g. ODA investments in agriculture or sanitation);
- indicators referring to wider political and financial *enabling environments* (FAO 2012b) necessary to sustain progress in tackling global hunger and undernutrition. In relation to undernutrition, an 'enabling environment' can be defined as the 'wider political and policy processes which build and sustain momentum for the effective implementation of actions that reduce undernutrition' (Gillespie *et al*. 2013).

Fourth, we aimed to select indicators that are simple and transparent in order to be easily understood by all stakeholders. This principle was, however, sometimes trumped by the need for the index to include indicators that express commitment relative to countries' ability to contribute to reducing hunger and undernutrition (and, in the case of climate change, historical responsibility for CO2 emissions). In some cases, donor commitments are defined against different reporting periods; comparing countries thus involved devising a common benchmark, overruling the simplicity principle.

The process of identifying indicators started with a review of the donor country indicators in the HRCI (te Lintelo *et al*. 2011). It was complemented with a brief literature review on the role and performance of donor countries towards addressing hunger and undernutrition. This literature is limited and dominated by reports by international non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (e.g. ONE 2010; Coppard and Zubairi 2011; Mousseau 2012; Mutuma 2012; Di Ciommo 2013; ONE 2013). Multilateral agencies such as the World Health Organization (WHO) (Chopra *et al*. 2009; Engesveen *et al*. 2009), the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) (pers comm., Schmidhuber 2012), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the SUN Secretariat (SUN 2010, 2011; ACF 2012; Mannar 2012; SUN 2012b, 2012c) and others (REACH 2012) have begun monitoring commitments of aid recipient countries to address hunger and undernutrition. This critical gaze has not yet been sufficiently extended to bilateral and multilateral donors and philanthropic foundations.

Having drafted a list of tentative indicators, we operationalised these and consulted hunger and nutrition specialists at the Institute of Development Studies (IDS) about their suitability. Having identified indicators that we would have liked to be included in the HANCI, we conducted a desk review to identify data sources, drawing on international databases, academic and grey literature and web-based materials. We were also mindful of the quality of the data as reported by other analysts (Ravallion 2010) and whether there was sufficient variation in indicator scores across countries allowing us to be able to distinguish between

their performances. Annex 2 shows the indicators that we considered including but were unable to, and explains why they could not be included (chiefly because of data unavailability and lack of variation from year to year).

The study includes all countries for which the OECD–DAC Creditor Reporting System database provides data (see Table 2.1).[5]

Table 2.1 Countries included in the HANCI Donor Index 2012 (by alphabetical order)

Australia	Denmark	Greece	Luxembourg	Portugal	Switzerland
Austria	Finland	Ireland	Netherlands	Spain	United Kingdom
Belgium	France	Italy	New Zealand	South Korea	United States of America
Canada	Germany	Japan	Norway	Sweden	

2.2 HANCI Donor Index indicators

This section first provides an overview of the indicators used for constructing the HANCI Donor Index (Table 2.2). It is followed by a brief discussion of the logic behind each indicator's selection.

Table 2.2 HANCI indicators by theme and by type of intervention

	Expenditures	**Policies, programmes and legal frameworks**
Direct interventions	ODA to nutrition: fair share* ODA to nutrition: endurance* ODA to nutrition: commitment vs disbursement*	
Indirect interventions	ODA to agriculture and food security: fair share† ODA to agriculture and food security: endurance†	Biofuels mandates†
Enabling environment	ODA to social protection: fair share† ODA to climate change: fair share†	CO2 emission performance† Gender objectives in ODA‡ SUN membership* Protection of domestic agriculture† Biodiversity† Climate change adaptation strategies/plans†

*Nutrition indicators, †Hunger reduction indicators, ‡Hunger and nutrition indicators.

HANCI Donor Index indicators express donors' political commitment to reduce (a) hunger and (b) undernutrition. They span various dimensions, including agriculture and food security, nutrition, climate change, gender, and social protection. The indicators are organised by theme: (1) public expenditures, and (2) policies, programmes and legal frameworks.

[5] Emerging donors such as China, Brazil, South Africa and India are not members of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development – Development Assistance Committee (OECD–DAC) and comparable data for these donors are not available, hence they are not included in the index.

Indicators reflect on:

- the nature of donors' bilateral aid, in terms of size, stability and endurance, and keeping in mind a country's capacity (and, in the case of climate change, responsibility) to support developing countries. The public spending indicators employ a 'fair share' principle. Here, each donor's financial contributions are expressed relative to its wealth (GNI). Accordingly, a country's GNI is expressed as a share of all 23 countries' accumulative GNI, and its actual aid contribution (e.g. to nutrition or to agriculture and food security) is compared to its share of GNI, to assess whether a country contributes its fair share;
- the coherence of donors' domestic policies and foreign aid objectives towards addressing hunger and undernutrition reduction (especially in relation to climate change and agricultural sector protection);
- donor leadership in furthering international joint action on global public goods critical for addressing hunger and undernutrition (e.g. climate change and biodiversity).

2.2.1 Hunger reduction commitment indicators

The index assesses political commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition and increase food security, all of which are multifaceted. We deliberately include indicators that allow the index to assess donor support for 'curative' action (efforts that seek to address immediate needs) as well as 'preventive' action (efforts to avert future hunger and undernutrition incidence, to reduce food insecurity and to prevent people from becoming malnourished). Consequently, some of our proxy indicators measure interventions that are not primarily instituted to combat hunger or undernutrition (e.g. achieving CO2 emission reduction pledges; protection of domestic agricultural markets; gender objectives in ODA). Nevertheless, donors recognise that these efforts contribute to hunger reduction and improved nutrition statuses in the short, medium and long term, and are therefore included in the index. The discussion below sets out the justification for each of the indicators.

The nine hunger reduction commitment indicators include four indicators for the **public expenditures** theme:

ODA to agriculture and food security as a percentage of the fair share required

This indicator follows the HRCI (te Lintelo *et al*. 2011) and HungerFREE Scorecards (ActionAid 2009, 2010) approach. The FAO assessed that an additional US$30 billion per year investment in agriculture and rural infrastructure (additional to emergency food aid) is needed to boost food security (ActionAid 2009).[6] It is assumed that developing countries will fund about a third of the increase needed, requiring donors to provide the shortfall of $20 billion. Bilateral and multilateral donor spending in these areas has been about $8.4 billion per year, so the total donor funding needed in 2012 is approximated as $28.4 billion per year.

This indicator applies a fair share principle to assess whether some donors are bearing a bigger part of the burden (relative to their ability to contribute) than others. A country's fair share is calculated by multiplying its share of GNI in the total cumulative GNI for 23 countries with the required sum of $28.4 billion per year. The actual ODA to agriculture and food security (mean over 2009–11) is then divided by the fair share required (ODA actual/ODA as fair share required).

[6] Throughout the report, all references to $ amounts refer to US$.

ODA to agriculture and food security: endurance and stability

Whereas the previous indicator captures current investments in agriculture and food security by donors, this indicator considers whether donors enduringly support such investments. It assesses whether their support is stable rather than episodic. It assesses ODA to agriculture and food security (as share of the overall bilateral ODA portfolio) on a year-by-year basis over the past decade, and uses standard deviations as a measure to assess the stability of investments over time.

Countries are clustered in four groups and countries within a given group are allocated the same scores. First, countries are clustered in respect of their (a) share of ODA to agriculture and food security in their overall ODA portfolio. Countries are allocated scores of 1, 2, 3 or 4 each for bottom to top quartiles (4 = best). Second, countries are clustered for the stability of their decadal spending (b), using standard deviations as criteria. The quartile with lowest standard deviations gains a score of 4, while the quartile with highest standard deviations gains a score of 1. Finally, the sum of (a) and (b) is calculated for each country.

ODA to social protection as a percentage of the fair share required

This indicator expresses donor countries' ODA on social protection as a fair share. The benchmark figure of $52.4 billion is based on estimations of the cost of extending a 'minimum essential package' comprising community-based management of acute malnutrition, employment guarantee programmes, social pensions, and child growth promotion in order to globally eliminate seasonal hunger and chronic undernutrition and to enhance food security throughout the year (Devereux *et al*. 2008). It estimates the costs as amounting to £48.52 billion ($78.64 billion) annually. It further assumes that rich countries need to bear two-thirds of the financial burden. Consequently, developed countries need to collectively invest $52.4 billion each year for social protection in developing countries (ActionAid 2009). Country scores are based on actual ODA expenditure vs fair share ratio.

ODA to climate change (mitigation and adaptation) compared to fair share required

Climate change is a major threat to food security in developing countries, in particular for small-scale farmers, as it induces higher variability in weather patterns and increases the occurrence of extreme weather events. For consumers, climate change impacts may cause greater volatility of food prices and a higher likelihood of price spike occurrences in future.

This indicator assesses the aid that donors give to support developing countries to mitigate and adapt to climate change. In the absence of a fair share benchmark figure of total ODA needed for climate change adaptation and mitigation, this indicator employs an alternative way of expressing a country's efforts compared to a fair share. The fair share principle draws on the Greenhouse Development Rights Framework (Baer *et al*. 2008). It posits that all people (in developed and developing countries) have a right to develop and should not be burdened with a responsibility to address climate change until they achieve a level of development that satisfies essential human needs such as food, shelter, health, education, etc.[7] Baer *et al*. (2008) accordingly calculate a 'capacity and responsibility index', using a country's wealth as a proxy for historical greenhouse gas emissions (responsibility), whereas a measure of equity is built in to demand that those people who can afford (have capacity) should contribute to the costs of addressing climate change.[8] The 23 OECD countries

[7] This development threshold is set at an income of $20 a day at purchasing power parity.
[8] It thus 'takes intranational income disparities formally into account, stepping beyond the usual practice of relying on national per-capita averages, which fail to capture either the true depth of a country's developmental need or the actual extent of its wealth' (Baer *et al*. 2008:13).

covered by the index are responsible and have capacity to take care of 71.12 per cent of the global emission reductions needed[9] (Baer *et al*. 2008).

The indicator calculates a country's mean ODA commitment to climate change[10] as a share of all 23 donors' contributions (over 2009–11). A country's share of ODA commitments is then compared to its historical responsibility and capacity to contribute to addressing climate change, based on the Responsibility and Capacity Index calculations.[11]

The HANCI Donor Index's second theme, **policies, programmes and legal frameworks,** focuses on the efforts that donor countries make towards reforming (a) domestic policies and legislation, and (b) international aid architectures and legal agreements that contribute to food and nutrition insecurity outcomes in the developing world. Donor countries' hunger reduction commitment is assessed for five policies, programmes and legal framework indicators, as follows.

Protection for domestic agricultural markets

Many developed countries provide trade protection to domestic agricultural producers.

Agricultural subsidies and tariffs distort trade, and are unfair on farmers in developing countries who are not subsidised. Low levels of protection thus signify a commitment to strengthen production incentives for farmers in the developing world, to strengthen their economies, enhance incomes to purchase food, and to enhance production incentives and volumes. This indicator assesses levels of protection of domestic agricultural markets. Data are derived from the Commitment to Development Index (CDI) (Roodman 2012).

Biofuels mandates

Domestic policies and laws in donor countries incentivising biofuels production perversely drive the conversion of food into fuel (e.g. maize into ethanol), drive the use of productive arable land for growing crops for uses other than human food consumption, and drive the upward movement of food prices (OECD and FAO 2011; Durham *et al*. 2012). Biofuels are furthermore associated with land grabs. Moreover, the current generation of biofuels increase carbon emissions, when the effects of land use change are taken into account (Searchinger *et al*. 2008).[12]

Legal and policy mandates in donor (and in developing) countries drive the production of biofuels. A wide range of policy instruments are used, including subsidies, tariffs, research and development (R&D) investments, credit support, etc. Blending mandates are among the most significant measures driving biofuels production (Gerasimchuk *et al*. 2012). This indicator accordingly assesses donor countries' biofuels blending mandates (established in

[9] To achieve atmospheric concentrations of CO2 consonant with global temperature increases of less than 2 degrees centigrade.
[10] The data are based on the 'Rio markers' on climate change mitigation and adaptation, established by the Development Assistance Committee (DAC), in collaboration with the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) Secretariat.
[11] In the absence of a benchmark figure of costs needed to contain global warming to within 2 degrees centigrade (either for sufficiently reducing emissions, or for adaptation and mitigation costs), we compare a country's share in the total ODA spend on climate change mitigation and adaptation (which is unlikely to be sufficient compared to what is needed) to its responsibility to reduce emissions. In future editions of the HANCI Donor Index, we will seek to sharpen up this indicator.
[12] Currently, the most important biofuels concern ethanol and biodiesel. For ethanol, globally, maize and sugar cane are expected to remain the major feedstocks over the coming decade. By 2020, 12 per cent of the global production of coarse grains is estimated to be used for producing ethanol (compared to 11 per cent on average over the 2008–10 period). Moreover, in the coming decade, 21 per cent of the global coarse grains production's increase will be converted into biofuel (OECD and FAO 2011).

law, or as policy goals for future achievement), expressed as a percentage of total car fuel consumption.[13]

Effected pledge on CO2 reductions

This indicator assesses the extent to which donors show leadership on climate change through making unconditional commitments to reduce greenhouse gases, and assesses whether countries are on track to deliver on such pledges. With the Kyoto Protocol coming to an end and international climate change negotiations in deadlock, this indicator assesses (residual) political leadership on climate change. It assesses the minimum unconditional CO2 emission reduction commitments[14] as per the Copenhagen Accord (2009). As countries use different base years for their CO2 emission reduction targets pledged to be achieved by 2020, we express pledges in terms of annual linear CO2 reduction targets. These are compared to actually achieved annual emission reductions, drawing on data from the UNFCCC, and include emissions from land use, and land use change and forestry for the latest available year (UNFCCC 2012b).[15]

National adaptation strategies/plans for climate change

This indicator considers that donor countries' climate change adaptation policies are critical for anticipating, adapting to, and minimising the damaging effects of climate change on domestic food production. Donor countries are among the world's biggest agricultural producers of staple food crops such as wheat, sorghum, maize, potatoes (and, to a smaller extent, rice, millet, etc). Donor countries that do not put in place adaptation policies are less prepared to deal with growing vulnerability and climate change-induced production shocks. Being major international food producers, domestic shocks may reverberate in volatile global food production systems, with negative knock-on effects for food insecurity in developing countries.[16] Countries are scored as follows: 1 = no strategy; 2 = actions without strategy; 3 = strategy, no plan; 4 = strategy and plan. Data are drawn from Mullan *et al*. 2013.

Biodiversity

Biological diversity at the levels of ecosystems, the species they contain, and the genetic diversity within species (Toledo and Burlingame 2006) is a critical global public good. It is fundamental to agricultural production and food security[17] (Thrupp 2000; Chappell and Lavalle 2009). Moreover, the practices used for enhancing biodiversity are tied to the rich

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[13] While there is growing realisation that policy stimulation for adopting second and third generation biofuels crops using non-food feedstock (such as algae or biomass waste) may help overcome the conversion of food to fuel and shifts in land use affecting food production, currently, few subnational, national, or supranational authorities have developed such policies. The OECD 'remains very cautious on the medium-term potential of second generation biofuels' (OECD and FAO 2011: 87). The EU, however, seems to be moving towards supporting second generation biofuels. While retaining its ambition to move from the current 5.75 per cent to a 10 per cent biofuels goal for 2020, it wants additional biofuels to be sourced from non-food and non-feed biofuel feedstock (Lane 2012; Wisner 2013).

[14] The Copenhagen Accord includes various kinds of commitments by signatory countries, often referencing different base years and annual reduction levels. Some countries have given unconditional offers; others have made offers conditional on other countries' doing the same. For instance, Australia 'will unconditionally reduce its emissions by 5 per cent compared with 2000 levels by 2020 and by up to 15 per cent by 2020 if there is a global agreement which falls short of securing atmospheric stabilisation at 450 ppm CO, eq under which major developing economies commit to substantially restraining their emissions and advanced economies take on commitments comparable to Australia's' (UNFCCC 2012a). It is argued here that unconditional offers provide the best measure of leadership and commitment to address climate change.

[15] It is appreciated that, in some cases, actual emission reductions reflect economic downturns rather than committed government action to reduce these.

[16] The levels of policy preparedness need to be understood within context. Arguably, plans for adaptation are particularly important for those countries having substantial food production. In future editions of the index, this indicator may be weighted for the relative importance of countries' contribution to global food production – i.e. for relatively large producers, it may be more serious if no adaptation policies are put in place.

[17] Predominant patterns of agricultural growth have eroded biodiversity in, for example, plant genetic resources, livestock, insects and soil organisms. The expansion of agriculture in 'natural' habitats in frontier areas has caused the loss of biodiversity (Thrupp 2000; Chappell and Lavalle 2009). Future editions of the HANCI Donor Index may further explore how donors support more sustainable forms of agriculture.

cultural diversity and local knowledge that support the livelihood of agricultural communities worldwide (Thrupp 2000).

This indicator assesses donors for their efforts on three international treaties that aim to safeguard biodiversity:

- The Convention on Biological Diversity (1992);
- The Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (2009);
- The International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture (2001).

The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) is the chief international treaty aiming to protect biodiversity. It has three objectives: the conservation of biological diversity; the sustainable use of the components of biological diversity; and the fair and equitable sharing of benefits arising from the utilisation of genetic resources (Secretariat of the Convention on Biological Diversity 2012). National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans (NBSAPs) are the principal instruments for implementing the Convention at the national level.[18]

Fish stocks are a critical source of animal protein for substantial parts of the world's population. The CBD includes targets to protect vulnerable marine ecosystems, and calls for establishing Marine Protected Areas to conserve 10 per cent of coastal and marine areas. Various other international treaties, declarations and agreements are in place to support the governance of fish stocks. The Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (2009) is a global, legally binding instrument that strikes at the key reason behind such fishing – economic profit – in order to support responsible and sustainable fisheries (Kuemlangan and Press 2010). The main purpose of the Agreement is to prevent, deter and eliminate illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing through the implementation of robust port state measures. The Agreement enables port states to regulate foreign vessels when seeking entry to ports or while they are in port. It widens responsibility for illegal, unreported and unregulated (IUU) fishing violations from flag states to port states, and stipulates minimum port state measures (FAO 2012a).

The International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture (2001) also plays a role in the fight against hunger (Toledo and Burlingame 2006). The Treaty establishes a legally binding global framework for the sustainable conservation of plant genetic resources for food and agriculture. A global pool of genetic resources is put in place for 64 crops (accounting for 80 per cent of global plant-based foods). The pool is freely available to potential users in the Treaty's ratifying nations for research, breeding and training for food and agriculture uses. The Treaty also recognises farmers' rights and the historical contribution farmers have made to the world's wealth of plant genetic resources (FAO 2013).

[18] The Convention requires countries to prepare a national biodiversity strategy (or equivalent instrument) and to ensure that this strategy is mainstreamed. The tenth meeting of the Conference of the Parties (COP) to the Convention in Nagoya in 2010 calls on countries to implement the 2011–2020 Strategic Plan for Biodiversity, including a set of targets known as the Aichi Biodiversity Targets. These are to be incorporated in revised and updated NBSAPs. A set of 20 biodiversity targets are to be monitored in coming years. Currently, these data are not yet available; though this will be reviewed in future HANCI Donor Index reports.

The HANCI Donor Index indicator calculates a mean country score over three aspects:

- The status of the NBSAPs implementation by Parties to the CBD.[19] Countries gain the following score:
  0 = not parties to CBD
  1 = Parties developing first NBSAP
  2 = Parties have NBSAP, not started revision process
  3 = Parties with NBSAPs under revision or previously revised
  4 = Parties that have revised NBSAPs post-Nagoya Protocol (from 2011 onwards)

- The signatory status of donor countries to the International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture (2001). Countries gain the following score:
  0 = no contracting party
  2 = signatory
  4 = ratified, acceded, accepted, approved

- The signatory status of donor countries to the Agreement on Port State Measures to Prevent, Deter and Eliminate Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated Fishing (2009). Countries gain the following score:
  0 = no contracting party
  2 = signatory
  4 = ratified, acceded, accepted, approved

2.2.2 Nutrition commitment indicators

For nutrition commitment, the following three public expenditure indicators were selected.

ODA to nutrition as a percentage of the fair share required

Current investments in nutrition are inadequate (Coppard and Zubairi 2011; Action Against Hunger 2012; Di Ciommo 2013). The World Bank assesses that the annual cost of scaling up 13 priority and highly cost-effective nutrition interventions (identified by *The Lancet* 2008 Series) amounts to $11.8 billion. Out of this, $1.5 billion is expected to be borne by private household resources (High Level Taskforce on the Global Food Security Crisis 2010; Horton *et al*. 2010).[20] This leaves a total financing gap of $10.3 billion to be raised from public resources to support the scale-up of nutrition measures.

'Tracking ODA to nutrition in the CRS database is more accurate when multiple purpose codes are used' (Action Against Hunger 2012, executive summary).[21] Accordingly, we calculate countries' ODA to nutrition by summing up:

- 'Basic nutrition' (purpose code 12240), classified as: direct feeding programmes (maternal feeding, breastfeeding and complementary feeding, child feeding, school feeding); determination of micronutrient deficiencies; provision of vitamin A, iodine, iron, etc.; monitoring of nutritional status; nutrition and food hygiene education; and household food security.

[19] The CBD has been accepted and ratified by most countries in the world. Those who have not (USA and South Sudan) are given a zero score.
[20] In future editions of the HANCI Donor Index, the total figures needed are likely to come down. Thus, Spratt (2012) estimates global figures to amount to $10 billion by 2015 and $8.94 billion by 2025. He also notes that shifts in regional patterns of need are expected, with reducing shares having to support South East Asia and South Central Asia.
[21] Greater accuracy could be achieved further if the analysis had focused on individual projects (ACF 2012). Doing this consistently for all ODA indicators used in the HANCI Donor Index was, however, beyond the scope of this report.

- ‘Basic drinking water supply and basic sanitation’: water supply and sanitation through low-cost technologies such as handpumps, spring catchment, gravity-fed systems, rain water collection, storage tanks, small distribution systems; latrines, small-bore sewers, on-site disposal (septic tanks).
- ‘Education/training in drinking water supply and sanitation’.
- ‘Infectious disease control’: immunisation; prevention and control of malaria, tuberculosis, diarrhoeal diseases, vector-borne diseases (e.g. river blindness and guinea worm), etc. (OECD no date).dovedale1412
-

This indicator applies a fair share principle to assess whether some donors are bearing a bigger part of the burden (relative to their ability to contribute) than others. A country’s fair share is calculated by multiplying its share of GNI in the total cumulative GNI for 23 countries with the $10.3 billion. The actual ODA to nutrition for the latest available year (2011) is then divided by the fair share required (ODA actual/ODA as fair share required).

ODA to nutrition: endurance and stability

Whereas the previous indicator captures current investments in nutrition by donors, this indicator considers whether donors have enduringly supported nutrition investments over the past decade, and further assesses whether support is stable rather than episodic. It assesses ODA to nutrition as a share of the overall bilateral ODA portfolio on a year-by-year basis over the past decade, and calculates standard deviations as a measure to assess the stability of investments over time.

Countries are clustered in four groups and countries within a given group are allocated the same scores. First, countries are clustered in respect of their (a) share of ODA to nutrition in their overall ODA portfolio. Countries are allocated scores of 1, 2, 3 or 4 each for bottom to top quartiles (4 = best). Second, countries are clustered for the stability of their decadal spending (b). The quartile with lowest standard deviations gains a score of 4, while the quartile with highest standard deviations gains a score of 1. Finally, the sum of (a) and (b) is calculated for each country.

ODA to nutrition: commitments vs disbursements

The group of 23 OECD countries collectively fail to deliver 11 per cent of commitments made to nutrition, whereas the fulfilment of individual donor commitments varies widely (ACF 2012: 6). This indicator hence assesses the extent to which individual countries disburse the ODA commitments they make for nutrition. It simply compares annual commitments and actual disbursements in the latest three available years (2009–11) to assess whether donors ‘walk the walk’.

We further identified two indicators for the policies, programmes and legal frameworks theme to assess nutrition commitment:

SUN movement membership

This indicator ascertains whether or not donor countries have signed up to the SUN movement, which aims to help countries affected by undernutrition to achieve long-term reduction in undernutrition, and seeks to achieve a global push for action and investment to improve maternal and child nutrition (SUN 2012a). SUN has kept or put nutrition high on the political agenda of a range of donor and recipient countries, and successfully promoted a multisectoral approach to undernutrition and the concept of ‘nutrition focused’ development (Mousseau 2012).

The indicator expresses whether countries support SUN directly, indirectly (for EU countries only[22]), or do not support it.

ODA disbursements with a gender policy objective

This indicator highlights the extent to which donor countries incorporate gender-focused policy objectives in their aid disbursements. This indicator is not specific to food and nutrition; however, it is included because broad-based support for gender equity may, for instance, contribute to the breaking down of barriers for women's equal access to income-generating opportunities and to productive agricultural land and its produce, etc. The indicator scores are calculated as the proportion of aid having 'principal' or 'significant' gender objectives in a country's overall ODA. The donors self-report these data to the OECD Creditor Reporting System (CRS) database.

Table 2.3 gives an overview of the indicators by sector and dimension of food and nutrition security.

Table 2.3 Political commitment indicators by sector and dimension of food and nutrition security

	Food and agriculture	**Nutrition, social protection, health**
Availability of food and key nutrients	ODA to agriculture and food security: fair share ODA to agriculture and food security: commitment vs disbursement ODA to climate change: fair share Effected pledge CO2 emissions Climate change adaptation strategies/plans Biodiversity	ODA to nutrition: fair share ODA to nutrition: endurance and stability ODA to nutrition: commitment vs disbursement
Access to food and key nutrients	Protection of domestic agriculture	ODA to social protection: fair share SUN membership
Utilisation of food and key nutrients	Biofuels mandates	

The indicator 'ODA with gender policy objective' is not shown, as it cross-cuts multiple cells in the table.

Finally, it should be noted that HANCI Donor Index indicators share a common limitation: they weakly express the *quality* of government efforts. Arguably, real commitment should be reflected in spending that reflects value for money and in thorough implementation of policies and laws. Typically, such data do not exist to allow for comparisons between countries. This is a problem across this whole class of commitment and governance indicators.

The ODA spending data used in the HANCI Donor Index primarily draw on the Creditor Reporting System Aid Activities Database of the OECD-DAC. The database provides readily available basic data that enables analysis on where aid goes, what purposes it serves and what policies it aims to implement, on a comparable basis for all DAC members. The HANCI Donor Index employs bilateral aid data only.[23] It employs the most up-to-date figures (for 2011) on bilateral ODA. Wherever data for the latest year was not complete for one or more countries, we calculated mean spending levels over three years to ensure availability and

[22] EU countries can support SUN directly. Where they do not, they indirectly support SUN through the European Union.
[23] Donor countries provide additional support to multilateral agencies (as core or non-core funding). The OECD currently does not provide detailed overviews of the size of multilateral aid flows by purpose code. Recent efforts to impute country-specific multilateral aid flows for nutrition suggest substantial variation between countries' preferences for multilateral or bilateral aid (Di Ciommo 2013).

comparability of data for all countries. The OECD's CRS database is currently the best available data, though certainly not without limitations.[24]

2.3 Index design

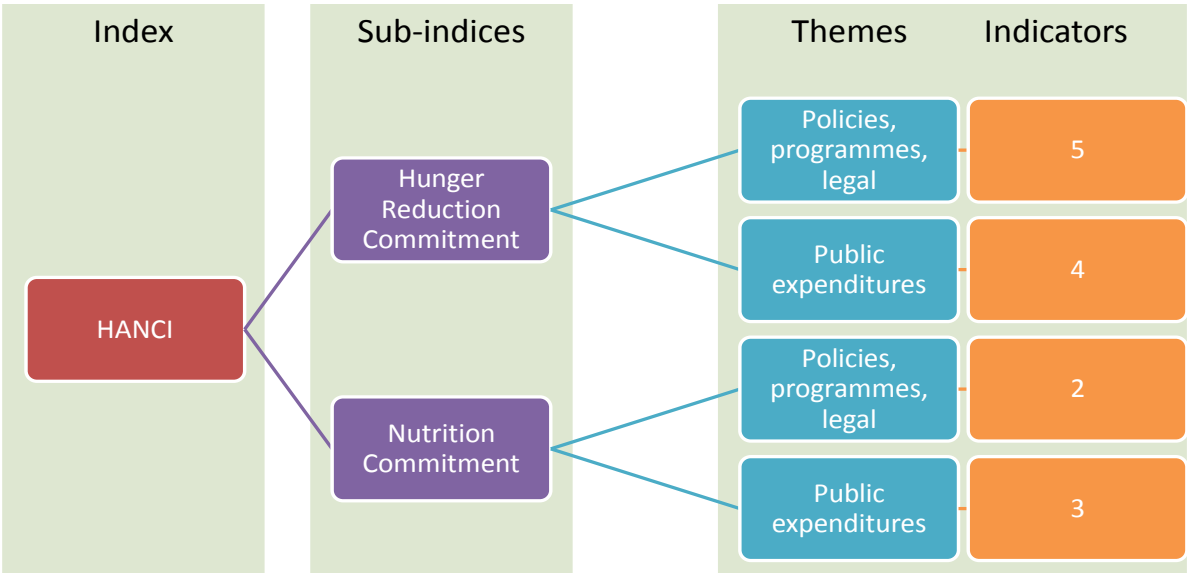
Having set out the selected indicators, this subsection reflects on the structure and technical design choices underpinning the HANCI Donor Index.

The HANCI is constructed using secondary data.[25] It is composed of two sub-indices on:

- hunger reduction commitment;
- nutrition commitment.

Each sub-index is composed of two themes: (1) public expenditures, and (2) policies, programmes and legal frameworks. Each theme contains seven indicators (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 The structure of the HANCI Donor Index



We present a composite HANCI score and ranking for each country, based on the scores and ranks achieved for hunger reduction commitment and nutrition commitment. We do so in order to emphasise the intrinsic linkages between hunger and undernutrition, and also because of the ease of communicating one overall ranking per country (rather than two) to key stakeholders, including policymakers and campaigners. While there is a trade-off between ease of communication and data specificity, we offer the HANCI rankings as a starting point, from where readers can dig deeper and zoom in on those aspects of hunger and/or nutrition commitment that are of particular relevance.

Table 2.4 provides an overview of the indicators.

[24] 'The CRS database is problematic to use for detailed tracking of ODA to the nutrition sector due to poor donor reporting practices and limitations with the CRS database itself' (ACF International 2012a, executive summary). Similarly, the pledges of $22 billion funding made at the 2009 l'Aquila Food Security Initiative were characterised by opaque monitoring mechanisms, and difficulties determining the extent to which new monies were disbursed (ONE 2010). One report concludes that 'Current reporting practices for both government and donor funding do not allow a proper monitoring of spending on food and nutrition' (ACF International 2012b: 41).

[25] STATA datasets and syntax files are available on request.

Table 2.4 Overview of the HRCI and NCI indicators

Theme		Indicator
Hunger Reduction Commitment Index		
	Expenditure	ODA to agriculture and food security as % of the fair share required
		ODA to agriculture and food security: endurance and stability
		ODA to social protection as % of the fair share required
		ODA to climate change (mitigation and adaptation) as % of the fair share required
	Policies, programmes, legal frameworks	Protection for domestic agricultural markets
		National climate change adaptation strategy/plan
		Biofuels mandates
		Effected pledge on CO2 reductions
		Biodiversity
Nutrition Commitment Index		
	Expenditure	ODA to nutrition as % of the fair share required
		ODA to nutrition: endurance and stability
		ODA to nutrition: commitments vs disbursements
	Policies, programmes, legal frameworks	ODA disbursements with gender policy objective: share of total
		Membership of Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement

Having identified indicators, we used a theoretical rather than a data-driven approach (e.g. factor analysis, principal components analysis, etc.) to constructing the index because: (1) we want users of the index to understand the rationale for indicator choice; (2) we want the weighting to be easy to understand; and (3) we feel that the theory behind hunger and nutrition measurement and commitment is sufficiently well developed to guide choices.

Nevertheless, as part of a sensitivity analysis to assess the robustness of the HANCI Donor Index, we do compare its rankings with an index driven by a principal components analysis and a factor analysis (Chapter 4).

Table 2.5 Actual and alternative design choices for the HANCI Donor Index

	HANCI Donor Index	Alternative options
Normalisation	Re-scaling using HDI methodology	Standardisation (Z-score)
Weighting schemes	Equal weighting by theme	Equal weighting by indicator Factor analysis/Principal Components Analysis (PCA)
Aggregation and scoring	Borda scores only (for themes; sub-indices; HANCI)	Additive values only Additive values and Borda scores Borda scores only (for indicators, and themes)

The index structure is influenced by various technical decisions about normalisation, weighting schemes and scoring techniques. Table 2.5 provides an overview of actual versus some alternative design choices. In the following paragraphs we set out design choices underpinning the HANCI. The sensitivity analysis in Chapter 4 shows how alternative design choices affect HANCI outcomes.

2.3.1 Aggregation, normalisation and scoring

Indicators need to be normalised before being aggregated. Normalisation prevents an indicator from having greater weight in the determination of an index simply because of its unit of measurement. For example, adding infant mortality rate (absolutely low) and undernutrition rate (absolutely large) without normalising, implicitly attributes higher weight to the item that is absolutely larger (assuming they have similar variances). The normalisation procedure we use is the one adopted by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Human Development Index (HDI), which re-scales indicators based on the following formula:

$$\text{normalised value of } x_i = \hat{x}_i = \frac{x_i - x_{\min}}{x_{\max} - x_{\min}}$$

This normalises the value of all indicators to [0,1] range. Going back to the earlier example of infant mortality versus undernutrition, both variables will lie in the [0,1] range after this re-scaling. Some indicators (e.g. the dichotomous variables) in the HANCI are already in the [0,1] range, hence this re-scaling is redundant for them. Having all indicators in a uniform range is of particular value to the HANCI as it mitigates unequal weight being given to indicators as a result of their scale. Other normalising methods such as standardisation and distance to a reference country, while useful under other circumstances, do not constrain the normalised indicators within a uniform range.[26] This was the main reason why we did not use them in the HANCI. However, a robust or 'meaningful' index would produce a ranking that is invariant to these choices (Ebert and Welsch 2004). The sensitivity analysis in Chapter 4 accordingly assesses whether the HANCI rankings are robust to alternative design choices.

After normalisation, indicator scores were aggregated to form the HANCI. This was done in two steps: (1) aggregation of indicators to form four composite indicators formed around the two themes and two sub-indices; and (2) aggregation of thematic and sub-index level composite indicators (CI_T) to form the overall composite indicator (CI) which is the HANCI. Both of these aggregations were done using additive methods. Aggregation of indicators at thematic level was done as the summation of weighted and normalised indicators:

$$CI_T = \sum w_i \hat{x}_i$$

where $\sum w_i=1$ and $0 \leq w_i \leq 1$ for all *i*. In the case of the HANCI, the indicator weights were equal within each of them, *i.e.* $w_i=w_j$ for all *i* and *j* within each theme. The next round of aggregation was done at the theme level. This too was an equally weighted aggregation but using the Borda rule instead of a summation because we employ indicators that are measured on continuous and ordinal scales (whose values can therefore not be meaningfully summed up). The Borda rule used here is:

$$CI = HANCI = \sum w_T Rank(CI_T)$$

where $\sum w_T=1$ and $0 \leq w_T \leq 1$ for all T=expenditure, policy, and legal themes. Again, equal weights were selected in this aggregation, such that each theme was equally weighted in the HANCI. However, this means that individual normalised indicators ($\hat{x}_i$) are not equally weighted in the HANCI even though they are equally weighted within themes.

[26] Not all normalisation methods can be applied to the HANCI. For a fuller list see Nardo *et al*. 2005.

Various ranking schemes can be employed once indicator scores are calculated, before and/or after aggregation. One disadvantage of ranking is that it leads to a loss of information. Table 2.6 illustrates that the ranking scheme employed can have impacts on the overall ranks for countries.

Table 2.6 Hypothetical cardinal and Borda ranking schemes compared

Country	Legal framework (a)		Policies and programmes (b)		Public expenditures (c)		Cardinal ranking		Borda ranking	
	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Add up values	Overall ranks	Add up ranks	Overall ranks
One	0.6	2	0.5	3	0.9	1	2.0	First	6	Second
Two	0.3	3	0.6	2	0.5	2	1.4	Third	7	Third
Three	0.8	1	0.8	1	0.1	3	1.7	Second	5	First

Note: Indicator scores between 0 and 1, with 1 as best.

One major advantage of Borda ranking is that it allows for easy comparison of indicators expressed on different scales. HANCI indicators are measured on both cardinal, continuous and ordinal, dichotomous scales.[27] We thus use a Borda scheme to preserve the ordinal nature of the index. In other words, rather than ranking the values of the indicators across themes we rank the sum of the rankings across themes (Dasgupta 2001). One disadvantage of using the Borda scheme is that it gives only a ranking. However, for an index of this type, it is the best that can be done.

2.3.2 Weighting schemes

This sub-subsection draws substantially on a recent review of the literature on weighting schemes by Decancq and Lugo (2010). These authors identify various approaches that use information that is very different in nature, leading to diverse weighting schemes. Any weighting scheme involves trade-offs between the dimensions of the index. As there is no widely accepted theoretical framework on how to set these trade-offs, researchers need to consider the reasonability of implied trade-offs between the dimensions and exercise common sense and caution (Decancq and Lugo 2010).

Normative, equal weighting

The HANCI applies a subjective, theory-driven weighting scheme that allocates equal weights to:

- each of the two sub-indices, such that the hunger reduction commitment and nutrition commitment sub-indices each contribute 50 per cent to overall HANCI scores;
- each of the two themes: public expenditures, and policies, programmes and legal frameworks (within the sub-indices and consequently in the overall HANCI).

Although equal weighting schemes are often defended from an agnostic perspective, they are not uncontroversial. Like any other weighting scheme, equal weighting involves value choices regarding the substitutability of various dimensions of the index, without specifying the normative attractiveness of such choices (Decancq and Lugo 2010).

[27] E.g. the relative share of a donor's ODA to nutrition as fair share is expressed as a percentage within the min/max range, and thus measured on a continuous, cardinal scale. The indicator assessing whether or not a government is a member of the SUN movement is measured on an ordinal, trichotomous scale.

For the HANCI, we assume full substitutability of sub-indices and themes. Accordingly, a country's performance on policies, programmes and legal frameworks indicators is deemed just as important as its performance on the public expenditure indicators. Moreover, its performance on hunger reduction is given the same importance as for improving nutrition.

Given that the HANCI uses uneven numbers of indicators for its themes, and for its two sub-indices, any weighting scheme applied at sub-index and thematic level implicitly affects the weightings attributed to the individual indicators (Table 2.7). This approach is also adopted, for instance, by the UNDP's HDI and by the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (Alkire *et al*. 2012). We thus privilege comprehensiveness over equality of weighting for indicators. That is, we do not want equal indicator weighting to drive down the number of indicators to the lowest common denominator, as we want to capture the multidimensional nature of political commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition. Nevertheless, the downside of this choice is that some indicators currently weigh up to 2.5 times more than others. In future, additional indicators will be sought in order to come closer to equal weighting for all indicators.

Table 2.7 Weightings in the HANCI Donor Index

Index	Sub-index	Theme	Indicator	Weight
HANCI Donor Index	Hunger Reduction Commitment (1/2)	Policies, programmes, legal frameworks (1/4)	Effected pledge CO2 emissions	1/20
			Climate change adaptation strategies/plans	1/20
			Biodiversity	1/20
			Protection domestic agriculture	1/20
			Biofuels mandates	1/20
		Public expenditures (1/4)	ODA to agriculture and food security: fair share	1/16
			ODA to agriculture and food security: commitment vs disbursement	1/16
			ODA to climate change: fair share	1/16
			ODA to social protection: fair share	1/16
	Nutrition Commitment (1/2)	Policies, programmes, Legal frameworks (1/4)	SUN membership	1/8
			ODA with gender policy objective	1/8
		Public expenditures (1/4)	ODA to nutrition: fair share	1/12
			ODA to nutrition: endurance and stability	1/12
			ODA to nutrition: commitment vs disbursement	1/12

In order to compare our subjective allocation of equal weights to themes with alternative preferences, we devised a simple exercise that allows third parties to set their own subjective weights. This exercise avoids imposing the weighting preference of a group of researchers at IDS. A web-based tool allows HANCI website visitors (www.hancindex.org) to apply their own subjective weighting schemes to the two themes, and see how these affect donor country rankings.[28]

Data-driven weighting

Various statistical devices can be used in data-driven approaches to identify weighting schemes.[29] We can distinguish descriptive and explanatory models.

[28] Our web-based tool (www.hancindex.org) shows, for the HANCI Donor Index, how website visitor-determined weighting schemes produce different rankings from our equal weighting of themes. For the developing country HANCI, a further option compares this with (1) expert and (2) community weighting schemes.
[29] Other data-driven approaches use frequency-based weights or most favourable weights.

Explanatory models (such as factor analysis) assume that some observed indicators are dependent on a certain number of unobserved latent variables (Decancq and Lugo 2010). Descriptive statistical models such as principal component analysis (PCA) or cluster analysis aim to minimise double counting, as indicators within the model may be strongly correlated and thus capture the same latent dimension. PCA has been widely used to build indices of 'wealth' or 'intelligence' (Filmer and Pritchett 2001; Hunt 2007). It assigns weights to indicators based on their correlations in order to find the 'principal component' that best represents the available data. In PCA, the set of indicators is transformed into an equal number of mutually uncorrelated (orthogonal) linear combinations of indicators, each explaining a proportion of the variance in the data (Decancq and Lugo 2010).

Data-driven approaches have the advantage of being 'objective' and seemingly avoid value judgements. They also have several limitations: PCA, factor analysis and other multivariate statistical approaches to determine weights are atheoretical and non-transparent. They do not offer clear explanatory narratives for their findings and therefore do not speak easily to policymakers and non-specialist audiences. Moreover, weights based on data-driven approaches can change between different editions of the same index, so that comparability over time is lost (this is a critical objective of the HANCI). Furthermore, PCA assigns lower weights to dimensions that are poorly correlated. This procedure may not be suitable, because the HANCI needs to capture multiple underlying dimensions of political commitment, which may *not* necessarily be strongly correlated (see Somarriba and Pena 2009, in Decancq and Lugo 2010).

Keeping in mind these limitations, in the sensitivity analysis presented in Chapter 4 we compare the implications that equal weighting and data-driven weighting approaches have for HANCI Donor Index outcomes.

2.4 Methodology for primary data collection: expert perception surveys

In addition to the secondary data-based HANCI Donor Index, the project collected primary data on political commitment through an expert perceptions survey administered over the internet.

Four identical surveys were conducted in the Netherlands, Ireland, Germany and the UK. The survey employed a structured questionnaire posing more than 30 questions plus sub-questions. The instrument employs five-point Likert scales, where respondents are asked to indicate their level of agreement with statements and questions, with low scores corresponding to high levels of government commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition (1 = very strongly, 2 = strongly, 3 = moderately, 4 = weakly, 5 = very weakly).

Survey questions were designed to capture the following aspects (or indicators) of political commitment (cf Brinkerhoff 2000):

- Credible incentives: The institutionalisation of credible incentives for individuals and donor agencies (e.g. is poor performance towards achieving nutrition and hunger policy objectives sanctioned, and is success rewarded with, say, promotions and extra resources?)
- Policy coordination: Donors show leadership coordinating policy among themselves and with recipient countries' institutions.
- Locus of policy origin (e.g. do donor agency country offices have sufficient flexibility to create programmatic action that is sensitive to the country context, to foster ownership?)
- Learning and adaptation mechanisms and practices (e.g. regular monitoring and evaluation in donor agencies).
- Evidence: The marshalling of scientific evidence in donor decision-making processes (e.g. is policy informed by new insights on how to address undernutrition?)
- Mobilisation of stakeholders (e.g. do donor agencies actively aim to get widespread support for their interventions domestically and overseas?)
- Public commitment: (e.g. Are donor policy preferences revealed, and resources assigned to achieve these open to public scrutiny?)
- Government intention and action (e.g. What kind of a priority does the aid programme give to hunger and malnutrition?)
- Resource allocation and expenditures (e.g. What is the strength, relevance and sufficiency of expenditures on hunger/malnutrition reduction policies and programmes?)
- Continuity of effort (e.g. Are donor efforts strong and sustained, or episodic, one-shot efforts?)
- Coherence of domestic policy with aid policy for hunger and undernutrition reduction.

These commitment aspects were incorporated in various questions. Table 2.8 provides a summary for the UK survey.

The surveys were conducted between July and September 2012 and employed a web-based module (Survey Monkey). The research team identified 395 hunger and nutrition experts initially through personal networks, research partners, the European Association of Development Research and Training Institutes, and the Development Studies Associations in the UK and Ireland.

All identified survey candidates were sent an invitation to participate, and where applicable we followed up with two further reminder emails. Those respondents who participated were invited to suggest further survey candidates: this resulted in 31 suggestions, who were subsequently invited to participate in the survey.

A total number of 91 respondents participated in the survey in the four countries. Overall response rates amounted to 23 per cent, varying by country between 20 and 26 per cent (Table 2.9). Such response rates compare somewhat less favourably with general web-based survey response rates of 33 per cent (Nulty 2008).

Table 2.8 Overview of questions in expert survey, by indicator (UK example)

Indicator	Questions
Resource allocation and expenditures	Q31. To what extent are UK aid policy preferences (re: hunger and malnutrition reduction) reflected in budget expenditures? Q32 and 33. How strong or weak would you characterise UK aid expenditures on hunger and malnutrition, in (a) absolute (in money terms)? Q32 and 33. How strong or weak would you characterise UK aid expenditures on hunger and malnutrition, in (b) relative terms (keeping in mind the nature of the problem and relative to other aid spending)? Q34. In your opinion, how well has your country's development agency (the Department for International Development (DFID)) developed transparent financial mechanisms for earmarked hunger and nutrition aid funding? Q35. How sensitive are UK aid budget expenditures on hunger and malnutrition to emergencies?
Institutional coordination	Q40 and 41. Hunger and malnutrition are typically an issue of relevance to multiple donor agencies (bilateral and multilateral). What level of intellectual leadership does UK aid demonstrate in (a) multilateral forums and (b) within a recipient country, with other donors? Q42 and 43. What level of practical leadership does UK aid demonstrate in (a) multilateral forums and (b) bilaterally within recipient countries (e.g. by chairing donor coordinating bodies on hunger and malnutrition)?
Government intention and action	Q7. What kind of a priority does the UK aid programme give to hunger and malnutrition? Q8. How does current attention to the theme of hunger and malnutrition in the UK aid programme compare to this one year ago? Q11. For those hunger and malnutrition reduction interventions identified as most important in UK aid, how sufficient are current efforts towards fulfilling policy goals? Q12 and 13. To what extent do UK aid officials speak out against hunger and malnutrition in: (a) international public forums; (b) recipient country public forums; and (c) recipient country private forums (with political, civil service and civil society leaders)?
Locus of initiative	Q15. To what extent do DFID (UK Department for International Development) in-country offices enjoy flexibility to create hunger and malnutrition reduction programmes sensitive to country-specific circumstances?
Analytical rigour	Q16 and 17. What level of empirical understanding do UK aid officials have at (a) headquarters and (b) in-country offices of the status of hunger and malnutrition in recipient countries? Q18 and 19. What level of empirical understanding do UK aid officials have at (a) headquarters and (b) in- country offices of causal factors of hunger and malnutrition? Q20 and 21. What level of empirical understanding do UK aid officials have at (a) headquarters and (b) in-country offices of potential solutions for hunger and malnutrition? Q22. How important is scientific evidence in UK aid programmes on hunger and malnutrition reduction? Q23. How developed are UK aid systems (e.g. monitoring and evaluation, research and development) for generating knowledge and evidence for policy?
Public commitment	Q29. How clearly are policy preferences aiming to address hunger and malnutrition (in the developing world) set out in UK government publications? Q30. How open is UK government policy (aiming to address hunger and malnutrition)?

Table 2.8 (cont'd.)

Indicator	Questions

Learning and adaptation	Q24. In general, how likely are UK aid programmes and policies to be adjusted (e.g. to objectives, instruments, strategies and funding), when faced with strong evidence that suggests a change of course? Q25. To what extent does UK aid innovate and experiment with new policy approaches developed domestically or abroad to combat hunger and malnutrition? Q26. What level of importance do UK aid programmes give to informing and influencing hunger and malnutrition-relevant policies in recipient countries?
Mobilisation of stakeholders	Q27. How successfully do UK aid programmes muster adequate and ongoing support for its hunger and malnutrition reduction programmes in recipient countries? Q28. How would you evaluate UK government communication efforts towards domestic audiences to build and retain support for overseas hunger and malnutrition reduction programmes? Q36.How strongly is your country's development agency (DFID) urging aid-receiving countries to develop nutrition budget lines in national budgets?
Continuity of effort	Q39. Is the UK aid programme on hunger and malnutrition best characterised as: (a) entirely long term, programme-oriented; (b) chiefly long term, programme-oriented; (c) mixture of long and short term, programme and project; (d) chiefly short term, project-focused; or (e) entirely short term, project-focused?
Credible incentives	Q37. For DFID as an agency, is the (lack of) achievement of hunger and malnutrition policy objectives credibly sanctioned or rewarded (e.g. through promotions, training opportunities, budget rises/cuts; win/loss of political gravitas, etc)? Q38. For DFID (individual) staff, is the (lack of) achievement of hunger and malnutrition policy objectives credibly sanctioned or rewarded (e.g. through promotions, training opportunities, budget rises/cuts; win/loss of political gravitas, etc)?
Coherence domestic policy – aid policy	Q44. To what extent do UK achievements to reduce CO2 emissions and efforts mitigating climate change cohere with the objectives of UK aid towards hunger and malnutrition reduction overseas? Q45. To what extent do UK domestic agricultural subsidy policies cohere with UK aid policy objectives regarding hunger and malnutrition reduction in developing countries? Q46. To what extent does the UK position in international trade negotiations (or the position it takes to influence EU trade policy) cohere with UK aid policy objectives regarding hunger and malnutrition reduction?

Table 2.9 Response rates for web-based expert perception survey

	Identified respondents	**Web-based expert surveys completed**	**Response rate (%)**
UK	100	21	21
Ireland	100	24	24
Germany	85	17	20
Netherlands	110	29	26
Total	395	91	23

Whereas the survey aimed to include a well-balanced set of experts working on hunger and undernutrition issues in government, academia, private sector, international donors, and civil society organisations, in practice participation rates varied substantially by sector (Table 2.10). Strong representation from academia and international donors is combined with lower participation from civil society and from donor governments. This bias in our sample, combined with relatively low response rates, means that survey findings should be interpreted cautiously.

Table 2.10 Summary of expert respondents

Respondent type	**Web-based (Survey Monkey)**

	UK	Ireland	Netherlands	Germany
Academia/research	8	9	14	7
NGO/civil society		2	1	
Government	3	2	4	4
International organisations	11	8	9	5
Others	2		4	1
Total	24	21	29	17

It should be noted that while the survey and the HANCI Donor Index complement one another by focusing on different aspects of political commitment, their results are not fully comparable. The index rankings compare a country relative to other OECD–DAC donors, whereas the surveys assess the country's performance against an implicit (and unmeasured) standard of expectation held by the experts.[30]

[30] It is theoretically possible that experts in different countries hold different standards of expectation, with some countries' experts being particularly (un)demanding.

3 HANCI Donor Index 2012: findings drawing on secondary data

This section presents findings for the HANCI Donor Index 2012 drawing on secondary data. Before presenting HANCI rankings, we first discuss some key features of the rankings. Then, we analyse whether HANCI rankings simply reflect countries' general profile of giving aid, and their overall commitment to development.

3.1 HANCI Donor Index rankings

This subsection sets out some important features of the HANCI Donor Index, to guide readers in their interpretation of the rankings that are presented in Chapter 3.2.

- The HANCI aggregates relative (not absolute) political commitment levels. HANCI indicators are measured on ordinal, categorical and cardinal scales, and the index is therefore not able to meaningfully calculate absolute commitment levels aggregated across indicators. Instead, HANCI employs the Borda scoring technique to calculate scores for the Hunger Reduction Commitment Index (HRCI) and Nutrition Commitment Index (NCI) sub-indices, and for the two themes that compose these (public expenditures; and policies, programmes and legal frameworks). Borda scoring respects the diversity of measurement scales, and thus allows the valid calculation of aggregate scores across indicators. Resultant Borda scores are translated in rankings. It is important to remember that the Borda scores do not represent absolute commitment levels; they represent relative political commitment levels. For this reason also, HANCI does not identify absolute benchmarks of commitment to be achieved.
- The HANCI compares countries' performance relative to one another. Consequently, a ranking emerges regardless of the (weak or strong) performance of countries.
- Countries that show relatively high commitment levels in the HANCI do not necessarily perform strongly on each of the composite indicators. High rankings should not be a reason for complacency: often, there is substantial scope to enhance performance on selected indicators.
- For each indicator, the presence of outliers (e.g. countries with significantly higher/lower scores than the nearest other country) depresses/inflates the normalised indicator scores for all other countries.[31] It accordingly resonates when indicator scores are summed up at the theme level (see also the sensitivity analysis, Chapter 4.1).
- Absolute commitment levels can be ascertained for all individual indicators (not aggregations) by referring to the raw data (prior to normalisation) shown in the spreadsheet in Annex 3.
- The HANCI rankings are planned to be recalculated in December 2013 and 2014. Over time, countries may improve their absolute performance on indicators, yet fail to improve their index rankings, when other countries' improve at least just as fast. To prevent demotivation, we suggest that wherever absolute performance on indicators improves, this should be the benchmark (not country rankings).

[31] This is, for example, the case for the indicator ODA to nutrition: fair share, where Luxembourg scores much higher than its nearest 'rival'.

3.2 Key findings for the HANCI Donor Index 2012

Table 3.1 below shows the overall rankings for the HANCI Donor Index 2012. It breaks up the countries into three clusters. Each cluster contains the sum of approximately one-third of all Borda points distributed between the 23 countries.[32] Hence, as the leading countries have obtained the highest scores, there are fewer countries in the top group.

Table 3.1 Total scores and groupings from the HANCI Donor Index

	HANCI Score	HRCI Score	NCI Score	HANCI Ranks	HRCI Ranks	NCI Ranks
United Kingdom	78	34	44	**1**	**4**	**1**
Canada	74	36	38	**2**	**2**	**3**
Denmark	73	32	41	**3**	**6**	**2**
Germany	65	29	36	**4**	**9**	**5**
Ireland	61	31	30	**5**	**7**	**8**
Sweden	59	21	38	**6**	**14**	**3**
Belgium	58	27	31	**7**	**11**	**6**
Spain	57	35	22	**8**	**3**	**13**
Luxembourg	53	26	27	**9**	**12**	**9**
Finland	52	37	15	**10**	**1**	**20**
Norway	51	28	23	**11**	**10**	**11**
France	50	25	25	**12**	**13**	**10**
Australia	50	34	16	**12**	**4**	**18**
Switzerland	48	30	18	**14**	**8**	**15**
Japan	47	16	31	**15**	**18**	**6**
Netherlands	43	20	23	**16**	**16**	**11**
New Zealand	37	21	16	**17**	**14**	**18**
Italy	29	10	19	**18**	**21**	**14**
United States of America	29	12	17	**18**	**20**	**17**
Greece	23	5	18	**20**	**23**	**15**
Portugal	23	10	13	**20**	**21**	**21**
Austria	23	17	6	**20**	**17**	**22**
South Korea	22	16	6	**23**	**18**	**22**

Green = leading on commitment (top 1/3rd)
Orange = moderate commitment (middle 1/3rd)
Red = relatively low commitment (bottom 1/3rd)

The UK is among the leading countries in the fight against hunger and undernutrition. The United Kingdom has achieved the highest score out of 23 OECD countries for spending, policies and treaty commitments that could help to reduce hunger and undernutrition in developing countries. Just beating Canada and Denmark, the UK owes its high score in particular to its strong performance on policy, programme and legal indicators. It does well on supporting the SUN movement and biodiversity protecting agreements, and has relatively low levels of protection of domestic agricultural markets. In terms of spending, the UK has a strong record delivering on its commitments for nutrition; while its ODA for nutrition is not the highest, it has been stable and enduring over the past decade. However, the UK scores poorly when compared to other countries on several spending indicators: its levels of aid

[32] Two principles are applied to demarcate four country groupings. First, each of the groups contains the nearest approximation of a third of all Borda points that were distributed in the scoring process. As such, groups with relatively higher commitment scores (based on aggregate Borda scores across themes and HRCI and NCI sub-indices) contain fewer countries. Second, countries with the same number of Borda points must be located in the same group.

funding for agricultural development, food security and climate change are comparatively low.

Canada does well on policies, programmes and legal indicators. It supports the SUN movement, does well in terms of low protection of agricultural markets and setting relatively low biofuel blending mandates, and is among the top performers in terms of delivering on its greenhouse gas emission reduction pledges. Its performance on spending indicators is variable. Canada leads in terms of its enduringly stable financial support for agriculture and food security over the past decade. It also does fairly well on this for nutrition. However, Canada also shows weak spending performance on social protection and climate change adaptation and mitigation.

Denmark scores well for spending indicators. It gives a solid performance in terms of supporting nutrition (second highest of all countries), and this support is stable and enduring. It also invests well in climate change adaptation and mitigation. Spending support for climate change is not entirely coherent with policy action on this. Denmark does poorly in terms of delivering on its greenhouse gas emission reduction pledges, yet is leading on the development of domestic climate change adaptation strategies and plans. As an EU member state, Denmark's biofuel mandates are among the highest. Denmark is a member of the SUN movement and does fairly well in terms of its relatively low protection of domestic agricultural markets (within the group of 23 OECD countries) and support for biodiversity agreements.

Germany and **Ireland** complete the group of countries leading on commitment. Germany performs strongly on most policy, programme and legal framework indicators, somewhat contrasting with its scores on spending indicators. Ireland gains especially strong scores on biodiversity and endorsement of SUN, and is among the top donors investing in social protection. Ireland also shows enduring and stable financial support for agriculture and food security.

South Korea, Portugal, Greece and Austria rank lowest on the HANCI Donor Index. South Korea is a relatively new donor. Its spending on hunger and nutrition is relatively low, and it is not a member of the SUN movement. However, it does fairly well in terms of offering stable and enduring financial support for agriculture and food security, it has relatively low biofuel mandates, and is putting policies in place to deal with climate change adaptation.

While Greece and Portugal are in the throes of prolonged economic downturns and extremely vulnerable public finances, Austria is not. Austria invests relatively little in nutrition, agriculture and food security, social protection, and climate change adaptation and mitigation. Its investments in agriculture, food security and nutrition are not very stable over time. In terms of policy, Austrian biofuel mandates are among the highest (as an EU member). Austria does, however, do well in terms of relatively low agricultural protection and in putting in place strategies and plans to address climate change adaptation.

Commitment to reducing hunger is not the same as commitment to reducing undernutrition

Several countries score well on commitment to reduce hunger but poorly on commitment to reduce undernutrition, and vice versa (Figure 3.1), which translates into diverse rankings (Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.1 Donor countries' hunger commitment and nutrition commitment scores

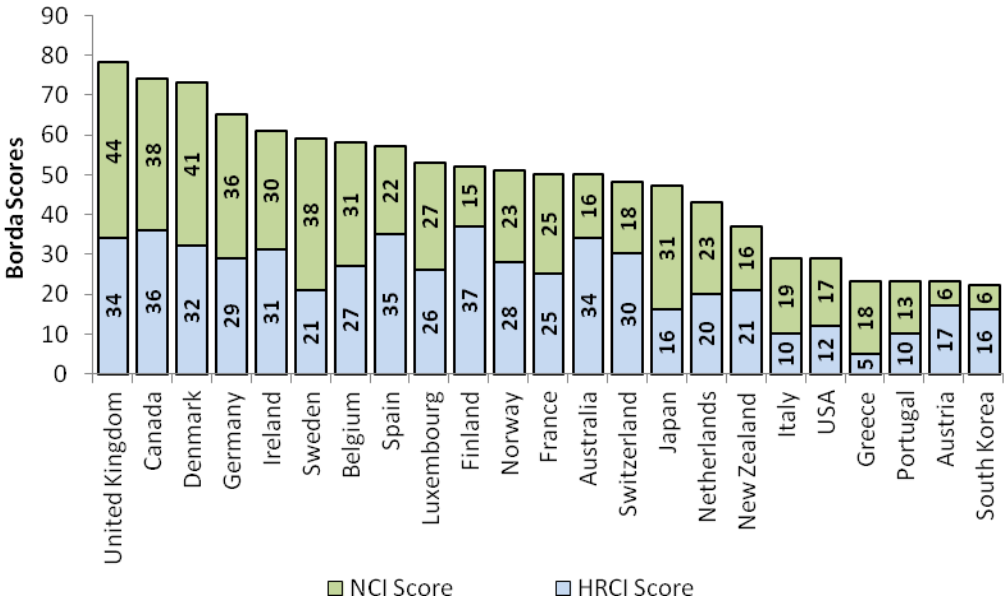
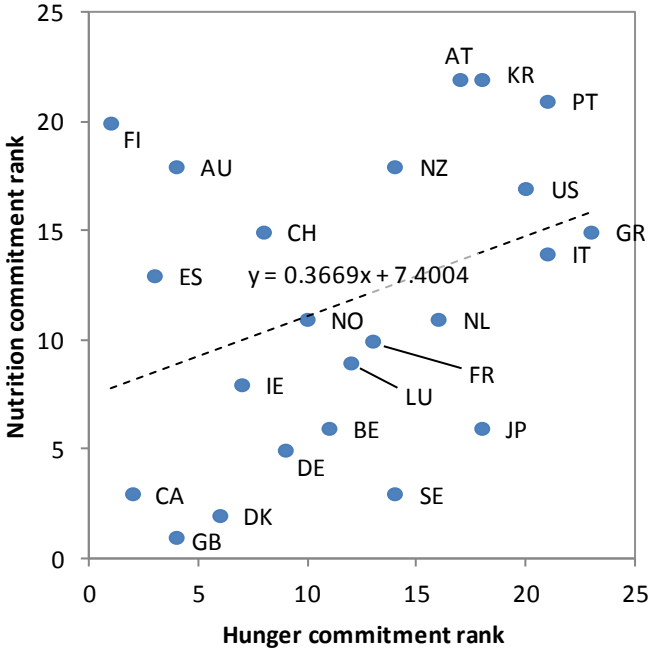


Figure 3.2 Donor countries' hunger commitment and nutrition commitment rankings



For instance, Australia ranks 4th on the HRCI but 18th on the NCI; Finland is 1st on the HRCI but 20th on the NCI; while Sweden and Japan do much better on the NCI (3rd and 6th respectively) than on the HRCI (14th and 18th). This suggests that commitment to reducing hunger is not the same as having commitment to reducing undernutrition. However, differences in rankings are not as strongly pronounced as in the HANCI for developing countries (te Lintelo *et al*. 2013).

Good development partners could do more for hunger and nutrition.

Table 3.2 shows what donor countries allocate to aid relative to their wealth (GNI).

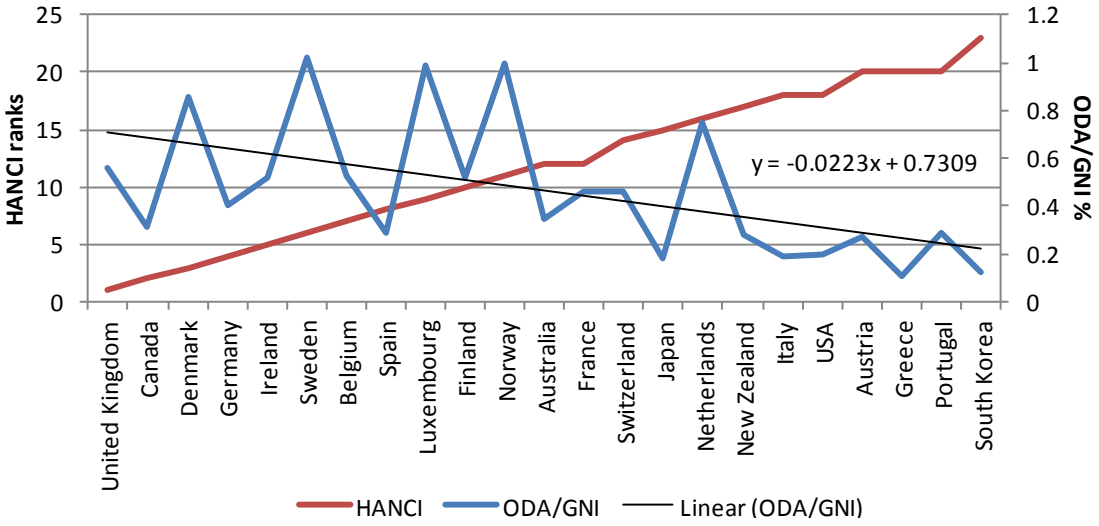
Table 3.2 Donor countries: HANCI rankings and aid spending relative to wealth (2011)

	HANCI ranking	ODA/GNI
United Kingdom	1	0.56
Canada	2	0.31
Denmark	3	0.86
Germany	4	0.4
Ireland	5	0.52
Sweden	6	1.02
Belgium	7	0.53
Spain	8	0.29
Luxembourg	9	0.99
Finland	10	0.52
Norway	11	1
Australia	12	0.35
France	12	0.46
Switzerland	14	0.46
Japan	15	0.18
Netherlands	16	0.75
New Zealand	17	0.28
Italy	18	0.19
USA	18	0.2
Austria	20	0.27
Greece	20	0.11
Portugal	20	0.29
South Korea	23	0.12

Notes: OECD http://www.oecd.org/dac/stats/50060310.pdf

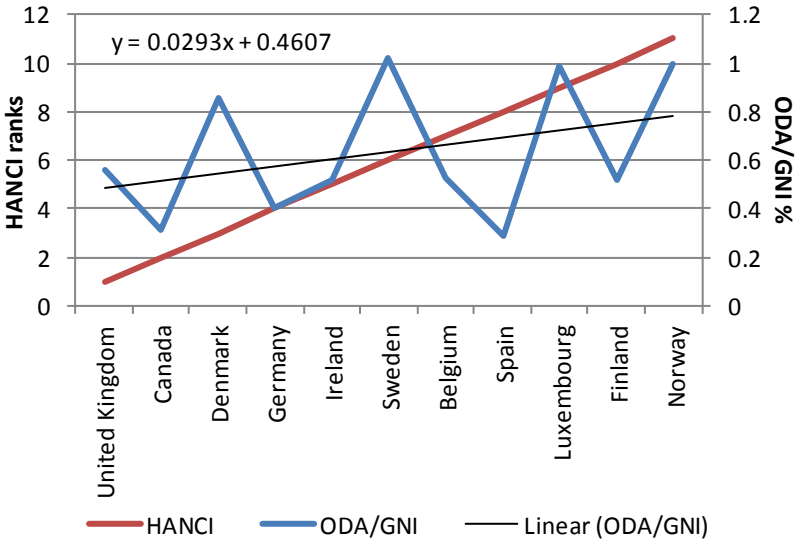
Figure 3.3 shows that HANCI Donor Index rankings are weakly negatively correlated with countries' aid spending expressed as a share of their wealth (ODA/GNI). This is expected, as public expenditure indicators make up half of all indicators in the HANCI Donor Index, and confirmed by the test statistic (the probability of an independent relation between the variables is 0.0005).

Figure 3.3 Donor countries: HANCI rankings and aid spending



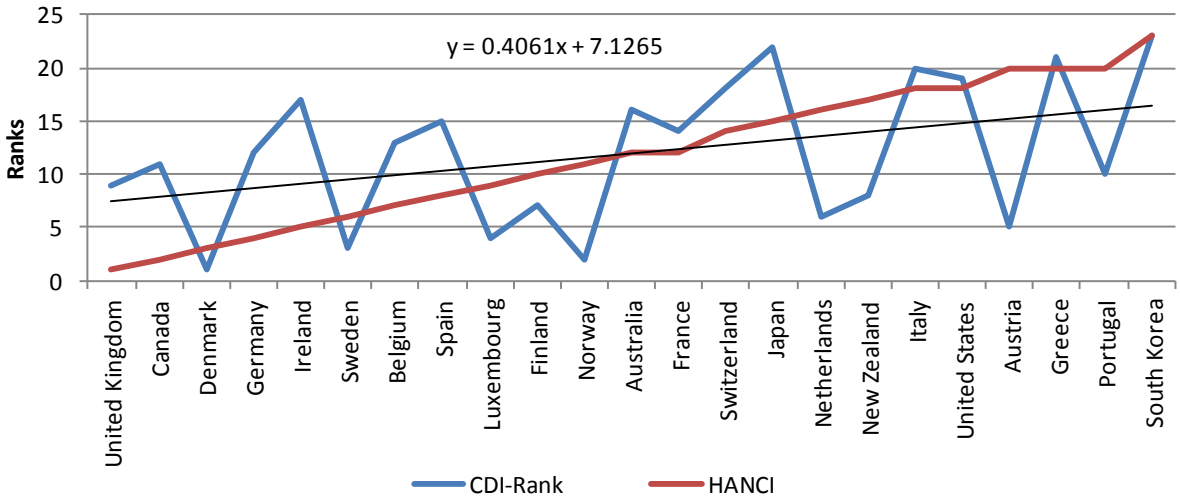
However, somewhat surprisingly, this relation reverses for the top half of countries ranked in HANCI (Figure 3.4). The graph suggests that for this group, commitment towards reduction of hunger and undernutrition is driven by their strong performance on policy, programme and legal framework indicators. Countries like the UK, Canada, Germany, and (to a lesser extent) Spain are not the biggest aid spenders (relative to GNI); however, they are championing the cause of hunger and nutrition.

Figure 3.4 Donor countries: HANCI rankings and aid spending relative to wealth



Is hunger and nutrition commitment the same as commitment to development at large? To assess this, Figure 3.5 compares rankings on the HANCI Donor Index with rankings on the Commitment to Development Index (CDI) (Roodman 2012).

Figure 3.5 Country rankings on the HANCI Donor Index and CDI



The relationship between country rankings on the two indices is positive and statistically significant, at the 10 per cent level.[33]

Figure 3.5 suggests that countries such as Norway and the Netherlands, who have a relatively good track record on international development yet are not in the top ten HANCI rankings, could do more for hunger and nutrition. Norway is a particularly interesting case. Even though it scores best among all countries on expenditure indicators, it scores much weaker on policies, programmes and legal frameworks indicators. Norway could thus enhance its HANCI rankings by improving its performance on indicators such as: unconditionally pledging and delivering on CO2 emissions; reforming its high levels of agricultural protection for domestic producers; giving greater support for global biodiversity protection; and by supporting the SUN movement.

Within a climate of economic austerity, the government of the Netherlands has substantially cut ODA budgets between 2010 and 2012, from 0.8 per cent to 0.7 per cent of its GNI (NCDO 2012). In 2012, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (which hosts the Department of Development Cooperation) had to implement cuts in the order of nearly 1 billion euros (21 per cent of its ODA budget). The Netherlands does well on several counts, notably: full membership of the SUN movement; support for global biodiversity protection; having a climate change adaptation strategy; relatively low levels of domestic agricultural protection; and the endurance and stability of its ODA commitments to nutrition. However, while its ODA to nutrition as fair share is fairly high (comparable to the UK, for example), its disbursements record on this ODA is not strong; and this is also the case for its share of total ODA with gender objectives. Food security has recently been assigned one of the four aid priority themes of the Netherlands. This is reflected in a growing relative share of ODA to agriculture and food security in overall ODA, from 2.8 per cent in 2010 to 4.3 per cent in 2012. While this is encouraging, actual levels (expressed as fair share) remain lower than most other donors. Furthermore, over the past decade, substantial volatility in the share of aid for agriculture and food security has lowered the score of the Netherlands on this indicator. ODA to climate change (and social protection) as fair share are also relatively low. EU membership means that the Netherlands has the lowest score for biofuel blending mandates; it also does poorly on delivering on its CO2 emission reduction pledges.

[33] Figure 3.5 depicts CDI ranks recalculated for our sample of 23 OECD countries.

4 The empirical functioning of the index

Although the HANCI employs a theory-driven approach to building the index, this section explores whether the index hangs together empirically, by ascertaining its internal reliability. The HANCI would be reliable if it ranks two countries with the same level of political commitment on a par with each other. In statistical terms, reliability is a measure of whether individual indicators in the HANCI produce results that are consistent with the overall HANCI.

Arguably, the most commonly used measure of internal reliability is Cronbach's alpha or the standardised version thereof. In cases such as the HANCI, where all indicators are normalised before being used in the index, the standardised version is recommended (Cortina 1993). Cronbach's alpha is calculated as:

$$\text{Cronbach's } \alpha = \frac{N^2 \times M(COV)}{SUM(VAR/COV)}$$

where *N* is the number of indicators and *M(COV)* is the mean of inter-indicator covariance and *SUM(VAR/COV)* is the sum of all elements in the variance covariance matrix. The standardised Cronbach alpha, on the other hand, uses information from the correlation matrix instead of the variance covariance matrix. Therefore, we use the correlation matrix of the full set of indicators to calculate the standardised alpha.

The calculation of the correlation matrix for all indicators needs to consider that the HANCI comprises a mix of indicators measured on ordinal and continuous scales. If all were continuous indicators, then we could have used Pearson moment correlation calculations to populate the correlation matrix that is needed to calculate the standardised alpha. However, the presence of ordinal variables requires that the calculation of correlation measures in each cell of the correlation matrix be determined as follows:

- (ordinal multi categories, ordinal multi categories) → polychoric correlation
- (ordinal two categories, ordinal two categories) → tetrachoric correlation
- (continuous, ordinal multi categories) → polyserial correlation
- (continuous, ordinal two categories) → biserial correlation
- (continuous, continuous) → Pearson moment correlation

The resulting heterogeneous correlation matrix is summarised in Figure 4.1 using a colour scheme. The legend illustrates the interpretation of the colours: from dark red (meaning perfectly negative correlation) to dark blue (meaning perfectly positive correlation). The figure groups indicators according to whether they represent the hunger reduction commitment sub-index (HRCI) or the nutrition commitment sub-index (NCI) components of the overall index. In addition, the upper triangular part of the figure identifies the statistically insignificant correlation values by crossing off the corresponding dots (at the 5 per cent level). For instance, even though the correlation between fair share ODA on social protection (odafs_sp) and biofuel blending targets (blending) is strongly negative, it is not statistically significant. In fact, Figure 4.1 emphasises that none of the negative correlation values are statistically significant.

Figure 4.1 Heterogeneous correlation matrix

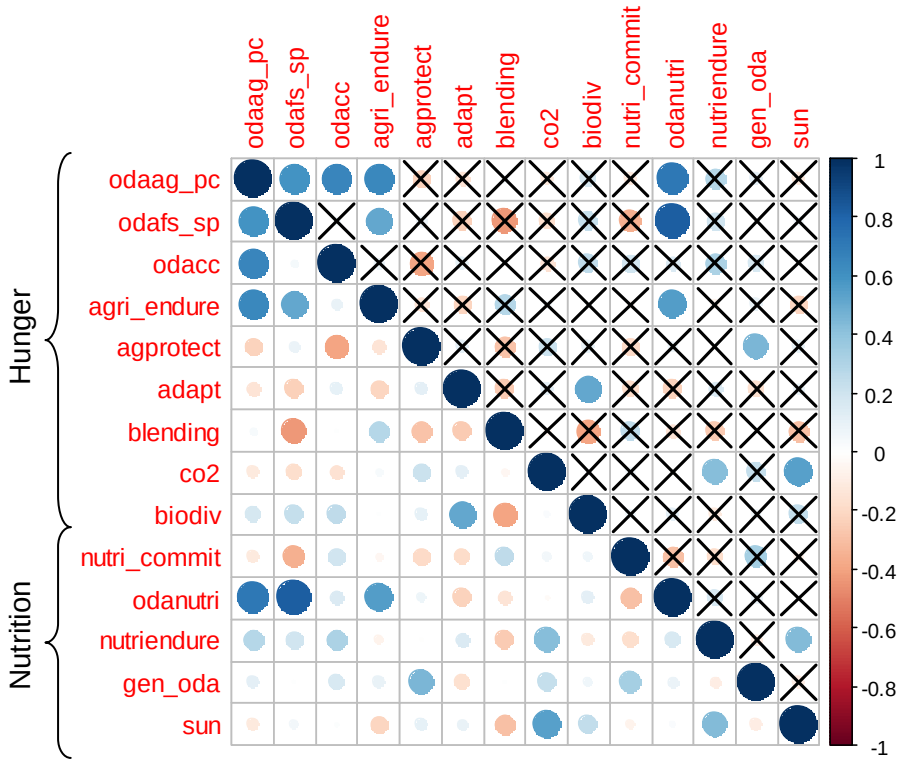


Table 4.1 tabulates Cronbach's alphas based on the heterogeneous correlation matrix for the HANCI and its sub-indices (HRCI and NCI). The alphas based on heterogeneous correlation matrices are identified in the table as 'Modified α' to distinguish them from regular alphas calculated from Pearson moment correlations, which assume that all indicators are continuous. Though both types of alphas are presented in the table for completeness, the modified version is more accurate as it uses accurate correlation type for all indicators based on their data types.

Table 4.1 Cronbach's alphas for HRCI, NCI and HANCI

	Countries	Indicators	α	Modified α
HANCI	23	14	0.3985	0.4975
HRCI	23	9	0.2289	0.2926
NCI	23	5	0.1126	0.1278

Researchers commonly use 0.7 as a rule of thumb cut-off value when using Cronbach's alpha to determine the internal reliability within a set of indicators. Table 4.1 shows that HANCI's modified α is lower than the 0.7 level and for sub-indices the modified αs are even lower. While it is good to keep this limitation in mind when using the HANCI, there are at least two reasons for not putting too much emphasis on the lower than 0.7 alpha. First, there is a substantial literature which argues against the blind application of the 0.7 cut-off value of Cronbach's alpha (Cortina 1993; Schmitt 1996). This literature clearly shows that factors other than reliability affect alpha values. For instance, Cortina (1993) argues that Cronbach's alpha declines with the number of underlying dimensions of the data. For example, 18 indicators with an average intercorrelation of 0.3 would have an alpha of 0.88 if the data have just one dimension. However, alpha will decline to 0.64 when the dimensions of the data increase from 1 to 3 while retaining the average intercorrelation at the 0.3 level (Cortina 1993). The HANCI currently considers that the theoretical construct of political commitment to reduce hunger and nutrition is hinged on at least two dimensions – hunger and

undernutrition – although conceivably a third dimension involves a commitment to reduce overnutrition. Second, even though we consider all elements of the correlation matrix in Figure 4.1 for calculating Cronbach's alpha, many of those are not statistically significant. Figure 4.1 emphasises this by crossing off correlation values which are not significant at the 5 per cent level. Notice that none of the negative correlations are significant. We point this out because the modified α for HANCI indicators goes up to 0.6885 if the calculations were done after replacing the negative correlation coefficients with zeros.

4.1 Sensitivity analysis

Sensitivity analysis is used to check the robustness of the index to choices about its components or construction. An index is robust if the rankings it generates do not vary substantively after small changes in composition or construction. We thus calculate the index in different ways and explore correlations between ranks. If the correlation between ranks (the Spearman rank) is high, then the index is said to be robust to the variation.

Table 4.2 HANCI vs HANCI alternatives

	Normalisation	Weighting	Aggregation level	Aggregation method
HANCI	HDI	Equal	Theme	Additive + Borda
Alt 1	Standardise	Equal	Theme	Additive + Borda
Alt 2	HDI	Equal	Theme	Borda + Borda
Alt 3	HDI	Equal	Indicator	Borda
Alt 4	HDI	Equal	Indicator	Additive
Alt 5	HDI	PCA	Indicator	Additive
Alt 6	HDI	Factor Analysis	Indicator	Additive

We tested the robustness of the HANCI by comparing it with six alternative ways of constructing the index (Table 4.2). The HANCI was built with HDI-type normalisation and equally weighted thematic aggregation to produce index scores based on an additive plus Borda method. These choices are tabulated in the first row of Table 4.2. The rest of the table presents a few of the other ways this index could have been compiled had we made different design choices.

The six alternative specifications presented in Table 4.2 are:

1. Where the normalisation of indicators is done using standardisation (Z scores);
2. Where indicators within each theme are aggregated using the Borda method instead of the additive method used in the HANCI;
3. Where aggregation is done at the indicator level using the Borda method (in this case themes are not considered);
4. Where indicators are aggregated using the additive method;
5. Where PCA identifies weights for calculating the index;
6. Where factor analysis-based weights are used in aggregating the indicator.

Our PCA results suggest that there are five principal components for the 14 indicators. We selected five components with the support of the scree plot, $\lambda>1$ criterion, and explained proportion of variance being greater than 10 per cent. The factor analysis, on the other hand, supported the idea that there are four underlying factors.

If the HANCI is sensitive to design changes, then we expect country ranks to change as a result (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 Comparison of country ranks – HANCI vs alternative design options

	HANCI	Alt 1	Alt 2	Alt 3	Alt 4	Alt 5	Alt 6
United Kingdom	1	1	1	1	1	7	4
Canada	2	2	3	4	2	13	2
Denmark	3	3	2	2	3	2	3
Germany	4	4	6	10	4	3	1
Ireland	5	5	7	8	6	10	14
Sweden	6	5	4	7	10	5	6
Belgium	7	7	9	12	12	8	8
Spain	8	7	5	3	9	9	11
Luxembourg	9	10	16	14	8	4	7
Finland	10	9	7	5	7	6	10
Norway	11	11	13	6	5	1	5
Australia	12	11	11	8	11	12	13
France	12	13	12	13	14	14	9
Switzerland	14	14	15	15	13	16	20
Japan	15	16	14	16	17	21	16
Netherlands	16	14	9	11	15	11	12
New Zealand	17	16	17	17	16	15	17
Italy	18	18	18	19	20	19	15
USA	18	19	19	18	18	20	18
Greece	20	20	21	22	23	22	22
Portugal	20	21	21	21	21	18	19
Austria	20	21	20	20	19	17	21
South Korea	23	23	23	23	22	23	23
Spearman r		0.9943*	0.9309*	0.8886*	0.9446*	0.7882*	0.8852*

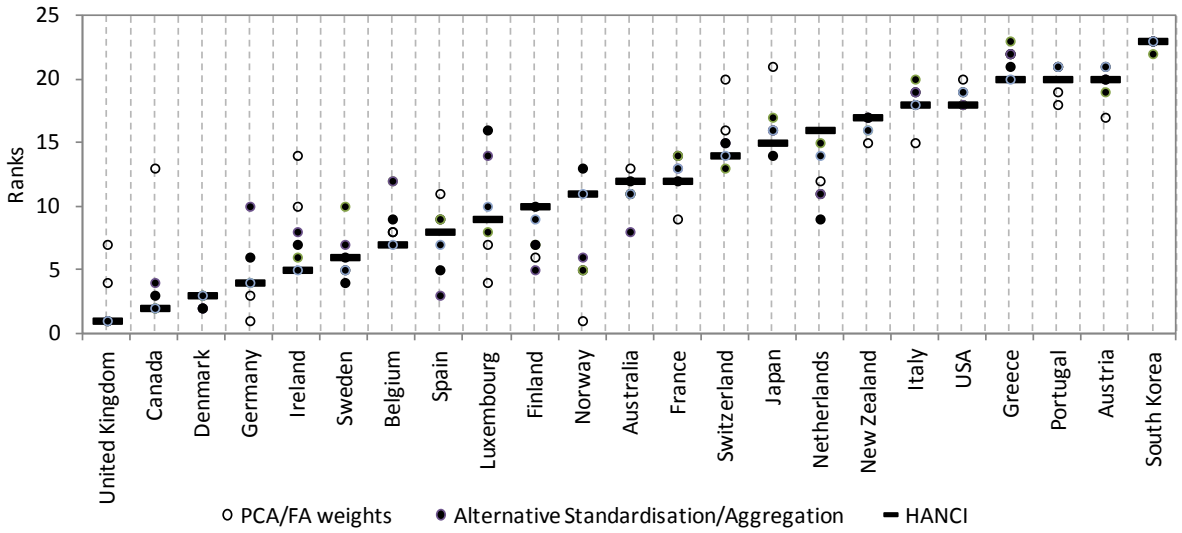
Note: *Significant at 5 per cent level.

Table 4.3 tabulates the HANCI ranks as well as the ranks based on the above alternative indices. The rankings of HANCI with these alternative rankings are then compared and summarised using Spearman rank correlation coefficients, which assess the degree of correspondence between rankings. The rank correlations are all above 0.7, which confirms that the ranks are robust for all changes discussed here (all of these are significant at the 5 per cent level).

As high Spearman correlations can occur in conjunction with significant re-rankings (Ravallion 2010), we also assessed how design choices affect country re-rankings. As expected, the lower the Spearman correlation coefficient of alternative design options, the greater variation in country ranks. Alternative 1 in particular is highly robust.

It is, however, apparent that the HANCI rankings seem most sensitive to decisions around weights, specifically by means of a PCA and by factor analysis. This is brought out more clearly in Figure 4.2, where the horizontal bars indicate the HANCI rankings and dots the alternative rankings. The black dots are the rankings for the alternative aggregation and standardisation methods (Alt 1 to Alt 4 in Table 4.3). The white dots are the rankings for when the weighting assumption is changed from equal to either PCA-based or factor analysis-based (Alt 5 and Alt 6 in Table 4.3). For the majority of countries, ranks based on changed weights generate the largest deviation from the HANCI ranks.

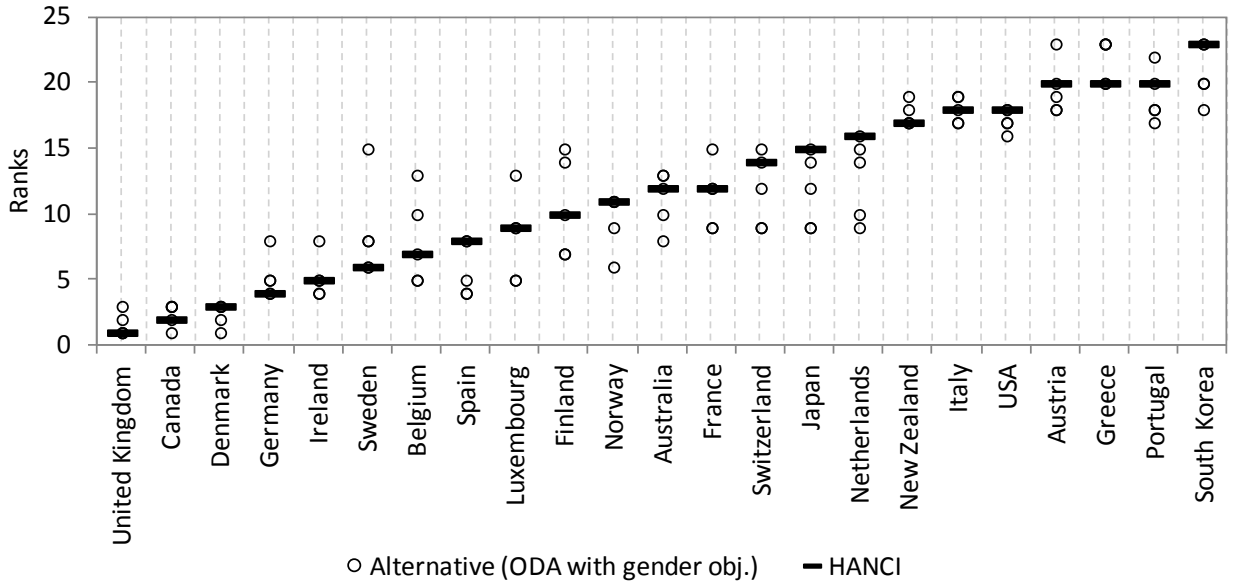
Figure 4.2 HANCI rank (black bar) vs the ranks of alternative design choices



The finding that the HANCI may be sensitive to changed weights emphasised the need to revisit the issue of unbalanced indicator weights assigned by the HANCI Donor Index (see Table 2.7). It is particularly important to assess the sensitivity of the HANCI to changes in indicators that are weighted heavier compared to others. Table 2.7 showed that two indicators were weighted highest: SUN membership and ODA with gender policy objective. We conducted a further test to assess the sensitivity of the HANCI to changes in the second of these indicators.

The test arbitrarily assigned alternative standardised values to the indicator on 'ODA with gender policy objective' in each country. The values given were 1; 0.75; 0.5; 0.25; and 0. Since all 23 countries were given these five alternative values, this yielded a total of 23×5=125 alternative HANCI rankings. Figure 4.3 (below) summarises the sensitivity of each country's ranks to changed values for its ODA with gender policy objective indicator. Overall, the picture is that there are no large deviations in the country ranks. For instance, top 10 HANCI countries will not move to the bottom ten when alternative values are assigned to the ODA with gender indicator. Similarly, the bottom ten countries hardly move. The sensitivity of ranks to this change is more concentrated in the mid-ranked HANCI countries. In summary, this evidence suggests that the HANCI is robust to changes in its highest weighted indicator. It can be argued, therefore, that the HANCI would be even more robust to changes in other, lower weighted indicators.

Figure 4.3 Sensitivity of HANCI rankings to value changes in highly weighted indicators



To sum up, when employing alternative ranking and normalisation procedures, for donor countries, we find Spearman Rank Correlation coefficients that are close to one another across the various components and that are always significant. We conclude that the HANCI rankings are, therefore, robust.

5 HANCI findings drawing on primary data

This section discusses the results from the web-based perception surveys conducted with hunger and undernutrition experts in Germany, Ireland, the Netherlands and the UK. Commitment scores were calculated on the basis of respondents' answers in a questionnaire using fixed answer categories (see Chapter 2.4 on methodology). Multiple questions were designed to capture each of the 11 aspects of commitment identified by Brinkerhoff (2000). Scores on each are calculated by question (as a mean score over all respondents) and across multiple questions to combine into an indicator score (as a mean of means).

Scores are to be interpreted as follows:

1 = very strong commitment
2 = strong commitment
3 = moderate commitment
4 = weak commitment
5 = very weak commitment

The expert surveys were devised to obtain a perspective on the political commitment of donors that would complement the secondary data-based index rankings. Their results are not fully comparable. The index rankings compare a country relative to other OECD–DAC donors, whereas the surveys assess the country's performance against an implicit (and unmeasured) standard of expectation held by the experts. Where relevant, the report reflects on commonalities and differences in findings emerging from the two approaches.

The following subsections present country-wise summaries of findings.

5.1 Germany

- ODA/GNI (2011): 0.4 per cent
- ODA to nutrition (2011): $155m
- ODA to agriculture and food security (2011): $798m
- HRCI rank: 9 (out of 23)
- NCI rank: 5 (out of 23)
- HANCI rank: 4 (out of 23)

Promoting agriculture and sustainable development in rural areas and protecting natural resources is a key goal of German development cooperation (GIZ 2013). Nutrition appears to be subsumed in an agricultural development and food security agenda.

Overall, the expert perception survey scores (Table 5.1) suggest that the German government's commitment to hunger and undernutrition reduction is of moderate strength, and that it is somewhat more committed to hunger reduction (2.86) than to improving nutrition (3.29).

Breaking down the score for the various commitment aspects, however, allows for a more fine-grained analysis. Table 5.1 shows some interesting differences. First, the range of scores is greater for hunger reduction than for nutrition commitment. Second, except for the locus of initiative, Germany's hunger commitment is considered greater than nutrition commitment for each indicator. For nutrition, Germany has moderate to fairly weak commitment scores for each of the aspects measured. In contrast, the German aid effort is deemed fairly strong for various aspects of hunger reduction commitment (intention and

action; on the openness and clearness of stating its intent addressing hunger and undernutrition; and also on its analytical rigour, learning and adaptation of programmes).

Table 5.1 Expert perceptions of Germany's commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition

Indicator	Hunger	Nutrition
Analytical rigour	2.51	3.03
Coherence domestic – aid policy	3.22	3.62
Continuity of effort	3.00	3.36
Credible incentives	3.80	3.97
Donor aid expenditure	3.04	3.61
Government intention and action	2.46	3.02
Institutional coordination	2.74	3.19
Learning and adaptation	2.58	3.06
Locus of initiative	3.18	3.18
Mobilisation of stakeholders	2.41	3.19
Public commitment	2.48	2.99
Mean	2.86	3.29

The experts deem institutional incentives – in terms of providing penalties and rewards for programming efforts that fail or succeed in achieving hunger reduction or improved nutrition outcomes – to be weak. The German aid effort regarding the mobilisation of stakeholders on hunger issues, domestically and in recipient countries, is deemed fairly strong, though notably less so for nutrition. The survey suggests that Germany shows more leadership on hunger than on nutrition issues.

5.2 Ireland

- ODA/GNI (2011): 0.52 per cent
- ODA to nutrition (2011): $18m
- ODA to agriculture and food security (2011): $70m
- HRCI rank: 7 (out of 23)
- NCI rank: 8 (out of 23)
- HANCI rank: 5 (out of 23)

Ireland, while being a relatively small donor (in absolute money terms), positions itself as a leading donor on hunger issues. It presented the *Hunger Task Force Report* in 2008 and continues to put hunger and nutrition at the centre of its international aid efforts. For instance, its 2013 EU Presidency was inaugurated by a two-day conference in Dublin highlighting hunger, climate change and social justice issues. Irish Aid is currently developing a policy White Paper that gives a prominent role to hunger and nutrition.

The survey findings (Table 5.2) show that the experts consider Ireland to be doing fairly strongly on both hunger commitment (2.59) and nutrition commitment (2.61). It is also remarkable that scores for hunger and nutrition commitment on the same commitment indicator are strikingly similar. Ireland is given strong commitment scores for its aid expenditure, its promotion of institutional coordination, and its intention and action.

Table 5.2 Expert perceptions of Ireland's commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition

Indicator	Hunger	Nutrition
Analytical rigour	2.35	2.36
Coherence domestic – aid policy	3.96	3.89
Continuity of effort	2.61	2.67
Credible incentives	3.35	3.35
Donor aid expenditure	2.06	2.24
Government intention and action	2.16	2.14
Institutional coordination	2.09	2.06
Learning and adaptation	2.44	2.40
Locus of initiative	2.42	2.58
Mobilisation of stakeholders	2.75	2.57
Public commitment	2.32	2.41
Mean	2.59	2.61

However, the experts identified one significant dissonant: Ireland's domestic policy and aid policy lack coherence. Thus, experts consider that Ireland's efforts in reducing CO2 emissions, its positioning in international trade negotiations and in subsidising Irish farmers are not conducive to reducing hunger and undernutrition in developing countries.

5.3 The Netherlands

- ODA/GNI (2011): 0.75 per cent
- ODA to nutrition (2011): $110m
- ODA to agriculture and food security (2011): $180m
- HRCI rank: 16 (out of 23)
- NCI rank: 11 (out of 23)
- HANCI rank: 16 (out of 23)

Among the surveyed countries, the Netherlands is the only one that has a history of allocating aid that exceeds the international benchmark of 0.7 per cent of GNI. Nevertheless, within a climate of continued economic austerity, ODA is now under substantial pressure in the Netherlands. As noted earlier, the government has substantially cut ODA budgets between 2010 and 2012, from 0.8 per cent to 0.7 per cent of its GNI (NCDO 2012). However, while the overall portfolio is shrinking, the share of ODA to food security and nutrition is increasing, as these themes have recently been assigned as aid priorities.

Overall, the experts considered that the Netherlands demonstrated a moderate level of commitment to addressing hunger and undernutrition in developing countries in 2012. Commitment levels were consistently assessed as higher for hunger than for nutrition, for each of the 11 indicators (Table 5.3).

ODA spending on hunger and nutrition is deemed to be of moderate strength. The Netherlands was given fairly strong commitment scores for intention and action and locus of initiative, (indicating the flexibility the Dutch aid agency's country offices have to support context-sensitive programmes). Dutch policies are fairly strongly in expressing hunger and nutrition as its aid objectives, albeit more strongly so for hunger (public commitment).

Table 5.3 Expert perceptions of the Netherlands' commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition

Indicator	Hunger	Nutrition
Analytical rigour	2.77	3.02
Coherence domestic – aid policy	3.23	3.55
Continuity of effort	3.06	3.19
Credible incentives	4.15	4.37
Donor expenditure	2.77	3.04
Government intention and action	2.36	2.72
Institutional coordination	2.93	3.21
Learning and adaptation	2.69	2.90
Locus of initiative	2.5	2.6
Mobilisation of stakeholders	3.21	3.54
Public commitment	2.55	2.85
Mean score	2.95	3.20

The experts noted that the Netherlands does not play a particularly strong role in mobilising domestic and international stakeholders around hunger and nutrition agendas. Finally, institutional incentives – in terms of providing penalties and rewards for programming efforts that fail or succeed in achieving hunger reduction or improved nutrition outcomes – are considered to be weak.

5.4 The United Kingdom

- ODA/GNI (2011): 0.56 per cent
- ODA to nutrition (2011): $414m
- ODA to agriculture and food security (2011): $568m
- HRCI rank: 4 (out of 23)
- NCI rank: 1 (out of 23)
- HANCI rank: 1 (out of 23)

The UK has recently shown substantial international leadership in bringing hunger and nutrition higher on to development agendas. It has an important role in the SUN movement, and recently organised high-level meetings focusing on hunger and nutrition. Most notably, at the end of the London Olympics in 2012, Prime Minister David Cameron organised the UK Hunger Summit, and in June 2013 a pre-G8 Nutrition for Growth event was organised at which various bilateral, multilateral, philanthropic and private donors made substantial financial commitments to address hunger and undernutrition.

Given the above, it is somewhat surprising to find that, overall, the experts assessed the UK as having a little less than moderate commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition. For all 11 indicators, scores on hunger commitment were better than for nutrition commitment (Table 5.4).

The UK scores best on the government intention and action indicator, which reflects the extent to which it gives attention to, prioritises and speaks out on hunger and nutrition issues. The second best score is given to the locus of initiative indicator, reflecting that experts considered DFID country offices to have reasonable flexibility to initiate and adjust headquarter strategies and programmes to suit local contexts, enhancing their ownership.

Table 5.4 Expert perceptions of the UK's commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition

Indicator	Hunger	Nutrition
Analytical rigour	2.93	3.05
Coherence domestic – aid policy	4.14	4.18
Continuity of effort	3.21	3.38
Credible incentives	4.00	4.30
Donor aid expenditure	2.99	3.34
Government intention and action	2.68	2.86
Institutional coordination	2.92	3.06
Learning and adaptation	3.06	3.23
Locus of initiative	2.80	2.89
Mobilisation of stakeholders	3.46	3.67
Public commitment	2.92	3.29
Mean	3.19	3.39

Nevertheless, on many indicators, the UK gets moderate commitment scores, and on some indicators is assessed as showing weak commitment. Experts were not convinced that the UK government has sufficiently institutionalised incentives that reward and sanction individuals and bodies like DFID for their performance in hunger reduction (credible incentives). Experts were most critical with respect to the UK's lack of coherence between domestic policy and aid policy. Thus, experts consider that the UK's efforts to reduce CO2 emissions, its positioning in international trade negotiations and its subsidising of farmers are not conducive to reducing hunger and undernutrition in developing countries.

It may seem incongruous that UK-based experts are quite critical of the government's commitment to reducing hunger and undernutrition in developing countries, while the HANCI Donor Index ranks the UK ranks highest of all 23 OECD countries assessed. However, it is worth reiterating that the survey and the HANCI Donor Index do not measure the same things, and hence are not comparable.[34] However, one common finding that arose from the separate analyses of the index rankings and expert surveys is that much more can be done by the UK and other countries if they are to show consistently strong commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition.

[34] The index rankings compare the UK relative to other OECD–DAC donors, whereas the surveys assess the UK performance against an implicit (and unmeasured) standard of expectation held by the experts. It is theoretically possible that experts in different countries hold different standards of expectation, with UK experts being particularly demanding. Moreover, the expert surveys may be driven by the composition of the sample of participating experts. We therefore do not present a comparative overview of expert assessments by country.

6 Conclusions

- The HANCI Donor Index attempts to measure donor government commitment to reducing hunger and improving nutrition because this is something they can be held accountable to. The existence of a commitment score helps civil society hold donor governments to account.

- We have provided two methods for assessing commitment: cross-country, using secondary data; and within country, relying on primary data for community and 'expert' opinion. The primary data provide a complementary and up-to-date perspective on political commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition, as they interrogate a set of commitment indicators for which no secondary data are available for a range of countries.

- Hunger and undernutrition are two related but distinct concepts and we accordingly calculate a commitment index for each.

- We have been rigorous and thorough in our methodological approach, being transparent about the choices we have made and the basis for those choices. We have conducted statistical tests and other sensitivity analyses to assess the consequences of our choices. These allow us to be confident that the HANCI methods and findings are robust.

- The HANCI compares donor countries' performance relative to one another, and aggregates relative (not absolute) political commitment levels. It does not identify absolute benchmarks of commitment to be achieved. However, absolute commitment levels can be ascertained for all individual indicators (not aggregations) by referring to the raw data (Annex 3). Countries that show relatively high commitment levels in the HANCI Donor Index do not necessarily perform strongly on each of the composite indicators. High rankings should not be a reason for complacency; often, there is still substantial scope for countries to enhance performance on selected indicators.

- For the country rankings based on secondary data, we find that the UK, Canada, Denmark, Germany and Ireland are leading in the fight against hunger and undernutrition.

- The UK has achieved the highest score out of 23 OECD countries for spending, policies and treaty commitments that could help to reduce hunger and undernutrition in developing countries. Just beating Canada and Denmark, the UK owes its high score in particular to its strong performance on policy, programme and legal indicators.

- Commitment to reducing hunger is not the same as commitment to reducing undernutrition. Several countries score well on commitment to reduce hunger but poorly on commitment to reduce undernutrition, and vice versa. For instance, Australia is ranked 4th on the HRCI but 18th on the NCI; Finland is 1st on the HRCI but 20th on the NCI; while Sweden and Japan do much better on the NCI (3rd and 6th respectively) than on the HRCI (14th and 18th).

- South Korea, Portugal, Greece and Austria rank lowest on the HANCI Donor Index.

- Good development partners could do more for hunger and nutrition. Donors championing the cause of hunger and nutrition are not necessarily the biggest

spenders. The ten highest HANCI donor rankings are not strongly correlated with the share of GNI given as aid. This also suggests that countries that have a relatively good track record on international development like France, Norway, the Netherlands and Switzerland, who are not in the top ten HANCI rankings, could do more to tackle hunger and nutrition.

- Country-based experts considered that:
    - The Irish government shows fairly strong commitment for both hunger and undernutrition reduction;
    - The governments of Germany and the Netherlands have moderate commitment to tackling hunger and undernutrition, although commitment to hunger reduction is somewhat stronger than commitment to improving nutrition;
    - The strength of the UK government's commitment to reducing hunger and undernutrition in developing countries is somewhat less than moderate.

- The primary research was not designed to enable comparisons across countries or to validate cross-country rankings.

- Donor countries have a key role to play in reducing hunger and undernutrition in the high burden developing countries; their commitment needs to be monitored, and they need to be held accountable for their commitment to reducing hunger and undernutrition.

Will commitment indices help to inspire greater political commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition and ultimately contribute to bringing down hunger and undernutrition levels globally? The next phase of the HANCI project will undertake econometric work for the secondary data index and follow-up fieldwork for the primary data index with partners in selected countries. For it to be worth collecting the data and drawing up the indices, we must be able to show that they contribute to efforts to build commitment to end the twin scandals of global hunger and undernutrition.

Annex 1 Media reporting on HANCI Donor Index (June 2013)

Background

The second set of data from the Hunger and Nutrition Commitment Index – focusing on donor commitment to reducing hunger and undernutrition – was released on 4 June 2013. The data were launched at a Westminster event and promoted through traditional and social media outreach. The launch came at the start of a busy 'nutrition week' for the development community, with *The Lancet* publishing its Nutrition Series, and the Nutrition for Growth global summit. HANCI and IDS nutrition expertise in general was promoted in this context.

This is a round-up of communications outputs and influencing impact from the first week following the launch of HANCI's donor data.

HANCI communications outputs

IDS Central Communications and Knowledge Services worked closely with the lead researcher to produce a number of communications tools. These were designed to promote HANCI to target audiences such as donor country politicians and development professionals, to raise the index's profile and to make its findings more accessible to non-specialists.

HANCI communications outputs included:

- HANCI website: www.hancindex.org
- Animation: www.youtube.com/watch?feature=player_embedded&v=PKv6G0Zw4UI
- Press release and website story: www.ids.ac.uk/news/uk-amongst-top-donors-for-reducing-hunger-and-undernutrition-in-developing-countries
- Infographic: www.hancindex.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/06/Donor-Index-infographic-FINAL.pdf
- Development Horizons blog post: www.developmenthorizons.com/2013/06/hanci-for-donors-transparency-in.html
- Westminster event: www.ids.ac.uk/events/what-can-the-uk-do-to-help-put-an-end-to-the-current-nutrition-crisis
- Email news update
- Live tweeting from Westminster event.

Media coverage

HANCI received 20 media and blog mentions from a range of news and development outlets including *The Guardian*, All Africa, and Duncan Green's From Poverty to Power blog (Oxfam).

The index also received an official response from Irish Aid, with a press release quoting Ireland's Minister for Trade and Development, Joe Costello:

> 'I very much welcome the recent Report by the Institute of Development Studies and am pleased to see Ireland's strong ranking. This is testament to our active and prominent role in addressing the joint challenges of hunger and undernutrition.'

IDS also featured prominently in coverage of *The Lancet* Nutrition Series and the Nutrition for Growth summit, with Director Lawrence Haddad being widely quoted and interviewed.

Table A1.1 HANCI media and online mentions (4–14 June 2013)

Date	Outlet	Type	URL
4 May	All Africa	News	http://allafrica.com/stories/201306041467.html
4 May	Big News Network	News	www.bignewsnetwork.com/index.php/sid/214976736/scat/c1ab2109a5bf37ec
4 May	Kenya Star	News	www.kenyastar.com/index.php/sid/214976736/scat/c1ab2109a5bf37ec
5 June	From Poverty to Power	Blog	www.oxfamblogs.org/fp2p/?p=14871
5 June	All Africa	News	http://allafrica.com/stories/201306100565.html
5 June	Charity Times	Online magazine	www.charitytimes.com/ct/UK_ranked_amongst_donors_with_strongest_commitment_to_reducing_hunger.php
5 June	HEART	Online development network	www.heart-resources.org/mmedia/hunger-and-nutrition-commitment-index-hanci/
5 June	Nieuwsbank	News (Dutch)	www.nieuwsbank.nl/inp/2013/06/05/Y087.htm
5 June	Oxfam Novib	Blog (Dutch)	www.oxfamnovib.nl/NL-scoort-slecht-op-aanpak-honger.html
5 June	Kepa	Civil society network (Finnish)	www.kepa.fi/uutiset/10032
5 June	All Africa	News	http://allafrica.com/stories/201306100565.html
6 June	Transform Nutrition	Online development network	www.developmenthorizons.com/2013/06/hanci-for-donors-transparency-in.html
7 June	The Guardian	Online 'food game' used headline findings from HANCI	www.guardian.co.uk/global-development/interactive/2013/jun/07/food-game-what-do-you-know
7 June	All Africa	News	http://allafrica.com/stories/201306070404.html
10 June	All Africa	News	http://allafrica.com/stories/201306101396.html
10 June	Irish Aid	Government	www.irishaid.gov.ie/news-publications/press/pressreleasearchive/2013/june/irelands-role-in-fight-against-hunger/
11 June	The Guardian	News	www.guardian.co.uk/global-development-professionals-network/2013/jun/11/uk-nutrition-summit-flaws
11 June	HEART	Blog	www.heart-resources.org/blog/nutrition-and-industrial-action-thoughts-on-the-current-situation-in-mozambique/
11 June	CTA	Newsletter/blog	http://brussels.cta.int/index.php?option=com_k2&id=7753:uk-amongst-top-donors-for-reducing-undernutrition-&view=item&Itemid=54
12 June	Instituto Lula	Website interview (Brazil)	http://www.institutolula.org/so-com-comprometimento-politico-a-fome-sera-erradicada-no-mundo/#.UePXlj772tc
14 June	Voice of Russia	Radio	http://english.ruvr.ru/radio_broadcast/25298789/221967970/

Beyond the 20 specific HANCI media mentions, IDS received extensive media coverage during 'nutrition week'. This raised the profile of the Institute and our nutrition research, and was an opportunity to push our accountability messaging which lies at the heart of the HANCI project. The media coverage included mentions in key UK newspapers such as the *Financial Times* and the *Daily Telegraph*, in development news outlets such as Relief Web, IRIN and Reuters' AlertNet, and an interview with IDS Director Lawrence Haddad on BBC Radio 5 Live's 'Wake Up to Money' programme, which was then re-broadcast on 14 regional BBC stations across the UK.

HANCI social media engagement

HANCI was particularly successful in engaging key influencers through social media – such as politicians (including a number at ministerial level) as well as leaders in development advocacy and policy.

For example, Julian Fantino, Canada's Minister of International Cooperation, tweeted Canada's HANCI score. This was followed up by the Canadian government's Nutrition Coordinator contacting IDS directly to get the full data.

Similarly, the Head of Food Security and Financial Sector at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in the Netherlands, Marcel Beukeboom, tweeted:

Marcel Beukeboom @MBeukeboom

@IDS_UK #HANCI disappointing 16th place for Netherlands. We are more ambitious than that. Interested in indicators to learn how to improve.

This may have been in response to an article published by Oxfam Novib on the Netherlands' poor performance in the index. This was followed up by the Senior Policy Advisor on Food and Nutrition Security in the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs contacting IDS directly for more information on the data with the aim of improving the Netherlands' ranking next year.

Other key influencers include: the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD), who will use the HANCI data to encourage the Norwegian government to do more on nutrition; global development NGOs such as ONE, Concern, ACF and the IF campaign; as well as leading policy specialists such as Duncan Green (Oxfam), Brendan Cox (Save the Children) and Glen Tarman (Action Against Hunger/ACF).

Tweets and retweets about the HANCI donor data from key Twitter influencers helped increase Twitter activity and the potential audience for HANCI. The top five tweets and retweets alone received more than 134,000 potential impressions.

The HANCI infographic was particularly popular with Twitter followers and was the top HANCI tweet, with 11 retweets.

HANCI was also shared through the IDS Facebook page. HANCI Facebook posts received a total of 30 shares, with 104 people talking about the index and its findings.

Table A1.2 Top ten most-followed Twitter users who shared, retweeted or mentioned IDS relating to the HANCI campaign

Influential users	Followers	Profile description
@ONECampaign	699,643	ONE is a grassroots advocacy and campaigning organisation
@DFID_UK	96,337	Department for International Development (DFID)
@TwitChange	43,062	@Mashable Award Winner – We are how celebrities, fans and brands use social media for social good!
@ifpri	23,150	The International Food Policy Research Institute seeks sustainable solutions for ending hunger and poverty.
@enoughfoodif	23,067	Imagine IF we could be the generation to end hunger
@reliefweb	22,765	Informing humanitarians worldwide. A service provided by @UNOCHA
@Concern	22,043	Working with the world's poorest people to transform their lives. And we tweet. concernworldwide.org
@food4thehungry	15,888	International relief and development organisation that answers God's call to meet the physical and spiritual need of the impoverished.
@fp2p	10,830	Duncan Green – From Poverty to Power blog links and tweets from Oxfam's Senior Strategic Advisor
@thomasbrake50m	10,121	Tom Brake MP – Lib Dem MP (UK) for Carshalton and Wallington, Deputy Leader of the House of Commons. Carshalton and Wallington

Table A1.3 Top five tweets and retweets by @IDS_UK

Text	Retweets	Replies	Potential impressions
#infographic shows all 23 donor countries' performance on political commitment to reduce #hunger #undernutrition http://t.co/dCugiOY1ZV	11	1	48,430
Listen to IDS director @l_haddad interview on BBC R5 iplayer (27m 10s) on @EnoughFoodIF #hunger summit http://t.co/F3HPQUqOEn	4	1	26,285
Watch our new video 'What do we know' teasing the #HANCI results later today http://t.co/5sPjPU3iUn #hunger #undernutrition #globaldev	5	1	21,990
Ending #nutrition crisis tomorrow in Portcullis House with @l_haddad @APPG_Ag_F4D @devinitorg @ACF_UK http://t.co/5AkoG1WQ5F via @sharethis	2	0	19,271
Cameron: Aid spending makes PM 'proud to be British' http://t.co/FixsJfQvyT But how committed is UK? Find out here http://t.co/ofZNlGsIF3	1	0	18,926

Table A1.4 Facebook: rated by PTAT (people talking about this)

Post Text	PTAT	Total reach	Total impressions	Engaged users	Post likes	Post comments	Post shares
See where the 23 donor countries rank in terms of their performance on 14 indicators of political commitment to reduce hunger and undernutrition	48	3,576	7,289	246	27	4	18
We're rather pleased with our new video 'What do we know?' which teases the HANCI results to be released at 4pm today. Let us know what you think and please share with your friends and colleagues.	25	2,140	4,637	56	13	0	10
The Lancet has published its much anticipated new Series of papers on maternal and child undernutrition, just days before the UK hosted Hunger Summit and G8, providing startling new estimates of the numbers of children dying from malnutrition every year, and outlining how the persistent burden of malnutrition can be tackled.	15	1,387	3,220	37	12	0	2
We have some exciting news tomorrow at 16:00 UK time. Find out which countries are donating more than others for commitment on hunger and undernutrition.	10	3,950	8,021	19	10	0	0
Listen to IDS Director Lawrence Haddad being interviewed on BBC Radio 5 on Enough Food IF campaign and hunger summit. Forward the BBC iplayer to 27 mins 10 secs for the start of the interview.	3	811	1,993	8	2	0	0
If you're unable to view the infographic see the HANCI website	2	1,496	3,291	32	2	0	0
UK amongst top donors for reducing hunger and undernutrition in developing countries. See which other countries rank well	1	1,090	2,546	11	1	0	0

HANCI animation

IDS worked with Bliink to create the animation ‘Hunger and Nutrition: What do we know?’, which was designed as an introduction to the HANCI and the need for accountability on hunger and undernutrition.

The film was screened at the Westminster event at which the HANCI donor data were launched and was promoted through IDS social media channels. After one week, the animation had had 866 views and has been popular on Twitter, with 81 tweets sharing the link.

Table A1.5 YouTube views

Monday 3rd June	Tuesday 4th June	Wednesday 5th June	Thursday 6th June	Friday 7th June	Total (at 12 Jun)	Comments	Link tweeted
12	243	170	120	87	866	3 positive	81

In the first week, the animation was mainly viewed in donor countries as promotion focused on donor data and was aimed at audiences in donor countries. The animation will be used to further promote HANCI’s developing country data to NGOs and civil society working in developing countries in the coming months.

Table A1.6 Top 20 countries viewing YouTube video

	Country	Views	Estimated minutes watched			Country	Views	Estimated minutes watched
1	United Kingdom	300	582		11	Sweden	14	23
2	United States	105	227		12	Spain	13	46
3	Canada	52	135		13	South Africa	13	19
4	India	30	81		14	Mexico	12	22
5	Germany	26	53		15	France	12	10
6	Italy	23	42		16	Netherlands	11	23
7	Australia	18	44		17	Taiwan	10	109
8	Ireland	15	23		18	Indonesia	9	21
9	Belgium	15	50		19	Switzerland	8	10
10	Nepal	15	29		20	New Zealand	8	26

HANCI website traffic (all data based on 1 June to 11 June 2013)

- Website traffic peaked on Wednesday 5 June at 249 visits.
- Good ‘bounce rate’ – shows people are reading content and exploring site.
- Irish visitors have highest visit duration, averaging at over 8 minutes.

Figure A1.1 Website traffic

Top 10 countries where visitors came from					
Country/Territory	**Visits**	**Pages/Visit**	**Avg. Visit Duration**	**% New Visits**	**Bounce Rate**
United Kingdom	172	2.47	00:03:06	69.77%	47.09%
United States	153	2.06	00:02:03	54.90%	52.29%
Netherlands	100	2.55	00:03:55	56.00%	45.00%
Belgium	46	2.43	00:02:30	84.78%	36.96%
Italy	43	2.65	00:02:40	72.09%	44.19%
Canada	39	1.85	00:02:13	71.79%	46.15%
India	36	2.06	00:02:12	47.22%	69.44%
Germany	33	2.73	00:03:06	81.82%	27.27%
Ireland	33	2.88	00:08:49	48.48%	27.27%
Australia	24	2.17	00:01:18	58.33%	50.00%

Table A1.7 Top ten pages viewed on HANCI website

Page	Pageviews	Unique Pageviews	Entrances	Bounce rate	% Exit
/(homepage)	821	620	580	43.45%	44.58%
/explore-the-data/hanci-infographics/	427	272	151	48.34%	48.71%
/explore-the-data/	227	157	21	52.38%	16.74%
/2013/06/new-hanci-donor-index-launched-uk-ranked-amongst-donors-with-strongest-commitment/	215	172	112	40.18%	58.60%
/about/	113	89	20	55.00%	30.97%
/explore-the-data/global-view-of-hanci/	77	67	4	50.00%	37.66%
/explore-the-data/view-the-data/	65	54	3	0.00%	29.23%
/explore-the-data/research-findings/	58	52	8	75.00%	37.93%
/about/faq/	38	30	2	100.00%	31.58%
/community-voices/	32	30	4	75.00%	43.75%

Bounce rate % is lower than average, which is good.
% Exit rate also good as visitors are still exploring site to learn more, therefore interested in content.

Email news update

An IDS email news update was sent out on 7 June with a round-up of nutrition news, including IDS website articles on HANCI and the new *Lancet* Nutrition Series. The email was sent to 19,300 addresses, of which 93 per cent were successfully sent, 22 per cent were open and 8 per cent clicked through to content on the IDS website.

Annex 2 Index indicators considered but not included

Table A2.1 Indicators and reasons for exclusion from HANCI Donor Index

Indicators		Reason for exclusion from HANCI Donor Index
1	The qualitative nature of donor–recipient relationships, in line with the Rome Principles.	No quantifiable data available
2	Disbursements and commitments towards the l'Aquila Food Security Initiative and the Global Agriculture and Food Security Programme	These world's largest multi-donor trust funds ended in 2012/13, to have insufficient continuity for inclusion in the HANCI Donor Index. Furthermore, part of these commitments is already counted in the ODA to agriculture and food security indicator.
3	Fast-start finance (FSF) for climate change. During the Conference of the Parties (COP15) held in December 2009 in Copenhagen, developed countries pledged to provide new and additional resources, including forestry and investments, approaching $30 billion for the period 2010–12 and with balanced allocation between mitigation and adaptation.	FSF financing was pledged for 2010–12, but no further commitments have been made and only at the COP 2015 will new commitments be made for 2020. Hence, this indicator would have insufficient continuity for inclusion in HANCI.
4	The extent of financial support to UNFCCC via the Special Climate Change Fund, the Least Developed Countries Fund and the Adaptation Fund as a % of GNI	This indicator was included in the HRCI 2011 Donor Index. Since 2011, the OECD–DAC provides estimates of ODA funding for mitigation as well as adaptation. This indicator is included in the HANCI Donor Index. The support for climate change funds is dropped to prevent double counting.
5	Ratification of the UN 'Fisheries Agreement' for the Implementation of the Provisions of the United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea relating to the Conservation and Management of Straddling Fish Stocks and Highly Migratory Fish Stocks. This treaty helps nations coordinate management of fish stocks that migrate or are in international waters.	The treaty came into effect in 2001 and most rich countries have signed up to it, except for landlocked Switzerland and Austria, hence this indicator was abandoned in favour of the Agreement on Illegal Unreported and Unregulated Fishing.
6	The SUN signatory countries must demonstrate their commitment to scaling up nutrition by costing national nutrition plans by the end of 2012 (Spratt 2012).	Not applicable to non-SUN countries
7	Donors should explore and trial innovative financing to provide long-term, sustainable and predictable funding for the full nutrition package which is aligned with complementary initiatives in health, food security and agriculture (Spratt 2012).	No data available – could be explored further in future HANCI editions

(Cont'd.)

Table A2.1 (cont'd.)

Indicators		Reason for exclusion from HANCI Donor Index
8	Countries contribute to developing a systematic, equitable and transparent mechanism for the sharing of costs between domestic and external sources so that countries receive adequate assistance in proportion to their needs (Spratt 2012).	No secondary data available
9	The level of fishing subsidies: it is widely acknowledged that global fisheries are overcapitalised, resulting in the depletion of fishery resources. The global community is paying the fishing industry billions in subsidies each year to continue fishing even when it would not be profitable otherwise – effectively funding the over-exploitation of marine resources (Rashid Sumaila *et al*. 2010).	Data are not regularly collected, so no updates can be made over time, and data are already outdated (e.g. Roodman (2012) reports on 2007 subsidy levels, whereas Rashid Sumaila *et al*. (2010) report on 2003 levels).
10	New Alliance for Food Security and Nutrition. This initiative aims to increase domestic and foreign private investments in African agriculture, to enhance agricultural productivity, and reduce the risk borne by vulnerable economies and communities (UN 2012).	This is chiefly an investment initiative by the private sector, with limited transparency and accountability to targeted beneficiaries (ONE 2012).
11	Impute multilateral ODA to nutrition; climate change; social protection; agriculture and food security	Technically possible (see, for example, Coppard and Zubairi 2011; Di Ciommo 2013) though too laborious for our purposes.

Annex 3 Raw data all indicators (prior to normalisation)

Table A3.1 Raw data

	ODA to agriculture and food security as % of the fair share required	ODA to social protection as % of the fair share required	ODA to climate change as % of the fair share required	ODA to agriculture and food security: endurance and stability	Protection for domestic agricultural markets	National climate change adaptation strategy/plan	Biofuels mandates
Australia	0.4783	0.1058	0.3963	5	8	3	1
Austria	0.0982	0.0226	-0.7443	3	32	4	10
Belgium	0.6288	0.0677	0.2610	7	35	3	10
Canada	0.5892	0.0391	-0.5762	8	30	2	3.5
Denmark	0.7197	0.0869	4.4737	4	37	4	10
Finland	0.6115	0.0890	3.1815	8	29	4	10
France	0.2151	0.0510	0.8266	3	33	4	10
Germany	0.2585	0.0402	1.4088	3	34	4	10
Greece	0.0194	0.0255	-0.9607	3	38	1	10
Ireland	0.4901	0.2425	-0.4787	7	39	3	10
Italy	0.0459	0.0230	-0.9236	4	31	1	10
Japan	0.3636	0.0757	2.1202	5	122	1	3
South Korea	0.0999	0.0072	-0.6310	6	117	4	2.5
Luxembourg	1.0877	0.3687	-0.2682	8	37	1	10
Netherlands	0.2880	0.0955	0.5974	2	27	4	10
New Zealand	0.2476	0.0301	-0.3119	5	2	2	0
Norway	1.3057	0.1157	7.6826	7	111	2	5
Portugal	0.0267	0.0482	-0.7121	2	32	3	10
Spain	0.4801	0.1218	0.5213	7	34	4	10
Sweden	0.4764	0.0774	4.1322	3	29	2	10
Switzerland	0.5082	0.0197	1.8658	5	87	3	0
UK	0.2697	0.1231	0.2111	5	33	3	4.75
USA	0.2804	0.0761	-0.9610	6	16	2	9.21

(Cont'd.)

Table A3.1 (cont'd.)

	Effected pledge on CO2 reductions	Biodiversity protection	ODA to nutrition: commitment vs. disbursement	ODA to nutrition as % of the fair share required	ODA to nutrition: endurance and stability	ODA disbursements with gender policy objective	Membership of Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement
Australia	0.0311	3.0000	-0.2131	0.5006	5	0.3820	0
Austria	0.0056	3.6667	-0.2912	0.0560	4	0.1588	0.5
Belgium	0.0235	3.3333	-0.0946	0.3384	6	0.3663	0.5
Canada	0.2371	2.6667	0.0021	0.5933	5	0.3819	1
Denmark	0.0140	3.3333	0.2732	0.8116	6	0.3566	1
Finland	0.0077	4.0000	-0.2936	0.2689	4	0.3656	0.5
France	0.0780	4.0000	-0.1818	0.1086	5	0.2361	1
Germany	0.2412	3.3333	-0.4616	0.2015	7	0.4219	1
Greece	0.0118	3.0000	0.3905	0.0127	2	0.4746	0.5
Ireland	0.0042	4.0000	-0.2108	0.4092	5	0.3560	1
Italy	0.0848	3.3333	0.0000	0.0213	5	0.2275	0.5
Japan	0.0000	1.3333	0.0000	0.1590	6	0.1074	1
South Korea	0.0000	2.3333	-0.0517	0.0481	4	0.0622	0
Luxembourg	0.0027	3.3333	-0.7419	2.0498	5	0.2270	0.5
Netherlands	0.0254	3.6667	-0.6329	0.4505	6	0.1029	1
New Zealand	0.0000	1.6667	0.0000	0.1948	4	0.6569	0
Norway	0.0000	3.6667	0.1404	0.5036	6	0.2578	0
Portugal	0.0057	3.3333	-0.0909	0.0072	5	0.0791	0.5
Spain	0.0268	4.0000	0.0519	0.4720	5	0.2195	0.5
Sweden	0.0022	3.6667	0.0000	0.3961	5	0.6010	1
Switzerland	0.0000	4.0000	-0.0895	0.3564	3	0.1184	1
UK	0.1381	4.0000	0.5709	0.4919	6	0.3873	1
USA	0.0000	1.3333	-0.4292	0.0812	6	0.0453	1

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