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Non-traditional aid and gender equity

Evidence from million dollar donations

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Abstract

This paper investigates the role of non-traditional aid in meeting global challenges in improving gender equality and gender-related socioeconomic needs in the twenty-first century. We define non-traditional aid as private donations from individuals, foundations, and corporations and use a newly available dataset that provides unique information about publicly announced private donations of US$1 million or more between 2000-01 from the USA to developing countries. Although there is growing interest in the role of non-traditional donors, much less is known about the flows of non-traditional aid toward gender issues in developing countries. In the past decade, there has been a significant growth in non-traditional aid; however, only a handful of studies have examined the size and composition of private philanthropy to developing countries. Our analysis reveals that non-traditional aid toward gender-related causes has grown, with a significant share of non-traditional …

Keywords: foreign aid, private donations, gender equity, development
JEL classification: O10, F35, L31, J16

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aid targeted at women and children. In general, we find that non-traditional aid to developing countries is positively associated with population size, gross domestic product per capita, and the severity of natural disasters, with more populous countries and countries that experienced more severe disasters receiving more non-traditional aid. Interestingly, aggregate incidence and levels of non-traditional aid are positively associated with female mortality, holding other variables constant. Finally, we find that non-traditional aid is less responsive to geopolitical and strategic factors that are shown to be of importance for official development assistance.

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1 Introduction

Women in the developing world perform about 65 per cent of the world's work and produce more than 50 per cent of the food, yet they earn 10 per cent of the income and own only 1 per cent of the property (UNDP 2011). Girls and women in developing countries also face well-documented gaps in access to education and health, as well as political participation. Improving gender equity is a critical policy issue facing national governments and donor countries. However, beyond national governments, an influential group of non-traditional donors including individuals, foundations, and global corporations are playing a growing role in addressing gender inequities in the developing world.

As non-traditional aid toward gender equity and other causes in the developing world gains attention, new questions and challenges have emerged. Some researchers and policy makers have suggested that the scale and scope of non-traditional aid to the developing world may soon overtake official development assistance (ODA) (Kharas 2007). Yet others have questioned how non-traditional aid will reshape the landscape of development assistance. According to the Hudson Institute (2012: 5), combined US private flows to the developing world were over four times larger than ODA flows in 2010, totalling approximately US$326.4 billion. In fact, official development agencies in the US, the UK., France, Germany, and other donor countries, have recently commissioned studies to better understand how non-traditional donors interact with ODA in developing countries (Marten and Witte 2008).

A dominant viewpoint is that non-traditional aid can offer solutions that ODA cannot (Bellagio Initiative 2012; Adelman 2009; Goldberg and Jarvis 2008), particularly in addressing gender inequality. While ODA has been criticized for bureaucratic waste and inefficiency (Bauer 1972; Cassen 1987; Easterly and Pfutze 2008; Sachs 2005; Moyo 2009, some researchers have argued that private donors may be more altruistic and flexible, and face lower transaction costs in meeting needs in developing countries. In fact, survey evidence from some donor countries suggests that non-traditional aid is viewed as more effective than ODA in its ability to respond rapidly to emergencies and critical needs (Atkinson and Eastwood 2007). Critics have also argued that while geopolitical and strategic considerations, colonial ties, and commercial interests drive ODA allocation, non-traditional donors may be more responsive to poverty alleviation and development needs. Non-traditional donors also tend to be perceived as less susceptible to corruption, bureaucratic failure, and waste, as they tend to work directly with nongovernmental organizations. In addition, non-traditional donors are thought to be less risk-averse, thus prioritizing innovative approaches to reducing gender inequality in developing countries (Edwards 2011).

Still, non-traditional aid may lead to challenges for the donor's home country and recipient countries. From the perspective of multilateral and bilateral donors, non-traditional aid flows to developing countries may undermine, rather than complement, the aims and goals of large-scale ODA projects (Edwards 2011). In addition, non-traditional aid toward gender inequality may also be associated with high overhead costs if multiple donors are administering small amounts of funds. Once the gift reaches the recipient country, the non-traditional donor's strategies may be less aligned with national development goals and incur high administrative costs (Brugha et al. 2004). In addition, when many non-traditional donors disburse small amounts in an unco-ordinated manner, efforts to resolve challenges may face fragmentation. In general, there has been very limited research to illuminate these issues.

At present, very little is known about flows of non-traditional aid, in general and particularly toward gender equality. Who gives non-traditional aid toward gender equality? Which countries receive non-traditional aid—and what types of gender-related causes are receiving aid? Given the rising visibility of non-traditional aid, it is surprising that there have been few studies that shed light on these flows. This paper uses a newly available dataset to explore three previously unanswered research questions. First, what are the trends in large non-traditional donations, particularly towards reducing gender inequality? Second, what country-level factors influence US non-traditional aid at the million-dollar level and above to gender-related causes? Third, how does non-traditional aid allocation differ from ODA allocation?

This study sheds new light on the changing funding landscape in the arena of gender equality and gender issues within international development assistance. The findings from this study provide new insights into factors that influence non-traditional donors toward gender equity, as well as illustrate how non-traditional aid differs from official development assistance (ODA). Theoretical models of private donations suggest that private donors may give to gender related causes in the developing world due to altruistic preferences, 'warm glow' motives, or due to the desire to make an impact or 'impact philanthropy'. We test the altruistic preferences and impact philanthropy models, which predict that higher non-traditional aid flows respond to gender conditions in the receiving country. We find evidence that non-traditional donors respond to gender conditions in developing countries. However, we also take a number of steps to assess the validity of the empirical strategy. First, our main specification includes country fixed effects which allow us to control for unobserved, time-invariant country-level variables. Second, we also examine alternative empirical strategies including a Poisson model to test the robustness of the results, and results suggest that non-traditional aid flows tend to be responsive to gender conditions in the receiving country, particular health conditions.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The next section provides an overview of the role of non-traditional donors in improving gender equity in developing countries and how this has changed over time. In Section 3, we provide an overview of the theoretical models of private donations. Section 4 presents the data. Section 5 describes the empirical strategy, discusses the main findings, and presents estimates of how gender conditions are related to non-traditional aid flows. This section also explores the robustness of the findings. Section 6 presents conclusions.

2 Gender equity, non-traditional aid, and development: an overview

Gender equity is defined as the stage of human social development at which the rights, responsibilities, and opportunities of individuals are not limited by gender, and when individuals, irrespective of gender, realize their full potential (Lopez-Claros and Zahidi 2005). As Ransom and Bain (2011: 49) suggest, gender-based inequalities limit women's ability to fully participate in efforts to improve their livelihoods. As a growing number of donor countries and international institutions have developed gender-based programmes and policies, theoretical and policy approaches to improving gender equity in the developing world have evolved over time. Shah, McGill, and Weisblatt (2011) outline three distinct phases in policy approaches to improving gender equality in developing countries.

The first phase of efforts to foster gender equity focused mainly on promoting the rights and wellbeing of women as important policy objectives. From its onset, the United Nations

Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) emphasized female empowerment as a distinct policy goal rather than a component of development policy. More than a decade later, the Fourth UN International Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995, emphasized women's empowerment and women's rights as important ends in themselves and was endorsed by the majority of donor and aid-recipient countries.

The second phase advocates a shift from separate interventions for women to the inclusion of a gender equality perspective in all policies, programmes and strategies. Sen (1999) and others have emphasized that improving access to education, employment, and ownership rights for women contributes to an improvement in overall economic development prospects in low-income countries. In fact, policy makers and researchers increasingly recognize that improving gender inequality has linkages with poverty reduction as well as a number of other important development outcomes. For example, improving female education may reduce fertility and improve child health and education. Klasen (1999) finds that between 0.4 and 0.9 per cent of the differences in growth rates between East Asia and sub Saharan Africa, South Asia and the Middle East can be attributed to gender inequity.

Within the donor community there is now a growing consensus that investing in women and girls is inherently valuable and can provide positive external benefits in developing countries. Donor agencies, such as USAID, are adjusting their thinking and approaches to funding gender-based initiatives (USAID 2012; Stuart 2012). Some donor countries have introduced gender markers, revealing to what extent funding is going towards gender issues and programmes. According to the OECD (2013), a policy or activity is given a gender equity policy marker if it is intended to advance gender equality and women's empowerment or reduce discrimination and inequalities based on gender. Gender markers are used by organizations like the European Union, UNICEF, and OECD, and provide a quantitative weight to a policy or activity that should be classified as gender equity focused. This type of analysis has revealed, for instance, that Finland currently dedicates around 54 per cent of their annual aid budget for gender equality projects (Nanivazo and Scott 2012).

Finally, the third stage emphasizes the need for partnerships between national governments and non-traditional donors—including individuals, corporations, and bilateral and multilateral donors. The 2008 global financial crises may have accelerated the emphasis on collaboration as official donors have faced greater resource constraints in addressing urgent societal needs on their own. In addition, the emerging consensus in global health, education, and environment is that the capacity of both the public and private sector is often required to tackle important challenges. Several analysts have emphasized that given the scale of current global problems, one sector acting alone is unlikely to have the necessary resources to address them. Buse and Walt (2000) document the growing trend of collaboration and explain the establishment of partnerships to deal with specific global health issues. For example, the Task Force on Child Survival and Development was one of the earliest partnerships established between a number of UN agencies and the Rockefeller Foundation.

An indicator that there is greater reliance on partnerships, particularly in funding gender concerns in the developing world can be seen in the funding patterns. In fact, the percentage of ODA mobilized by the UN agencies decreased from 32.3 per cent in 1990 to 14 per cent in 2007. In contrast, public-private partnerships, such as the Global Fund and the Global Alliance for Vaccines and Immunization (GAVI), have scaled up rapidly from less than 1 per cent of ODA each in 2002 to 8.3 per cent and 4.2 per cent, respectively, in 2007. Launched officially in January 2000, GAVI is the product of a public-private partnership drawing

support from all sectors: governments, foundations, major businesses, and citizens. Governments provide a little over three-quarters of GAVI's funds (76 per cent), while foundations, corporations, and private citizens provide the rest (24 per cent).[1] The Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation has donated US$1.5 billion to support GAVI's childhood immunization efforts. GAVI pools the efforts of these partners to immunize children in developing countries. GAVI also recognizes the importance of women in development through both its health initiatives (providing rubella and HPV vaccines to promote female health) and its broader strategy: empowered women are more likely to seek immunization for their children.

It is interesting to note that a number of UN agencies are tackling gender issues through partnerships with private donors. For instance, UN Women has partnered with the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation to roll out over 600 sustainable, rural agro-enterprise projects for women in Burkina Faso, Senegal, and Burundi. UN Women supports the empowerment of women through both high-level policy processes and funding mechanisms. UN Women has also formed partnerships with both global corporations and foundations. Coca-Cola and UN Women have partnered to create a '5by20'[2] initiative supporting female entrepreneurs, while collaboration with Microsoft will support women and technology. UN Women highlights major partnerships with foundations, including the Rockefeller Foundation, whose support allowed 'grass-roots women to participate in the Rio+20 global conference on sustainable development'.[3]

3 Understanding non-traditional aid: theories on private donations

With the rising visibility of non-traditional donors in gender-related issues, there is renewed interest in understanding the factors that influence non-traditional aid. The theoretical literature provides some insights into motivations of private donors to gender-related causes. This literature can be divided into three distinct strands. The earliest class of models focuses on altruistic preferences. Under altruism, donors give because they care about the production of a global public good such as female empowerment, women's health, and education. In the altruistic model, a key concern is the 'free rider' problem where a given private donor will reduce his or her contributions as other donors increase their contributions toward public good provision.

A second class of models emphasizes the private consumption, 'warm glow' motives for giving, in which donors obtain private benefits from their donations (Andreoni 1993). Within 'warm glow' models, individuals receive utility from the act of giving, providing individuals with positive emotional benefits as they help others. Because private donors are motivated by the personal satisfaction they derive from their contributions, the contributions of other donors does not necessarily reduce the benefits that a specific donor derives from giving. This implies that the free rider problem is of less concern within the 'warm glow' framework.

More recently, scholars have emphasized non-economic motivations for donations, such as the need to make a difference; desire for visibility, social recognition, and status; and social pressure, which may influence overall patterns of individual giving (DellaVigna, List, and Malmendier 2009). Duncan (2004) emphasizes 'impact philanthropy,' a model in which the

[1] www.gavialliance.org/funding/donor-profiles/

[2] www.coca-colacompany.com/stories/5by20/

[3] www.unwomen.org/partnerships/business-and-foundations/major-business-partners

donor gives in order to 'make a difference'. Similar to altruism, impact philanthropy suggests that the contributions of others may reduce the incentive of a specific private donor to give. This motivation emphasizes the independent effect of one donor's gift, and the impact of donors that support that cause. These models may be particularly relevant in explaining the giving patterns of private donors that make large gifts to fund gender-based causes in developing countries (Lloyd 2004). In particular, giving by others to fund gender-related causes in the developing world can reduce the benefits for an impact-driven donor. As stated above, an impact philanthropist may derive less benefit if other philanthropists are engaged in a cause.

An additional model—the 'identification' model put forth by Atkinson (2009)—incorporates elements of 'impact philanthropy'. However, the unique insight associated with the identification model is that the donors care about the ultimate recipients of the donation, and not just making a difference. Arulampalam, Backus, and Micklewright (2011) reveal that private donors ''identify with the ultimate recipients on a one-to-*m* basis'. The variable *m*, a 'marginal' unit, represents the singular destination of the donor's gift and 'enters the donor's utility function'. Arulampalam et al. (2011) also link Atkinson (ibid.) and Duncan (2004), by remarking that the inclusion of this single gift's marginal impact—but not 'the wellbeing of all recipients'—into the donor's utility function is similar to the 'impact giving' model of Duncan (ibid.).

Although non-traditional donors are often discussed in aggregate terms, it is important to note that individuals, corporations, and foundation donors may face different motives and constraints in their funding of gender-related issues in developing countries. For example, corporations may fund causes in order to advance their profit goals or to further corporate social responsibility objectives (Pharoah 2011; Moir and Taffler 2004). In contrast, some foundations may emphasize meeting gender equity and social needs as a primary area of grant-making (Lew and Wójcik 2009), and foundations may be more proactive and dedicated to selecting programme areas in which to invest (Katz 2007).

A closer look at existing studies of non-traditional aid suggests this class of donors is reshaping approaches to health care in developing countries by working directly with nongovernment agencies and institutions. Globally, private foundations spent US$22.5 billion on health care in 2009; this spending went disproportionately towards women's and children's health programmes (Desai and Kharas 2010). Many US-based foundations, such as the Gates Foundation and the Rockefeller Foundation, currently fund global health projects specific to women and girls in developing nations. Some examples from the Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy's Million Dollar List database, which tracks non-traditional aid at the gift level, include the Abbott Fund, the philanthropic arm of Abbott, a global health company, which provided over US$5 million in 2005 to the Afghan Institute of Learning in order to support an intensive 18-month health education and midwifery course for Afghan women. According to the same source, the Carnegie Corporation of New York gave a gift of US$1 million to Makerere University to support scholarship programmes for undergraduate Ugandan women. As Jones et al. (2010) note, although positive strides have been taken to improve gender-responsive aid, much work remains in order to promote gender-sensitive social protection and tackle gender-specific poverty and vulnerability.

In general, consistent with the 'impact philanthropy' framework, non-traditional donors have increasingly sought to achieve greater impact by working directly with civil society and non-profit organizations, instead of national governments in order to improve gender equity. One prominent example is the Global Fund for Women, characterized as 'the world's largest

public foundation investing exclusively in women's rights worldwide'.[4] The international fund supports the work of women's groups in five major global regions, inviting communication with these groups in several languages. Since the Global Fund for Women began granting funds in 1988, it 'has granted over US$100 million to more than 4,400 women's groups in 172 countries'. These grants may be as small as US$5,000 or as large as US$30,000, annually. The fund identifies six main grant areas: 'advancing heath and sexual and reproductive rights,' 'building peace and ending gender-based violence,' 'ensuring economic and environmental justice,' 'expanding civic and political participation,' 'access to education,' and 'fostering social change philanthropy'. While the Global Fund's focus is broad, its main focus has been to strengthen the work of existing women's groups through partnerships and capacity-building measures.

The 'impact philanthropy' approach provides a useful model to illuminate the work of foundations and corporations in the area of gender inequity. In recent years, individuals, foundations and corporations have launched highly visible and influential initiatives that seek to improve conditions for women and girls in developing countries, including combating maternal mortality, female illiteracy and improving political empowerment for women. In 2006, Warren Buffett gave a mega-gift of US$30 billion to the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation for programmes seeking to reduce inequities around the world. In the context of their international grant making, the Gates foundation links the health of the family with female empowerment. The foundation explains that broader initiatives in maternal and neonatal health, vaccines, and the treatment and prevention of 'HIV/AIDS, pneumonia, and malaria, enteric and diarrheal diseases' form their commitment to female empowerment.[5] McCoy et al. (2007) analyse major contributions from the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation and its contributions to global health. McCoy et al. (2007) also examine the grant making programme of the Gates Foundation through analysis of 1,094 global health grants awarded between 1998 and 2007. The authors find that the total value of these grants was US$8.95 billion.

Another important role that non-traditional donors can play is to bring heightened media and public awareness to improving gender equity in developing countries. One example is the Nike Foundation that has focused on reducing 'intergenerational poverty' through its work on girls and young women as part of its corporate social responsibility programmes. Research and expert input reveals that 'adolescent girls are the highest point of leverage' in the cycle of poverty. Any poverty-reduction intervention would have the most impact then, as compared to childhood or adulthood. In 2005, Nike worked with the UN Foundation, the World Bank, the Population Council, and the International Center for Research on Women on this girl-focused initiative (*Philanthropy News Digest* 2005). The Girl Effect now collaborates with the Coalition for Adolescent Girls, a network of over 30 inter-governmental and non-profit groups dedicated to addressing the unique challenges—and potential for change—that adolescence symbolizes for girls. Committed to leveraging the economic and social potential energy of 600 million adolescent girls, The Girl Effect has produced a series of YouTube videos campaigning for the inclusion and empowerment of adolescent girls in development.

In contrast to models of altruism and warm glow found in the literature on donations, existing models of ODA emphasize a variety of complex motivations for providing ODA, only some of which are directly related to gender equity, poverty alleviation, basic needs, and economic development. Some donor countries may provide aid to their former colonies as means of

[4] www.globalfundforwomen.org/storage/documents/news/gfw_timeline.pdf.

[5] www.gatesfoundation.org/What-We-Do/Global-Development/Family-Planning.

retaining some political influence rather than solely in response to poverty or to improve gender equality (Alesina and Dollar 2000; Bandyopadhyay and Wall 2007).

4 Data

This paper uses a new and unique data source, the Million Dollar List (Indiana University School of Philanthropy 2011), to overcome the challenges associated with studying non-traditional aid flows. The Million Dollar List (MDL) is a publicly available dataset providing an in-depth view of non-traditional aid to developing countries through a comprehensive picture of publicly announced donations valued at US$1 million or greater originating in the United States. The MDL has been compiled by the Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy since 2000. The MDL provides a unique perspective on trends in non-traditional aid at the highest levels by individuals, corporations, foundations, and other grant-making non-profit organizations. The main advantage of the MDL is that it provides donation-level information on a quarterly and annual basis, allowing us to better understand non-traditional aid trends and patterns. This gift-level view contrasts with many of the data sources already in existence. For example, *Giving USA*, an annual comprehensive report on charitable giving in the US, provides a macroeconomic view of giving, showing overall trends in total US giving. The MDL, on the other hand, can be considered as a more disaggregated view of giving, since it provides an in-depth view of private donations at the million dollar level and above.

An important advantage of the MDL data is that it includes more than 67,000 qualifying gifts from calendar years 2000 to 2011. This figure includes gifts from individuals, private and corporate foundations, corporations and other grant-making non-profits. The majority of these gifts fall below the us$5 million level (83 per cent), and many of the gifts are made by donors who gave only one such qualifying gift (67 per cent). In fact, approximately 22 per cent of all of the donations captured on the MDL were valued at exactly US$1 million at the time they were given or pledged. Out of the 67,000 total donations tracked in this database, 1,334 were made to international or overseas recipients and causes.

The MDL's data collection sources include: *The Chronicle of Philanthropy*'s monthly publication and attendant website, *The Chronicle of Higher Education*'s weekly publication, NOZA Search's weekly announced gifts, Factiva, LexisNexis Academic, the Philanthropy News Digest from the Foundation Center, Google email alerts, and the Foundation Search database (obtained from tax records). Many of these sources provide daily and weekly updates. Once qualifying gifts are identified, researchers code each gift and enter it into a central database. Specific data coded for each gift include donor name, recipient organization, state, country, and subsector in which aid is allocated, such as education, health, or the environment; gift amount and notes; source of information; date reported; and year and quarter of the donation.

To provide a comprehensive and accurate picture of non-traditional aid flows to developing countries, we focus on the component of the MDL data obtained from tax records. This means that the main empirical analysis includes only donations from foundations and corporations, and excludes individual donors. From the tax records component of the MDL database, we note 804 donations made by foundations, corporations, and corporate foundations to recipients in developing countries during 2000-10, with a combined value of US$2.72 billion. All dollar figures are inflation adjusted to 2011 values. In contrast to the publicly announced data sources, we should note that the tax data excludes donations made

by individuals in order to maintain confidentiality of donors. Foundations make the largest number and dollar amount of million-dollar-plus gifts to developing countries. In particular, foundations account for 85 per cent of the total number and total dollar amount.

However, although the tax records have important strengths, they have limited information about the donor, recipient and motivations for the donations. In particular, because of our interest in gender-related non-traditional aid we also draw on the component of the MDL that is based on public announcements which contains extensive information about the actual recipient of the gift. To obtain specific information about the nature of the donation, we rely on the publicly announced subset of the MDL database, which include gifts made by individuals, foundations, and corporations and corporate foundations to foreign recipients in developing countries from 2000 to 2010. The total dollar amount is approximately US$2.65 billion.

Our interest in non-traditional aid to gender-related causes allows us to go beyond information available in tax records, to rely on the gift notes available in the publicly announced component of the MDL database. If the gift notes specify that a donation is given to support women and/or children, we code it as a gender-related gift. Gender-related causes are those that aim to offer equal economic and political opportunities and participation for women in developing nations. These causes typically promote women's access to health, employment, and education, which can increase their productivity and wellbeing.

We classify donations made to an international organization with the mission to serve women and/or children (e.g., Save the Children, African Women's Development Fund, and International Women's Health Coalition), or with the specific purpose to promote the welfare of women and/or children (e.g., prevention of newborn illness and childhood disease, funds and scholarships for women's studies, polio eradication, research and development programmes for women and/or children, women's rights and protection, and family planning assistance) as gender-related gifts.

According to the Million Dollar List, there were 120 gifts of US$1 million and above made during 2000-10 to address gender-related issues in a developing country, with the total value of US$1.15 billion. Twenty-four developing countries received such gifts. India received the largest number and total dollar amount of gender-related gifts. Ethiopia ranks the second in terms of the total number and third in terms of the total dollar amount of gender-related gifts. Kenya, Bangladesh and Haiti are also on the list of the top five countries receiving the largest number and amount of gifts to gender-related causes. However for the majority of gender-related gifts, the recipient country was not identified, as 30 per cent of the total gifts did not specify the name of the country, and 38.3 per cent were made to multiple countries within or across continents. Gifts to unspecified countries are not included in the regression analysis.

We note that the MDL list allows us to better understand the role of donor groups in the non-traditional aid landscape: individuals, foundations, corporations, and corporate foundations. Based on the initial analysis of the publicly announced MDL, a number of patterns emerge. First, the publicly announced component of the data may underreport gifts made to religious organizations and small non-profits, both of which are less likely to publicly report or obtain media coverage of such gifts. Second, specific gifts as reported may differ from the actual size of the gift or estimated value, for instance, of non-monetary contributions such as artwork, stock, or in-kind support.

5 Recent trends

5.1 Overall private giving to developing countries

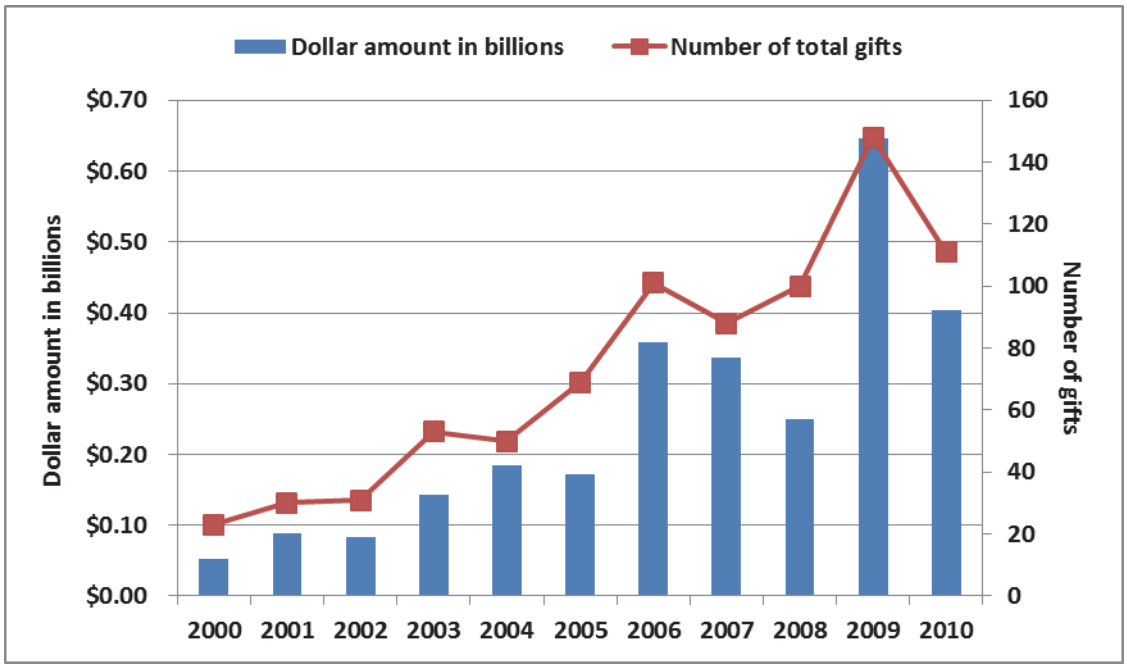
In the data analysis, we study donations made through international charitable organizations at the US$1 million-level that are reported on tax records. Figure 1 shows that US non-traditional aid to developing countries has grown since 2000, and it peaked in 2006 and again in 2009. The highs in non-traditional aid flows achieved in 2006 and 2009 may be linked to the international humanitarian disasters including the Asian tsunami in 2005 and the earthquake in China in 2008. We should note that the number of disaster relief gifts also increased significantly in 2005 and in 2010. Figure 2 shows trends in non-traditional aid to developing countries to gender-related causes. By analyzing the number of donations to gender-related causes, we find that although gender-related flows have increased over time, the global financial crisis in 2008 may have impacted overall non-traditional aid, as well as non-traditional aid focused on gender-related causes.

Figures 3 and 4 also use the publicly announced dataset to provide an in-depth view of the causes and issues that receive US$1 million-level and above contributions from individuals, corporations and foundations. It is striking to note that a large share of the number of gifts as well as the value of non-traditional aid is allocated toward health related issues. In addition, important end uses of non-traditional aid also include disaster relief and education in developing countries.

Overall, the growth in private donations during the past decade mirrors overall trends in giving to US-based international organizations, which has grown steadily at a 9.4 per cent average annual rate of growth (*Giving USA* 2012). Giving to developing countries by US donors was estimated to be US$8.2 billion (inflation adjusted) in 2000, and US$22.68 billion in 2011 (*Giving USA* 2012). Since 1987, inflation-adjusted giving to the international subsector has grown much faster than the average annual rate of inflation (4.4 per cent from 2010 to 2011), with an average annual growth of 9.4 per cent (*Giving USA* 2012).

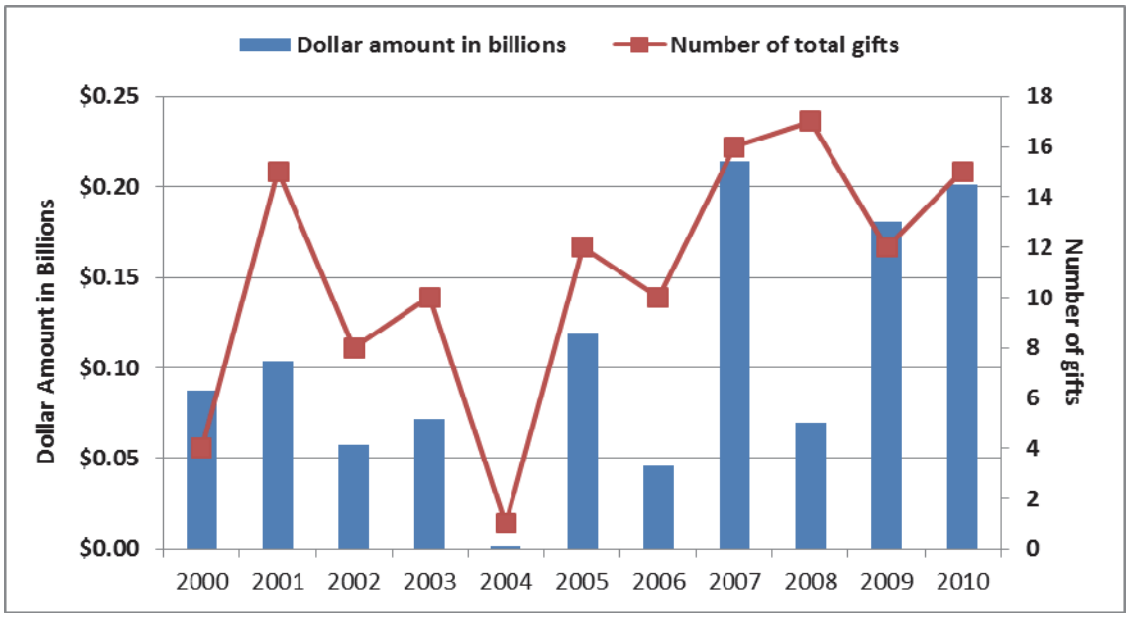
In contrast, US ODA has primarily been given for humanitarian purposes, institution-building and political and strategic purposes. The total gross disbursement of US ODA has also grown significantly over the past decade. After a slight drop between 2006 and 2007, falling from US$8.9 billion to US$8.1 billion, US ODA grew to US$13.3 billion in 2010 (World Bank 2013). Between 2000-10, the top two recipient countries of ODA were Afghanistan and Egypt. This differs from non-traditional aid flows with China and India receiving the largest number of donations and total dollar amount among the developing country sample.

Figure 1: Trends in million dollar gifts to developing countries, 2000-10 (tax records)



Source: The Million Dollar List, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy. Reproduced here with permission.

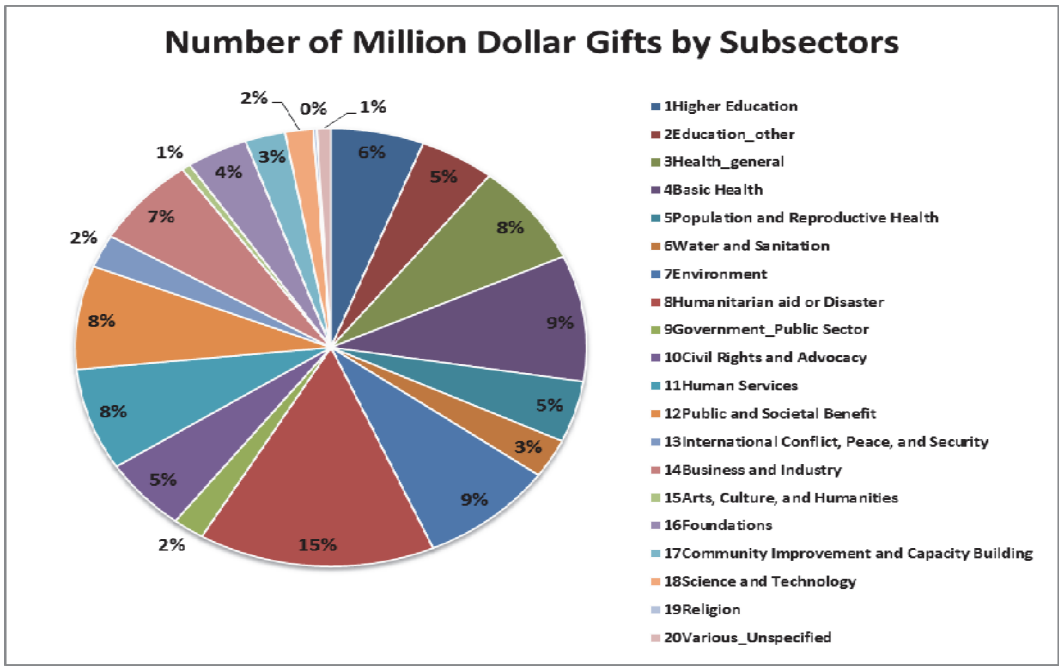
Figure 2: Trends in million dollar gifts to gender-related causes, 2000-10



Note: Publicly announced gifts only; MDL database.

Source: The Million Dollar List, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy. Reproduced here with permission.

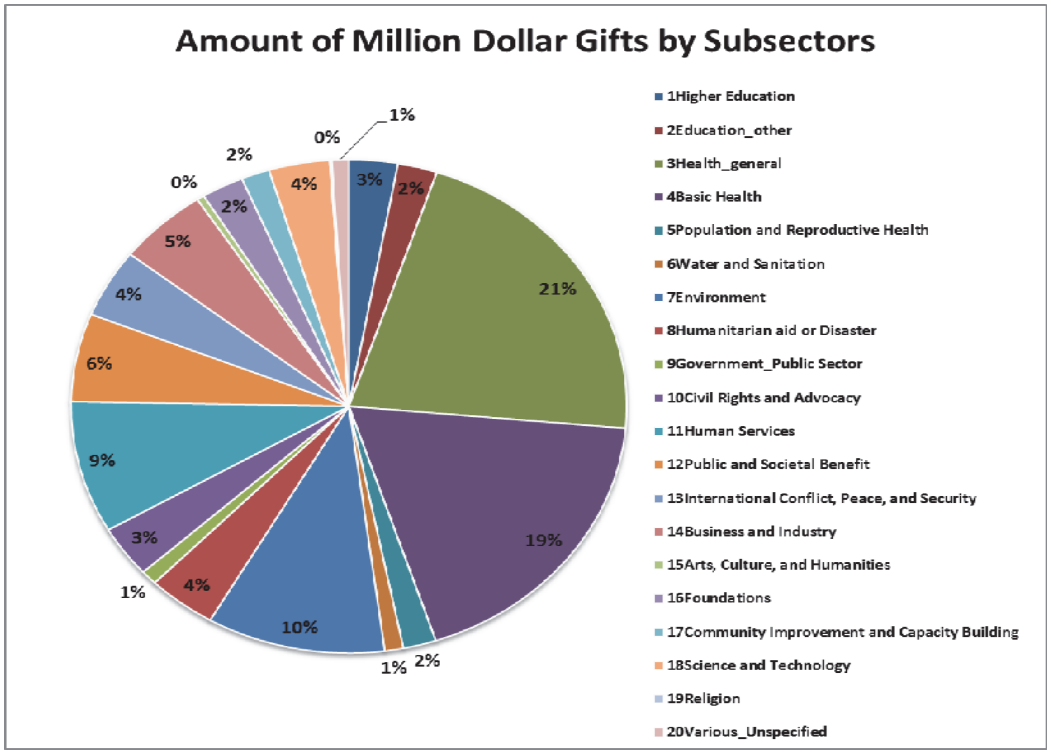
Figure 3: Million dollar gifts to developing countries by cause, 2000-10



Note: Publicly announced gifts only; MDL database.

Source: The Million Dollar List, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy. Reproduced here with permission.

Figure 4: Million dollar gifts to developing countries by cause, 2000-10



Note: Publicly announced gifts; MDL database.

Source: The Million Dollar List, Indiana University Lilly Family School of Philanthropy. Reproduced here with permission.

5.2 Which countries receive non-traditional aid?

An important question in our analysis is which countries tend to receive non-traditional aid. In general, the ODA literature has sought to examine which countries receive official aid. We discuss parallel results on non-traditional aid here. When we analyse the MDL data, we find striking differences between the continents and countries that receive non-traditional aid.

Table 1: Top ten recipient developing countries of US$ million gifts, 2000-10

Recipient country	Number of gifts (tax records)	Recipient country	Number of gifts (public announcements)
China	131	India	47
India	106	South Africa	44
South Africa	63	Haiti	38
Mexico	54	Kenya	30
Kenya	43	Mexico	21
Bangladesh	39	Russia	16
Brazil	35	Brazil	15
Philippines	24	Nigeria	14
Colombia	20	China	13
Uganda	19	Ethiopia	11
Recipient country	*Value of gifts (tax records) in US$ millions	Recipient country	*Value of gifts (public announcements) in US$ millions
China	328	Kenya	514
Kenya	301	India	449
India	283	Mexico	434
Mexico	207	Botswana	202
Guatemala	166	South Africa	177
South Africa	154	Jamaica	124
Botswana	123	Thailand	113
Philippines	116	China	99
Bangladesh	101	Brazil	72.6
Russia	92	Haiti	60

Note: *Value of gifts is estimated in 2011 US$ millions.

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Tables 1 and 2 provide information on the top recipients of non-traditional aid among developing countries using tax records as well as public announcements. Based on tax records, the continent receiving the largest number of million dollar gifts and total dollar amounts is Asia, with a total number of 357 gifts valued at US$998 million. The second largest is Africa, with a total number of 227 gifts valued at US$822 million. In addition, Asia includes four countries listed in the top ten countries receiving the largest number of gifts and four countries among the top ten receiving the largest total amount of gifts. Asia received approximately 45 per cent of all million dollar gifts to developing countries. Fifty-one

developing countries are identified by the tax records as recipients of non-traditional aid. The top ten recipient countries received approximately 66 per cent of the total number of gifts to developing countries. The total amount of the top 10 countries receiving the largest gifts accounts for about 69 per cent of the total dollar amount.

Although our main analysis relies on tax records only, we also analyse the subset of the MDL database that is publicly announced through media and web sources to better understand the specific causes that non-traditional aid seeks to impact. One advantage of relying on the publicly reported component of the MDL data is that we can examine to what extent large gifts are allocated toward gender equity causes that affect women. We find that 128 gifts are related to the cause of women and child development (or nearly 10 per cent of the total number of gifts). Out of the 128 donations, we identify donations that are made to support a gender-related cause in 24 countries. India and Kenya receive the largest number and dollar amount of donations toward gender-related causes, respectively.

Table 2: Top ten recipient developing countries of gender-related US$ million gifts, 2000-10

Recipient country	Number of gifts (public announcements)	Recipient country	*Value of gifts (public announcements) in US$ millions
India	6	India	19.2
Ethiopia	4	Kenya	14.6
Bangladesh	2	Ethiopia	8.7
Haiti	2	Vietnam	7.2
Kenya	2	Senegal	6.2
Senegal	2	South Africa	6.1
South Africa	2	Zimbabwe	5.8
Vietnam	2	Liberia	5.4
Afghanistan	1	Bangladesh	4.9
Botswana	1	Botswana	4.9

Note: *Value of gifts is estimated in 2011 US$ millions.

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Tables 2 and 3 provide information on the top recipient countries of non-traditional aid using both tax records and public announcements. We should note that tax records which focus on foundations and corporations indicate a different pattern from the database constructed from publicly announced gifts only. Based on the detailed donation-level information on publicly announced gifts, we find that 61 developing countries received non-traditional aid. The top ten recipient countries received approximately 28.4 per cent of the total number of gifts to developing countries. The total amount of the top ten countries receiving the largest gifts accounts for about 22 per cent of the total dollar amount. Gifts to unspecified country recipients account for about 27 per cent of the total number of gifts, and 36.8 per cent of the total amount. Donations to multiple countries account for 26.1 per cent of the total number of gifts, and 31.5 per cent of the total amount.

Table 3: Summary statistics

Variable name	Mean	Std. Dev.	Maximum	Minimum
Total number of million dollar gifts	13.56	18.51	66	1
Mean value of million dollar gifts	1.48e+08	2.22e+08	9.52e+08	1000000
Total number of million dollar gifts to women and children	1.71	2.41	9	0
Mean value of million dollar gifts to women and children	1.94e+07	4.03e+07	1.85e+08	1000000
GDP per capita	2491.45	2640.85	15522.86	113.34
Population	2790319	8462689	4.80e+07	606
Disaster	5.12	6.05	37	0
Death toll	11272.55	46984.5	229549	0
Distance (miles)	6583.26	2478.33	9332.26	1015.54
Female literacy	73.16	21.90	99.79	12.6
Female mortality	257.12	242.11	1110	11
Female life expectancy	63.76	10.89	82.03	42.17
Female labour participation rate	54.89	17.37	88.8	12.6

Note: Dependent variables, per country per year, 2000-10 (gifts to unspecified and multiple countries included).

Source: See text.

6 Empirical methodology and summary statistics

To analyse the effects of country-level factors on non-traditional aid to international causes, we examine the MDL data according to recipient country. This allows us to investigate the factors that influence non-traditional aid over time. The key dependent variable in our analysis is the number of million dollar donations received by country *i* in a given year *t*. The baseline model also includes the logarithm of the total dollar amount received by country *i* in a given year *t*, as measured in US dollars.

The baseline model is:

$$Number\ of\ Donations_{i,t} = \alpha + \beta\ country\ characteristics_{it} + u_i + \Theta t + \varepsilon_{i,t.}$$

The primary data analysis is based on a fixed effects model, which allows us to estimate the impact of country-level characteristics on non-traditional aid while controlling for time invariant country characteristics, u_i. Θt represents a vector of year dummy variables. We analyse the impact of key economic variables measured at the country level by year in logs, including female mortality, female literacy, female life expectancy, GDP per capita, GDP per

capita squared, population, population squared, disaster incidence and death tolls from disasters.

We also examine the total number of donations received by country *i* between 2000-11 using the following model:

$$Number\ of\ Donations_i = \alpha + \beta\ \underline{country\ characteristics}_i + \varepsilon_i.$$

To ensure the robustness of the model, we present results from Poisson regression models. The Poisson model is used to model count variables, and also to reflect the highly skewed distribution of non-traditional aid. The regression analysis includes clustered standard errors, which recognize that errors for a given country are likely correlated, as well as robust t-statistics to deal with heteroskedasticity.

Appendix Table 1 provides detailed definitions of the key variables used for this study. We provide summary statistics of the key variables used in the analysis in Table 3. The key dependent variables in our analysis are the number of donations received by a given country and the total dollar amount received in a given year, measured in US$ annually between 2000-11. We also examine the number of donations received for gender-related causes, and the total dollar amount received for gender-related purposes, measured annually between 2000-11. Finally, we examine aggregate incidence and levels of total non-traditional aid both overall and for gender-related causes between 2000 and 2011. Appendix Tables 2 and 3 provide more information about the dependent variables used in the analysis.

7 Results

Table 4 presents the baseline model. The baseline model is a parsimonious model which includes both country and year fixed effects in order to control for unobserved, time-invariant country-level heterogeneity, as well as year-specific effects. We first discuss the results on the total number of gifts received by a given country annually. Taken together, we find that the non-traditional aid received by a given country measured by the number of gifts received is associated with conditions in the host country. Table 4 is based on tax records only.

First, we find that that non-traditional aid is positively associated with a given country's population, holding other variables constant. From columns 1-4 in Table 5, we find that an increase in population is positively associated with higher incidence of non-traditional aid and is statistically significant. This is interesting given that there has been some evidence that ODA may be more likely to flow to smaller countries, other things being equal. We should also note that we find a positive association between log GDP per capita and the number of gifts received by a given country, although the coefficient of log GDP per capita is only statistically significant in columns 2 and 4.

Table 4: Country-level determinants of gifts of US$1 million and above to developing countries

	(1) Number of Gifts	(2) Number of Gifts	(3) Number of Gifts	(4) Number of Gifts	(5) Number of Gifts
GDP per capita (logs)	362.333 (216.187)	223.049 (252.544)	373.900* (217.507)	238.756 (242.567)	429.513** (188.127)
GDP per capita squared (logs)	-181.030 (108.057)	-111.373 (126.247)	-186.810* (108.704)	-119.229 (121.244)	-214.656** (94.042)
Population (logs)	18611.001*** (5799.548)	19476.795*** (6495.197)	17073.019** (7002.329)	19483.890*** (6538.785)	13393.432*** (4707.195)
Population squared (logs)	-9301.534*** (2899.155)	-9732.532*** (3246.544)	-8529.602** (3500.081)	-9736.198*** (3268.495)	-6689.814*** (2352.755)
Female mortality (logs)	-6.457 (4.015)				-11.367* (6.086)
Female literacy (logs)		0.125 (0.804)			0.029 (0.801)
Female labour participation (logs)			-6.453 (4.617)		-8.480 (5.193)
Female life expectancy (logs)				1.385 (5.072)	-22.627* (11.539)
_cons	-52.933 (48.905)	-127.566*** (32.779)	-122.963*** (30.364)	-130.338*** (34.079)	40.348 (88.554)
N	547	550	550	550	547
R^2	0.073	0.060	0.070	0.060	0.095

Note: Standard errors in parentheses * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Fixed effects specification, using tax records of MDL. Dependent variable: annual number of US$ million+ gifts to developing countries, 2000-10. Number of natural disasters and lives lost in the disasters are included as independent variables. Includes country and year fixed effects.

Source: See text.

A central question in our analysis is the impact of conditions facing women on the receipt of non-traditional aid. The literature on non-traditional aid suggests that private donors respond to initiatives that can improve women's access to health, education, which can increase their productivity and wellbeing. Models of altruism and/or impact philanthropy predict that non-traditional aid will flow toward countries where gender conditions are less favorable. We examine the role of three key variables: female mortality rates, female labour force participation, and female life expectancy. Column 1 includes female mortality only. In column 2, we include female labour market participation in order to examine its impact on the number of private donations received. Column 3 presents results on female life expectancy. Neither variable is shown to be statistically significant in the specification presented in columns 1-3. However, column 4 of Table 4 includes all three measures of gender conditions in a given country. From Column 4, female mortality and female life

expectancy are both negatively associated with the number of million dollar gifts received. However, it is interesting to note that female labour force participation is negatively associated with foreign aid, but not statistically significant.

Table 5: Country-level determinants of gifts of US$1 million and above to developing countries

	(1) Amount of Gifts (in logs)	(2) Amount of Gifts (in logs)	(3) Amount of Gifts (in logs)	(4) Amount of Gifts (in logs)	(5) Amount of Gifts (in logs)
GDP per capita (logs)	258.892**	223.583**	242.817**	189.928*	228.554**
	(107.089)	(108.266)	(101.378)	(109.921)	(92.219)
GDP per capita squared (logs)	-129.414**	-111.758**	-121.377**	-94.933*	-114.256**
	(53.538)	(54.125)	(50.679)	(54.950)	(46.107)
Population (logs)	9332.968***	9569.867***	9253.115***	9328.936***	7891.629***
	(1913.286)	(2170.173)	(2259.060)	(2291.390)	(1720.869)
Population squared (logs)	-4663.532***	-4781.481***	-4622.963***	-4660.557***	-3941.850***
	(956.341)	(1084.717)	(1129.164)	(1145.373)	(860.270)
Female mortality (logs)	-1.641*				-3.617***
	(0.818)				(1.104)
Female literacy (logs)		0.034			0.063
		(0.258)			(0.267)
Female labour participation (logs)			-0.817		-1.490*
			(0.854)		(0.843)
Female Life Expectancy (logs)				-3.184	-10.220***
				(3.141)	(3.168)
_cons	-54.814***	-74.129***	-73.683***	-70.230***	-17.021
	(14.210)	(12.876)	(12.203)	(11.758)	(15.259)
N	547	550	550	550	547
R^2	0.162	0.150	0.152	0.153	0.184

Note: Standard errors in parentheses * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Fixed effects specification, using tax records of MDL. Dependent variable: log annual amount of gifts of US$1 million and above to developing countries, 2000-10 (in US$). Number of natural disasters and lives lost in the disasters are included as independent variables Includes country and year fixed effects.

Source: See text.

We also investigate how conditions in the recipient country influence the value of gifts received. Table 5 presents the findings on the total dollar value of aid received by a given country over time measured in US$. Consistent with the findings on the incidence of non-traditional aid, the level of non-traditional aid is also positively associated with population and the log of GDP per capita, both at the 0.05 significance level or higher. This indicates that larger countries with higher levels of GDP per capita receive higher levels of non-traditional aid, holding other variables constant. We also note that the sign of the coefficient on GDP per capita is positive, while the sign on the coefficient on GDP per capita squared is negative. We also consider the inclusion of variables that measure political conditions in the recipient country, as these have been shown to be important in the flows of ODA. We should note that government effectiveness is not significantly associated with levels of non-traditional aid (not shown).

From Column 4, Table 5, it is interesting to note that variables that measure gender conditions including female mortality, labour force participation, and life expectancy are significantly associated with gender-related non-traditional aid (measured by the levels of non-traditional aid). In general, we find that higher levels of non-traditional aid tend to flow towards countries with less favorable gender conditions. However, these results provide some evidence that non-traditional aid to causes may tend to be altruistic in nature or driven by the desire to have an impact, as levels of non-traditional aid are negatively associated with female labour force participation and life expectancy, holding other variables constant. However, female mortality is negatively associated with levels of non-traditional aid.

One concern in the baseline model is that we rely on a linear specification. Given that both the incidence and level of non-traditional aid are skewed with some countries receiving a disproportionate share of non-traditional aid, we consider alternative specifications. In particular, we consider a conditional logit model which allows us to study changes in the incidence of non-traditional aid over time as a function of country characteristics. We find similar patterns in the logit specification with the incidence of non-traditional aid positively associated with population size and the log GDP per capita. However, female literacy and female mortality are not significantly associated with the incidence of non-traditional aid in the logit model.

7.1 Non-traditional aid over time: aggregate specifications

Both the incidence and levels of non-traditional aid increased greatly between 2000-10 to developing countries. To address this issue, we investigate the aggregate number and level of private donations received during this period by a given country. In addition, we investigate aggregate incidence and levels of non-traditional aid as the key dependent variables of interest using alternate specifications, including a Poisson model. In this specification, the control variables are female mortality, female literacy, GDP per capita, population, number of natural disasters, severity of natural disasters, government effectiveness and the democracy index, measured in logs in 2000. We include time-invariant country-level attributes, including continent dummies and geographic distance, to gain insights into how these country-level variables influence aggregate non-traditional aid flows.

In Tables 6 and 7, we present results from the aggregate specification, which allows us to examine the overall patterns of non-traditional aid flows over the past decade. In this specification, we use GDP per capita, population, the number and severity of natural disasters and the democracy index in 2000. We also include measures of conditions facing women in a given developing country. Finally, we include country-level attributes, such as geographic distance in the analysis.

Table 6: Aggregate country-level determinants of total number of gifts of US$1 million and above to developing countries, 2000-10

	(1) Total Number of Gifts	(2) Total Number of Gifts	(4) Total Number of Gifts	(5) Total Number of Gifts
GDP per capita in 2000 (logs)	65.640 (179.564)	78.659 (174.251)	48.281 (187.303)	91.631 (189.388)
GDP per capita in 2000 squared (logs)	-32.516 (89.651)	-39.061 (87.005)	-23.887 (93.518)	-45.628 (94.574)
Population in 2000 (logs, 10^8)	2.380 (3.100)	1.950 (3.500)	0.889 (2.980)	4.990 (4.170)
Population in 2000 squared (logs, 10^8)	-9.40e-8 (6.72e-8)	-8.83e-8 (8.43e-8)	-5.38e-8 (6.30e-8)	-1.83e-7* (1.00e-7)
Distance (logs)	-0.353 (0.221)	-0.372 (0.278)	-0.323 (0.246)	-0.621** (0.251)
Female mortality in 2000 (logs)	0.206 (0.296)			1.498** (0.746)
Female literacy in 2000 (logs)		0.241 (0.544)		0.160 (0.522)
Female life expectancy in 2000 (logs)			0.934 (1.368)	5.815** (2.924)
_cons	-1.140 (4.430)	-0.458 (3.933)	-3.582 (5.977)	-29.324** (14.395)
N	50	50	50	50
R^2	0.652	0.652	0.652	0.675

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Poisson specification, using tax records of MDL. Dependent variable: total number of gifts of US$1 million and above to developing countries, 2000-10. Number of natural disasters and lives lost in the disasters are included as independent variables. Continent dummies are also included in the model.

Source: See text.

The key dependent variable in this section of the analysis is the number of private donations received over the past decade. We use a Poisson model to account for the distribution of non-traditional aid by country. As shown in Table 6, several findings from the aggregate model mirror the results from the fixed effects specifications shown earlier. In particular, the incidence of non-traditional aid over the past decade is positively associated with the size of a country measured by population and GDP per capita measured in logs. We also note that countries with a greater number of natural disasters, as well as natural disasters that result in more lives lost tend to receive more non-traditional aid, holding other variables constant. However, we should note that in the aggregate specification, we find that both the number of natural disasters as well as the severity of natural disasters is significantly associated with the incidence and levels of aggregate non-traditional aid.

Table 7: Aggregate country-level determinants of total amount of gifts of US$1 million and above to developing countries, 2000-10

	(1) Total Amount of Gifts (logs)	(2) Total Amount of Gifts (logs)	(4) Total Amount of Gifts (logs)	(5) Total Amount of Gifts (logs)
GDP per capita in 2000 (logs)	33.161	82.221	79.384	195.558
	(216.107)	(213.732)	(224.225)	(224.104)
GDP per capita in 2000 squared (logs)	-16.298	-40.811	-39.472	-97.552
	(107.895)	(106.723)	(111.967)	(111.923)
Population in 2000 (logs, 10^8)	0.861	3.020	0.624	3.610
	(3.720)	(3.900)	(3.430)	(4.600)
Population in 2000 squared (logs, 10^8)	-1.07e-8	-8.07e-8	-1.96e-8	-1.25e-7
	(-8.24e-8)	(1.06e-7)	(7.61e-8)	1.17e-7)
Distance (logs)	-1.041**	-1.302**	-1.013**	-1.393**
	(0.450)	(0.596)	(0.409)	(0.541)
Female mortality in 2000 (logs)	-0.424			1.936*
	(0.526)			(1.011)
Female literacy in 2000 (logs)		0.365		0.209
		(0.528)		(0.497)
Female life expectancy in 2000 (logs)			3.654*	9.452**
			(1.951)	(3.635)
_cons	8.932	6.965	-8.065	-40.674**
	(6.059)	(5.275)	(8.491)	(19.780)
N	50	50	50	50
R^2	0.545	0.546	0.585	0.628

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. OLS specification, using tax records of MDL. Dependent variable: log total amount of gifts of US$1 million and above to developing countries, 2000-10 (in US$). Number of natural disasters and lives lost in the disasters are included as independent variables. Continent dummies are also included in the model.

Source: See text.

We are particularly interested in understanding the relationship between gender conditions at the beginning of the decade and the flow of non-traditional aid. An interesting finding is that aggregate levels of non-traditional aid appear responsive to gender-related variables. In particular, female mortality is positively associated with the incidence and levels of aggregate non-traditional aid. These results tend to reinforce the view that non-traditional aid may be altruistic and/or driven by impact philanthropy given its responsiveness to natural disasters and female mortality. We should note that the result on female mortality appears quite robust given that this specification also includes death tolls from natural disasters as a separate control variable.

In Table 7, we turn to examine the aggregate levels of non-traditional aid received by a specific country. We find that geographical distance is negatively associated with both the incidence and levels of aggregate private gender-related aid. Similar to the fixed effects specification, we find that the democratic score and government effectiveness are not generally associated with the incidence and level of aggregate non-traditional aid (not shown).

The results indicate that non-traditional aid may have different implications for recipient countries, compared to official aid. In contrast to the ODA literature, we find that governance is not generally associated with non-traditional aid flows. Geopolitical considerations have been shown to influence ODA flows in the existing literature. However, our results show that measures of political considerations are not generally statistically significant in explaining non-traditional aid flows. While there has been an interest in whether ODA increasingly flows to countries with more effective governments, we should note that both democracy and government effectiveness are not shown to have a robust relationship with aggregate non-traditional aid.

Another striking finding from the aggregate models is that non-traditional aid tends to flow towards countries that have experienced more severe natural disasters (measured by the death tolls, in thousands) and have higher levels of female mortality. In general, an increase in death tolls from a natural disaster is associated with a larger incidence of non-traditional aid and levels of aggregate non-traditional aid.

7.2 Non-traditional aid: gender-specific results

We now turn our attention to non-traditional aid that focuses solely on gender-related causes. The key dependent variables of interest are the number of gifts received by a given country for gender-related causes in a given year and the level of non-traditional aid received for a gender-related cause within a given country in a given year, measured in US$ between 2000-10. Gender-related causes are those that aim to provide equal economic and political opportunities and participation for women in developing nations. These causes typically promote women's access to employment, health and education, which can increase their productivity and wellbeing. In this section, we rely on the publicly announced component of the MDL database, which allows us to identify gifts for gender-related causes.

Table 8 presents results on aggregate flows of gender-related non-traditional aid as dependent variable. Similar to earlier results, the model here is based on a country-level regression, and the key dependent variable is gender-related non-traditional aid. There are some important differences between the non-traditional aid and aid focused on gender issues. First, we find that the incidence and level of aid focused on gender issues is negatively associated with GDP per capita (measured in logs). Second, we find that the incidence of gender-related donations is negatively associated with population. These results are consistent with altruistic motives for gender-related donation flows. This suggests that gender-related aid may be more likely to flow to poorer countries. Importantly, the incidence of gender-related donations is positively associated with female mortality. We do not find that gender-related donations are significantly associated with the incidence and levels of gender-related literacy or labour force participation.

Table 8: Aggregate country-level determinants of total number of gifts and total number of gifts to gender causes

	(1) Total Number of Gifts	(2) Total Number of Gifts	(3) Total Number of Gifts to International Gender Causes	(4) Total Number of Gifts to International Gender Causes
GDP per capita in 2000 (logs)	-116.301	-82.813	7.845	-64.919
	(238.799)	(131.825)	(271.013)	(201.575)
GDP per capita in 2000 squared (logs)	58.214	41.217	-4.022	32.134
	(119.180)	(65.809)	(135.281)	(100.647)
Population in 2000 (logs, 10^8)	-7.990	-5.510*	-7.930	-6.040
	(4.970)	(2.960)	(5.880)	(6.060)
Population in 2000 squared (logs, 10^8)	2.46e-7**	1.13e-7	2.41e-7**	1.51e-7
	(1.09e-7)	(0.805e-7)	(1.23e-7)	(1.46e-7)
Distance (logs)	-0.653	-1.651***	-0.626	-1.610
	(0.397)	(0.498)	(1.923)	(1.750)
Government Effectiveness in 2000 (logs)	0.084	-0.345	0.142	-0.283
	(0.208)	(0.260)	(0.230)	(0.291)
Female mortality in 2000 (logs)	1.122**	5.329***	0.612	4.772***
	(0.485)	(1.183)	(0.794)	(1.545)
Female literacy in 2000 (logs)		0.261		-0.111
		(0.360)		(0.379)
Female labour participation in 2000 (logs)		-0.263		-0.063
		(0.453)		(0.529)
Female life expectancy in 2000 (logs)		17.640***		15.706***
		(3.896)		(4.024)
_cons	0.017	-84.065***	1.604	-73.873***
	(7.347)	(19.596)	(11.216)	(21.006)
N	60	59	60	59
R^2	0.367	0.520	0.320	0.377

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. Poisson specification. Dependent variable: total number and log dollar value of publicly announced gifts to international and gender-related causes, 2000-10 (in US$). Number of natural disasters and lives lost in the disasters are included as independent variables. Continent dummies are also included in the model.

Source: See text.

From Tables 8 and 9, it is interesting to note that female mortality is significantly associated with gender-related aid. In addition, the signs are consistent with altruistic motives for gender-related aid. These results suggest that aid to gender-related causes may be more altruistic in nature than other forms of aid, as gender-related aid tends to be targeted towards poor countries, and countries were women face more adverse health conditions. We find some interesting differences between results from gender-related aid. In particular, we do not find population or natural disasters to be significantly associated with the incidence and level of gender-related aid, while we had found them to be significant for overall flows of aid.[6]

[6] A closer look at the findings suggests a need to examine the role that natural disasters play in non-traditional aid. One interpretation of the findings is that non-traditional aid appears more altruistic and timely, given the relevance of natural disasters to non-traditional aid. We further explore to what extent non-traditional aid for disaster relief compares to gender-

Table 9: Aggregate country-level determinants of total number and amount of US$ million gift to international gender causes

	(3) Total Amount of Gifts (logs)	(4) Total Amount of Gifts (logs)	(7) Total Amount of Gifts to Gender Causes (logs)	(8) Total Amount of Gifts to Gender Causes (logs)
GDP per capita in 2000 (logs)	266.337 (247.455)	338.287* (181.047)	-885.554 (1101.657)	-592.333 (1300.011)
GDP per capita in 2000 square (logs)	-132.738 (123.550)	-168.713* (90.364)	442.305 (550.220)	295.360 (649.429)
Population in 2000 (logs,10^8)	-3.860 (5.460)	-0.442 (5.470)	-27.500 (22.400)	-19.000 (23.600)
Population in 2000 square (logs, 10^8)	1.02e-7 (1.33e-7)	-0.409e-7 (1.34e-7)	1.16e-6** (5.25e-7)	7.8e-7 (6.19e-7)
Distance (logs)	-1.600*** (0.523)	-2.135*** (0.644)	-1.244 (2.614)	-2.581 (3.072)
Government effectiveness in 2000 (logs)	0.181 (0.224)	-0.124 (0.264)	0.242 (1.408)	-0.156 (1.731)
Female mortality in 2000 (logs)	1.089* (0.636)	3.077** (1.361)	4.196* (2.308)	11.557* (5.935)
Female literacy in 2000 (logs)		0.519 (0.429)		1.739 (2.414)
Female labour participation in 2000 (logs)		0.445 (0.493)		-1.061 (3.408)
Female life expectancy in 2000 (logs)		8.594* (4.806)		29.059 (23.526)
_cons	1.906 (7.056)	-43.602* (25.186)	-1.795 (30.009)	-149.397 (125.585)
N	60	59	60	59
R^2	0.396	0.497	0.416	0.441

Note: Standard errors in parentheses: * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. OLS specification dependent variable: Total number and log dollar value of publicly announced gifts to international and gender-related causes, 2000-10 (in US$). Number of natural disasters and lives lost in the disasters are included as independent variables. Continent dummies are also included in the model.

Source: See text.

The results on political variables are noteworthy. In general, we do not find that government effectiveness is associated with the incidence and levels of gender-related aid (Tables 8 and 9).

8 Conclusions

We use a newly available dataset on non-traditional donors that provides unique information about publicly announced private donations of US donations of a US$1 million or more

related non-traditional aid as well as aggregate non-traditional aid flows. Using the number of gifts for disaster relief purposes as dependent variable, the fixed effects model indicates that it is significantly, positively influenced by the log of the death toll caused by disasters ($p < 0.01$). A given country's population is significantly, positively associated with the number of disaster-related gifts at the 0.1 level.

between 2000-10. We study of the relationship between non-traditional aid and gender conditions measured by female mortality on aid flows. In the past decade, there has been a significant growth in non-traditional donations; however, only a handful of studies have examined the size and composition of non-traditional donations to developing countries, and implications for gender equity. We also analyse aid toward gender-related causes in the past decade. In general, we find that non-traditional aid to developing countries is positively associated with population size and the severity of natural disasters, with more populous countries and countries that experienced more severe disasters receiving more non-traditional aid flows. We also find that non-traditional aid flows are positively associated with female mortality. This suggests that non-traditional aid may play an important in addressing natural disasters. In addition, we find that non-traditional aid to gender-related causes is more likely to flow to poorer countries, suggesting more altruistic motives for non-traditional aid. Interestingly, non-traditional aid is less responsive to geo-political and strategic factors that are shown to be of importance for official development assistance (ODA).

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Appendix tables

Table A1: Definition of key variables

Dependent variables

Variable Name	Definition	Source
Number of million dollar gifts	Number of million dollar gifts per year received in a given country annually 2000-11	Million Dollar List: http://www.milliondollarlist.org/
Total value of million dollar gifts	Amount of million dollar gift per year received in a given country (in US$) annually 2000-11	Million Dollar List: http://www.milliondollarlist.org/
Number of million dollar gifts to women and children	Number of million dollar gifts to gender-related causes per year received in a given country annually 2000-11	Million Dollar List: http://www.milliondollarlist.org/
Total value of million dollar gifts to women and children	Amount of million dollar gift per year received in a given country (in US$) annually 2000-11	Million Dollar List: http://www.milliondollarlist.org/

Independent variables

GDP per capita	GDP per capita per country per year	World Bank
Population	Population per country per year	International Programs, US Census Bureau
Disaster	Number of disasters per country per year	EM-DAT - The International Disaster Database (CRED)
Death toll	Number of death in disasters per country per year	EM-DAT - The International Disaster Database (CRED)
Distance	The distance from US, in miles	DistanceFromTo.net
Religion	Percentage level of a given religion in the total population of the country (0 = no denomination presence; 1 = less than 15%; 2 = 15 to 30%; 3 = over 30%)	The Association of Religion Data Archives (ARDA): http://www.thearda.com/internationalData/countries
Continent	'1' if it is an African country, Asian, European, South American etc.	Million Dollar List: http://www.milliondollarlist.org/
Female literacy	Percentage of adult females that are literate (adults are 15 and older)	World Bank
Female mortality	Mortality rate, adult females (per 1,000 female adults)	World Bank
Female life expectancy	The expected years of life at birth for female population	World Bank
Female labour participation rate	Percentage of female population aged 15+ in the labour market	World Bank

Source: See text.

Table A2: Million dollar gifts to developing countries by cause, 2000-10

Subsector	Number of gifts	Value of gifts (in 2011 US$ million)	% in total number of gifts	% in total dollar value of gifts
1Higher Education	53	298	0.058758	0.028433
	84	1940	0.093126	0.185099
5Population and Reproductive Health	41	201	0.045455	0.019178
7Environment	77	1090	0.085366	0.103999
8Humanitarian aid or Disaster	135	419	0.149667	0.039977
9Government_Public Sector	18	100	0.019956	0.009541
10Civil Rights and Advocacy	49	355	0.054324	0.033871
11Human Services	68	905	0.075388	0.086348
12Public and Societal Benefit	69	604	0.076497	0.057629
13International Conflict, Peace, and Security	22	470	0.02439	0.044843
14Business and Industry	60	550	0.066519	0.052476
15Arts, Culture, and Humanities	5	45.3	0.005543	0.004322
16Foundations	35	258	0.038803	0.024616
17Community Improvement and Capacity Building	23	173	0.025499	0.016506
18Science and Technology	16	371	0.017738	0.035398
19Religion	2	13.6	0.002217	0.001298
20Various_Unspecified	8	103	0.008869	0.009827
Total	902	10480.9	1	1

Source: See text.

Table A3: Million dollar gifts to international causes by recipient developing country 2000-10

Recipient country	Number of gifts	Value of gifts (in 2011 US$ million)
Afghanistan	1	2.612
Angola	2	11.800
Bangladesh	9	43.500
Bhutan	2	2.613
Bolivia	1	2.428
Botswana	6	202.000
Brazil	15	72.600
Bulgaria	1	15.700
Cambodia	3	8.258
Central African Republic	1	1.754
Chad	1	1.828
Chile	3	16.600
China	13	98.600
Colombia	7	33.000
Costa Rica	1	1.270
Democratic Republic of Congo	1	42.500
Ecuador	2	3.249
Egypt	2	2.355
El Salvador	1	3.810
Ethiopia	11	31.300
Ghana	10	36.000
Guatemala	1	45.700
Haiti	38	59.800
India	47	449.000
Indonesia	7	34.900
Iraq	1	5.424
Jamaica	1	124.000
Kenya	30	514.000
Latvia	2	20.200
Lebanon	1	14.900
Lesotho	1	4.890
Liberia	3	11.700

Malawi	1	2.682
Mexico	21	434.000
Moldova	1	1.250
Mozambique	1	6.531
Myanmar	3	3.134
Namibia	1	4.890
Nepal	1	1.116
Nigeria	14	34.500
Pakistan	3	9.715
Paraguay	1	1.165
Peru	6	32.800
Philippines	8	24.900
Romania	1	28.100
Russia	16	32.100
Rwanda	1	1.048
Senegal	6	43.400
Serbia	2	18.300
South Africa	44	177.000
Sri Lanka	1	2.304
Sudan	6	10.100
Swaziland	1	4.890
Tanzania	6	16.200
Thailand	9	113.000
Uganda	7	31.100
Vietnam	7	19.700
Zambia	2	6.196
Zimbabwe	3	12.000
Unspecified	262	4010.000
Various	238	3310.000
Various Africa	3	167.000
Various Asia	1	4.146
Total	902	10500

Note: Publicly announced gifts.

Source: See text.