

COUNTRY PORTFOLIO EVALUATION

Indonesia: An evaluation of WFP's Portfolio
2009 – 2013

Evaluation Report

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Fact Sheet: WFP's Portfolio in Indonesia

Timeline and Funding Level of Indonesia Portfolio 2009 – 2013

Operation	Title	Time Frame	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013					
CP 200245	Country Programme	Jan 12 - Dec 15				Req: \$44,795,183 Contrib: \$11,913,886 % Funded: 27						
IR-EMOP 200218	Mentawai Tsunami, West Sumatra	Nov 10 - Jan 11		Req: \$495,567 Contrib: \$459,677 % Funded: 93								
SO 200082	Logist. and Emerg. Telecom. Clusters Support to the Humanit. Community's Response to West Sumatra Earthquakes.	Oct 09 - Dec 09	Req: \$1,997,308 Contrib: \$670,357 % Funded: 34									
PRRO 100692	Nutritional Rehabilitation in Indonesia	May 08 - Dec 11	← 2008 Req: \$ 112,599,501 Contrib: \$46,208,610 % Funded: 41									
SO 104981	WFP Logistics Support Unit	Oct 07 - Mar 12	← 2007 Req: \$12,455,623 Contrib: \$ 7,627,063 % Funded: 61									
Food Distributed (MT)			12,955	5,180	4,694	1,437	1,222					
Direct Expenses (US\$ millions)			18,334,000	10,429,000	8,494,000	5,998,000	3,679,145					
% Direct Expenses: Indonesia vs. WFP World*			0%	0%	0%	0%	0%					
Beneficiaries (actual)			M	F	M	F	M	F				
			439,102	562,569	190,367	212,671	146,192	185,494	44,424	45,865	29,188	33,903
Total of Beneficiaries (actual)			1,001,671		403,038		331,686		90,289		63,091	

Source: SPR 2013, Resource Situation May 2014, APR 2009 -2013

Requirements (Req.) and Contributions (Contrib.)

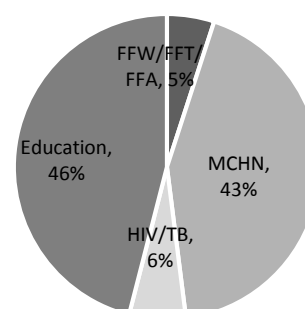
*Absolute figures are too low and not captured by the %

Distribution of Portfolio Activities and Strategic Objectives

Operation	Activity	HIV/TB	Education	Nutrition	FFW/FFT/FFA	SO's
CP 200245			X	X	X	2,4 & 5
PRRO 100692		X	X	X	X	2,3 & 5
IR-EMOP 200218						1

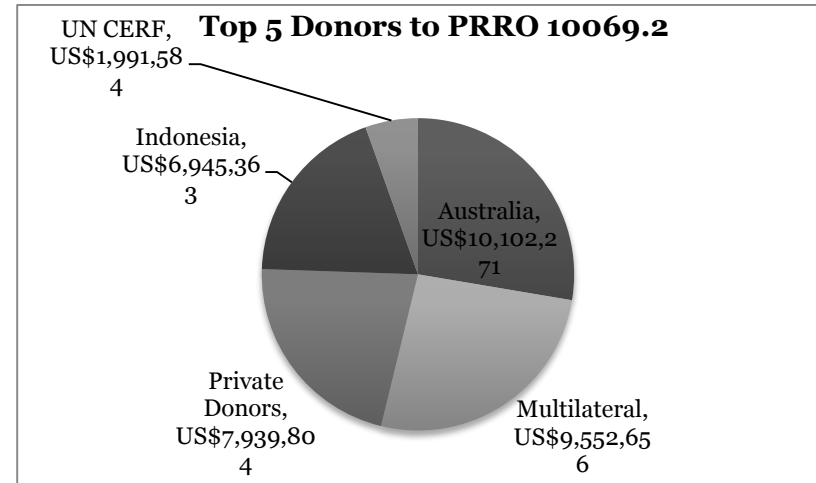
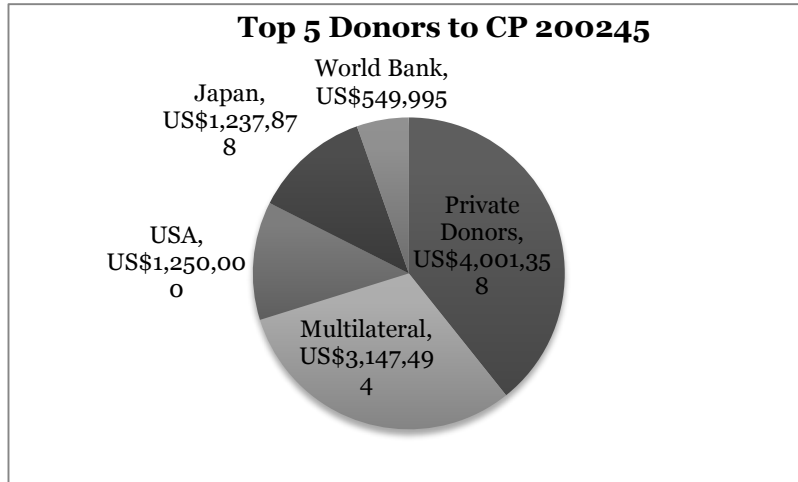
Source: WFP Dacota 2013

% of Actual beneficiaries by Activity



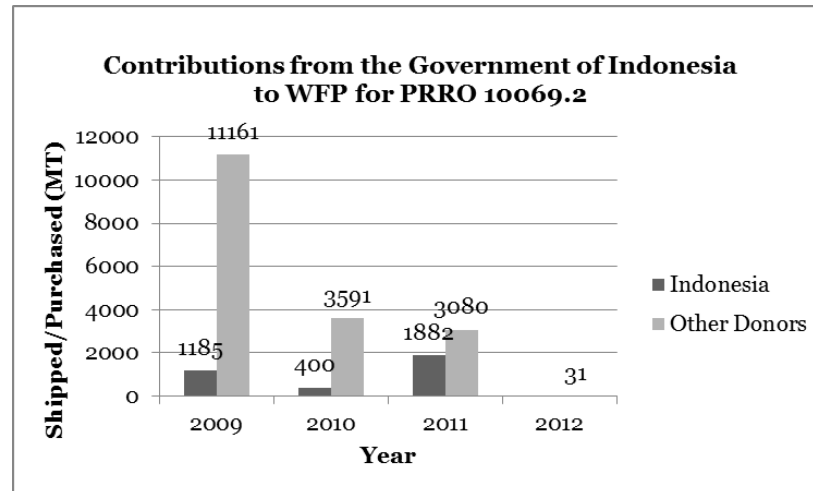
Top 5 donors: Multilateral 29%, Private Donors 27%, Australia 23%, Indonesia 16%, UN CERF 5%

Top donors to CP 200245 and PRRO 10069.2



Source: WFP, 2011f; WFP, 2012d

Contributions from the Government of Indonesia v Other Donors, PRRO 10069.2



Source: WFP, 2011f; WFP, 2012d

Summary Evaluation Report

Introduction

Evaluation Features

1 The country portfolio evaluation covered all WFP operations in Indonesia in 2009–2013 and the 2011–2015 country strategy. It assessed the alignment and strategic positioning of WFP in Indonesia; the factors in and quality of its strategic decision-making; and the performance and results of the portfolio. Evaluation fieldwork took place in April 2014 and included site visits in two provinces, focus group discussions, interviews with 140 people and extensive document review.

Context

2 Indonesia is a populous and diverse nation that has made impressive development progress and is now classified as a lower-middle income country. However, some of its 33 provinces – such as Nusa Tenggara Timur (NTT) and Nusa Tenggara Barat (NTB) – are significantly poorer than the national average. Income inequality is increasing. In 2011–2012, only 25 percent of households in a district of NTT could afford to meet their nutrient requirements, compared with 80 percent of households in urban Surabaya.¹ Located in an active tectonic zone, Indonesia ranks fifth among countries most affected by natural disasters. Climate change also has significant influence on vulnerability.

3 While undernutrition remains the greater challenge – with a global acute malnutrition rate of 12.1 percent and stunting of 37.2 percent – the “double burden” of malnutrition is increasing: adult obesity increased from 13.9 percent in 2007 to 19.7 percent in 2013.

4 Indonesia’s classification as a middle-income country, national economic progress and the Government’s enhanced fiscal position and more solid ownership of the development process (see paragraph 11) have led to reconfiguration of development funding and reappraisal of the roles and budgets of international agencies such as WFP. Total official development assistance to Indonesia has been falling since 2010.

5 While national leaders are committed to structured and orderly growth, the Government of Indonesia is still fragile, lacks capacity in many areas and has high employee turnover. Inflexible institutional structures reduce the Government’s ability to adapt to changing conditions. Financial management and accountability systems limit the ways programmes can be funded. Lines of authority and processes of decision-making that are hard for outsiders to understand constrain advocacy and necessitate long-term investment in building relationships. The major decentralization launched in 1999 has posed additional challenges.

WFP Portfolio And Strategy

6 The portfolio comprised one protracted relief and recovery operation (PRRO) for 2008–2011, one emergency operation (EMOP), two special operations and one country programme (CP) for 2012–2015. The evaluation focused mainly on the PRRO,

¹ Baldi, G. *et al.* 2013. Cost of the Diet (CoD) tool: First results from Indonesia and applications for policy discussions on food and nutrition security. *Food and Nut. Bull.*, 34(2, supplement): S35–S42.

the CP and the country strategy, which guided formulation of the CP and realigned the portfolio overall. Table 1 shows the funding shortfalls facing the country office; WFP contemplated closing the country office early in the review period.

Table 1: Funding Of Indonesia Portfolio 2009–2013 By Programme Category

	No. of operations	Requirements (USD million)	% of total requirements	Actual received (USD million)	% of requirements received
PRRO	1	112.6	65.34	46.208	30.04
CP*	1	44.8	25.99	11.914	26.6
Immediate-response EMOP	1	0.5	0.29	0.459	92.73
Special operations	2	14.5	8.39	8.297	57.41
		172.3	100.00	66.878	38.30

*Data for the CP show funding received to end 2013 for the full four-year budget to end 2015.

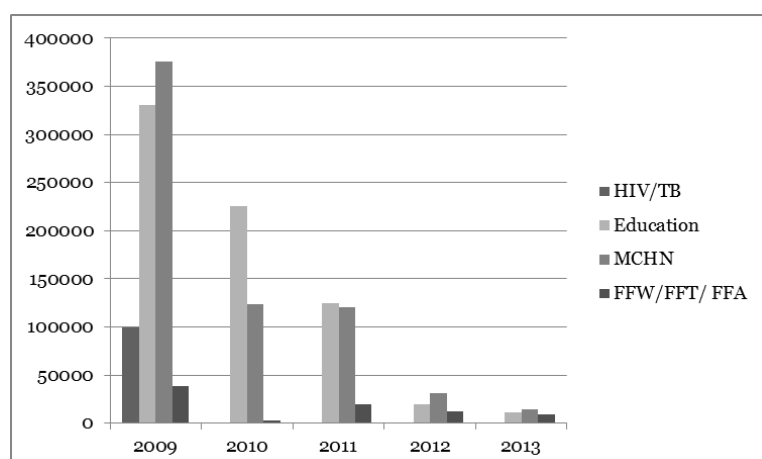
7 The PRRO supported mother-and-child nutrition (MCN) services at health posts; primary school feeding, combining fortified food with curriculum-based training; support for tuberculosis patients through food for treatment; food assistance for assets (FFA) in food-insecure rural areas; and community development projects in parallel with MCN and school feeding. It also provided for flexible response to emergencies.

8 The country strategy introduced significant changes in WFP’s approach: using prototypes, “maximizing its comparative advantage, leveraging strategic partnerships and building on incremental successes”. It identified three priority areas for national capacity strengthening: i) monitoring, analysing, mapping and addressing food insecurity; ii) strengthening Indonesia’s capacity to prepare for and respond to disasters and shocks; and iii) strengthening Indonesia’s capacity to reduce undernutrition below critical levels. Four “core areas of engagement” were pursued: i) technical assistance; ii) prototyping of high-impact, replicable interventions; iii) enhanced monitoring and evaluation to improve knowledge management; and iv) advocacy to develop and support sustainable food and nutrition security policies and interventions.

9 The CP was designed to address the three priorities identified in the country strategy. In line with the corporate Strategic Plan for 2008–2013, the country office increased food assistance for capacity development interventions. The unstated assumption was that successful advocacy and capacity development – including through prototyping – would ultimately enable the Government to resolve Indonesia’s food security and malnutrition challenges.

10 WFP’s analysis of issues in Indonesia intensified over the review period, but the scale of operations shrank considerably. From 2009 to 2013, the total number of beneficiaries declined from 843,718 to 34,475 (Figure 1), with food distribution dropping from 12,955 mt to 1,222 mt: less than half of planned distributions were actually distributed. With major budget shortfalls (Table 1), which were only partially mitigated by the emerging shift to prototype strategies, WFP cut staff numbers in Indonesia from 187 at nine locations in 2009 to 81 at five locations in 2013. For much of the review period, the country office was operating in sub-survival mode.

Figure 1: Beneficiaries by activity, 2009–2103



Source: Standard Project Reports 2009–2013

Evaluation Findings

Alignment and Strategic Positioning

11 The country strategy significantly adjusted WFP's alignment and strategic positioning in Indonesia, increasing the emphasis on consultation, partnership and alignment with the Government and its policies – including the Jakarta Commitment on Aid for Development Effectiveness, which reinforces Indonesia's signature of the Paris Declaration and is asserted through instruments such as the medium-term development plan (Table 2). Meanwhile, Indonesia became a major source of food for WFP operations, both at home and in other countries. The country strategy and the CP mainstreamed capacity development as a priority in most WFP interventions and introduced the concept of prototypes as a way of working on a small scale while influencing policy and practice on a much larger scale. However, they did not explain exactly how prototyping would work, which was a weakness for an approach that invested so much in the concept of prototypes: documents failed to explain sufficiently how successful prototypes would be scaled up.

Table 2: WFP Alignment with Jakarta Commitment Principles, 2009–2013

Jakarta Commitment principles	WFP alignment²
Stronger national ownership in defining aid architecture and processes	Steady progress made.
A shift from a donor–recipient relationship to a paradigm of equal and innovative partnerships	Progress made, but the Government continues to assume that WFP will take the technical lead.
Moving from financial assistance to a more strategic and catalytic form of aid	Progress made; the Government recognizes that WFP financial inputs are limited and is committed to helping to fund WFP operations in Indonesia.
Transition from scattered project-based assistance to a more programmatic approach	Progress made, but WFP’s geographically scattered prototypes are not fully integrated.
Stronger focus on capacity development and results orientation embedded in national programmes	Capacity development now central to WFP programming, but this commitment is only partially reflected in the Government’s stance. Both WFP and the Government make less reference to results orientation.
Greater mutual accountability and alignment between the Government and international partners	WFP and the GoI have made progress.

12 The portfolio’s emphasis on capacity development was highly relevant to Indonesia’s food and nutrition security challenges. However, according to interviews with stakeholders, WFP was better at achieving formal alignment, complementarity and coherence with partners than at genuine collaboration and synergy. With the overstretched staff in the underfunded country office having to devote much of their time to distant small-scale prototype operations, it was impossible to invest the necessary time and effort in building deeper relationships. While inconsistencies and overlaps were largely avoided, the whole rarely became more than the sum of the parts. Interviews indicated that collaboration with bilateral agencies in emergency preparedness and response (EPR) was hindered by poor performance by WFP for part of the review period. There was limited practical collaboration through the United Nations Partnership for Development Framework, and less synergy.

13 The global Project Laser Beam, which aims to eradicate child malnutrition through collaboration between United Nations agencies and the private sector, strengthened WFP’s interaction with some private-sector partners; interviews with businesses confirmed that collaboration became an important part of WFP’s profile in Indonesia. The country office made good progress in establishing funding relationships with the private sector.

14 The Indonesia portfolio was well aligned with WFP’s 2008–2013 Strategic Plan and generally conformed to its policies, although social and organizational policies – such as capacity development – achieved less than expected.

15 WFP made significant progress in adapting to the changing context in Indonesia. Its comparative advantage as a convener of the public and private sectors and civil society was important in this regard, although progress was uneven. WFP succeeded in moving upstream and recognized the central importance of capacity development in Indonesia, but did not respond adequately to this need. Acknowledging the Government’s enhanced ownership in the sectors where it worked – evidenced by a USD 2.8 million contribution to WFP over four years – WFP strengthened its working relations with the Government.

² Assessed by the evaluation team comparing the WFP Indonesia country strategy with the Government of Indonesia’s 2009 Jakarta Commitment: Aid for Development Effectiveness, available at: http://pendanaan.bappenas.go.id/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=22

Factors in and Quality of Strategic Decision-Making

16 WFP took the goals of the Government and its partners into increasing account. Preparation of the country strategy and the CP demonstrated significant improvements in strategic decision-making and supporting analysis, including recognition of the rapidly changing country context and the need for non-food-based interventions. However, like a super tanker that takes time to turn, WFP's strategic thinking lagged behind developments; too much was expected of conventional funding strategies, despite the efforts to revise them, such as through innovative engagement with the private sector. The need for new skills to achieve the planned focus on capacity development and advocacy was underestimated.

17 Part of the lag in strategic thinking concerned WFP's continued engagement in procuring and distributing food and complementary feeding products. The commodity-focused format and content of Standard Project Reports are poorly suited to presenting the main issues in the activities involved in the shift from food aid to food assistance, as in Indonesia. WFP's heritage also made it slow to discard direct procurement and distribution, despite their inefficiency and limited relevance in a country with opportunities for private-sector production and distribution, albeit there are significant challenges with increased private-sector involvement. The country office developed a proposal for distributing food through a voucher transfer system³ – for which it could not secure funding – but more could have been done to move away from the “business-as-usual” delivery system.

18 The logical framework included in the PRRO document did not adequately elaborate how, and under what assumptions, sustainable change would be achieved. The document emphasized the importance of collaboration with the Government, capacity development and alignment with government policy, but the PRRO remained a package of standard WFP interventions with little integration of components.

19 Introducing the concept of prototyping, the country strategy recognized that WFP's direct interventions would be on a very small scale, and that rather than directly achieving food and nutrition security for many beneficiaries, WFP would facilitate others – primarily the Government – in doing so. However, the strategy document's explanation of how this goal would be achieved was, at best, implicit. Focusing, understandably, on how WFP would work, it did not explain how the strategy and its operations would achieve the intended outcomes and impact.

Portfolio Performance And Results

Effectiveness

20 WFP's vulnerability analysis and mapping (VAM) activities contributed directly to food security and vulnerability atlases for the national level and two provinces; Indonesian authorities replicated the atlases in more than 20 other provinces. Interviews in Kupang showed that the provincial VAM process is well established in NTT. Overall, WFP's VAM work generated effective technical,⁴ capacity development and institutional outcomes.

³ WFP and Oxfam Indonesia. 2011. *Cash Transfer Feasibility Study in Nusa Tenggara Timur and Nusa Tenggara Barat*. Available at http://www.wfp.org/sites/default/files/CASH%20TRANSFER%20FEASIBILITY%20_FINAL.pdf

⁴ See, for example, Dewan Ketahanan Pangan, Departemen Pertanian RI and WFP. 2009. *A Food Security and Vulnerability Atlas of Indonesia 2009*. Available at <http://documents.wfp.org/stellent/groups/public/documents/ena/wfp236710.pdf>
Pemerintah Provinsi NTB, Dewan Ketahanan Pangan, Kementerian Pertanian and WFP. 2010. *Food Security and Vulnerability*

21 Interviews and documentation indicate that WFP’s EPR was of limited effectiveness. With expertise that was mainly technical and periodically distracted into emergency response operations, WFP did not tackle the political and institutional challenges involved in developing new national and provincial disaster management agencies, which were not easy to work with. According to external and internal stakeholders, this weak performance significantly damaged WFP’s reputation in EPR, although by 2013 the country office was developing a better skill set and a clearer understanding of capacity development and institutional development needs.

22 Methodological problems with surveys resulted in inconclusive data on the effectiveness of WFP’s MCN work in reducing stunting and wasting during the review period. Interviews and analysis of reports showed that opportunities for linking local implementation of prototypes to national strategy were not systematically grasped.

23 According to interviews at schools, school feeding approaches promoted by the portfolio were effective in enhancing children’s concentration. The impact on attendance was less clear: according to interviewed staff and WFP’s baseline survey, attendance did not vary between days with and those without school meals, but it had increased since school feeding was introduced. School feeding could build on the benefits of MCN that focuses on the first 1,000 days following conception, and exploit the strong local support that WFP elicited for local food-based school meal (LFBSM) strategies. Again, however, promising local prototypes were not effectively linked to advocacy and policy at the national level.

24 Monitoring data collected on FFA activities in the latter part of the review period indicated positive short-term results on the food security of those receiving food. This echoes the findings of other FFA impact evaluations,⁵ but there was no evidence that these interventions would prove to be sustainable and would achieve lasting enhancements of food and livelihood security for participants. Ensuring long-term technical and institutional arrangements for maintaining assets was not included in the WFP strategy. The CP’s FFA component did not include assessment of the extent of food insecurity, context and risk analysis, capacity assessment or a clear indication of how WFP’s FFA interventions complemented government policy and strategies.⁶ The evaluation team did not find sufficient evidence that WFP’s FFA activities were of more than transient benefit or that local work had been structured effectively as prototypes to influence national strategy.

25 Overall, the portfolio’s increasing focus on capacity development was only modestly effective. Interviews confirmed that while the country office recognized the importance of capacity development, it was unable to focus on the task. Targeting of capacity development activities was hindered by the lack of adequate capacity assessments and a comprehensive advocacy strategy. Application of WFP’s National Capacity Index process to assess WFP’s performance revealed an insufficiently systematic approach to capacity development. However, by the end of the review period there was a marked improvement in planning of capacity development, with a more systematic focus on the individual, organizational and institutional levels.

Atlas of NTB 2010. Available at <http://www.wfp.org/sites/default/files/FSVA%20of%20Nusa%20Tenggara%20Barat%202010.pdf>.

⁵ “Synthesis Report of the Evaluation Series on the Impact of Food for Assets (2002–2011) and Lessons for Building Livelihoods Resilience” (WFP/EB.A/2014/7-B*), p. iii.

⁶ As recommended in WFP. 2014. Using FFA – the bigger picture. *FFA Manual*: Module A: 28.

26 The country office recognized the importance of advocacy for promoting effective and relevant techniques and strategies to enhance food and nutrition security, linked to capacity development where needed. However, partly because of resource shortages and the demands of managing scattered small-scale prototypes, the country office was not systematic enough in formulating, delivering, monitoring, assessing and reporting its advocacy strategies.

27 According to interviews with government and development partners, WFP made a positive contribution at the national policy level by working with the United Nations Children's Fund and the Government to include nutrition in the 2010–2014 medium-term development plan and by helping to prepare the national food and nutrition action plan. WFP had less policy impact on school feeding, to which it gave less attention – school feeding was not mentioned in the country strategy – despite the local enthusiasm for LFBSM. VAM was the only field in which WFP achieved significant enhancements in national analytical capacity during the review period. WFP had no impact on national policy priorities in gender issues, and stakeholders reported little impact in EPR – the most institutionally challenging sector in the Indonesia portfolio. Despite the potential for using WFP's FFA activities in advocating for actions to adapt to climate change at scale, there was no evidence that these prototypes achieved significant impact on the national agenda.

Efficiency

28 The evaluation found that efficiency was not systematically addressed in the portfolio's prototype approach. There was no evidence that the unit costs of activities were adequately considered in the design and management of prototype interventions, and cost monitoring was inadequate. Staff reported generally high operating costs, which may be justifiable at the prototype stage if advocacy and awareness raising then lead to more efficient implementation at scale by the Government. Towards the end of the review period, the country office was exploring the potential for reducing staffing costs by employing more Indonesians.

Sustainability

29 WFP took sustainability into consideration in its nutrition activities and made limited progress towards improving sustainability by collaborating with the private sector on local food fortification. Promotion of LFBSM provided a basis for sustainable school feeding, although more should have been done to capitalize on local enthusiasm for LFBSM. The sustainability of WFP's EPR interventions dwindled in the middle of the review period because of ineffective performance by WFP and the institutional instability of the principal partner – the new national disaster management agency. The technical sustainability of FFA interventions was doubtful in the absence of medium- to long-term monitoring data.

30 WFP made more progress towards strategic sustainability in areas of its portfolio where it was engaged in broader, multi-partner efforts and underpinned its advocacy with technically competent implementation. Examples included its collaboration with local food companies on nutrition interventions, and its long-established VAM effort, which achieved strategically sustainable results.

Conclusions And Overall Assessment

31 The evaluation assessed WFP's performance in two contexts of change: in Indonesia, which no longer posed the conventional challenges, needs and opportunities with which WFP has generally worked; and in WFP, which was shifting from food aid to food assistance, from logistics to capacity development, and from needing mainly technical skills to needing at least as many strategic and institutional skills.

32 In this dynamic and unstable environment, the Indonesia country office had to struggle against steadily increasing budgetary challenges. For much of the review period, the country office survived on the margins of viability, and sometimes credibility, operating at unsustainable levels in conditions that inevitably impaired performance. Nevertheless, it managed to make important progress in terms of strategy by shifting the roles and profile of WFP, strengthening the portfolio's relevance to the country's humanitarian and development needs, and increasing alignment with the national agenda and policies. However, by the end of the review period, resourcing problems put at risk WFP's ability to maintain the minimum capacity needed for a credible profile and performance in the new directions that it was rightly taking.

33 WFP's strategic decision-making process is likely to evolve as its government partners become better resourced and more technically competent. Increasingly, decision-making will become a shared exercise in developing the national agenda, with WFP making specific contributions. The challenge is for WFP, as a global organization, to adapt its operations promptly to reflect strategic change. In the Indonesia portfolio, significant strategic progress was not supported by strong effectiveness in all programmes, as some old operational habits persisted.

34 Effectiveness varied widely across the portfolio. The central challenge in adjusting operations to match strategy was in using prototypes to link small-scale field implementation, through advocacy, to large-scale adoption. The portfolio showed limited effectiveness in this regard, with insufficient technical, capacity development and advocacy efforts to achieve this vital linkage. A related challenge was the inadequate consideration of efficiency in the design, delivery and monitoring of prototype strategies. The portfolio did not perform well according to the limited criteria for efficiency that the evaluation was able to apply. These two challenges regarding prototypes compromised the sustainability of the portfolio's outputs.

Recommendations

Recommendation 1: *To clarify the structure and rationale of its portfolio in Indonesia, the country office should plan and implement its work in two categories: institutional capacity development and prototypes.*

35 This explicit categorization will facilitate the country office's understanding of challenges and development of appropriate strategies. Institutional capacity development – currently VAM and EPR activities – focuses on strengthening the relevant institutions and staff capacity at the national, provincial and, where relevant, district levels. Prototype activities – currently in FFA, MCN and school feeding – should focus on developing evidence-based strategies for support at beneficiary level that can be adopted and scaled up by national public- and private-sector agencies, and on initiating a sustainable capacity development strategy to make this possible.

36 Institutional capacity development programmes should specify: the capacity development approach; the advocacy and awareness-raising strategy to be employed; and how to monitor and report on the implementation of this strategy.

37 Prototype design should specify: the scale of the intervention, the ultimate intended scale-up and how it will be achieved; WFP's roles in field implementation; the methods, tools and approaches to be developed, demonstrated and advocated; how capacity development will be undertaken; the cost-effectiveness of the prototype and the ultimate scaled-up activities; the advocacy and awareness-raising strategy to be employed for effective policy engagement; monitoring indicators and methods; and WFP's strategy and schedule for exit.

Recommendation 2: *The country office should articulate a comprehensive capacity development strategy for each of its VAM, EPR, MCN and school feeding sectors.*

38 Each strategy should be supported by a resourcing plan and should include: stakeholder analysis; expected vision and outcomes; approach and tools for assessing each direct partner; types of intervention, which should exploit and develop WFP's comparative advantage and mainstream gender; strategic partners for delivery; progress indicators and processes; reflection and learning processes; and related capacity development required for WFP country office staff.

Recommendation 3: *The country office should articulate a comprehensive advocacy and awareness-raising strategy for each of its VAM, EPR, MCN and school feeding sectors.*

39 For effective policy engagement, each strategy should include: stakeholder analysis, identifying the policy-makers – at all levels – to be influenced; the role of partners, including civil society actors; the changes in policy, regulation, resourcing and practice that are to be advocated; the approaches to be used, which should exploit WFP's comparative advantage and mainstream gender; how WFP can serve as a convenor and broker among the Government, the private sector, civil society and other international agencies; and plans and indicators for measuring progress. Each strategy should be supported by a resourcing plan.

Recommendation 4: *With support from the regional bureau and Headquarters, the country office should commit as much effort and as many resources to its school feeding work as it does to its MCN activities.*

40 Implementation of this recommendation will require adequate staffing; a clearer capacity development strategy for implementation at the district level; and an advocacy strategy to capitalize at the national level on the local enthusiasm generated by WFP school feeding approaches.

Recommendation 5: *The country office should seek funds, with support from the Private Sector Partnerships Division, for further research to identify enhancements to its MCN strategy, based on evaluation of the impacts of approaches used so far.*

41 This research should compare the effects of different packages of interventions, such as food products versus education and the promotion of behaviour change; interventions during the lean season versus at other times; and nutrition-specific versus nutrition-sensitive interventions.

Recommendation 6: *Headquarters should enhance its monitoring and reporting systems to make them more relevant to WFP's work in Indonesia and similar countries.*

42 The Standard Project Report format should be revised to allow reporting on the operation's logical framework, where relevant; the capacity development and advocacy strategies articulated for the operation; the technical and institutional viability of the operation, linked – where relevant – to the food and nutrition security and related benefits for prototype beneficiaries; the contribution to WFP's Strategic Objectives; and compliance with selected WFP policies, notably nutrition, school feeding, capacity development and gender.

Recommendation 7: *For as long as it maintains a country office in Indonesia, WFP should ensure and sustain a basic minimum operating presence.*

43 This presence could comprise fewer international personnel and a higher proportion of senior, experienced Indonesian staff supplemented, when necessary, by senior international or local consultants. For at least the remainder of the current CP period, the office should include full-time capacity development and school feeding specialists. Total staff numbers do not need to increase. All technical specialists should be competent in capacity development. All staff contracts should be for at least 12 months.

44 Funding for this purpose is a corporate responsibility for WFP and is likely to require an unconventional combination of sources, such as funds from the host government and the private sector, as well as the usual – and possibly some new – bilateral and multilateral sources.

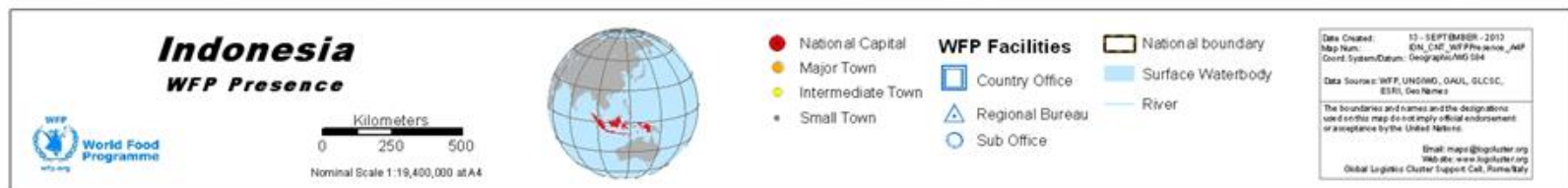
Recommendation 8: *Except in Level 3 emergencies, WFP should not supply or distribute food, including complementary feeding products, in Indonesia.*

45 With support from the regional bureau and Headquarters, the country office should phase out all direct involvement in the supply or distribution of food and complementary feeding products as soon as viable alternative arrangements can be put in place.

Recommendation 9: *With support from the Policy, Programme and Innovation Division and the regional bureau, the country office should carry out an urgent, thorough assessment of its FFA work to determine the cost-effectiveness, sustainability and replicability of the approaches it has pursued and to decide whether continuation of FFA activities is justified.*

46 The assessment should include a thorough investigation of relevant food security, institutional and environmental variables at a minimum of 20 sites where WFP supported FFA work during the review period. Following the study, any recommendation for continuing support to FFA should be premised on acceptance that WFP would not undertake the food supply or distribution itself.

Map



Introduction

1.1 Evaluation Features

1. This Country Portfolio Evaluation (CPE) is an independent study commissioned by the Office of Evaluation (OEV) of the World Food Programme (WFP). The full terms of reference (TOR) are at o. CPEs address the full set of WFP activities during a specific period. They evaluate the performance and results of the portfolio as a whole and provide evaluative insights to guide strategic and operational decision-making. CPEs address three key evaluation questions, as follows:

- *Alignment and Strategic Positioning of WFP's Country Strategy & Portfolio.*
- *Factors and Quality of Strategic Decision-Making.*
- *Performance and Results of the WFP Portfolio.*

2. Indonesia was selected for this CPE for various reasons. No portfolio evaluation covering several food assistance operations over a five-year period in Indonesia had previously been conducted. The current WFP Country Programme (CP) runs from 2012 to 2015, while the Country Strategy (CS) developed by the Country Office (CO) runs from 2011 to 2015. The evaluation findings will therefore help inform WFP Indonesia for their next CP and CS. This CPE in Indonesia is expected to generate lessons about WFP's role in middle-income countries (MICs).

3. The evaluation was conducted by an independent team of one local and three international consultants. Methodology was elaborated in the Inception Report (Turner et al, 2014) and is summarised in Annex B, which also comments on the team's experience in applying the intended methods to this evaluation, including assessment of WFP's theories of change (ToC). The evaluation matrix, which elaborates the key questions, is found in Annex C. Fieldwork in Indonesia took place during April 2014, and evaluation team members visited two provinces: Nusa Tenggara Timur (NTT) and Nusa Tenggara Barat (NTB). The team augmented available data and document review with extensive interviews. Over 140 people connected with the programme were interviewed. Annex D lists those consulted.

1.2 Context

Indonesia

4. This section provides an overview of significant economic and social contextual factors that have affected the Indonesia country portfolio and are relevant to the evaluation. A further overview of key developments in Indonesia and within WFP is presented in the portfolio timeline (Table 6 in Annex E) and context timeline (Table 14 in Annex G).

5. Indonesia is the world's largest archipelago, a sprawling nation stretching 5,000 km and including over 17,000 islands. With a population of over 250 million people, it is the fourth most populous country in the world (WB, 2013c).

Politics and history

6. Indonesia achieved independence from the Netherlands in 1945. This was followed by a turbulent period until July 1955 and two periods of authoritarian rule: Sukarno's "Guided Democracy" (1957–65) and Soeharto's "New Order" (1966–98). The 1997 financial crisis, which hit Indonesia harder than any other Asian country, led

to Soeharto's resignation in 1998. Indonesia then experienced a time of political reform, bringing in a more democratic government and direct Presidential elections. Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono was elected President in 2004, and won a second term in July 2009. He will stand down in 2014 as required by the Republic's Constitution (UNDP, nd).

7. Despite the reforms brought in by Yudhoyono, corruption is a serious impediment to Indonesia's development. The Government of Indonesia (GoI) has brought in a number of institutions tasked with fighting corruption but it still remains a large problem with slow progress (UNODC, 2013). The country ranks 114th out of 177 countries and territories in the Corruption Perceptions Index (Transparency International, 2013).

Economy and poverty trends

8. Indonesia is a lower Middle-Income Country (MIC) and ranks 121 out of 187 countries and territories under the Human Development Index (HDI) (UNDP, 2013b). It is also a G20 member and the largest economy of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). It has come a long way since the 1997 Asian financial crisis. In 2011, it marked 6.5 percent growth, the highest since 1996. Indonesia's GNI per capita increased by about 225 percent between 1980 and 2012 (UNDP, 2013b – see Table 13 in Annex G. However, the Triple F Crisis (food, fuel and finance) from 2009 had a considerable impact on the country's economy and public policy. Economic growth slowed down from 6.1 percent in 2007 to 4.5 percent in 2009. The budget allocated for social assistance programmes (1.1 percent of total GDP in 2008) remains low (Bappenas et al., 2010).

9. Other countries in the lower MIC group include Bhutan, the Republic of Congo, Ukraine and Yemen. While these income categories mask enormous diversity (and often high levels of inequality, which are the reason for some agencies to maintain a role there), they lead to objective and subjective shifts in global policy and perceptions. Official development assistance (ODA) flows may remain substantial for a variety of reasons (see Figure 1 below), but there is a growing belief that MICs can and should fund more of the efforts to address poverty and vulnerability among their people, and that external support for the poor should increasingly be restricted to severe emergency situations.

10. The benefits of economic growth are not distributed evenly over Indonesia. In 2009, poverty was concentrated in six provinces (Papua, Papua Barat, Maluku, Nusa Tenggara Timur (NTT), Gorontalo and Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam (NAD)), with poverty rates ranging from 4 percent in Jakarta to 38 percent in Papua. Disparities are also reflected in the high provincial Human Development Index (HDI) variation, shown in Figure 6 in Annex G.

Geographical vulnerability

11. Indonesia lies on the Pacific "Ring of Fire", an active tectonic zone characterised by frequent earthquakes and volcanic eruptions (see Table 11 and Table 12 at Annex G), making it one of the most natural disaster prone areas in the world. Indonesia has ranked fifth among nations most affected by natural disasters. While the 2004 earthquake/tsunami remains one of history's worst single disaster events with 227,000 deaths in 12 countries (165,708 deaths in Indonesia) and USD 4.5 billion in damages and losses, Indonesia continues to face other large-impact disasters (EM-DAT, 2014).

12. Indonesia also suffers repeatedly from slow-onset natural disasters, particularly drought in the east, affecting the livelihoods of a large proportion of the population who are dependent upon rain-fed agriculture. The country is especially vulnerable to climate change. The Indonesia Climate Change Sectoral Road Map (ICCSR), released by the National Development Planning Ministry, considers food security one of the three cross-cutting issues of national importance along with environmental degradation and forestry (GoI, 2009a).

Government objectives and organisation

13. Indonesia has gone through major transformations in the last decade from a highly centralized government to one of the most decentralized governments in the world. The delivery of public services is now the responsibility of 33 provinces and over 500 districts and municipalities (WFP, 2011p). Sub-national governments are major players in service delivery. However, a rapid top-down approach to decentralization has led to significant capacity gaps in local governments and reduction in key spending, management capacity and the delivery of quality social services, especially in the poorer and more remote regions (OECD, 2013).

14. The apparatus of development planning and management is in place in Indonesia, coordinated by Bappenas (the National Development Planning Agency) through the National Long-Term and Medium-Term Development Plans (RPJPN and RPJMN). But the GoI is still characterised by fragility, lack of capacity in many areas, and a rate of staff turnover that frequently destabilises and scatters the capacity that has been developed. Structural rigidities reduce the ability of the government to adapt to changing conditions. Financial management and accountability structures limit the ways programmes can be funded. Lines of authority and processes of decision-making are hard for outsiders to understand, which constrains advocacy and necessitates long-term investment in building relationships.

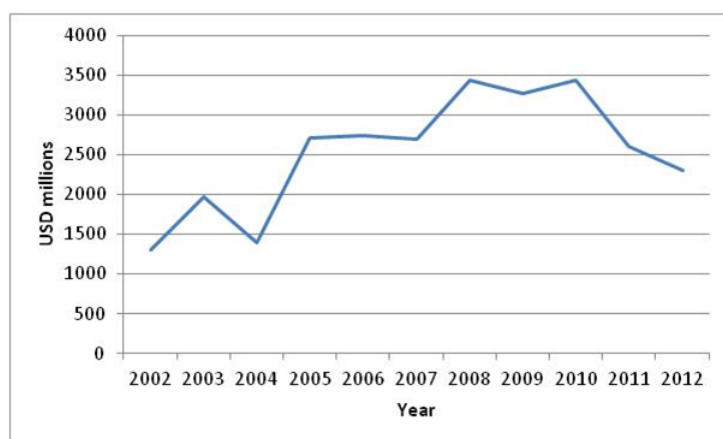
15. The RPJMN (2010–2014) is the second phase of the RPJPN (2005–2025). The goals of the RPJMN include: to achieve public welfare through economic development; to achieve a society, nation and state that upholds the responsibility of freedom; and to achieve development that is just and equitable and which can benefit all Indonesian people. Box 1 in Annex G sets out the eleven national priorities. Indonesia shows commitment to attaining the MDGs, with funding allocations for this purpose in both national and sub-national budgets having risen annually (see Indonesia's Progress on the MDGs in Annex G).

The Aid Landscape

16. Consequent to Indonesia's attainment of lower MIC status, the concept and practice of conventional development assistance have rapidly lost relevance for Indonesia and multilateral partners like WFP. Overall ODA to Indonesia has been in decline since 2010. Japan and Australia have maintained significant aid flows to the country. Eight other donors contributed USD 25m or more in 2012 (OECD, 2014). Although Australian assistance was recently cut globally, much of its funding for Indonesia looks likely to be maintained (see Figure 1). The GoI asserted its ownership of development assistance, and in January 2009 it and development partners signed the Jakarta Commitment on Aid for Development Effectiveness (GoI, 2009b), which redefines their relationships and sets a new standard for the measurement of development assistance. Applying the Paris Declaration principles to the MIC environment, the Jakarta Commitment (as accurately summarised by WFP) calls for (i) stronger national ownership in defining aid architecture and processes; (ii) a shift

from a donor-recipient relationship to a paradigm of equal and innovative partnerships; (iii) moving from financial assistance to a more strategic and catalytic role of aid; (iv) transition from scattered project-based assistance to a more programmatic approach; (v) stronger focus on capacity development and results orientation embedded in national programmes; and (vi) greater mutual accountability and alignment between the government and international partners (WFP, 2011p; wording verified against GoI, 2009b).

Figure 1 ODA to Indonesia 2002–2012



Source: OECD, 2014.

17. Most UN agencies in Indonesia – there were 21 at the time of the evaluation mission – have had to adapt to the context outlined above, coordinating their efforts through the UN Partnership Development Framework (UNPDF), which corresponds to what is known in many countries as the UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF).

Health, Food, Nutrition and School Feeding

18. Some health indicators have improved in Indonesia since the 1960s. The child mortality rate has declined from 220 per 1,000 live births in 1960 to 32 per 1,000 live births in 2013 (WHO, 2013a), while life expectancy has improved from 43 years in the 1970s to 69 in 2011 (WHO, 2013a). Indonesia is off track on reducing the maternal mortality rate from 390 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births in 1991 to its goal of 102 by 2015. In 2013 the maternal mortality ratio was 190 (WB, 2014b). Although wasting declined from 13.6 percent to 12.1 percent between 2007 and 2013, stunting increased from 35.6 percent to 37.2 percent between 2010 and 2013.

19. FAO estimated that in the 2011–2013 period 9.1 percent of the population (approximately 23 million Indonesians) were undernourished (FAO, 2014). Infant and young child feeding practices are poor and the nutritional status of children under five is still a major concern, despite some improvement. Indonesia is facing a double burden of malnutrition because, while it still faces the challenge of stunting (it ranks fifth in the world for stunting prevalence (UNICEF, 2009)), adult obesity has increased from 13.9 percent in 2007 to 19.7 percent in 2013 (Riskesdas, 2007; Riskesdas, 2013). Further details on health and nutrition are presented in Annex H.

20. Under the current medium-term development plan (RPJMN 2010–2014) the foremost priority for development in health is to increase maternal, child and infant health, followed by an increase in nutritional status. This is the first such national development plan in which nutrition objectives have been explicitly included. The

Government now has a five-year Food and Nutrition Action Plan (FNAP), 2011–2015 (GoI, 2010b) and improving maternal, infant and child health and nutrition remains its priority, focusing on stunting and the Essential Nutrition Intervention package. Indonesia joined the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement in December 2011.

21. Indonesia has made great progress in ensuring that primary school children get an education: 96 percent of children aged between 7 and 12 years old are attending school (UNESCO, 2011). The Ministry of Education, in coordination with six other ministries, launched the supplemental food for school children programme, Program Makanan Tambahan Anak Sekolah (PMT-AS), in 2010. Provision of supplemental food for school children has been implemented in Indonesia since 1997, but the launch of PMT-AS marks a revitalization of this approach following years in which school feeding received relatively little government support.

Gender

22. Gender is well mainstreamed in government central planning, but implementation has been weak. A commitment to the advancement of women has been shown through the ratification of international agreements, the passage of laws, and the establishment of institutional policies and programmes that address women's specific needs. A landmark Presidential Instruction (INPRES), issued in 2000, obliges all government agencies to mainstream gender in their policies, programmes and budgets to eliminate gender discrimination. The RPJMN specifically identifies gender as a cross-cutting issue (GoI, 2010a).

WFP and Indonesia

23. Over the review period, WFP strategies and policies evolved, as WFP adapted to the changing international aid climate and new perspectives on food security and nutrition. The leading theme in the Strategic Plan 2008–2013 was the shift from food aid to food assistance, and WFP also recognised the need to make the funding of its COs less rigidly linked to the tonnages of food they deliver.

24. Economic growth in Indonesia led to it becoming a significant source of food for WFP operations, both domestically and in other countries. In 2012, Indonesia was the second largest supplier to WFP in the world, in dollar value (WFP, 2013h: 5). 2012 also saw the first commitment by the GoI to make a budgetary contribution to WFP's operations in the country. WFP was the first UN agency in Indonesia to receive such support. The contribution agreed was USD 2.8 million over four years.

25. WFP launched a pilot programme in 2013 to explore enhanced approaches to its work in middle-income countries. Indonesia is one of eight pilot countries, where “the focus will be on WFP support for catalytic programmes and country capacity strengthening efforts that can have a significant impact on national food security and nutrition indicators, including undernourishment” (WFP, 2013b: 1).

1.3 WFP's Portfolio in Indonesia

Overview and funding of the portfolio

26. During the evaluation period (2009–2013) WFP undertook a Protracted Relief and Recovery Operation (PRRO), an Emergency Operation (IR-EMOP) and a Country Programme (CP) in Indonesia. In addition there were two Special Operations related to logistics and telecommunication support. Table 6 in Annex E illustrates the timeline of the Indonesia portfolio.

27. This portfolio evaluation mainly focuses on the PRRO 10069.2 and the ongoing CP 200245. In line with the TOR, the IR-EMOP 200218 and the Special Operations have only been considered to the extent that they contribute to the outcomes of WFP portfolio operations. However, the need to respond to even medium scale emergencies was a significant addition to the workload of the CO during the review period, even though it may not appear strategically significant from a CPE perspective.

28. The planned budget of these operations from 2009–2013 was USD 172.3 million. By end-2013 only 38.3 percent of these needs had been met (WFP, 2011f; WFP, 2012d; see Table 1 below). Further detail on the funding sources for the CP and PRRO is given in Table 7 and the tables in the Fact Sheet showing donor contributions to CP 200245 and PRRO 10069.2 and comparing GoI contributions for PRRO 10069.2 with those of other donors. The GoI contributed 15 percent of received funding for the PRRO (USD 6.95 million). These trends meant that WFP operated in a context of severe resource constraints throughout the review period. (Early in the review period it reportedly contemplated closing the Indonesia office because of low funding for the PRRO.) The challenge was to adapt its modes of staffing, activity and delivery in order to remain viable and effective.

Table 1 Indonesia Portfolio 2009–2013 by Programme Category

	No. of Operations	Require-ments (USD million)	% of require-ments by project type	Actual received (USD million)	% Require-ments vs Received
Relief and Recovery (PRRO)	1	112.6	65.34%	46.208	30.04%
Country Programme (CP)	1	44.8	25.99%	11.914	26.6%
Immediate Response Emergency Operations (IR-EMOP)	1	0.5	0.29%	0.459	92.73%
Special Operations	2	14.5	8.39%	8.297	57.41%
		172.3	100.00%	66.878	38.30%

Source: WFP, 2011f; WFP, 2012d. The data for the CP show funding received to end 2013 for the full four-year budget to end-2015.

Evolution of WFP strategy and portfolio

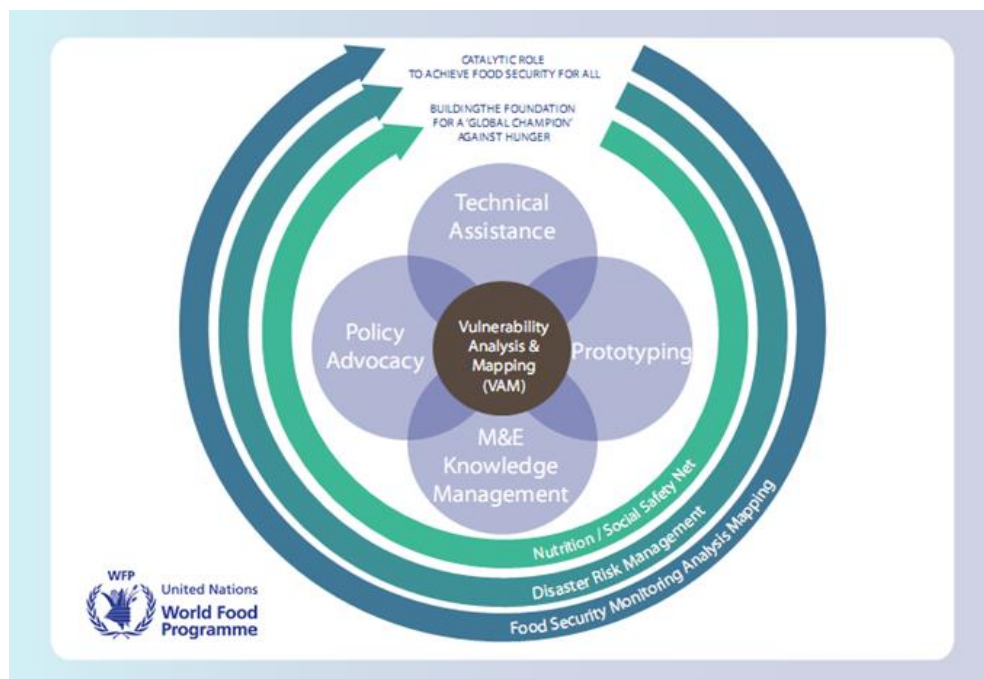
29. Launched a year before the start of the review period, the PRRO focused on nutritional rehabilitation following the economic crisis and political transformation of 1997–98, noting that Indonesia was “a low-income food deficit country” and that malnutrition was “still at pre-2000 levels” (WFP, 2007a: 5–6). Reportedly in line with GoI policy at the time, the PRRO had five components: mother and child nutrition (MCN) services at *posyandu* (health posts) comprising fortified food, and education in health and nutrition; primary school feeding combining fortified food with curriculum-based training; support for TB patients through a food incentive for DOTS (directly observed treatment, short course); food for work (FFW) and food for training (FFT) in food-insecure rural areas; and community development projects funded from a former subsidised rice safety net trust fund in parallel with MCN and school feeding. The PRRO also included provision for flexible response to emergencies.

30. The PRRO was extended for a year, to December 2011, on the basis of **Budget Revision (BR) 7**. This extension was intended to enable WFP to plan for the shift to a CP from 2012. The BR (WFP, 2010g) noted that, although WFP had been planning to phase out of Indonesia by the end of 2010, “there has been little improvement in nutritional indicators; in some cases, there has been a further decline owing to further shocks and limited investments in food security and nutrition”. Consultations with GoI led the latter to request “WFP’s continued support to strengthen the capacity of Indonesian counterparts to reduce hunger” (WFP, 2010g: 3). BR 7 continued most of the existing PRRO activities, while claiming a more integrated approach and, with increased emphasis on capacity building for the future, introducing the central theme of the subsequent Country Strategy Document (CSD) and Country Programme (CP).

31. Building on the ideas emerging in BR7 to the PRRO, the **CSD** was a fresh approach to WFP programming in Indonesia. With a much stronger emphasis on consultation, partnership and alignment with GoI and its policies, it reflected “several coalescing factors – (1) the realignment of WFP’s comparative advantages to complement GoI’s priorities following a consultative process with the national and provincial governments and other stakeholders; (2) WFP’s evolution into a food-assistance agency as outlined in the WFP Strategic Plan 2008–2013; and (3) the changing aid environment as Indonesia emerges as a low Middle Income Country” (WFP, 2011p: ii). Emphasising the shift from food aid to food assistance, it set out significant changes in WFP strategy “by piloting interventions based on food and nutrition security analyses, maximizing its comparative advantage, leveraging strategic partnerships and building on incremental successes. The Country Office will pursue this strategy integrating its core areas of engagement: technical assistance, prototyping innovative interventions, strengthening monitoring and evaluation and the knowledge base, and linking upstream advocacy and policy work for scale up and sustainability” (WFP, 2011p: ii).

32. The CSD identified three strategic priorities for 2011–2015: (1) strengthen Indonesian capacity to monitor, analyse, map and address food insecurity; (2) strengthen Indonesian capacity to prepare for and respond to disasters and shocks; and (3) strengthen Indonesian capacity to reduce under-nutrition below critical levels. For this purpose, four “core areas of engagement” would be pursued: “(1) technical assistance; (2) prototyping high-impact and replicable interventions; (3) enhanced monitoring and evaluation to improve knowledge management, and (4) advocacy to develop and/or support sustainable food and nutrition security policies and interventions” (WFP, 2011p: 13; see Figure 2 below).

Figure 2 WFP strategic priorities and implementation, 2011–2015



Source: WFP, 2011g: 13

33. The strategic components of the subsequent CP were based directly on the priorities set out in the CSD (WFP, 2011g: 9). Prototyping was described as a “‘twin-track’ approach of focusing on the immediate needs of the most vulnerable groups in areas with the highest rates of food insecurity and under-nutrition; it will also address the issue of long-term investment to attain food security for all” (WFP, 2011g: 10). The unstated (and incomplete) assumption underlying the CP was that, if advocacy and capacity development succeeded, the GoI would be able to resolve the food security and malnutrition challenges facing the nation. The CSD did recognise some important risks: apart from the disruption that natural disasters can cause at any time in Indonesia, WFP’s lack of predictable, multi-annual funding would hinder the scaling up of prototypes, as would the institutional instability and unpredictability of government as a partner (see above). The CP logical framework was usefully keyed to the UN Partnership Development Framework (UNPDF) and to the WFP Strategic Plan (SP), but did not clearly specify all the links in the causal chain from WFP prototypes and capacity development to food security for Indonesia. National outcomes were expressed in very broad terms (“broader national policy frameworks incorporating hunger solutions”) and some outcomes still referred only to change in the targeted communities, begging the question as to what this would achieve for the rest of the country (WFP, 2011g: 18–20).

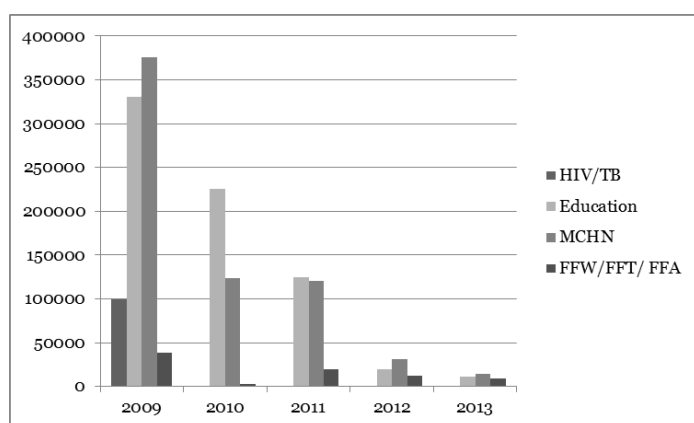
34. In line with the corporate Strategic Plan 2008–2013, WFP Indonesia increased food assistance work through capacity development. While food distribution activities continued through MCN, school feeding and food for work (FFW) under the PRRO, the importance of capacity development efforts grew, for example through support to the Food Security Agency (FSA). The WFP Logistics Support Unit (LSU) in Aceh is another example of capacity development, training personnel to run port operations.

35. As WFP’s school feeding programme was scaled down, small prototyping activities were pursued in support of government’s school feeding programmes. An initial plan to promote take-home rations and scholarships for adolescent girls was not

implemented, initially due to lack of funds but later due to realisation that it was not in line with the GoI programme. WFP implemented a prototype in support of revitalising the national school meals programme in two of the most food and nutrition insecure provinces: NTT since 2010 and Papua since 2012. In line with the national objectives, WFP provided technical assistance to government partners to establish a cost-efficient school meals model that can be replicated at larger scale.

36. Under the PRRO, WFP sought to address micronutrient deficiencies and prevent and treat acute malnutrition through fortified food interventions targeting children aged 12–59 months, and pregnant and lactating women. The development of the CP saw a shift in emphasis from treating acute malnutrition to preventing stunting and continuing to prevent acute malnutrition. The CP nutrition-specific activities focused on the critical window of opportunity of the first 1,000 days from conception for stunting prevention, using locally developed specialized products for children aged 6–24 months (fortified blended food) and pregnant and lactating women (fortified biscuits). Children aged 2–5 years were also targeted to prevent acute malnutrition and micronutrient deficiencies and to avoid intra-household sharing of fortified biscuits. WFP also carried out nutrition education.

Figure 3 Beneficiaries by activity by year 2009–2103



Source: SPRs 2009–2013

37. Table 6 in Annex E summarises the evolution of the portfolio. Figure 3 above shows the changing balance in terms of beneficiaries for different activities. Taken together, they show a portfolio in which field implementation and beneficiary numbers shrank significantly over the review period. This was due partly to the transition to prototyping (driven *inter alia* by WFP’s corporate shift to food assistance) and partly to the severe under-funding that afflicted almost all the organisation’s activities in Indonesia (see ¶28 and Table 1 above), leading to the termination or suspension of various activities at different times and a steady decline in staffing levels (Table 2 below). This deterioration in the funding situation partly reflected the changing economic context and donor attitudes outlined above, which in turn affected funders’ views of whether, why and how much to continue to support WFP’s work there.

Table 2 WFP staffing, 2009–2013

Office/duty station	Number of staff by year				
	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Jakarta	55	48	48	46	45
Surabaya	8	8	5	2	1
Padang	17	1	-	-	-
Mataram	19	15	14	11	11
Kupang	40	23	23	19	20
Atambua	17	-	-	-	-
Banda Aceh	27	15	13	4	4
Nias	2	-	-	-	-
Simeulue	2	-	-	-	-
Sikakap	-	4	-	-	-
Jogyakarta	-	1	-	-	-
Total	187	115	103	82	81
Including international:	9	8	14	11	11

Source: WFP Indonesia Staff lists 2009–2013, Indonesia Country Office

Overview of analytical work

38. Interviews and available documentation show that WFP’s analysis of hunger challenges, food security, nutrition and gender issues intensified in Indonesia over the review period. Setting out the national context, the **PRRO** document referred to a 2006 food security assessment undertaken by WFP, FAO and the GoI, and to a UN Common Country Assessment (WFP, 2007a: 5).

39. Overall, the CSD offered largely adequate clarity and thoroughness in its references to relevant data and analysis. It referred to data from the National Statistics Bureau and the National Agency for Disaster Risk Management (BNPB), as well as the Asian Development Bank (ADB), the World Bank, UNICEF and the UNDAF situation analysis. As noted above, its analysis of food and nutrition security was based on the 2009 Food Security & Vulnerability Atlas (FSVA) (Dewan Ketahanan Pangan, 2009: 5). While the FSVA was a flagship output of the portfolio for much of the review period, it also served as a core source of strategic analysis through which WFP programming was targeted in Indonesia. Based largely on the CSD, the **CP** did not add much new analysis. Neither the CSD nor the CP offered any significant analysis of gender issues in the country.

40. WFP undertook or participated in a number of studies in the fields of **MCN** and **school feeding** during the review period. Table 10 in Annex F gives details of seven studies of the former and three of the latter between 2010 and 2013.

41. In addition to the MCN studies shown in Annex F, WFP prepared three other studies during the review period that are now under way. Its background study on nutrition is an in-depth review of the nutrition context in Indonesia. An LNS effectiveness study compares the effects of MPASI (rice-soya blend) and LNS (lipid nutrient supplement) on wasting during the lean season. A third study is investigating the effects of adding micronutrient powder (MNP) to school meals.

42. It can be seen that WFP’s analytical efforts were most detailed in the field of MCN. However, broader analysis of **social safety net** options appears to have been lacking: discussions with the CO indicated little awareness of the analysis undertaken

by other organisations in Indonesia (e.g. Syukri et al., 2013; Shatifan, 2012; Situmeang et al., 2013; Dureau, 2012). WFP did commission one rapid assessment study on **gender** issues in food and nutrition security in NTT (Ashmad et al., 2012).

43. There is little evidence of analysis of the substantial **EPR** (Emergency Preparedness and Response) challenges in Indonesia, or of their institutional dimensions – although the target of capacity development efforts in this field, the BNPB, was new at the start of the review period. The CSD made more general references to the risks associated with **climate change** than to empirical analysis of the issue. It did quote data on increasing drought risks in many parts of the country, notably in the poor provinces of NTT and NTB; and referred to a study on policy constraints to adaptation to climate change (WFP, 2011p: 5, 12–13). It did not present analysis of the effectiveness of the on- and off-farm initiatives to increase resilience to climate change that were subsequently supported through FFA activities.

44. During the review period WFP conducted no external programme evaluations in Indonesia.

WFP presence in Indonesia

45. Reflecting the strategic shifts outlined above, but also the steadily deteriorating funding situation, Table 2 above shows that the WFP presence in Indonesia shrank substantially during the review period: from 187 staff (including nine international) at nine locations in 2009 to 81 (including 11 international) at five locations in 2013.

46. While WFP's human and budgetary resources were reduced during the review period, the scale of the food and nutrition challenges facing Indonesia did not diminish, as outlined in section 1.2 above. Not only were these challenges dynamic and significant for Indonesian society and for WFP's mandate, they (and WFP's own Strategic Plan) also demanded new thinking and new skills from a CO that had less and less time and money to tackle them.

1. Evaluation Findings

2.1 Alignment and Strategic Positioning

47. The context for the portfolio under review, as described above, was dynamic. Conditions, opportunities and constraints were changing fast. This presented significant challenges to the CO as it sought optimal alignment and strategic positioning for its work. In many such situations, an element of flexibility is therefore appropriate in WFP programming, and in evaluators' assessment of relevance.

48. Overall, the evolution of the portfolio over the review period showed this flexibility, making good progress in adapting to the evolving context and enhancing WFP's alignment and strategic positioning in Indonesia. As will be shown below, the increasing emphasis on capacity development was highly relevant in the context of food assistance in this MIC, although the strategy and assumptions underlying increasing use of prototyping strategies was not fully articulated. The portfolio was steadily better aligned with the national agenda and policies. Alignment, complementarity and coherence with partners were largely achieved on paper; 'silo' behaviour often persisted in practice.

Relevance to Indonesia's humanitarian and development needs

49. With their new emphasis on helping the GoI build its ability to tackle the developmental challenges posed by food insecurity, the CSD and the CP were explicit in addressing government's **capacity development** needs, at all levels in the decentralised system. Capacity development was integrated into each of the three components of the CP (corresponding to the three strategic priorities of the CSD). However, this CPE's introductory workshop and interviews in the CO showed that the accurate targeting of capacity development efforts was hindered by the lack of adequate capacity assessments, or even clear identification of all the partners whose capacity was to be built or whose policies were to be influenced. WFP's global capacity assessment tool (the National Capacity Assessment Index (NCI: WFP, 2014h; WFP, 2014i) had not yet been used for this purpose; nor were any other tools used, such as Organisational Capacity Assessment. Consequently, specific capacity development strategies were not prepared for each component or government partner, and the overall relevance of these efforts to national needs was blunted.

50. Like the two Special Operations and one IR-EMOP in the portfolio, the second component of the CSD and the CP – strengthening Indonesian capacity to prepare for and respond to **disasters and shocks** – had a clear relevance to the country's humanitarian needs, although the documentation was short on specifics as to how capacity development of the BNPB, and related initiatives, would achieve sustained impact. Presentation of FFA work within this component was based on the tenuous logic that prototype efforts to help households vulnerable to drought and floods to improve their resilience to climate change could achieve combined humanitarian and development benefits at scale.

51. Under the PRRO, the objective of the **maternal and child nutrition** programme was to provide mothers with health education and to prevent acute malnutrition and to treat moderate acute malnutrition in children. (WFP, 2011d; WFP, 2012e). This changed somewhat under the CP, with a shift in emphasis on reducing stunting by focusing on the 1,000 day window of opportunity (from conception to second birthday) and preventing wasting in children (WFP, 2013e, WFP, 2014a).

52. The national Food and Nutrition Action Plan (GoI, 2010b) outlines the stratification of provinces according to the levels of stunting and the average energy consumption, while the FSVA prioritises districts according to their food security vulnerability status. Under a prototype approach, the target area is naturally smaller than the entire area of need, but WFP enhanced the relevance of its MCN activities by locating them in NTT province, which is Stratum 4, the level of highest need according to the National FNAP, and in those districts which have high priority according to the FSVA.

53. The relevance of **school feeding** interventions was impaired by a lack of clarity regarding its objectives. Under the PRRO the purpose was described as “to improve the micronutrient status of primary schoolchildren aged 6–13 and their cognitive performance, attendance and knowledge and practice of nutrition-related behaviour” (WFP, 2007a: 8). The CP stated that “WFP will support the latest government initiatives to revitalise the national school feeding programme, integrate nutrition education, diversify diets and supplement the livelihood and income opportunities of the rural poor. The focus will be on home-grown school meals, food fortification and adolescent girls, using the life-cycle approach” (WFP, 2011g: 13). The CP did not outline any specific educational benefits, yet interviews with staff involved in school feeding showed that educational benefits were most prominent in their minds when

asked about impact. They also showed confusion about any nutritional benefits. The fact that the meals are only supplied three times a week limits the nutritional benefits, although the addition of MNP may affect micronutrient deficiencies. The inclusion of school feeding in Component 3 of the Country Strategy – “strengthen Indonesian capacity to reduce under-nutrition below critical levels” – over-emphasised the nutritional benefits and masked the educational benefits.

54. There was little apparent effort to make the country strategy and portfolio relevant with regard to **gender**. The CSD, which mentioned the word once, made various references to the disadvantaged status of women in Indonesia and aimed to support the nutritional needs of pregnant and lactating women (PLW) through WFP interventions. The CP document, which did not mention the word gender at all, took the same approach. It offered the routine tabulation of beneficiaries by sex and was careful in its logical framework to mention men, women, girls and boys separately (WFP, 2011g: 19–20).

55. The **geographical targeting** of WFP interventions was aligned with government priorities and increasingly guided by the FSVA that WFP helped the GoI to produce. The PRRO focused WFP assistance “on rural areas of acute poverty, food deficits and high under-nutrition – currently East Java, Lombok, West Timor and slums in Java”. Some areas of Greater Jakarta were thus included (WFP, 2007a: 10–11). The CSD included a spatially disaggregated analysis of food and nutrition security, drawing on the 2009 FSVA. However, although it noted that geographic targeting was a “critical success factor”, it did not specify where WFP’s target areas would be. The CP, which was based closely on the CSD, did state that “in line with the UNPDF, WFP will focus primarily on the provinces of Aceh, NTT and Papua” (WFP, 2011g: 10). However, the first Standard Project Report (SPR) for the CP, covering 2012, reported that “geographic targeting was based on the food security and vulnerability atlas (FSVA) and government consultations, and concentrated on the eastern part of the country, namely... NTB... NTT and Papua provinces” (WFP, 2013e: np). This targeting was maintained in 2013. By the end of the review period, a limited school feeding operation was under way in one district of Papua province. All other field work was being done in two districts of NTT and one district of NTB.

56. Overall, the CSD and the CP sharpened the relevance of the WFP portfolio on the basis of detailed consultation with the GoI and the use of FSVA and other data for analytical and targeting purposes. With their continuing emphasis on disaster response and preparedness, now focused on capacity development support for the new National Agency for Disaster Risk Management (BNPB) and some provincial and district EPR structures, they explicitly addressed the humanitarian needs that regularly arise during and after Indonesia’s many natural disasters.

Alignment with national agenda and policies

57. During the review period, WFP made good progress in aligning its portfolio and strategies with the national agenda and policies. Although there was not complete technical congruence in all areas (such as MCN), WFP made increasing efforts to acknowledge GoI ownership of the policies, strategies and institutions to which it was contributing, and signed the **Jakarta Commitment on Aid for Development Effectiveness** in 2009 (¶16 above). Table 3 below summarises the evaluation team’s assessment of the overall alignment of WFP’s 2009–2013 portfolio with the intentions of this agreement.

58. However, interviews with WFP, GoI and observers indicate that the mainstreaming of WFP inputs into national processes and structures was somewhat hampered by the importance of relations with two, rather than one, coordinating ministries. WFP’s formal counterpart coordinating ministry was Bappenas, the Ministry of National Development Planning. But key areas of WFP concern, notably disaster management and nutrition, fell under Menkokesra, the coordinating Ministry of People’s Welfare. Both relationships were valuable for WFP, but coordination with one does not guarantee coordination with the other. Some interviewees suggested that Menkokesra would be a preferable primary partner; others pointed out that Bappenas has a programme budget, unlike Menkokesra, and has links to some aspects of food security (like agriculture) that Menkokesra lacks.

Table 3 WFP alignment with Jakarta Commitment principles 2009–2013

Jakarta Commitment principles	WFP alignment
Stronger national ownership in defining aid architecture and processes.	Steady progress towards national ownership (see above).
A shift from a donor-recipient relationship to a paradigm of equal and innovative partnerships.	Progress made, although GoI still often assumes that WFP takes the technical lead.
Moving from financial assistance to a more strategic and catalytic role of aid.	Progress made; GoI recognises limits on WFP financial inputs and has committed to help fund WFP operations in country.
Transition from scattered project-based assistance to a more programmatic approach.	WFP approach is more programmatic, although geographically scattered prototypes not fully integrated.
Stronger focus on capacity development and results orientation embedded in national programmes.	Capacity development has moved to centre of WFP programming, but this commitment only partially reflected in GoI stance. Less reference on either side to results orientation.
Greater mutual accountability and alignment between the government and international partners.	WFP and the GoI have made progress in this regard.

Wording of Jakarta Commitment principles taken from WFP, 2011p: 4 and checked against GoI, 2009b.

59. Annex M presents a more detailed assessment of WFP alignment with the national agenda and policies through the five years of the portfolio under review.

Alignment with partners

60. In the field of MCN, UNICEF and WFP were well aligned in acknowledging the need to move towards an approach that supports the government by providing technical assistance and demonstrating technical innovation models. WFP was one of many agencies committed to more emphasis on nutrition education, infant and young child feeding (IYCF) counselling and behaviour change. There was less consensus on distributing complementary foods through the *posyandu*. The Lancet Series 2013 (an update of the 2008 series that showed similar findings and originally influenced WFP strategy in Indonesia) lists ten evidence-based interventions to improve maternal and child under-nutrition, one of which is “appropriate complementary feeding education in food secure populations and additional complementary food supplements in food insecure populations” (Bhutta et al., 2013). The WFP nutrition policy 2012 also has an objective to “increase local production of nutritious food products and local fortification whenever possible and required” (WFP, 2012j: 8). Although there was an evidence-based rationale for complementary food distribution, some partners questioned whether it was contextually appropriate in Indonesia.

61. Interviews with many donor and NGO stakeholders revealed agreement that the approach to address stunting should be holistic and multisectoral, as emphasised by the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement, in which WFP and a number of partners

are participants. Interviews suggested that other agencies recognised the need to promote constructive private sector engagement with nutrition issues, as WFP has done. But some expressed reservations about private sector behaviour, for example contraventions of the Breast Milk Substitute Code, and have not sought private sector partnerships in the way that WFP did.

62. UNICEF and WFP achieved a landmark result by getting nutrition included in the RPJMN. The national FNAPs are also a result of this successful collaboration. In general though, communication among nutrition stakeholders at national level was weak. Many interviewees, including government, UN and civil society staff, did not know what WFP's MCN activities were.

63. WFP did not make significant attempts to align its portfolio with those of Indonesian NGOs, although it did contract Animasi to deliver food to *posyandus*. There was some strategic alignment with international NGOs. For example, WFP collaborated with the International Committee of the Red Cross in capacity development for the BNPB. It sought complementarity with Action Contre la Faim (ACF), which had greater capacity in the field of nutritional behaviour change, but these arrangements had not been finalised by the end of the review period. There was some discussion on possible collaboration on nutrition issues with Helen Keller International (HKI) and the Global Alliance for Improved Nutrition (GAIN), although GAIN did not fulfil its original commitment to undertake the M&E component of Project Laser Beam.

64. While the WFP portfolio largely achieved formal alignment with the strategies and programmes of partners, this did not guarantee complementarity – or, better still, synergy. At the national level, some synergy was achieved through the agreed complementarity between WFP and UNICEF. In the field of EPR, operational problems meant that the agreed division of labour between WFP and other agencies, notably AusAID and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), did not result in synergy. Meanwhile, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) appeared to play an increasingly important, but parallel, role in support to EPR work in Indonesia.

65. Interviews in various UN agencies revealed a lack of enthusiasm for the **UN Partnership for Development Framework** (UNPDF) and the concept of 'One UN'. They reported that the UNPDF in place during the latter part of the review period, and the monthly meetings of the UN Country Team, had been of limited effectiveness as instruments for the coordination and harmonisation of the various programmes of UN work. Although official documents (including those of WFP) all said the right things about alignment and coordination, in practice there was limited practical collaboration and still less genuine synergy. Instead, interviewees reported, a 'silo' mode of operations persisted and there was a degree of competition among some agencies. Some of those interviewed, despite their affiliations, had only a vague idea about WFP's activities. The Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs did achieve coordination, but there was no evidence of synergy resulting in the EPR sector.

66. At provincial level, coordination generally prevented overlap or duplication of efforts. But it did not promote collaboration or synergy. Indeed, provincial and district governments' prevention of overlap between international organisations limited opportunities to develop and deliver integrated approaches to issues such as MCN or food security, which are by definition multi-faceted and complex. Nevertheless, the

mission observed that, as is typically the case, communication and collaboration proved easier at provincial and district levels than in the capital.

Alignment with WFP strategy and standards

67. The PRRO document keyed the planned activities to the **Strategic Objectives** (SOs) set out in the 2008–2013 Strategic Plan (SP). It stated that these activities would contribute to all five SOs (WFP, 2007a: 8), providing details in its logical framework. The CSD applied more focus to the WFP portfolio in Indonesia: “the focus of the CS is on three Strategic Objectives... of the 2008–2013 Strategic Plan: SO2 – Preventing acute hunger and investing in disaster preparedness and mitigation measures, SO4 – Reducing chronic hunger and under-nutrition. SO5 – strengthening national and local capacity, will be integrated throughout both SO2 and SO4 work” (WFP, 2011p: 14–15). These commitments were mirrored in the CP, with the logical framework again mapping CP components against SOs (WFP, 2011g: 18–20).

68. WFP Indonesia’s shift from a focus on five to a focus on three SOs in the course of the review period reflected its transition, in the local context, towards food assistance. Most significant, and presaging the mainstreaming of capacity development in the 2014–2017 SP, was the decision in the CSD to integrate capacity development throughout WFP’s work in the country, as reflected in the structure of the CP.

69. The portfolio was duly aligned with WFP’s 2009 **capacity development policy**, although in this relatively new area for the organisation alignment on paper was to prove much easier to achieve than effective compliance in practice. Although designed before the organisation’s **nutrition policy** was approved in 2012, WFP’s MCN work in Indonesia was broadly in line with it. The portfolio was not able to align with or achieve all eight of the standards set out in the 2009 **school feeding policy**, although good progress was made towards the concept of home-grown school feeding. Overall, the portfolio under review did not contradict the WFP **gender policy** of 2009, but there is limited evidence of active effort to fulfil it, although gender mainstreaming was incorporated in technical assistance provided in development of FNAPs at provincial and district level, as well as the Climate Change and Food Security Action Plan in NTB. The Indonesia portfolio was not alone in displaying weak implementation of the gender policy (Betts *et al.*, 2014).

70. Annex O presents a more detailed assessment of alignment with these WFP thematic policies. Implementation performance in these various fields is discussed in section 2.3.

Strategic positioning

71. Optimal strategic positioning of the WFP portfolio in Indonesia would make best use of the organisation’s **comparative advantage** in the country and respond constructively to the **context** in which it works there. Achieving this would obviously require an accurate understanding of what WFP’s comparative advantage is, and what the implications of the context are.

72. The idea of building strategy on the basis of **comparative advantage** was not reflected in the PRRO document, which did not mention the concept. The CSD, however, did specify what WFP’s comparative advantage was considered to be: its track record in emergency response; its catalyst role with vulnerability assessment and mapping (VAM) work; its “experience in food based social safety net and field level

networks in the food insecure districts”; the potential to procure food in Indonesia for WFP operations locally and abroad; and its “relevant experience to mainstream climate change adaptation work” (WFP, 2011p: 12–13). Although closely aligned with the CSD, the CP did not refer to building on WFP’s comparative advantage in the years ahead.

73. Once it had adopted the CSD and launched the CP, however, WFP was committed to making the best use of its comparative advantage through capacity development and advocacy in the various sectors it was to cover. This important dimension of its performance is assessed in the relevant parts of section 2.3 below.

2.2 Factors and quality of strategic decision-making

Factors in WFP strategic decision-making

74. WFP’s activities at the start of the period, as represented by the PRRO and the WFP Logistics Support Unit, do not appear to have been based on a comprehensive review of the changing circumstances in Indonesia. Instead, although the PRRO was keyed to the 2008–2013 Strategic Plan, the portfolio was a fairly conventional set of WFP work areas, of the kind on which the organisation had traditionally focused: MCN, school feeding, and other food delivery through FFW and food for training (FFT). The PRRO document did emphasise the importance of capacity building, for VAM, early warning, nutritional awareness and ‘enhanced commitments to women’ (ECW). But it offered no justification of the strategic choices on the basis of comparative advantage. It did not refer to Indonesia’s MIC status (attained in 2003) or what this might mean for WFP’s role and opportunities. One key implication of this status was reduced funding for WFP work in a country where the government’s own resources were growing significantly. Although it cannot be conclusively proved, interviews in WFP have suggested that the PRRO represented an assumption, following strong funding in the period of post-tsunami relief, that WFP would be able to continue with ‘business as usual’ in Indonesia. Design of the PRRO thus missed an opportunity to adapt to rapidly changing circumstances. In fact, funding and operational circumstances had deteriorated to such an extent by early 2009 that serious consideration was being given to a second closure of the CO. It was not until the final Budget Revision (BR), extending the PRRO to the end of 2011, that the changing context received more explicit attention: “as Indonesia emerges as a middle income country, traditional public sector funding has reduced drastically. Therefore, WFP has had to adjust its activities to the level of resources available and forecasted.” (WFP, 2010g: 2).

75. Instead of closing, the CO reinforced the WFP presence in Indonesia from 2009. The CSD, and the CP that was based on it, represented a new wave of more comprehensive strategic thinking by WFP about Indonesia and how it could add value there and adapt to the necessities of the evolving context (WFP, 2011o: 16). The CSD proposed “an innovative, non food-based Country Programme” (WFP, 2011p: 16). The shift from the PRRO format to the more creative and responsive opportunities offered by a CP was appropriate and overdue – although institutional circumstances may have prevented the CO from making it any earlier.

76. Significantly, like the PRRO BR quoted above, the CSD referred to Indonesia’s MIC status and its consequences, including much stronger GoI ownership of the development process and the signing of the Jakarta Commitment (see ¶157 above). It cited “lack of donor support of WFP’s transition and funding gaps in an emerging MIC context” as a major risk. In a prescient summary of the deteriorating funding environment, it stated that “given Indonesia’s low MIC status, there is less and less

interest among traditional donors for the food programmes WFP is implementing through its PRRO. Tonnage-based funding makes it difficult to manage the transition and ongoing advocacy efforts to get donor buy-in on the shift to food assistance may take time to bear fruit. Serious funding shortfalls lead to reactive planning and partnerships cannot be fully leveraged. Regarding multilateral resources, only 10% of funds are available for MICs after allocation to the priority countries.” (WFP, 2011p: ii, 16)

77. However, while committing WFP to working in the framework of GoI ownership, and to a focus on capacity development, the CSD did not adequately identify strategies to address the changing funding environment. Referring again to chronic under-funding and the need to reduce staff numbers, it identified the need for revised skill sets among WFP personnel, but did not clearly identify how these skills could be deployed on a much reduced budget. Instead, with what hindsight suggests was excess optimism, the CSD proposed expanded fund raising strategies. These were to include securing money from the GoI and from the private sector, notably through Project Laser Beam (PLB) that HQ had recently launched (WFP, 2011p: 17; see ¶173 below). By the end of the review period, the 2013 SPR for the CP was emphasising that resource mobilisation was a dominant concern and that “continuous” reviews of staffing levels had been necessary (WFP, 2014a: np). Despite hopes in the CO of light at the end of the tunnel and their significant success in securing (but not promptly receiving) a GoI subvention, funding remained an unresolved challenge for WFP in Indonesia.

78. Although the CSD emphasised the central role of **capacity development** in WFP’s future programming, it did not give enough attention to the significant shift in staff skills that this role would require. It did speak of the need for new “soft skills” in the CO (WFP, 2011p: 16) and of the restrictions that “chronic under-funding” placed on recruitment of staff with these skills – a constant problem in this and other fields. But it did not mention capacity development abilities, which are a significant step from the technical skills that WFP staff typically possess.

79. WFP’s strategic decision-making would have benefited from use of the organisation’s own NCI tool, which would have helped it to assess its capacity development challenges and target its capacity development interventions more effectively. Table 4 below summarises the evaluation team’s analysis of WFP’s strategic thinking and action in this regard during the review period (2009–2013) and beyond (see Annex L). It refers to the six steps of the NCI, with an additional ‘Step 0’: the identification of key partners, including direct partners,⁷ with whom the programme needs to work to achieve its goals, and policy makers whom the programme needs to influence to create sustainable and institutionalised changes in the way the host government delivers results to the most vulnerable.

Table 4 Capacity development approaches, 2009–2013 and 2013–2014

		2009 – 2013				2013 – 2014			
		0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
Step 0	Identify direct partners and policy makers who need to be influenced through stakeholder analysis		X				X		

⁷ Direct partners are the agencies, ministries, civil society organisations and private sector companies that WFP seeks to influence through intense designed interactions.

		2009 – 2013				2013 – 2014			
		0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3
Step 1	Build a common vision around one or more clearly stated development (goals).	X					X		
Step 2	Identify CD Problems and Opportunities through Institutional Diagnosis.	X					X		
Step 3	Identify Solutions (Outputs) to Capacity Problems as a Critical Path to Achieve the Commonly Defined Development Goal	X						X	
Step 4	Formulate a Strategy for Change with Defined Roles and Responsibilities	X						X	
Step 5	Agree on How to Track and Assess Progress towards Outputs and Validate Strategy with Stakeholders	X					X		
Step 6	Use a “Trial and Error” Approach to Implement the Critical Path towards Desired Capacity		X					X	

0= No work carried out

1= Some ad hoc work done, ephemeral, poorly documented and WFP-focused

2= Some unstructured work carried out, mostly responsive with some input from partners

3= Structured activities and analysis carried out with direct partners and proactive interventions

80. By the end of the review period, however (2013–2014 in Table 4 above), there was a marked improvement with regard to planning for capacity development, with a more systematic approach focusing on the individual, organisational and institutional levels. Recent planning documents reviewed by the evaluation team (WFP, 2012w; WFP, 2013p; WFP, 2014g) reflect a deeper understanding of the need to develop strong, open relationships with direct partners and to work together on the development of the capacity development plans.

81. In the **MCN** sector, WFP’s tradition has been to deliver food to target groups. The organisation retained this focus during the review period, using the recommendation of the Lancet Series (as updated in Bhutta et al., 2013) about the provision of complementary food in food insecure areas as justification. Neither the CSD nor the CP referred to any of WFP’s corporate policies. The WFP nutrition policy refers to the formulation of local nutritious products (WFP, 2012j: 8), which interviews suggest is an area in which the organisation believes it has a comparative advantage and in which the CP committed to work in Indonesia. The CP also emphasised a focus on appropriate nutrition during the first 1,000 days from conception, reflecting the focus of the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement in which WFP has participated.

Design logic and theories of change

82. Section 1.3 above (¶38–¶44) outlined the analytical work that WFP undertook in the course of developing and implementing the portfolio under review. The discussion below assesses the theories of change that evolved through the five years of the portfolio. (For discussion of the theory of change concept, see WFP, nd.g; Carter, 2012; Vogel, 2012; and the Inception Report for this evaluation (Turner et al, 2014: Annex L.) WFP’s strategy for Indonesia over the review period was not consistent and did not represent a single theory of change. The period can be divided into an early phase, dominated by the design of the PRRO, and a later phase, guided by the CSD.

83. The **PRRO** document included a logical framework, but this did not set out an integrated theory of change. Instead, it simply anticipated that there would be nutritional improvements for beneficiaries at assisted health posts and for children at assisted schools; that attendance at these schools would improve; that beneficiaries’

knowledge, attitudes and practice would improve; and that, through FFW and FFT, the livelihoods of vulnerable groups would be enhanced. Assumptions were stated, mainly about continuing government commitment. Sustainability, replication and upscaling were not directly addressed, although a paragraph on exit strategy said that “transfer of ownership of school feeding programmes to provinces and districts will be sought” and “WFP plans to phase out completely (from nutritional interventions for children aged 6 – 24 months in *posyandu*) if complementary resources are committed and a Government strategy is in place before the end of the PRRO” (WFP, 2007a: 10).

84. The PRRO was clear in its emphasis on collaboration with government, capacity development and alignment with government policy, and did represent WFP’s shift from food aid to food assistance. But it remained a conventional package of standard WFP interventions with little integration of its components and little explanation of how it would achieve larger-scale, sustained change in Indonesia.

85. BR 7 for the PRRO included a revised logical framework, but did not offer an explanation of how integration would be achieved or how the planned outcomes would lead to sustained impact at scale.

86. The **CSD** presented a careful analysis of context, needs, challenges and policy in contemporary Indonesia. The accuracy of its targeting was enhanced by its many references to the 2009 Food Security and Vulnerability Atlas (FSVA) that WFP had helped to produce. The nutrition gap analysis undertaken in 2010 was an important input too (WFP, 2010o).

87. However, the **CSD’s theory of change** was, at best, implicit. Focusing, understandably, on strategy – how WFP would work – it did not explain how that strategy and its operational focus would achieve its intention: “to partner with the GoI as a catalyst in achieving food and nutrition security for all Indonesians, particularly the most vulnerable, while laying the foundations for Indonesia to become a global champion against hunger” (WFP, 2011p: 13).

88. The need for an explicit theory of change was heightened by the CSD’s recognition that WFP’s direct interventions would now be on a very small scale: not directly achieving food and nutrition security for beneficiaries, but influencing others (primarily the GoI) to do so. The CSD launched the concept of ‘prototyping’ into the WFP portfolio in Indonesia. Informants state that it was a GoI colleague who suggested this word rather than ‘piloting’. Whichever term is used, it implies a theory about how small model interventions can lead through major advocacy, demonstration and capacity development to much wider-scale adoption. No such theory was presented in the CSD.

Learning and adaptation

89. The format and content of SPRs are poorly suited to presentation of the key issues in the types of performance to which WFP should be committed in countries like Indonesia. Focusing more on policy and advocacy than on logistics, the WFP CO in such a country should be a reflective, strategic, learning organisation for which M&E is, consequently, a core function. Several interviews in the CO confirmed that, rather than serving as the apex of such a learning organisation’s annual cycle of monitoring, assessment and reporting, fed directly from a subordinate structure of data collection and analysis across the work programme in the CO, the format of the WFP SPR is not conducive to reflective reporting on food assistance activities. It still appears to reflect the organisation’s food aid heritage. It does not encourage a monitoring focus on the

qualitative achievements in capacity development and advocacy that should be as important to a MIC CO as the empirical information about numbers of beneficiaries or quantities of food. Under a heading titled 'Management', the SPR does include a subsection on 'Lessons Learned', but there seems to have been little compulsion to offer a detailed review of experience in this section. Through most of the review period, the CO only offered very brief statements of lessons learned in its SPRs.

90. Monitoring and evaluation are the essential foundations for learning and adaptation. As noted above, WFP did not undertake any external evaluations of its work in Indonesia during the review period. Interviews in the CO revealed no evidence that WFP monitoring systems during the review period were capable of capturing changes at the levels of outcomes or impacts. Nor is there clear evidence of systematic feedback to communities or beneficiaries. GoI interviewees at district level indicated that WFP was slow and weak in providing feedback on the results of research or monitoring to them. Like evaluation, monitoring requires resources. Budget shortfalls were one reason for inadequate monitoring through most of the period, although there were significant improvements towards the end with a more systematic approach to the monitoring and assessment of performance across the portfolio and better communication between the M&E team and thematic groups in the CO (reflected, for example, in the 2013 SPR of the CP). Like many organisations, WFP was thus behind the curve in its learning and adaptation during the review period, although the urgency of the funding situation and the arrival of fresh management did intensify the strategic reflection taking place in the CO in 2013.

91. In its straitened circumstances, the CO thus had to focus largely on the monitoring and reporting of inputs and outputs during the review period, delivering the data required by the SPR format but starting to apply more meaningful monitoring tools from 2013. In practical terms, however, there was evidence of strategic and operational shifts that reflected evolving policy and experience. In the MCN sector, for instance, WFP stopped distributing biscuits to children aged two to five years after adopting the SUN focus on the first 1,000 days (although budget constraints also played a role in this). Lessons were also learned in the school feeding sector, for example in the plan to shift to cash transfers to schools in Papua and in new arrangements for schools to pay for sugar out of their operational budgets.

92. There is limited evidence that WFP benchmarked its plans and performance in Indonesia against those of WFP and other organisations elsewhere. As just noted, development of MCN interventions was integrated with evolving strategy in this field across Indonesia and globally, notably through the SUN movement. EPR work, too, reflected the regional and national context of various organisations' roles and approaches.

Impact on national agenda and analytical capacity

93. As its partner governments become better resourced and more technically competent, the nature of WFP's strategic decision-making process is likely to evolve. Increasingly, this process becomes a mutual, shared exercise in developing the national agenda, within which WFP has specific contributions to make. The extent to which this was achieved is assessed for each sector of the portfolio in section 2.3 below.

94. Ultimately, the Indonesian institutional context requires that agreed policy revisions must be accompanied by regulations. Improved implementation requires not only that the policies, regulations and guidelines be in place, but also the political will and capacities to deliver at national as well as local levels. These are complex

challenges. During the review period, WFP did not fully achieve all the links in this chain in any of its areas of intervention. The implications of these findings for the effectiveness of the prototype strategy in the WFP Indonesia portfolio are developed in section 2.3 below.

2.3 Portfolio Performance and Results

95. The principal task in the evaluation of a WFP portfolio in a country like Indonesia is to assess upstream performance in developing prototypes, building capacity and advocating approaches. This analysis of portfolio performance and results therefore assesses effectiveness, sustainability and efficiency from a largely strategic perspective, aiming to explain strengths and shortcomings in the development of approaches and the achievement of impacts that are likely to be relevant in the context of countries like Indonesia. WFP is still determining what its stance and strategy should be in MICs. The period under review was certainly a time of learning for the organisation in Indonesia. But it is hoped that the performance review offered here will be instructive in this regard (O, ¶17).

Effectiveness and sustainability

Vulnerability Assessment and Mapping

96. Although nutrition mapping and surveillance was specified as one of the capacity building activities of the PRRO, no performance indicators were specified for this in the logical framework (WFP, 2007a: 13, 18–21). The logical framework for the CP does specify an ‘output’ in this area: “increased national capacity to monitor, analyse and map food and nutrition security” (WFP, 2011g: 18). The SPR format that is still in use for CPs does not allow for systematic reporting against the performance indicators of a logical framework. However, the narrative of the more recent SPRs for the Indonesia CP does provide indirect evidence of programme effectiveness with regard to VAM (WFP, 2013e; WFP, 2014a). WFP was directly involved in the production of the national FSVA and two provincial ones. The Indonesian authorities have replicated provincial atlases in over 20 provinces. These provide mapping down to the sub-district level, but there is no direct evidence from the SPRs or elsewhere that they are being used at that level, as anticipated by the logical framework. Nor has the evaluation team seen evidence of the other VAM performance indicator: that a national food and nutrition security surveillance (FNSS) method is being used at the village level. (The FNSS system does continue to function, although a WFP-supported innovation for the use of mobile phone technology to transmit data from village level was unsuccessful because of turnover of trained staff and, reportedly, the inability of some older village-level personnel to master the system.)

97. The PRRO document stated that the WFP VAM Unit would continue production of a monthly Early Warning Bulletin. WFP worked with the National Aeronautics and Space Agency to produce 48 of these bulletins between 2006 and 2011. The evaluation team was unable to gather evidence about how effectively they were used.

98. From the time the CSD was prepared, VAM played a central role in WFP’s joint analysis of food and nutrition security with the GoI (as shown by the analytical justification given for strategies presented in WFP, 2011p: 2 and WFP, 2011g: 6). Interviews with central and local government and with other stakeholders indicate that the succession of national and provincial FSVAs made progress with three functions. They served to advocate greater GoI awareness and better-targeted GoI action to tackle food insecurity and enhance nutrition. They helped to build the capacity of the FSA

and of provincial Food Security Offices (FSOs) to undertake VAM. Thirdly, these VAM outputs helped international and national partner agencies to target their own interventions in the food security and nutrition sector.

99. Interviews in GoI and other agencies confirmed the general consensus in WFP and the relevant GoI departments that the VAM work and its principal product, the FSVAs, have been effective – even though, as noted above, their mapping of food and livelihood insecurity is not necessarily the leading driver of decisions about government resource allocation. The fact that the national FSVA was officially launched by the President in 2010 is often cited as a success (WFP, 2011d), which it was in advocacy terms. But it did not necessarily mean that the FSVAs would be used effectively. Interviews in Kupang showed that the NTT provincial VAM process is well established, although there are regular operational difficulties in securing the required data and analysis from district level.

100. WFP made good progress towards sustainability in its VAM activities. Interviews with senior GoI management were unambiguous about the FSVA process being government owned, and emphasised that if WFP were to disappear this process would continue with government’s own technical and financial resources.

101. Interviews in GoI and development agencies confirmed that the national and provincial FSVAs are widely known and used – even though the spatial analysis that they supply may not always be the primary driver of resource allocation. Thus, the demand for this output is sustainable, as well as the supply. From a strategic perspective, therefore, WFP’s VAM efforts had sustainable results: the concept of mapping vulnerability and using the maps to help target food security interventions is now widely accepted in Indonesia, and those responsible for the interventions know where to get the mapping they need.

Emergency Preparedness and Response

102. By definition, EPR was not part of the PRRO, but the two Special Operations and the IR-EMOP made important contributions that exploited what was generally acknowledged by many interviewees in the sector to be the organisation’s particular comparative advantage in emergency logistics and telecommunications. This perceived competence and role continued to drive EPR strategy during the CP, although – as will be shown below – the effectiveness of these interventions was limited.

103. No direct evaluative evidence is available on the performance of the long-running Special Operation that provided the WFP Logistics Support Unit from 2007 to 2012. By 2012, the final resources of the Special Operation were being used for capacity development in the BNPB and Local Disaster Management Agencies (BPBDs). Earlier capacity development efforts of the Special Operation were focused on the Aceh Disaster Risk Management Agency and its district affiliates (WFP, 2011e: np).

104. One of the three components of the CP is to “enhance Indonesian capacity in disaster preparedness and response” (WFP, 2011g: 11). In addition to FFA work intended to enhance resilience to climate change – and the ongoing workload imposed by the need to respond to several medium-scale emergencies – this component was largely concerned with institutional development and capacity building in the BNPB and provincial BPBDs. The SPR format does not provide for reporting according to the performance indicators in the logical framework, and the only data on the EPR indicators that are presented in the SPRs for the CP concern outputs for which the

logical framework set no targets: the numbers of government staff trained (WFP, 2013a: np; WFP, 2014a: np).

105. From the establishment of the BNPB in 2008, WFP aimed to play a major role in the development of the new institution, beginning with the focus on Aceh through the Special Operation, and later at national level and in other provinces through the final period of the Special Operation and through Component 2 of the CP. However, several interviews in WFP and other emergency relief agencies indicated that the effectiveness of these efforts was limited, as explained in ¶106 below. Although it continued to be respected for its expertise in logistics and telecommunications, WFP's reputation as an EPR support agency suffered significantly in Indonesia as a result of these problems: with the GoI and with other international agencies. One externally funded project was terminated in 2010 because of perceived poor performance. Another more recent one ran into severe difficulties, with complaints from the BNPB to the funder about WFP's poor performance. By the end of the review period, the CO and OMB had recognised the need for urgent efforts to rescue and rebuild WFP's competence and profile in its institutional and capacity development support role for BNPB and the BPBDs.

106. On the basis of multiple interviews, the nature and causes of WFP's ineffective EPR performance can be summarised as follows. First, WFP was slow to recognise the reality of BNPB being an Indonesian institution that sought to assert Indonesian ownership and leadership in the EPR sector. Initially, WFP used mostly international WFP training materials and failed to consult adequately with the BNPB and other stakeholders in the planning and implementation of its capacity development efforts. A second problem was common to many sectors of WFP effort (and is widespread among other organisations too). A performance indicator in the CP logical framework is the number of staff members trained in EPR (WFP, 2011g: 19). The SPRs show that 1,277 staff (63.9 percent of the target) were trained in "disaster and climate risk management" in 2013 and 548 (78.8 percent of the target) in 2013 (WFP, 2013e: np; WFP, 2014a: np). This reveals the false assumption that carrying out training exercises equals capacity development. Thirdly, WFP's under-performance in Indonesia was symptomatic of a broader problem: the failure to appreciate that technical specialists (for example, logistics experts) are not necessarily good trainers and are even less likely to be competent institutional development specialists. Too much of WFP's institutional development effort in the EPR sector was undertaken by technical specialists rather than institutional development experts. Furthermore, WFP failed to read the political and institutional signals coming from the leadership of the new BNPB and did not field the required senior, sensitive personnel with an appropriate understanding of decision-making and leadership in such GoI structures.

107. Fourthly, however, there is no doubt that the emerging BNPB was a difficult structure to understand; that its leadership was sometimes erratic and often changing; that its components operated in silos with inadequate communication or coordination; and that to agree and then implement a joint work programme with it was extremely challenging. Faced with these multiple institutional complexities, all WFP could do was offer technical solutions, trying to apply technical training tools. It was unable to manage the politics of working with and within the BNPB and BNPDs, and developed a reputation as a weak partner in the development of Indonesian EPR.

108. At the end of the review period, the CO had acknowledged and understood this crisis in the effectiveness of its EPR work, and was expediting remedial measures – which included rebuilding relations with the leadership of BNPB and the relevant

international agencies. A new three-year EPR programme proposal was in preparation. This recognised the central importance of delivering competent institutional development skills, as well as established technical expertise, in WFP's EPR support to a well-resourced government.

109. Interviews in WFP and other emergency relief agencies suggest that the **sustainability** of WFP's efforts in the EPR sector declined during the review period. During the PRRO, the interventions in Aceh in the area of logistics led to sustainable capacity of the port authorities and agencies responsible for logistics. However, interviews indicate that WFP's capacity development efforts in the BNPB and (to a lesser extent) BPBDs did not achieve sustainable results. This was partly because of the weak implementation outlined above and partly because of the instability of the BNPB, which made it difficult to arrange capacity development inputs and unlikely that staff participating in them would stay in their roles (or the institution) for very long.

Maternal and Child Nutrition

110. Under the PRRO the main monitoring activity was Beneficiary Contact Monitoring, which focused on checking food commodity stock against distribution. Data collection consisted of the number of beneficiaries disaggregated by gender (see also Annex K). Since no baseline and endline surveys were conducted and Riskesdas surveys in 2007 and 2010 used different sampling frames, it is difficult to ascertain the impact on wasting.

111. Under the CP, WFP started collecting anthropometric data from 30 sentinel sites from the last quarter of 2012. While this is mainly for monitoring purposes, WFP have started doing some initial crude analysis of impact.

112. Most stakeholders agree that there is doubt about the accuracy of Riskesdas monitoring data at sub-national level. Stunting levels amongst the sample for anthropometric monitoring by WFP have fluctuated around 54.5 percent. While the impact on the prevention of stunting would take three years to demonstrate (the duration of the 'window of opportunity'), small changes in stunting may be visible as stunting is 'treated' during this window and there is catch-up growth.

113. The Riskesdas data showed a wasting prevalence in children under 5 of 14.0 percent in 2013. From WFP's anthropometric data the wasting prevalence among children under 2 has decreased from 10.5 percent in Q4 2012 to 8.5 percent in Q4 2013. Whilst there are significant comparability issues with this exercise that limit the conclusions that can be drawn, it does highlight WFP's acknowledgement that demonstrating impact is important. This is also reflected in the ongoing effectiveness trial comparing the impact of MPASI and LNS on peaks in wasting during the lean season.

114. In a strategy through which prototype results are intended to influence the GoI, those results have to be based on sound evidence. Under Project Laser Beam (described in ¶173 below), GAIN had agreed to carry out the M&E component, which would have produced a baseline from which to analyse the impact of stunting. Because PLB lost traction due to issues arising from the global level, GAIN did not honour this commitment. By the end of the review period no firm plans had been formulated on how to determine the impact of the MCN programme on stunting. Importantly also, given that poor caring practices have been identified by causal analysis as a strong determining factor in under-nutrition and that many stakeholders believe that education and positive deviance/hearth approaches of intra-community support are

more appropriate in Indonesia than distributing food, no steps were taken to compare different packages of interventions.

115. WFP was aware of sharing of the food commodities throughout the evaluation period. A review of 2013 by its M&E team found that although consumption of MPASI by the intended beneficiaries was high at the start of 2013, sharing increased throughout the year.

116. The sharing of fortified biscuits is more widespread. According to WFP data, at the end of the review period only a third of mothers were consuming the biscuits as intended. This is consistent with findings from focus group discussions (FGDs) conducted during the evaluation mission, which found that MPASI is shared but not extensively, while the sharing of biscuits is widespread. This would yield a plausible suggestion that the distribution of biscuits to pregnant and lactating women is having little impact.

117. WFP staff confirmed in interviews that the behaviour change component of their Indonesia programme is weak, which is why they looked to partners such as ACF to fulfil that role. This view was supported by the evaluation team's visit to a *posyandu*, where education at the start of the session seemed to be a token gesture rather than anything meaningful. Furthermore, cadres reported that there was no individual counselling for mothers of children who were not growing satisfactorily, and that there was no link with other education and counselling activities operating in the community. In fact, a sample of growth charts indicated that they were not filled in correctly, so that cadres would find it difficult to know whether a child was faltering or not.

118. The approach of using findings from the MCN prototype to influence government policy was only partially effective. The substantial body of research, such as a cost of diet study, is a useful advocacy tool. But these have not come from the prototypes themselves. They are stand-alone exercises. Similarly, the inclusion of nutrition into the national medium-term development plan and the development of the national and provincial Food and Nutrition Action Plans were also not a result of the MCN prototype. Interviews with government staff revealed that they view the prototype as small-scale and not replicable, especially given the disparities across Indonesia; but also that they only have a vague grasp of the actual activities and their purpose. This lack of government ownership, interest and understanding, coupled with a lack of studies comparing the effect of different packages of interventions (encompassing both nutrition-specific and nutrition-sensitive) on nutrition outcomes, constitutes a lost opportunity and undermines the rationale for a prototype approach.

119. WFP made some progress towards **sustainability** in the MCN sector. The MCN programme was implemented through the national health system in the sense that local government staff and community workers conducted the *posyandu* nutrition activities each month. But because WFP, in collaboration with local NGOs, was still responsible for the food commodities pipeline, the MCN model was not sustainable – although the fact that the food commodities are produced in Indonesia was a positive factor. This is something that WFP acknowledged, identifying it in the 'lessons learned' exercise at the end of the PRRO. WFP considered alternative delivery mechanisms and developed proposals to implement a voucher system whereby the food commodities would be available in retail outlets and could be exchanged for vouchers, which mothers would still receive at the *posyandu*. At the end of the review period, it had not been successful in securing funding for this.

120. The government is responsible for distributing commodities during an emergency, which suggests that the health logistics system has some capacity. However, interviews at a *posyandu* indicated that there were often pipeline breaks in medicines delivered through the government health logistics system. Given the intention to shift to a voucher system, WFP did not explore closely whether strengthening the government logistics system would be feasible and worthwhile.

121. From the strategic perspective, WFP contributed to a broader and more sophisticated understanding of the nature of Indonesia's nutrition challenges (which now include the double burden – see ¶19) and of ways to tackle them – through closer collaboration between the GoI, multilateral and bilateral agencies, international and local NGOs, academic institutions and (last but definitely not least) the private sector. From this perspective, the nutrition landscape in Indonesia was significantly enhanced by the end of the review period, due partly to the roles that WFP played.

122. In conjunction with UNICEF, WFP succeeded in including nutrition in the medium-term development plan (RPJMN, 2010–2014) and in developing the National Food and Nutrition Action Plan as well as a provincial FNAP for NTT. On a local level, while the original intention of working with the District Health Office to collect data and monitor the programme was unsuccessful and of poor quality, WFP later turned to working with academic institutions to fulfil this role. This may prove a more sustainable approach, as some of these institutions have sound capacity in the relevant fields and will remain available to work with the GoI in the long term.

123. Despite this, at national level WFP's relationship with the GoI on nutrition issues was not as strong as it could have been. WFP's influencing capabilities were therefore limited. Interviews with the Ministry of Health (MoH) highlighted a lack of knowledge about the purpose of WFP's programme and what the exact activities were. Other development partners interviewed, although they might have been expected to be working closely with WFP in this sector, also did not know about WFP's MCN activities. These interviews suggested that WFP's relationship with the MoH had been fair but that its relationship with Bappenas, the National Planning Agency, was weak. At sub-national level, other than technical trainings on nutrition, no capacity development activities took place. At both national and sub-national levels, despite the policy and budget-sharing achievements, less commitment and enthusiasm was developed in the GoI for the MCN programme than for some other WFP activities, notably that observed at local level for school feeding.

School Feeding

124. As explained in ¶53 above, the design of school feeding interventions in the portfolio was not clear enough about their objectives: enhancing students' performance, improving their attendance, nutritional benefits or some combination of these, along with potential strengthening of the local economy. Baseline surveys by WFP in both Papua and NTT show that the majority of children have breakfast before leaving for the early start of the school day. Both staff and students at schools visited during the mission reported that school meals have improved concentration, as the students are hungry by 10 a.m. When there are no school meals the schools encourage parents to give money to their children to buy snacks, but the snacks available outside the school gate are of low nutritious value. It is a reasonable conclusion, therefore, that school meals do positively affect student concentration in the short term.

125. Affecting attendance was an objective under the PRRO rather than the CP, which focused more on physical and cognitive performance. The impact on attendance

is less clear. Staff interviewed said that there is no difference in attendance between days when school meals are served and days when they are not, but did say there had been an improvement in attendance since school meals had been in place, compared to when there were no school meals. The baseline survey conducted by WFP in NTT province indicates that attendance was high (96.3 percent in Kupang district and 99.5 percent in TTS district in 2009/10) due to government initiatives to support enrolment (Noveria et al, 2012: 82-83). WFP has been working with schools to obtain data on attendance. According to the CP SPR for 2013, girl attendance improved in Mollo Tengah sub district from 87.1 percent in November 2012 to 92.9 percent in December 2013 (WFP, 2014a: np).

126. In terms of nutritional benefits, the ongoing micronutrient powder (MNP) study should show whether there is an effect on micronutrient status among the students. Since school meals are given only three times a week, there are unlikely to be changes in anthropometry.

127. The evaluation team's FGD with students showed that nutrition education was part of their curriculum. Since school gardens were introduced towards the end of the review period it is understandable that they should appear effective in the short term. Whether this effectiveness is maintained will have to be monitored.

128. The CP document states that one aim of the school feeding programme is to "supplement the livelihood and income opportunities of the rural poor" (WFP, 2011g: 13). While WFP did purchase cereals and beans from local producers where possible, so far there are no data on the extent to which this supplements the livelihoods and income opportunities of the rural poor. It was not possible to investigate this during the timeframe of the evaluation mission.

129. Since advocacy and influencing are the fundamental reason for implementing prototypes, the effectiveness of the school feeding programme should be assessed in terms of how influential it has been. In some districts where WFP has undertaken these prototypes, there is government buy-in and ownership, and schools have started school feeding without WFP support. Government buy-in is an important achievement and is the basis of scaling up; so school feeding has been successful in that regard. However, WFP did relatively little to facilitate the expansion of school feeding to other districts and perhaps to other provinces, although by the end of the review period there was more acknowledgement in the CO that this is an opportunity that should be seized.

130. At national level advocacy and influencing have not occurred, mainly because the GoI has turned its focus away from school feeding to other issues. WFP seems to have concurred with this, rather than using the government ownership achieved at local level to demonstrate positive results and influence the national level. This is partly a result of a lack of capacity within WFP to adopt an advocacy role at national level and a lack of self-awareness of its potential access to government. With staff profiles still focused on the operational skills needed for emergency response and many of the available resources devoted to small-scale but time-consuming logistical operations in remote areas, the CO was unable to make much progress with this national level work.

131. In school feeding, WFP's promotion of Local Food Based School Meals (LFBSM) was a step towards **sustainability**. Certain aspects of the programme were sustainable. For example, the schools provided sugar and the parents contributed some items such as fruit and wood for cooking. However, WFP still purchased cereals and beans and provided MNP. The cash model used in Papua could be more sustainable,

but by the end of the review period WFP had not yet conducted a proper assessment to see whether the cash was being used properly, appropriate commodities were being purchased and meals were delivered correctly. Initial findings from WFP monitoring indicated that less cash was being used than was transferred and that total school meal days were falling short of the target. However, WFP recognised these challenges and planned to strengthen a financial monitoring tool.

132. School meals were cooked and served by mothers who volunteered to serve in cooking groups. In FGDs, mothers said that they were willing to take part in school feeding but were busy at certain times of year. This would not necessarily compromise sustainability, but would need to be recognised so that other members of the community, such as the elderly or unemployed, could be encouraged to participate during these times.

133. WFP made some strategic progress towards sustainability in the school feeding sector, but this was more at the level of participating districts than in Jakarta. Total sustainability will be achieved when the government fully funds school feeding. Given the traction achieved at sub-national level, this may be possible, but it would depend on productive relationships between WFP and the GoI at national level, stimulated by ownership by the government at local level leading to successful advocacy upstream. Another potential area of advocacy would be to influence districts outside the current target area to use their budgets for school feeding.

134. Although not mentioned in the CSD, interviews in Jakarta and experience internationally affirm WFP's comparative advantage in school feeding. This position was strengthened in Indonesia by the comparative dearth of agencies working in the sector, and more significantly by the enthusiasm of participating district authorities for the approaches that WFP was promoting. However, WFP did not harness this ownership to its fullest extent.

135. WFP had a limited relationship with the Ministry of Education at national level. It was difficult to determine the strength of the relationship with the Ministry of Home Affairs, as the evaluation mission was unable to meet them. But other interviews with GoI and development agencies suggest that it was not very robust. WFP did not attempt to advocate increased national government attention and funding for school feeding (possibly discouraged by the GoI's declining interest in this sector). It preferred to focus at district level. Even trying to expand the school feeding programme throughout NTT province was not a priority for WFP, and even at district level, capacity development exercises were scant. Exchange visits were arranged between some schools, and WFP tried to influence some curricula to give more space for nutrition education. In individual districts such as Kupang Rural and Jayapura, however, interviews with local officials show that considerable enthusiasm developed for school feeding and its potential related impacts on the local agricultural economy. Despite WFP's potential as a broker between the public, private and multilateral sectors, the intent of the prototyping concept was not achieved in the school feeding sector.

Food For Assets

136. The CSD's claim of "relevant experience to mainstream climate change adaptation work" was ambitious. Although WFP has enormous global experience in FFA activities (WFP, 2014j), and FFA approaches can be used to build land and water management systems that may alleviate the impacts of climate change, there is little evidence that the FFA work done during the review period in Indonesia demonstrated any comparative advantage in this regard. In the two sites visited, there was little

apparent input from WFP on approaches and methodologies of community organising, innovative technologies of climate change mitigation or influencing strategies to be used by communities to sustain or extend the work done (see, for example, WFP, 2014k, an earlier version of which was available during the review period). Other actors, especially Indonesian CSOs, are skilled in all the above areas and could have done this work more effectively both in terms of community empowerment and action and influencing policy and practice. WFP's strategic position was not advanced in this regard through implementation of the portfolio under review.

137. Apart from the nutrition monitoring and studies mentioned above, much of the empirical monitoring effort carried out by the CO during the review period concerned FFW, FFT and FFA activities, dating back to the PRRO. The stated objective of these interventions during the PRRO was “to contribute to improved food security for vulnerable food-insecure families... to build community capacities”. The main intention of FFW was “to rehabilitate/create assets to improve people’s resilience to disasters” (WFP, 2007a: 8, 11). The logical framework presented five outcome indicators and three output indicators for these activities. As ever, the SPR format did not accommodate empirical reporting against these indicators; instead, SPRs reported against different outputs listed under the SOs of the corporate Strategic Plan, with the line items reported varying from year to year of PRRO implementation (Annex N). There were occasional qualitative statements, e.g., “FFW outputs in land conservation and agro forestry resulted in improved livelihood opportunities and increased resilience against drought and other hazards” (WFP, 2010h: np). Meanwhile, as early as 2009 WFP was undertaking detailed baseline surveys in communities where FFW/T/A activities were planned (WFP, 2009).

138. The rationale for FFA work in the CP was presented as “contribute to increasing resilience to the impacts of climate change and enhancing vulnerable farmers’ capacity to cope. This will be achieved with food for assets, which will help to restore natural assets, thereby increasing the households’ resilience to drought and floods, and where appropriate human assets such as literacy and training for income generation. The food-for-assets strategy will focus on protecting the livelihoods of the most vulnerable families while they restore essential assets and address the issue of women’s workloads” (WFP, 2011g: 11–12). While the CP document is necessarily concise and was probably prepared before WFP’s new FFA manual with its three-pronged approach to FFA planning first became available in 2011, the CP’s approach in this regard would have benefited by adopting the process now recommended for “placing FFA in the country project document” (WFP, 2014l: 28): inter alia, assessing the extent of food insecurity, undertaking context and risk analysis, assessing capacity and determining how to dovetail the interventions with GoI policy and strategies.

139. FFA outputs achieved during the first two years of the CP are shown in Annex N, drawing again on the SPRs. The effectiveness of FFA and similar interventions must be assessed in the short and the medium to long term. In both time frames, effectiveness means, first, that the assets constructed are not just constructed – which is what the SPRs report, typically showing good levels of performance against plan (Annex N) – but are in satisfactory technical condition: the trees are growing, the dam holds water, the terraces are retaining soil. WFP reporting is silent on this, except in its reference to forests being not only planted but “established”, presumably meaning that the trees are alive and growing. Secondly, it means that participating households are enjoying better food security. Thirdly, effectiveness implies – where relevant – that

strong local institutions are coordinating the management of community assets and ventures, together with any benefit sharing that may be involved.

140. In the latter part of the review period, the CO made significant advances in undertaking baseline and follow-up surveys of communities engaged in WFP FFA activities, using some of the indicators now specified by the WFP manual on M&E of FFA (WFP, 2014m: 7). In 2013, two follow-up surveys were planned after baseline surveys done at the end of 2012. Presenting data on nine sites in TTS district at a CO meeting in September 2013, an internal monitoring presentation argued that “food consumption improved significantly (as a result of WFP food and maize harvest March/April)...; buying food on credit was common at the baseline but not at the first follow-up; Coping Strategy Index dramatically decreased...” (WFP, 2013n). These were mostly encouraging findings, although hardly surprising as they focused on enhanced short-term food security following WFP distribution of food. The evaluation team’s own field visits to just two recent FFA projects focused on the technical and institutional condition of the recently installed assets, again only in the short term. At one site, the infrastructure was functioning well and the local management structure (in place long before the WFP FFA intervention started) was equally strong. At the other site, the technical condition of an impressively large installation (several times bigger than planned) was poor, with few benefits evident even in the short term; and interviews with local leaders indicated that there was little community commitment to the maintenance of these assets, due partly to the weakness of local institutions. Why come to work here again, they reportedly asked, when there will be no more food for our work?

141. The medium- to long-term effectiveness of the FFA interventions along these technical, food security and institutional axes is much more important. On this sustainability, WFP is so far unable to present much evidence, although an undated research report apparently commissioned by the CO on PRRO experience found that “maintenance and sustainability of FFW program [*sic*] still need to be supported and improved by co-operating partners and local government... many of the asset creation and structures in internal village community [*sic*] do not yet seem to support asset creation services utilization, maintenance and sustainability for long period after FFW program end” (WFP, nd.h: 4). Global experience in this regard shows that short-term interventions may not achieve sustainable technical or institutional results (WFP, 2014m: ii, 19). Institutional structures, in particular, require long-term engagement in order to become robust enough for long-term management and maintenance of community assets. Individual land users, too, usually require follow-up support in order to maintain new practices. Such interventions are more usually sustainable if participants see them as in their long-term interest (rather than just for the period when food is provided) and, preferably, thought of the idea themselves. The WFP model, despite preparation and implementation in partnership with local authorities, did not provide for either technical or institutional maintenance. Experience (but not direct evidence) suggests that these multiple factors of sustainability were not in place at many of the sites where WFP supported FFA work.

142. To be effective on their own terms, these WFP FFA activities should be successful prototypes. In the districts and provinces visited, the government expressed an appreciation of the FFA approach and cited it (in one case) as good practice in terms of community engagement and buy-in. However, there is no evidence that these examples of good practice changed the way that the government works. Some of the reasons cited are the difficulty in budget arrangements of the GoI itself, which preclude

direct support to communities and villages, and the need to use a tendering process for relatively small amounts of funds. While this may be true, WFP did not appear to take such constraints into account in the design of its FFA projects. Nor, despite some high level visits from Jakarta, did WFP develop strategies to convince the GoI of the benefits of these approaches and ways of funding such community initiatives. In other words, the broader framework and rationale of a prototype were largely lacking. The scattered parts of WFP's many FFA efforts through the review period (sometimes quantitatively impressive, as Annex N shows) did not add up, as required, to more than the whole – although the potential to accomplish this is real, if the structured approaches set out in WFP's FFA guidance (WFP, 2014l) are comprehensively adopted.

143. There is no evidence of strategic sustainability in the FFA field. Local government does not appear to have changed the way it designs interventions to address climate change mitigation on the basis of sustainable community mobilisation. To be successful and sustainable, WFP would need to engage with government agencies at five key intervention points: at the design phase to ensure that climate change is on the agenda for the interventions; at the selection phase to choose villages that meet the relevant criteria; at the implementation phase to ensure that participation is widespread and there is local ownership of the solution; at the monitoring phase to ensure that evidence is collected and reflection takes place as to the success factors; and at the learning phase to ensure that decision makers are aware of the importance of community resilience and how to achieve it. While climate change is certainly on the national agenda in Indonesia, there is no evidence that WFP's FFA interventions have affected the construction or content of that agenda through systematic engagement at these points.

Efficiency

144. The Inception Report (IR) for this CPE indicated that it would focus on three issues related to efficiency, with particular reference to the prototyping approach that dominated the second half of the review period. There is no evidence that the relevant unit costs of prototype activities were adequately factored into their design and management. Nor were the costs of these activities appropriately monitored, so analysis of their cost-effectiveness was precluded. The cost implications of WFP's emerging strategy in this MIC were only beginning to be addressed fully at the end of the review period.

145. These issues are relevant, as the IR noted, because the focus of the prototyping approach is experimentation, demonstration, advocacy and eventual upscaling – so that the efficiency questions that might be asked about activities already operating at scale may be less pertinent. It could be argued that, in prototype work, higher costs per unit of delivery are acceptable because of the nature of the learning process and/or the small scale of operations; and that successful adoption of prototype approaches should lead to lower costs and higher efficiency as the scale of implementation expands.

146. The first of the three questions posed by the IR was whether the relevant unit costs of prototype activities – for the GoI as well as for WFP – were adequately factored into their design and management. There is no evidence that this was done. The CP budget offered no detailed cost breakdowns for any of the proposed prototype activities. Nor did the CP budget include any discussion of the likely degree of efficiency that would be attained, or of the factors that would affect this – such as the relatively small scale of operations. (The budget presentation was constrained by the still traditional WFP format of presenting food costs, direct operational costs, and direct

and indirect support costs.) The 2012 SPR presented a similarly conventional statement of activities and expenditures during the first year of the CP, without reflecting on cost effectiveness or the efficiency of the prototypes being implemented. The 2013 SPR was more discursive about the character and results of the prototypes so far, but – although it referred to careful monitoring and evaluation of prototypes in order to generate “evidence necessary to establish well-informed policy positions and advocacy materials” – it again failed to identify or assess the unit costs of these activities (WFP, 2014a: np). Given the extreme funding constraints afflicting the CP, it is striking that the SPR did not comment on this issue.

147. The second question was whether the costs as well as the effectiveness of these prototype activities were appropriately monitored – and what the implications were for their sustainability and scalability. Here again the answer is negative. Throughout the review period, CO management were acutely aware of the funding challenges that the portfolio faced. Interviews in the CO reveal that, towards the end of the period, new thinking emerged about how to contain its operating costs. But there was little or no focused analysis of how much MCN, school feeding, VAM or EPR work was costing per unit of delivery, or what this implied for sustained, upscaled adoption and implementation of the advocated approaches by the GoI. WFP was certainly aware of the budgetary limitations in government for some areas of the portfolio, notably school feeding. At the same time, although the use of LFBSM is acknowledged by the WFP school feeding policy as an appropriate approach in contexts like Indonesia, this approach is normally associated with higher costs. According to data supplied by the WFP School Feeding and Chronic Hunger Unit, WFP school meals in Indonesia cost USD 103.31 per child per year in 2012, compared with USD 12.96 for the supply of biscuits in 2011 and a global WFP average school meal cost of USD 40 per child per year over the period 2008–2012.

148. WFP was also aware of the cost implications of various MCN strategies, and at the end of the review period was assessing, for example, whether LNS would be a better choice to prevent wasting during the lean season than MPASI, given that MPASI may be only slightly more effective but costs more.

149. Overall, however, there was no analytical or operational focus on the efficiency aspects of the prototypes being undertaken. In the case of school feeding, the implicit assumption may have been that the operational and advocacy advantages of the LFBSM approach eclipsed any broader efficiency concerns.

150. The third question that was identified in the IR was what the cost implications (especially staff costs) of a prototyping, influencing and capacity development strategy are, and whether these are sufficiently factored into the way WFP operated in Indonesia during the review period.

151. The general, intuitive principle is that scattered, smaller-scale operations such as WFP’s prototypes during the latter part of the review period are unlikely to be cost-efficient – either in terms of field delivery or in terms of WFP staff costs. Interviews in the CO confirmed that unit costs were typically high in the Indonesia portfolio. However, one argument heard was that FFA was very cost-effective, at least from WFP’s perspective, because the GoI was providing many of the inputs. In fact, the evaluation team’s estimates suggest that the GoI contribution was only about 5 percent of the budget. The FFA modality was certainly cheaper than contracting the work out to the private sector; whether it would be more cost-effective, in terms of delivering a durable, high quality product, would depend on appropriate professional supervision.

152. At the end of the review period, the new management was aware that prototypes involving the delivery of food were not efficient; but interviews in the CO confirmed that no analysis of the issue had been done, although the desirability of a procurement study to look into it was confirmed. WFP, interviewees acknowledged, had no tools to focus on or monitor cost-effectiveness – although the M&E Unit was providing some data.

153. While prototyping can be expected to be expensive per unit of delivery – which can be justified if prototypes achieve their demonstration, advocacy and upscaling intent – there is no inherent reason why influencing and capacity development strategies should have adverse cost implications. Indeed, from a conventional WFP perspective these strategies can be significantly cheaper than the organisation’s traditional operations. Because they entail understanding and communicating effectively with Indonesian society and leadership, they mainly require the skills of Indonesian citizens, who are far cheaper to employ than internationally recruited WFP personnel. Throughout the review period, the CO continued to operate on conventional WFP staffing principles, with significant numbers of expatriate personnel. While this approach may have been more appropriate when high levels of technical expertise were required in portfolio operations, management was realising by the end of 2013 that the CP could be delivered at least as effectively with only one or two long-term expatriate staff in the CO, complemented by a larger number of senior (but much lower-cost) Indonesian specialists in advocacy and capacity development and supported, where necessary, by expatriate or local consultants delivering discrete technical services. Management was also aware that the overall efficiency of CO operations was compromised by the short-term staff contracts that funding uncertainties necessitated. Interviews in the CO revealed, not surprisingly, that these contracts – often for periods of less than 12 months – created operational discontinuities and impaired the stability and morale of the WFP team.

Capacity development

154. Overall, the portfolio’s increasing focus on capacity development over the review period was only modestly effective. Effectiveness and sustainable results were constrained by a narrow understanding of capacity development and limited competence and capacity in this field. Annex L presents a more detailed assessment of the portfolio’s performance with regard to capacity development.

155. Outside the VAM sector, the evaluation team’s review with CO staff of operations over the review period yielded little evidence that WFP contributed to the strengthening of GoI capacity for analysis and decision-making in its fields of operation. The focus in capacity development was mostly on increasing the technical capacity of staff, with limited emphasis on analytical capacity or on influencing decision makers. In interviews with the CO EPR team, it was noted that the most important factor in programme success was the ability of key subnational agencies (such as the BPBD and Department of Social Services (Dinas Sosial)) to advocate for EPR budgets and resources to both the executive (Bupati and Bappeda) and legislative (DPRD) branches of government. Little effort was made in this area.

156. There are several reasons why the capacity development focus in the CP did not lead to the development of a systematic strategy for capacity development and thus did not have the desired results.

157. The significant lack of funding for all WFP components and the ‘scramble for survival’ this shortfall engendered severely limited the time available for a systematic

exploration of capacity needs and the development of deeper relationships with direct partners, which were required for agreement on a capacity development plan for each direct partner.

158. There was (and remains) no focal point for capacity development within the CO with the relevant skills and knowledge to assist in (and to insist upon) the formulation of capacity development plans for each component.

159. The operational mind set and lack of organisational development experience of the staff teams in each component (with the possible exception of the VAM team) limited their ability to engage on the issue of capacity development with direct partners. In addition, very little capacity development support was provided from OMB or HQ levels to help CO staff in making the transition from food aid to food assistance.

160. While some tools such as the NCI, the capacity development toolkit and the capacity development strategy became available over the evaluation period, CO interviews indicate that without training and technical assistance, these tools were seen as somewhat impenetrable and difficult to use.

161. Among many humanitarian and development agencies, both in Indonesia and worldwide, there is a tendency to see capacity development as 'training' and little else, and a sense that anyone who possesses technical skills can successfully transfer those skills to others. This common perception of capacity development and the requisite skills does not take into consideration the need to address capacity at the individual, organisational and institutional levels.

162. Most training interventions were not well targeted, in terms of matching the materials to the people involved, and not strongly supported by other capacity development interventions such as technical assistance, tools and systems as well as an action reflection process to solidify the learning and influence the overall system including decision-making and allocation of resources.

163. As noted above, some interventions, such as logistics training with the BNPB and related agencies, introduced WFP materials used internationally. While these materials (facilitators' guides etc.) are of a relatively high standard, they were not developed together with Indonesian staff of the agencies involved and therefore did not gain support within the partner agency. This reflects the impact of limited efforts at relationship building and ensuring effective communication with partners.

164. The focus of the monitoring of capacity development activities was on inputs and activities and not on outputs and outcomes (i.e. what are the desired changes at individual, organisational and institutional levels; the changes in policies, systems and practice and the critical paths to their achievement). There was limited support from OMB and HQ in the systematic review of the WFP monitoring system to bring it into line with the capacity development approach of the CP.

165. In the new strategies, plans and proposals developed by each of the component areas at the end of the review period there was a marked improvement with regard to planning for capacity development. They demonstrated a more systematic approach to the individual, organisational and institutional levels. In addition, the new documents reflected a deeper understanding of the need to develop strong, open relationships with direct partners and to work together on the formulation of the capacity development plans.

Synergy and multiplier effects in the portfolio

166. Especially as a country moves from crisis to recovery (and perhaps to MIC status), and as WFP shifts from food aid to food assistance, integration of themes and activities within the organisation's country portfolios is likely to be more desirable, so that the whole WFP effort in the country becomes more than the sum of its parts. Effectiveness should thus be compounded. In the portfolio under review, there was limited progress in this regard.

167. The PRRO had an integrating theme: "the rehabilitation of nutrition and health education following the 1998 economic crisis, providing nutritional and recovery support for vulnerable families" (WFP, 2007a: 8). Although direct witnesses of that operation are now hard to trace, there is little evidence that its components complemented each other or achieved mutual multiplier effects. Until its last year, the PRRO was largely WFP business as usual: MCN and school feeding interventions along with FFW/T/A activities.

168. The carefully constructed **CSD**, on which the **CP** was based, presented a more thorough rationale for integration and complementarity (see Figure 2 above). However, this rationale was intellectually ambitious. It presented four "core areas of engagement" built around the concept of "prototyping high-impact and replicable interventions", including better M&E to improve knowledge management and advocacy of the approaches being developed through the prototypes. Throughout the country strategy, VAM was to be "the driving force of the activities" (WFP, 2011p: 13). After setting out these four "core areas of engagement", the CSD went on to specify the three "priorities", spanning eight "goals", which laid down what types of work WFP intended to do in Indonesia. The three "priority" work areas were shown as concentric circles around the four "core areas of engagement".

169. In practice, this elegant scheme had only limited effect in promoting synergy and multiplier effects within the portfolio as the CP was implemented. The VAM work did at least keep some of the other activities (notably MCN) on the same page in terms of spatial targeting. There is no evidence of more than thematic interaction between the EPR and FFA activities: these both related to Indonesian society becoming more resilient to short- and longer-term disasters and adversity, but in practice the work took place without much interface, let alone synergy. More significantly, school feeding (not mentioned in the CSD) and MCN activities were not linked operationally. Opportunities to track children given early nutrition support at the *posyandu* through to later support in school feeding were missed. The CO (and to a lesser extent) the sub offices succumbed to the usual organisational weakness of working largely in silos.

170. Two themes in the CSD and the CP should have had an integrating, synergistic effect. The first was the concept of prototypes. These restricted field activities were, after all, concentrated in a limited number of provinces and districts where interaction and joint advocacy might have helped WFP to deliver an integrated message. The second was the focus on capacity development, through which there were opportunities for the various work streams in the portfolio to collaborate, share strategy and add value together. The limited effectiveness of both these approaches was outlined above. The net result was that the work streams continued to operate – and to be perceived – in relative isolation from each other. Intensified monitoring towards the end of the review period did help to bring staff together for a combined review of performance in some, but not all, areas of the portfolio (FFA, MCN and school feeding).

171. However obvious and desirable the concept of synergy and multiplier effects between work streams in a WFP country portfolio may be, it is far harder to achieve in practice than it is to design on paper. Especially in a traditionally technical organisation like WFP, bringing different teams of specialists into an integrated effort is a major management challenge. Furthermore, such integration takes time, which means that it costs money. The latter commodity was so scarce in WFP Indonesia during the review period that synergy and multiplier effects were arguably luxuries that the hard-pressed CO could not afford.

Synergy and multiplier effects with partners

172. WFP achieved varying levels of collaboration with partner agencies during the review period, and significantly less synergy or multiplier effects. It had a clear division of responsibilities with UNICEF in the **nutrition** field during the review period, to the extent that the confusing nutrition mandates of the two UN agencies allow (WFP & UNICEF, 2011). In Indonesia, the partners worked well within this corporate framework and are judged to have achieved some multiplier effects as a result. Their principal achievement was the inclusion of nutrition commitments in the national medium-term development plan (section 2.1 above). They also collaborated in work with the GoI on the national and provincial FNAPs. More broadly, despite the general culture within the nutrition community being fairly non-collaborative, there were instances in Indonesia where nutrition stakeholders looked to each other's programmes and pilots for learning. For example, many hope to draw on WFP's development of an LNS and learn from its engagement with the private sector.

173. Another significant development in the review period was the introduction of Project Laser Beam (PLB) in 2009. A global initiative aiming to eradicate child malnutrition through collaboration between UN agencies (notably WFP) and the private sector, PLB selected Bangladesh and Indonesia as its two first pilot countries. Establishing the Indonesia pilot and its various collaborative agreements with private sector and INGO partners was a significant work burden for the CO in the early part of the review period. The effectiveness of this effort was limited. Interviews in WFP and elsewhere in the nutrition community indicate that PLB lost momentum globally. The principal result for WFP in Indonesia was strengthened interaction with some private sector partners, notably Indofood and GarudaFood. Success in collaborating with the private sector became an important part of WFP's profile in Indonesia, but cannot accurately be described as achieving synergy or multiplier effects since each company was involved in quite discrete components. However, Indonesia's participation in the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement (from late 2011) should provide WFP with an opportunity to identify synergy or multiplier effects resulting from its collaboration with the public and private sectors, although by the end of the review period the exact architecture of the SUN Movement in Indonesia was still being mapped out.

174. Broader collaboration in the **school feeding** portfolio during the review period was limited to WFP's relationship with Unilever (which supported school meals in NTT), although the assessment of MNP use in school meals towards the end of the period did draw on WFP's global relationship with DSM.

175. The **EPR** sector is traditionally a field of significant collaboration between WFP and other agencies, both in emergency operations and in longer-term strategic and capacity development efforts. WFP's OMB and HQ were part of an interlocking understanding about roles. But any intended multiplier effects or synergy were negated by WFP's poor performance in capacity development efforts with BNPB, as outlined

above. WFP's profile as a trusted and competent partner in this sector deteriorated significantly in the eyes of the key bilateral partners with which it should have been working most productively. By the end of the review period, WFP's credibility was damaged, but not destroyed. Residual good will with these partners, and stronger interventions from OMB, meant that there was still an opportunity for the CO to start rebuilding the collaborative profile that partners previously thought they could take for granted.

176. WFP was not effective in developing synergy or multiplier effects with the domestic or international **NGO** sector. While there was some discussion around collaboration with international agencies like ACF, NGO interviewees indicated that WFP could have done much more to exploit its pivotal position as a potential facilitator of links between INGOs, the GoI, Indonesian CSOs and the private sector that could have had benefits for the nutrition sector as a whole.

177. Overall, it can be seen that WFP achieved some success in developing collaboration with partners during the review period, and predictably less in developing synergy. Outside the EPR field, where operational problems lowered WFP's credibility with partners, and the PLB experience, where much initial effort failed to galvanise cooperation at all the necessary levels, there were conventional reasons for this partial achievement. Meaningful inter-agency collaboration, not to mention genuine synergy, always requires proactive effort by all parties. This condition is rarely met. For WFP in Indonesia, severe under-funding and consequent staff shortages diminished the space that collaboration and synergy require.

2. Conclusions and Recommendations

3.1 Overall Assessment

Alignment and strategic positioning

Constraints and challenges

178. This evaluation assesses the performance of WFP in two contexts of change. Indonesia was changing fast. It no longer posed the conventional challenges, needs and opportunities with which WFP has worked in most countries over its history. WFP, too, was changing: from food aid to food assistance, from logistics to capacity development, from needing mainly technical skills to needing at least as many strategic and institutional skills. In this dynamic and unstable environment, the Indonesia CO had to struggle against steadily worsening budgetary obstacles. With dwindling funds, it had minimal opportunity for the analysis, reflection and measured strategic development that a time of change demands. For much of the review period, WFP Indonesia lived on the margins of viability, and sometimes credibility, operating at sub-survival level in conditions that inevitably impaired performance. It managed, nevertheless, to make important strategic progress, and to achieve a significant (though incomplete) shift in the roles and profile of the organisation. But by the end of the review period, there was – despite the strategic progress – no guarantee that WFP could maintain the basic minimum capacity needed for a credible profile and performance in the new directions that it was rightly taking. The CO lived in a state of continuous institutional insecurity. The strategic context posed major challenges for WFP's portfolio during the review period. The comparatively well-resourced government of Indonesia was not easy to engage or support, although multiple and

evolving livelihood vulnerabilities meant that there were still important roles that WFP could play.

Relevance

179. With better focused support for capacity development in emergency preparedness and response emerging at the end of the review period, WFP's overall country strategy and portfolio – as framed by Indonesia's MIC status and WFP's funding constraints – were more relevant to the country's humanitarian and development needs in 2013 than they had been in 2009. The portfolio was increasingly well aligned with the national agenda and policies. Design of the CSD took care to emphasise the linkages. Government ownership of the sectors in which WFP was working was clear, with WFP strategy largely integrated into government-owned structures and processes at national and local levels.

180. In all these ways, WFP's stance in this MIC came to represent a significant shift not only from food aid to food assistance, but also from an external provider of resources to a partner in innovation and in technical and strategic development, increasingly mainstreamed within but positively influencing the national agenda and policies.

Strategic alignment

181. WFP's strategy during the review period took a new direction when the CSD was launched in 2011. The CSD, and the CP that was subsequently based on it, placed greater emphasis on consultation, partnership and alignment with the GoI and its policies. They mainstreamed the priority of capacity development across most of WFP's efforts and introduced the concept of prototypes as means to work on a small scale while supposedly influencing policy and practice on a much larger scale. But insufficient effort was made to assess partner capacity systematically or to tailor capacity development interventions accordingly.

182. The development of WFP's Indonesia portfolio over the review period shows some – but not optimal – exploitation of the organisation's comparative advantage – most notably in VAM activities. WFP's acknowledged leadership in emergency logistics and telecommunications was a firm basis for its EPR role, which was not effectively performed despite these strengths. Globally, school feeding is increasingly recognised as an area of WFP comparative advantage. It received very little attention in the Indonesia CSD and CP, yet continues to be a field in which WFP prototypes generate real enthusiasm at local level. It is also a field in which WFP prototypes and related advocacy remain relevant in countries like Indonesia, with a relatively clear path to upscaling by the GoI and the achievement of spinoff benefits for the rural economy. Claims in the CSD that WFP could exploit its comparative advantage with regard to food-based social safety nets and adaptation to climate change were not fulfilled.

183. WFP's pivotal position between the GoI, the public sector, civil society and international agencies was advantageous as its strategic positioning increasingly responded to the context of Indonesia. Overall, significant but partial progress was made with regard to the organisation's profile in Indonesia. WFP recognised and supported government leadership and ownership of the sectors and initiatives to which it was contributing. It was alert to the growing budgetary resources of the GoI, and, significantly, managed to secure some of them. It shifted capacity development to the centre of its Indonesian portfolio, although its achievements in this regard were uneven – due partly to the many constraints on building capacity in the decentralised Indonesian civil service. It recognised that its engagement in direct field

implementation should be limited (outside emergency scenarios) to prototypes offering practical demonstrations of techniques and approaches that the GoI would replicate at scale – but failed fully to carry the lessons of these activities through advocacy and influencing strategies to achieve this broader implementation. At the end of the review period, therefore, WFP’s strategic positioning was responding well in some ways to the Indonesian context, but its field engagements, while labelled prototypes and much reduced in scale, still looked much like conventional WFP activity.

184. In line with GoI policy, WFP placed increasing emphasis on the developmental challenges of stunting in its nutritional interventions. There was little reference to gender in the country strategy and portfolio.

Alignment with partners

185. Like many organisations in many settings, WFP proved better at achieving formal alignment, complementarity and coherence with partners than in genuine collaboration and synergy. While contradictions and overlap were largely avoided, the whole rarely became more than the sum of the parts. WFP and UNICEF achieved some synergy through their complementary efforts, but the much broader opportunities for synergy with multilateral, bilateral and NGO partners in the nutrition field were not exploited. With the exception of IOM, there was complementarity and coherence in the various external actors’ support for the BNPB, but operational weaknesses in WFP were an additional reason for failure to achieve synergy.

Alignment with WFP strategy and policies

186. The Indonesia portfolio was well aligned with WFP’s 2008–2013 Strategic Plan during the review period. This was not difficult, given the broad scope of the SP. It was also well aligned with most areas of technical policy, such as nutrition and school feeding. In the fields of social and organisational policy, however, it is more important to compare commitment in words with achievement in practice. There was significantly less of the latter.

Factors and quality of strategic decision-making

Analysis

187. From the period of CSD preparation onwards, WFP undertook a significant amount of thoughtful analysis of food and nutrition challenges in Indonesia and of the factors that frame them. The analytical landscape within the country portfolio was uneven. MCN work displayed many exercises of enquiry and analysis. Three significant studies were also undertaken in the school feeding sector. WFP’s work with the GoI in VAM played an increasingly central role in the organisation’s own strategy and targeting. Although the CO was aware of analysis of climate change trends and threats, and quoted it, there is no evidence that it undertook any detailed assessments of how effective its chosen FFA strategies were likely to be. One analytical exercise was undertaken in the field of gender in NTT. There was no institutional analysis of the major capacity development challenges inherent in WFP’s commitment to work with the new BNPB to enhance Indonesia’s EPR.

Quality of strategic decision-making

188. WFP began the review period with a set of operations based on conventional strategic thinking about the roles that it could play in Indonesia, apparently guided by optimistic assumptions about the continuation of previous high levels of funding. Preparation of the CSD and the subsequent CP represented a significant advance in the

quality of strategic decision-making, with open recognition of the rapidly evolving country context and of the need to respond with “non food-based” interventions. Like a super tanker that takes time to turn, however, WFP’s strategic thinking continued to lag behind the pace of developments. There was too much optimism that funding strategies would succeed, even though efforts were being made to revise those strategies. There was too little recognition of the depth of new skills that would be needed to make good on the plan to focus on capacity development and advocacy. WFP ended the review period with a much sharper awareness of the Indonesian context and how to respond to it. But it still had no adequate answer – despite intensified fund-raising efforts and continuing optimism about light at the end of the tunnel – to the question of how to pay for its work.

189. Part of the slow turning of the super tanker concerned WFP’s continued engagement, even to the end of the review period, in the procurement and distribution of some food commodities and complementary products. Much as the format of its SPRs continued to require reporting of tonnages that was steadily less relevant to the work of WFP in a country like Indonesia, the organisation’s heritage made it slow to shake off an aspect of its operations that was both inefficient and superfluous in a country with sophisticated private sector production and distribution capabilities (even though technical engagement was still needed in some areas like the formulation of MNP and complementary feeding products). The logic of its distributing foodstuffs to the rural poor in the lean season as compensation for their efforts in enhancing their resilience to climate change was also tenuous.

190. While the CSD and the CP represented a more realistic way for WFP to contribute meaningfully to food and nutrition security with very limited resources, neither they nor the previous PRRO presented any explicit theory of change. For the later approaches that invested so much in the concept of prototyping, this weakness was particularly significant, as design documentation failed to explain exactly how any prototype success would be replicated and scaled up.

Monitoring and learning

191. In optimal circumstances, an optimally managed WFP portfolio would adapt progressively and accurately to shifting corporate, national and global circumstances, on the basis of continuous learning processes that combine monitoring and evaluation of activities with review of the context. This ideal was not attained in the portfolio under review. The severe under-funding of the PRRO and the CP constrained learning and adaptation, reducing performance measurement, analysis and reporting to the bare minimum required by the increasingly inappropriate format of the SPR. There was awareness of contextual and policy developments in some sectors of the portfolio, leading to adaptation of methods and approaches. Robust impact analysis looking at different packages of MCN interventions was not a priority. This is particularly important: not only is there some scepticism in the nutrition community about the appropriateness of distributing food commodities in the Indonesian context, but also the whole purpose of the MCN prototype was to produce evidence to shape policy. There was evidence towards the end of the review period of more substantive monitoring approaches. The decision in 2013 to include Indonesia in WFP’s global MIC pilot opened up new opportunities for the reflective appraisal of experience, context and prospects that was largely lacking up to that point.

Influencing the national agenda

192. In the decentralised institutional context of Indonesia, achieving an impact on the national agenda means achieving complementary impacts at national, provincial and district levels. Converting that policy impact into sustained practical action means linking policy development to legislative change and to the development of technical guidelines attuned to the mode of operation of the Indonesian civil service. During the review period, WFP's achievement in the face of these complex challenges was uneven. It had positive impact at national policy level with regard to nutrition, but much less in the field of school feeding. In some districts, however, WFP stimulated high enthusiasm for LFBSM among local policy makers. Besides its rising profile as a tool for policy targeting, WFP's VAM work with the GoI was the only area in which the portfolio achieved significant enhancements in Indonesian analytical capacity during the review period. There was no impact on national policy priorities in the field of gender, and little in that most institutionally challenging of the sectors in the portfolio, EPR. Nor, despite the policy potential of using WFP's FFA activities to build advocacy for effective action at scale to adapt to climate change, did these prototypes achieve significant impact on the national agenda.

Portfolio performance and results

Key approaches: prototypes and capacity development

193. WFP made an appropriate strategic choice during this portfolio period in Indonesia by developing the operational concept of prototypes and by focusing on capacity development as a cross-cutting theme for its CP. However, the rationale and purpose of the prototypes were not always adequately clear, and implementation often failed to work through all the stages in the (sometimes implicit) logic model that was meant to provide their rationale. Working in the geographically dispersed, small-scale prototype areas also proved labour-intensive at a time of scarce resources for the CO. Greater prototype effort in a relevant national arena like the Raskin safety net programme might have been more efficient. In other areas of its work, as in EPR, WFP focused on institutional capacity development, but without a full set of systems and skills to define and achieve the objectives and exit points of such a strategy satisfactorily.

Effectiveness

194. WFP's VAM work through the PRRO and the CP was effective in technical, capacity development and institutional terms. How effective the system has been in terms of benefits for the food insecure and vulnerable cannot be judged, although there is widespread acknowledgement that, however useful VAM targeting information may be, it is not the only (and sometimes not the principal) factor determining resource allocation.

195. When investigating the performance of WFP operations, it is notable that the format of the organisation's SPRs does not allow for reporting in terms of the indicators specified in the logical frameworks (if any) of those operations. For example, it is not possible to track EPR achievements from the SPRs of the CP, whose logical framework specified performance indicators in this area. In fact, despite WFP's global reputation in emergency logistics, those achievements were limited in Indonesia during the review period. Equipped largely with technical expertise, WFP failed to tackle the political and institutional challenges involved in developing the new BNPB and BPBDs, which were not easy organisations to work with. Its reputation in this sector was significantly damaged by this ineffective performance, although at the end of the period efforts were

being made to address these challenges with a better skill set and a clearer understanding that capacity building is more than training, and that logistics specialists are not necessarily effective in institutional development.

196. Data on the effectiveness of WFP's MCN work in reducing stunting during the review period are inconclusive. While monitoring systems were strengthened and additional studies were launched in the latter part of the review period, the inability to prove effectiveness is so far a significant flaw in WFP's prototyping strategy, which depends on the ability to advocate nutrition approaches by showing that they succeed. Furthermore, some of the significant research being done, such as the cost of diet study, is not specifically based on the prototype interventions but is undertaken independently of them. Nor was the important achievement of building references to nutrition into the national medium-term development plan and some provincial plans derived from demonstrated prototype successes. While WFP was seen as a significant actor in the Indonesian nutrition sector, this was not directly derived from the performance of its prototype field interventions.

197. School feeding approaches promoted as part of the portfolio can reasonably be concluded to be effective in enhancing children's concentration. The effects on attendance are less clear. The promotion of LFBSM aroused considerable enthusiasm in some local governments, but achieving a sustainable and mutually profitable relationship between the school feeding market and the agricultural sector is far from simple. The evaluation team was unable to establish how effective WFP's efforts have been in that regard. Despite this local enthusiasm, WFP did not take the logical next steps in the prototype model and advocate the apparently successful approaches vigorously to national authorities.

198. In the latter part of the review period, WFP devoted considerable monitoring effort to the FFA work that it was supporting. Some (but certainly not all) of these initiatives were technically and institutionally successful in the short term. But genuinely effective FFA interventions must prove to be technically and institutionally sustainable while achieving sustained enhancements of food and livelihood security for participants. Ensuring long-term technical and institutional maintenance arrangements was not part of the WFP strategy. With the limited time and resources available, the evaluation team did not find sufficient evidence that the FFA activities WFP has been promoting have been of more than transient benefit. The approaches have certainly not been adopted on any significant scale by the GoI. Once again, the effectiveness of these activities as a prototype was limited by WFP's failure to engage strongly with national authorities to establish agreed approaches to – and resources for – upscaling.

Efficiency

199. Answering the three questions posed by the Inception Report about the efficiency of the prototype approach adopted in the CSD and the CP leads to largely negative conclusions. Although cost considerations might be considered of central importance in the promotion of prototype approaches to the GoI for larger-scale adoption (especially when WFP's budgetary constraints are as tight as they were in Indonesia during the review period), the relevant unit costs of these activities were not adequately factored into their design and management. There was a growing awareness and concern in the CO about the need to understand and address the costs of the prototype work in the portfolio, but monitoring of these key variables remained inadequate. Experience in the Indonesia portfolio certainly revealed generally high unit costs of operation, which may be justifiable at the prototype stage if successful

advocacy and influencing strategies then lead to more efficient implementation by the government at scale. But advocacy and influencing work itself need not be expensive. Furthermore, to the extent that WFP does this work, it should largely be performed by qualified host country citizens, which implies much lower personnel costs than the traditional WFP model of deploying a significant number of internationally recruited staff. Towards the end of the review period, the CO was beginning to realise that this alternative staff model would be more effective, and considerably cheaper. This has broader implications for WFP operations in MICs. However, there are limits to the effectiveness of advocacy by an international agency towards a host government. Although global status and credibility can make a government listen, advocacy by citizens and domestic civic structures may in many circumstances be more politically convincing. This implies that agencies like WFP should be working to create the space for such domestic advocacy, as well as trying to influence government themselves.

Capacity development and advocacy

200. Capacity development linked to advocacy is at the heart of WFP's purpose in Indonesia, as in many MICs. While the CO recognised its importance, it was unable to focus effectively on the task. To derive adequate value from the scarce resources that it is committing in the country, WFP must be able to plan, perform and report convincingly in this regard. The lack of a systematic approach to capacity development with WFP's direct partners, from identification of these partners to assessments to strategies to monitoring systems, meant that, in general, the capacity development envisioned in the CSD and the CP did not bring about the desired changes at the individual, organisational and institutional levels. As WFP shifts from food aid to food assistance, and particularly when it attempts this transition in MICs, it must learn to excel in capacity development and to overcome the many institutional complexities that accompany this task. The capacity development performance of the portfolio under review was symptomatic of a technical organisation not yet well equipped with these very different skills. Especially in countries where host institutions are often well resourced and politically confident, support agencies like WFP must learn to develop locally relevant, locally owned tools and materials for capacity development. Although capacity development was the central theme of the CP, WFP continued to display a largely operational focus, lacking the plans, systems, skills and staff to make this theme effective. As throughout the portfolio, the crippling shortage of funds was one major factor in this poor performance.

201. Advocacy of effective and relevant techniques and strategies to enhance food and nutrition security, linked to capacity development where needed, is at the heart of WFP's purpose in Indonesia, as in many such countries. Since it formulated the CSD, the CO has recognised this. But, partly because of resource shortages, it has not been systematic enough in formulating, delivering, monitoring, assessing and reporting its advocacy strategies across the various sectors to which it is committed. To derive adequate value from the scarce resources that it is committing in the country, WFP must be able to plan, perform and report convincingly in this regard.

Synergy and multiplier effects within the portfolio

202. Within a WFP country portfolio, synergy and multiplier effects among the component work streams are much easier to design on paper than to achieve in practice. In the comparatively conventional approach of the PRRO during the first half of the review period, there was little interaction among the component activities, and no sense that the effectiveness of the PRRO as a whole was – or was even intended to be – more than the combined effectiveness of its parts. The CSD, and the CP that was

derived from it, did set out a design that should have achieved integration and synergy. By the end of the review period the CP had been largely ineffective in that regard. VAM did provide a common platform for some of the work streams, but there is little evidence of local integration of activities in the target districts and provinces. Towards the end of the period, more intensive monitoring did promote a more integrated awareness among CO staff of their joint efforts in MCN, FFA and school feeding; but it was too soon to speak of multiplier effects. Quite apart from the usual organisational obstacles to bringing staff (especially technical specialists) out of their silos into an integrated work effort, building synergy and multiplier effects takes time, which means money. Operating largely in (sub-) survival mode, the CO may understandably have been unable to find the resources for this.

Synergy and multiplier effects with partners

203. Achieving a series of collaborative activities with partners is not the same as achieving synergy or multiplier effects from such partnerships. Again, the ultimate intention is that the whole should be more than the sum of the parts. This requires a level of close collaboration, coordination, harmonisation and joint commitment that WFP did not achieve in Indonesia during the review period – even though useful work was done with partners and some new areas of partnership were strengthened, notably with the private sector. The closest that the portfolio got to synergy was in the nutrition sector. The most negative departure in the opposite direction was in EPR, where relations with partners were significantly damaged.

204. The higher goals of a WFP portfolio, especially in a country like Indonesia, obviously require competent strategic leadership attuned to the institutional politics of the local setting. But they also need resources that the CO in Indonesia certainly lacked during the review period. Time and money are needed to build partnerships beyond simple collaboration up to the level where WFP and other agencies do more together than they do separately. Work in such countries may require far fewer operational resources. But the cost of building multiplier effects and synergy, so that WFP can punch above its weight, should not be underestimated.

Sustainability

205. Especially in a country like Indonesia, it is useful to distinguish the technical sustainability of WFP's interventions – whether they will work, technically and institutionally, in the longer term – from their strategic sustainability: whether WFP's advocacy and influencing efforts have built stronger, long-term awareness and commitment in government and among partners about the significance of food and nutrition security and about ways to tackle it effectively. Strategic sustainability, in other words, is about building the national debate in productive directions, and helping it to reach conclusions that will lead to long-term beneficial change for the population, regardless of WFP's further involvement.

206. From the technical perspective, WFP's nutrition efforts became more aware of sustainability considerations and made limited progress towards addressing them through collaboration with the private sector on local fortification, although GoI staff still see WFP's MCN work as small-scale and not replicable. The promotion of LFBSM in the school feeding sector was a more obvious move towards a technically sustainable approach, although WFP became aware of some of the aspects that require careful monitoring and management. The technical sustainability of WFP's EPR contribution dwindled in the middle part of the review period, due to ineffective performance by WFP and the institutional instability of the principal client, the new BNPB. Proper

evidence on the technical sustainability of FFA interventions is lacking in 2014; but information on the way WFP undertook these interventions, combined with international experience, suggests that few sustainable results can be anticipated for any measures that require technical and/or institutional maintenance.

207. From the strategic perspective, WFP made more progress towards sustainability in those areas of its portfolio where it was engaged in broader, multi-partner efforts and underpinned its advocacy with technically competent implementation. This was partly achieved in the nutrition sector; in school feeding, not enough was done to capitalise on the enthusiasm that was developed at local government level in some districts. In EPR, technically ineffective delivery combined with weak institutional liaison in the middle of the review period meant that WFP contributed little to sustainability at the strategic level. The VAM effort, on the other hand, did mainstream the concepts of mapping and targeting in GoI's and other stakeholders' paradigms of food security programming: a strategically sustainable result.

3.2 Recommendations

208. Recommendations 1–5 below are more specific to the Indonesia portfolio and CO. Recommendations 6 and 7 could apply to all MIC operations. Recommendations 8 and 9, while focused on Indonesia, could be relevant to operations in many other countries. A table linking these recommendations to key relevant sections of the CPE text is presented at Annex P.

Recommendations 1. *To clarify the structure and rationale of its portfolio in Indonesia, the country office should plan and implement its work in two categories: institutional capacity development and prototypes.*

209. Institutional capacity development (currently VAM and EPR) focuses on strengthening the relevant institutions and staff capacity at national, provincial and (where relevant) district levels. Prototypes (currently FFA, MCN and school feeding) should focus on developing evidence-based strategies for support at beneficiary level that can be adopted and upscaled by domestic public and private sector agencies, and initiating a sustainable capacity development strategy to make this possible. For both categories, the CO should strengthen and standardise its approaches.

210. Institutional capacity development programmes should specify their capacity development approach (see Recommendations 2 below); the advocacy and influencing strategy to be employed (see Recommendations 3 below); and how the performance of the latter will be monitored and reported (see Recommendations 6 below).

211. For prototypes, the standardised approach should specify the scale of intervention, the ultimate intended upscaling and how the latter will be achieved; WFP's roles in field implementation; what methods, tools and approaches will be developed, demonstrated and advocated; how capacity development will be undertaken (see Recommendations 2 below); the cost-effectiveness of the prototype and of the ultimately upscaled activities; the advocacy and influencing strategy to be employed for effective policy engagement (see Recommendations 3 below); monitoring indicators and methods, linked to reporting systems and integrated with the CO's overall M&E programme (see Recommendations 6 below); and WFP's strategy and schedule for exit. This approach should be harmonised with existing sector-specific guidance, e.g. the WFP manuals on FFA (WFP, 2014l), where relevant.

212. The CO should implement this recommendation as soon as possible in its programming of future activities.

Recommendations 2. *The country office should articulate a comprehensive capacity development strategy for each of its VAM, EPR, MCN and school feeding sectors.*

213. Each capacity development strategy should include: the theory of change; stakeholder analysis; expected vision and outcomes; approach and tools for assessment of each direct partner; types of interventions, exploiting and developing WFP's comparative advantage (notably in VAM, EPR and school feeding) and mainstreaming gender; strategic partners for delivery (including OMB and, potentially, regional service providers like the National University of Singapore in the EPR sector); progress indicators and processes; reflection and learning processes; and related capacity building required for WFP CO staff.

214. The CO should implement this recommendation as soon as possible in its programming of future activities.

Recommendations 3. *The country office should articulate a comprehensive advocacy and awareness-raising strategy for each of its VAM, EPR, MCN and school feeding sectors.*

215. For effective policy engagement, each advocacy and influencing strategy should include: stakeholder analysis to identify the policy makers (at national and subnational levels) to be influenced; the role of strategic partners and direct partners (including civil society actors) in the process; the changes in policy, regulation, resourcing and practice that are to be advocated; the approaches to be used to achieve the desired changes, exploiting WFP's acknowledged comparative advantage (notably in VAM, EPR and school feeding) and mainstreaming gender; the relevant ways in which WFP can serve as convenor, broker and pivot between the GoI, the private sector, civil society and other international agencies; and indicators for the measurement of progress.

216. The CO should implement this recommendation as soon as possible in its programming of future activities.

Recommendations 4. *With support from the regional bureau and Headquarters, the country office should commit as much effort and as many resources to its school feeding work as it does to its MCN activities.*

217. School feeding can build effectively on the benefits to Indonesian society of an MCN focus on the first 1,000 days, exploiting WFP's recognised comparative advantage in this field.

218. Important implications of this recommendation are: adequate staffing; a clearer capacity development strategy for implementation at district level; and an advocacy strategy for implementation primarily at district and national levels, to capitalise effectively at national level on the enthusiasm WFP school feeding approaches have generated at local level (see Recommendations 3 above).

219. The CO should implement this recommendation, in consultation with the GoI at national and district levels, as soon as possible in its programming of future activities.

Recommendations 5. *The country office should seek funds, with support from the Private Sector Partnerships Division, for further research to identify enhancements to its MCN strategy, based on evaluation of the impacts of approaches used so far.*

220. This research should compare the effect of different packages of interventions, such as: food products versus education and the promotion of behaviour change; different interventions during the lean season and at other times; and nutrition-specific and nutrition-sensitive interventions.

221. The CO should seek the support of HQ in securing funding and providing technical guidance in the preparation of TOR and procurement procedures for the recommended research programme.

Recommendations 6. *Headquarters should enhance its monitoring and reporting systems to make them more relevant to WFP's work in Indonesia and similar countries.*

222. The SPR format should be revised to allow for reporting in terms of: the operation's logical framework (where relevant); the capacity development and advocacy strategies articulated for the operation; the technical and institutional viability of the operation (linked, where relevant, to the food and nutrition security and related benefits achieved for and by prototype beneficiaries); the contribution to WFP's global Strategic Objectives; and compliance with selected key WFP policies, notably nutrition, school feeding, capacity development and gender. This annual reporting system should be linked to routine internal monitoring, analysis and self-assessment systems that give as much attention to performance in capacity development and advocacy as they do to technical achievements and help to build the CO as a learning organisation.

223. The recommended revisions would be the responsibility of HQ, in consultation with the Indonesia and other relevant COs.

Recommendations 7. *For as long as it maintains a country office in Indonesia, WFP should ensure and sustain a basic minimum operating presence.*

224. The basic minimum operating presence can comprise a reduced number of international personnel and a higher proportion of senior, experienced Indonesian staff supplemented where necessary by senior expatriate or local consultants and guided by senior advisers. For at least the remainder of the current CP period, the minimum operating presence in the Indonesia CO should include a full-time capacity development specialist and a full-time school feeding specialist. The total staff complement does not need to increase. All technical specialists should also be competent in capacity development. All staff contracts should be for a minimum of 12 months, to avoid the damaging instability, discontinuity and low morale engendered by recent shorter-term contracts.

225. Implementation of this recommendation should be planned by the CO with the support of OMB. Funding for the provision and maintenance of the basic minimum operating presence is a corporate responsibility for WFP, and is likely to require an unconventional combination of strategies: for example, a multiannual budget commitment from HQ, funds from the host government and from the private sector as well as the usual (and possibly some new) bilateral and multilateral sources.

Recommendations 8. *Except in Level 3 emergencies, WFP should not supply or distribute food, including complementary feeding products, in Indonesia.*

226. With support from OMB and HQ, the CO should phase out all direct involvement in the supply or distribution of food and complementary feeding products as soon as viable alternative arrangements can be put in place. During the remaining implementation of the MCN and school feeding components of the CP, it should negotiate and confirm arrangements for the commodities that it currently procures and/or distributes to be supplied through other channels.

227. With technical support as required from OMB and HQ, the CO should design its post-2015 operations to conform to this recommended new policy.

Recommendations 9. *With support from the Policy, Programme and Innovation Division and the regional bureau, the country office should carry out an urgent, thorough assessment of its FFA work to determine the cost-effectiveness, sustainability and replicability of the approaches it has pursued and to decide whether continuation of FFA activities is justified.*

228. Rather than recommending the immediate cessation of a work stream that it fears is ineffective, the evaluation team proposes a thorough investigation of the relevant food security, institutional and environmental variables at a minimum of 20 randomly selected sites where WFP supported FFA work during the review period. The design of this assessment and the analysis and recommendations it produces should take due account of the recent OEV evaluations of FFA (WFP, 2014j) and of the approach and criteria now specified in WFP's FFA manuals, including those on M&E of FFA (WFP, 2014l; WFP, 2014m). Any positive recommendation from that study about continuing support for FFA should be premised on acceptance that WFP would not undertake any food supply or distribution itself (see Recommendations 8 above) and should give careful consideration to the use of vouchers or cash instead.

229. The CO should seek the support of the Policy and Programme Division in securing funding and providing technical guidance in the preparation of TOR and procurement procedures for the recommended assessment.

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Annex A Terms of Reference (excluding annexes)

INDONESIA: AN EVALUATION OF WFP'S PORTFOLIO (2009-2013)

1. Background

1. The purpose of these terms of reference (TOR) is to provide key information to stakeholders about the proposed evaluation, to guide the evaluation team and specify expectations during the various phases of the evaluation. The TOR are structured as follows: Chapter 1 provides information on the context; Chapter 2 presents the rationale, objectives, stakeholders and main users of the evaluation; Chapter 3 presents the WFP portfolio and defines the scope of the evaluation; Chapter 4 identifies the evaluation approach and methodology; Chapter 5 indicates how the evaluation will be organized. The annexes provide additional information such as a detailed timeline and the core indicators for Indonesia.

1.1. Introduction

2. Country Portfolio Evaluations (CPE) encompass the entirety of WFP activities during a specific period. They evaluate the performance and results of the portfolio as a whole and provide evaluative insights to make evidence-based decisions about positioning WFP in a country and about strategic partnerships, programme design, and implementation. Country Portfolio Evaluations help Country Offices in the preparation of Country Strategies and provide lessons that can be used in the design of new operations.

3. WFP Indonesia developed their first Country Strategy covering a 5 year plan 2011-2015. The document was approved by WFP in 2011.

1.2. Country Context

4. Indonesia is the world's largest archipelago including more than 17,000 islands. With a population of 247 million people, it is the fourth most populous country in the world. Following notable socio economic and political progress⁸, Indonesia is a low Middle Income Country (MIC) ranking 121st of 187 countries in the 2013 UNDP Human Development Index. It is also a G20 member and the largest economy of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). The country's gross national income per capita has steadily risen from \$2,200 in 2000 to \$3,563 in 2012. In 2011, Indonesia hit a milestone as it marked 6.5% GDP growth, the highest since 1996.

5. In general, economic growth is necessary but not sufficient to accelerate reduction of hunger and malnutrition⁹. In Indonesia, despite strong economic growth and falling poverty in the last decade - in 2012 the poverty rate is at 12% - inequality is rising and many households continue to live on the edge of poverty and vulnerability remains high¹⁰.

6. In 1998 the Indonesian government introduced a subsidized rice programme called *Raskin – rice for the poor*, to ensure adequate staple food consumption. In 2012

⁸ Since the transitioning to democracy in 1998

⁹ The State of food insecurity in the world, 2012 (FAO, IFAD and WFP)

¹⁰ Nearly 40 % of Indonesians live on 1.5 times poverty line expenditure (or less) and are highly vulnerable to shocks that can push them back below the poverty line. Source: Country Partnership Strategy for Indonesia, The World Bank, Dec 2012.

the government allocated a budget to subsidized 3.4 million tonnes of rice to be distributed to 17.5 million households¹¹. Several studies assessing Raskin pointed out that the programme faces major targeting and efficiency issues.

7. According to the last Food Security and Vulnerability Atlas¹², some 87 million Indonesians are vulnerable to food insecurity. While the Millennium Development Goal set for reducing the prevalence rate of underweight among young children has been achieved, chronic malnutrition (stunting) is widely prevailing among young children in the country. Overall, national prevalence of stunting was 36% for the 2007-2011 period, ranked at high level of public health significance according to the WHO classification. In total, 17 out of 33 provinces reported having a stunting prevalence higher than the national average¹³. In summary, malnutrition was found significantly higher in the eastern part of the country. The below table 1 shows the percentage of underweight and stunted under five years children.

Table 1. Percentage of underweight and stunted <5 yrs children – compared to WHO nutritional classification.

Country	Underweight Children (<5 yrs)	Stunting Children (<5 yrs)	Underweight WHO Classification	Stunting WHO Classification
Indonesia	18 % Note: MDG achieved in 2007 (18.5 %)	36 % Note: Chronic malnutrition remains at high (serious) and very high (critical) levels across the country.	Between 10-19% is classified as: Poor	Between 30-39% is classified as: High (serious)

Source: Data from the State of the World Children, Unicef 2013

8. In April 2013, the government of Indonesia and WFP held a conference aiming to spearhead the drive for improved nutrition across the country. The discussions focused on the critical window of opportunity in the first 1,000 days of a child’s life when proper nutrition is essential for optimal physical and intellectual development

9. Despite the 2001 “big bang” decentralization, the transition from being one of the most centralized countries in the world to one of the most decentralized is far from complete. Public service delivery and public sector capacity at the subnational level remain major challenges. Regional disparities persists; eastern Indonesia lags behind other parts of this geographically dispersed country.

10. Indonesia has formulated a long-term development plan which spans from 2005 to 2025. It is segmented into 5-year medium term plans. The current medium-term development covering 2010-2014 (RPJMN) is the second phase, emphasising “development for all” and placing food security among its 11 priorities. The control and

¹¹ Indonesian Financial Note and Revised Budget, 2012.

¹² The 2009 FSVA report (developed by GOI and WFP and launched in 2010) understands the food security concept based on its three dimensions (food availability, access to food and utilization of food) to any circumstances – rather than only in a food insecure situation. Note that WFP plans to update the FSVA – considered as an important planning document - in late 2013/2014.

¹³ In particular the NTT province (East Indonesia) recorded a stunting prevalence rate of 58.4%, according to the WFP Indonesia 2012 in Review. To highlight the inequity between provinces, DKI Jakarta province indicated a prevalence of 27 % according to the FSVA.

management of natural disaster risks is also a priority in the RPJMN.

11. Indonesia, an archipelago country, is highly vulnerable to natural disasters such as earthquakes, tsunamis and volcanic eruptions. Over the last decade, Indonesia is part of the top five countries that are more frequently hit by natural disasters. In 2010, it ranked second in the world in terms of its vulnerability to extreme weather and geophysical events. On average, one million people are affected by disasters every year. Disaster resilience and management is a top agenda item for the Government and its international partners.

12. Partner food aid response to food insecurity has been linked to emergencies such as the 1998 El Nino drought or the December 2004 Aceh tsunami. Since peaking in 2005, food aid has been declining.

13. Progress towards the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) has been uneven and the recent 2013 annual report shows mixed success. The first MDG Report was drafted in Indonesian and later translated into English – reflecting the Government’s strong sense of ownership. With reference to the goal of halving the proportion of people whose income is below the national poverty line between 1990 and 2015, the Report shows that Indonesia is on track towards attaining that goal. However, prospects across provinces are uneven. The goal of providing safe drinking water by 2015 is also on track. But according to the Asian Development Bank, some challenges in achieving the MDGs are remaining such as reducing hunger, providing basic sanitation, addressing deforestation and containing the spread of HIV. Maternal health remains also a challenge; the maternal mortality ratio (MMR) soared to 359 per 100,000 births in 2012 – from 228 in 2007. Indonesia’s target for MDG 5 is to reach 110 in 2015 (UNDP).

14. Gender is well mainstreamed in the Government Central Planning, but implementation has been weak in part because sex-disaggregated data and analysis have not been available. As noted above, maternal mortality rates remain high for Indonesia’s income level – and even increased during the last years. According to the World Bank the overall pace of poverty reduction is slower for female-headed households, and the 2013 Human Development Report ranks Indonesia at 106 regarding the gender inequality index. The WFP 2012 assessment report in the NTT Eastern Province of Indonesia found that gender inequalities are embedded in the social values and daily life practices of the people.

2. Reasons for the Evaluation

2.1. Rationale

15. The current WFP Country Programme (CP) runs from 2011-2015¹⁴ and the same timeframe applies for the Country Strategy (CS) developed by the Country Office. The evaluation findings will inform WFP Indonesia for their next CP and CS.

16. In relation to the current Strategic Plan (2008-2013), the evaluation will provide evidence on how the portfolio performed. Given that the new Strategic Plan (2014-2017) continues its focus on food assistance, lessons from this CPE are likely to be applicable for the future WFP operations in Indonesia.

¹⁴ The United Nations Partnership for Development Framework in Indonesia (UNPDF) also covers the 2011-2015 period.

17. Partnerships will play an essential role in Middle Income Country (MIC). It is anticipated that the CPE in Indonesia will generate lessons about WFP’s role in MIC¹⁵.

18. No portfolio evaluation covering several food assistance operations over a 5-year period was conducted in Indonesia. The last evaluation carried out (in 2006) by the Office of Evaluation was the mid-term evaluation of the PRRO 10069.1 which ran from 2005 to 2007.

2.2. Objectives

19. Evaluations serve the dual objectives of accountability and learning. As such, the evaluation will:

- assess and report on the performance and results of the country portfolio in line with the WFP mandate and in response to humanitarian and development challenges in Indonesia (accountability); and
- determine the reasons for observed success/failure and draw lessons from experience to produce evidence-based findings to allow the CO to make informed strategic decisions about positioning itself in Indonesia, form strategic partnerships, and improve operations design and implementation whenever possible (learning).

2.3. Stakeholders and Users of the Evaluation

20. The primary user of the evaluation findings and recommendations will be the WFP Indonesia Country Office in the refinement and design of the current and next operations, country strategy and partnerships. The Asian Regional Bureau is also expected to use the evaluation findings given its role in providing strategic guidance.

21. The below provides a preliminary stakeholders analysis and a thorough analysis will be done by the evaluation team during the inception phase.

Internal stakeholders	
Country Office (CO)	Responsible for the country level planning and operations implementation, it has a direct stake in the evaluation and will be a primary user of its results. The CO developed strategic priorities to address food and nutrition security in the country. The evaluation findings will inform to what extent it validates the directions indicated in the 2011-2015 Country Strategy. The CO also has an interest in enhanced accountability towards the Indonesian government, other partners, donors and beneficiaries.
Regional Bureau in Bangkok	In light of its stronger role in providing strategic guidance, programme support and oversight to the COs in the region, the RB has an interest in learning from evaluation results.
Headquarters Management and relevant Technical units	Executive Management and other Managers based in Rome will be interested in the findings of this evaluation. In particular in the Policy, Programming & Innovation, the Performance Management, the Emergency Preparedness, and the Partnership & Governance divisions.
Executive Board (EB)	As the governing body of the organisation, the EB has a direct interest in being informed about the effectiveness of WFP operations and their harmonisation with strategic processes of government and partners.

¹⁵ See the WFP internal concept note on MIC (July 2013).

External stakeholders	
Beneficiaries	As the ultimate recipients of food assistance, beneficiaries have a stake in WFP determining whether its assistance is appropriate and effective.
Government (including partner Ministries)	<p>The Government of Indonesia (GOI) – a middle income country – has a direct interest in knowing whether WFP activities in Indonesia are effectively impacting their population, aligned with their agenda and harmonised with the action of other partners. GOI is also interested as a “beneficiary” of the capacity building component of the portfolio under evaluation. WFP collaborated with the Ministry of Agriculture (particularly the Food Security office), the Ministry of Health and family Welfare for the 2009 Food Insecurity Atlas. WFP established a partnership with the National Agency for Disaster Risk Management (BNBP) to build the capacity of the rapid response team in logistics and emergency telecommunications. The Central statistics Bureau (BPS), the National Institute for Aeronautics and Space (LAPAN), the Agency for Meteorology, Climatology and Geophysics (BMKG) are also important partners to analyse food security.</p> <p>The principal government counterpart for policy and programming is the Ministry for People’s Welfare (Menkokesra).</p> <p>The Ministry of National Development Planning coordinated the five year Food and Nutrition Action Plan 2011-2015.</p> <p>Last but not least, Indonesia is a major donor to WFP Indonesia; its contribution to the portfolio under evaluation represents 21% (see annex 7).</p>
UN agencies	UN agencies have an interest in ensuring that WFP operations are effective and aligned with their programmes. The 2011-2015 UN Partnership Development Framework (UNPDF) - the equivalent of a UN Development Framework (UNDAF) – supports the Government in developing policies and programmes. Because inadequate capacity has impeded government programmes, the activities will support decentralization, particularly in disadvantages and remote regions. WFP worked with UNICEF to address helminthic infections in operational areas, and also to support local governments to develop the 2011-2015 Food and Nutrition Action Plan for NTT and NTB provinces. In partnership with FAO, WFP implemented coastal habitat restoration.
NGO partners, international and Academic institutions	NGOs are WFP’s partners in programme implementation and design and as such have a stake in the WFP assessment of its portfolio performance as well as an interest in its strategic orientation. Discussions are ongoing in 2013 on collaboration on food-based social safety nets with the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank (ADB). WFP published evidence based studies on food security, nutrition and gender in collaboration with academic institutions e.g. Bogor Agricultural University.
Donors (Governments and Private sector)	WFP activities are supported by donors’ contributions. They have an interest in knowing whether their funds have been spent efficiently. They also have an interest in knowing to which extent the WFP strategy complement their own strategies and supported-programmes. The portfolio’s top three donors are: Private Donors, Australia and Indonesia. Private sector contributed to the three portfolio operations with a total amounting to \$8 million. DSM, TNT, Unilever, and Yum! brands are among WFP’s Global Partners supporting WFP’s works in Indonesia.

3. Subject of the Evaluation

3.1. WFP’s Portfolio in Indonesia

22. WFP has been present in Indonesia since 1964, totalling 74 operations valued at USD 586 million. In 1996 WFP left and was requested to return in 1998 to respond to the drought caused by El Nino and to the Asian Financial crisis that affected more than 20 million Indonesians. Annex 4 lists all WFP operations in Indonesia since the beginning.

23. Since January 2009, there have been a Protracted Relief and Recovery Operation (PRRO), an Emergency Operation (IR- EMOP) and a Country Programme (CP) in Indonesia. In addition there were also two Special Operations related to Logistics and Telecommunication support¹⁶. Table 3 illustrates the timeline and the funding level of the Indonesia portfolio.

Table 3. Timeline and funding level Indonesia CPE

Timeline and funding level of Indonesia portfolio 2009 - 2013

Operation	Title	Time Frame	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	
CP 200245	Country Programme	Jan 12 - Dec 15				Req: \$44,795,183 Contrib: \$9,497,189		
IR-EMOP 200218	Mentawai Tsunami, West Sumatra	Nov 10 - Jan 11		Req: \$495,567 Contrib: \$459,677			2015	
SO 200082	Logist. and Emerg. Telecom. Clusters Support to the Humanit. Community's Response to West Sumatra Earthquakes.	Oct 09 - Dec 09	Req: \$1,997,308 Contrib: \$670,357			LEGEND Funding Level > 75% Between 50 and 75% Less than 50%		
PRRO 100692	Nutritional Rehabilitation in Indonesia	May 08 - Dec 11	2008 Req: \$ 112,599,501 Contrib: \$46,208,610					
SO 104981	WFP Logistics Support Unit	Oct 07 - Mar 12	2007 Req: \$12,455,623 Contrib: \$ 7,627,063					
Food Distributed (MT)			12,955	5,180	4,694	1,437	n.a.	
Direct Expenses (US\$ millions)			18,334,000	10,429,000	8,494,000	5,998,000	n.a.	
% Direct Expenses: Indonesia vs. WFP World*			0%	0%	0%	0%	n.a.	
Beneficiaries (actual)			M F	M F	M F	M F	M F	
			439,102 562,569	190,367 212,671	146,192 185,494	44,424 45,865	n.a.	
Total of Beneficiaries (actual)			1,001,671	403,038	331,686	90,289	n.a.	

Source: last SPR available in August 2013, Resource Situations, APR 2009 - 2012

Requirements (Req.) and Contributions (Contrib.)

*Absolute figures are too low and not captured by the %

24. The 2008-2010 PRRO was planned to target 845,000 beneficiaries. This operation sought to address micronutrient deficiencies through fortified food interventions targeting children 12-59 months, pregnant and lactating women and primary school children aged 6-13. It focused on rural and suburban areas of NTT, NTB, East Java and Greater Jakarta, with a contingency reserve being held for earthquakes, floods and landslides. Severe underfunding prompted various downsizing such as the suspension of the school feeding activity in NTT province in mid-2010, or the suspension of the support to tuberculosis patients in 2009. Following one year extension, the PRRO eventually ended in December 2011.

25. The PRRO was followed by a Country Programme (CP) that started in 2012, focusing on assistance through capacity development. The three components of the 2012-2015 CP are derived from the WFP's country strategy priorities. They focus on the monitoring, analysis and mapping of food security, disaster preparedness & response, and reducing under-nutrition. Through WFP's technical assistance and investments in capacity development, millions of indirect beneficiaries can be assisted through Government policy changes. Pending appropriate funding¹⁷, WFP will support efforts by the Government of Indonesia to achieve food and nutrition security for all,

¹⁶ The WFP Logistics Support Unit in Aceh was funded through SO 10498.1. This SO, which was part of the tsunami response, started in September 2007 and ended in March 2012. The SO was considered an innovative example of capacity development as it contributed to more efficient port operations. SO 200082 was carried out during 3 months in late 2009, and was a Logistics and Emergency Telecommunication clusters support to the humanitarian community's response to West Sumatra earthquakes.

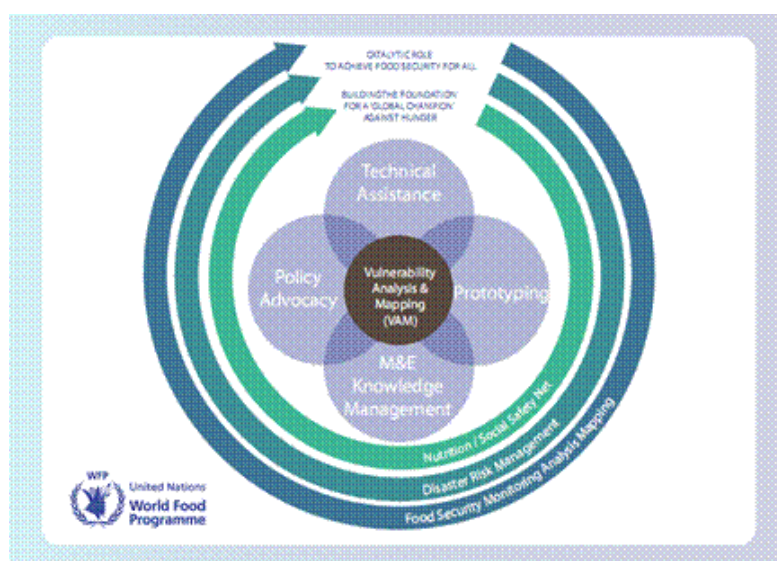
¹⁷ In mid-2013, the funding shortfall for CP 200245 amounts to some 80%.

and provide direct assistance to 417,000 beneficiaries.

26. In response to the West Sumatra earthquake and tsunami on 25 October 2010, WFP launched a 3-month Immediate Response Emergency Operation (IR-EMOP). The objective of the Nov 2010 - Jan 2011 EMOP was to support the Government's efforts to enhance its food delivery and distribution systems. In addition to the provision of fortified biscuits¹⁸, WFP assistance also included the provision of storage facilities and warehouse management for all humanitarian actors involved in the relief response.

27. The WFP Indonesia Country Strategy Document (CSD) for the 2011-2015 period outlines three strategic priorities to strengthen the Indonesian capacity to i) address food insecurity through enhanced monitoring, analysis and mapping capacity, ii) prepare for and respond to disasters and shocks and, iii) reduce undernutrition below critical levels (see table 4). The vision of the CSD is to partner with the Government of Indonesia as a catalyst in achieving food security while laying the foundation for Indonesia to become a global champion against hunger. The strategy document indicates it is aligned with the current government's 2010-2014 Medium Term Development Plan (RPJMN)¹⁹, with UNDAF priorities and with the WFP Corporate Strategic Plan²⁰. The CSD also presents the main three identified risks and related mitigation actions.

Table 4. WFP Strategic Priorities and implementation as per the Indonesia CSD 2011-2015



Source: WFP Indonesia

28. One of the identified risk related to the implementation of the WFP 5 year plan is related to the funding deficiencies. Table 5 below shows the portfolio funding level²¹ by Programme category.

¹⁸ 43 MT of fortified biscuits were distributed to 6,346 people.

¹⁹ The two main priorities for development in health of the RPJMN is to increase maternal, child and infant health - followed by the increase in nutritional status.

²⁰ The CSD focuses on 3 Strategic Objectives: SO2, SO4 and SO5. See the 2008-2013 WFP Strategic Plan Objectives – highlighting WFP transition from food aid to food assistance - in annex 3

²¹ Based on September 2013 latest available information.

Table 5. Portfolio Funding table (actual vs requirement)**WFP portfolio 2009 - 2013 by Programme Category in Indonesia**

	No. of operations	Requirements (US\$ thousand)	% of requirements by project type	Actual received (US\$ million)	% Requirements vs Received
Relief and Recovery (PRRO)	1	112.599	65%	46.208	41%
Country programme (CP)	1	44.795	26%	9.497	21%
Immediate Response Emergency Operations (IR-EMOP)	1	495	1%	459	93%
Special Operation (SO)	2	14.452	8%	8.297	57%
Total	5	172.343	100%	64.462	37%

Source: WFP The Factory

29. The IR EMOP was well funded (93 % funded). On the other hand, the PRRO suffered from almost 60% shortfall, and the 2012-2015 CP is currently critically underfunded. The CO still needs some 80 % of the resources. The current CP's shortfall affects the planned 417,000 direct beneficiaries, and also the CO's ability to deliver on SO5 activities: building of Government partnerships.

30. In 2012 the government of Indonesia and WFP formally signed a new partnership framework moving away from a "donor-recipient" relationship to a more equal partnership through a multiyear agreement for \$2.8 million²². It is also in 2012 that the Indonesian government became a full-fledged donor to WFP – making a contribution of \$2 million to WFP DPRK operations.

31. The private sector is the top one donor (USD 8.1 million) to the 2009-2013 Indonesia portfolio, followed by donations from the governments of Australia (USD 4.7 million) and Indonesia (USD 4.2 million). The largest private sector's supporters to the portfolio were Unilever, Cargill and YUM, and most of their donations were directed towards school feeding programmes.

32. The main portfolio's interventions with beneficiaries receiving direct assistance include Nutrition, School Feeding and Livelihood activities. As indicated in table 6, Nutrition (including HIV&TB) was the largest activity by beneficiary share, followed by school feeding. In addition, an important part of the portfolio is on capacity development (see paragraph 25).

²² For 4 years (2013-2016). Note that grant 10019474 has been confirmed in WINGS, however funds have not yet been disbursed in October 2013.

Table 6. Food assistance actual beneficiaries, by activities and by portfolio's operation

activity Operation	HIV&TB	School F.	Nutrition	GFD	FFW/FFT/ FFA
CP 200245		X	X		X
PRRO 100692	X	X	X		X
IR-EMOP 200218				X	
Planned % of beneficiaries	6%	35%	42%	1%	16%
Actual % of beneficiaries	5%	38%	36%	1%	20%

Source: WFP Dacota 2012

3.2. Scope of the Evaluation

33. The evaluation covers the 2009-2013 period²³ of WFP's portfolio operations in Indonesia. The portfolio evaluation covering three food assistance operations will focus mainly on the PRRO 10069.2 and the ongoing CP 200245. The IR EMOP 200218²⁴ and the Special Operations will not be a focus of the evaluation and will be evaluated only to the extent they contribute to the outcomes of WFP portfolio operations.

34. By also reviewing the 2011-2015 Country Strategy Document and the most recent information available of the priority of the Indonesian authorities, the evaluation will assess to what extent their findings validate the directions of the strategic vision for WFP in Indonesia. It will also inform the extent to which WFP Indonesia managed the transition in its operational responses from food aid (PRRO) to food assistance (CP).

35. Given the importance of capacity building²⁵ in this portfolio, the evaluation will pay particular attention to this element. The team will need to review the extent to which the new financial framework, being rolled out in 2014, is likely to provide adequate financial mechanisms and framework for CO activities in a MIC environment.

36. In light of the strategic nature of the evaluation, it is not intended to evaluate each operation individually, but to focus broadly on the portfolio as a whole. Following the established approach for WFP CPEs, the evaluation focuses on three main areas detailed in the below key evaluation questions (section 4.1).

²³ Note that the research and TOR preparation occurred during mid-2013 – information made available in late 2013 is not taken into consideration in this document.

²⁴ IR EMOP: three months duration and representing only 0.3% of the food assistance operations' funding.

²⁵ Strategic Objective 5 in the 2008-2013 WFP Strategic Plan.

4. Evaluation Questions, Approach and Methodology

4.1. Evaluation Questions

37. The CPE will be addressing the following three key questions, which will be further tailored and detailed in a matrix of evaluation questions to be developed by the evaluation team during the inception phase. Collectively, the questions aim at highlighting the key lessons from the WFP country presence and performance in the MIC context of Indonesia, which could inform future strategic and operational decisions.

38. Question one: Alignment and Strategic Positioning of WFP's Country Strategy & Portfolio. Reflect on the extent to which: i) their main objectives and related activities have been relevant to Indonesia's humanitarian and developmental needs (including women, men, boys, girls, male headed and female headed households), priorities and capacities and; ii) their objectives have been coherent with the stated national agenda and policies, including sector policies; iii) their objectives have been coherent and harmonised with those of partners (multilateral, bilateral and NGOs); iv) WFP has been strategic in its alignment and positioned itself where it can make the biggest difference, especially in a MIC environment; and v) there have been trade-offs between aligning with national strategies on one hand and with WFP's mission, strategic plans²⁶ and corporate policies on the other hand.

39. Question two: Factors and Quality of Strategic Decision Making. Reflect on the extent to which WFP: i) has analysed (or used existing analysis) the hunger challenges, the food security and nutrition issues in Indonesia - including gender issues; ii) contributed to placing these issues on the national agenda, to developing related national or partner strategies and to developing national capacity on these issues²⁷; and iii) identify the factors that determined existing choices (perceived comparative advantage, corporate strategies, national political factors, resources, organisational structure and staffing, monitoring information etc.) to understand these drivers of strategy, and how they were considered and managed when the 2011-2015 Country Strategy was developed by the CO.

40. Question three: Performance and Results of the WFP portfolio. Reflect on: i) the level of effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability of the main WFP programme activities and explanations for these results (including factors beyond WFP's control); ii) the level of synergy and multiplying effect between the various main activities regardless of the operations; and iii) the level of synergies and multiplying opportunities with partners (multilateral, bilateral and NGOs) at operational level.

²⁶The current WFP Strategic Plan (2008-2013) marked a shift for WFP as a food assistance organization. This shift was a reflection to the changing nature of food security globally. The new Strategic Plan (2014-2017) will continue its focus on food assistance. This portfolio evaluation will review past and ongoing CO's operations vis-à-vis the 2008-2013 strategic objectives, as well as the comparative advantage and positioning of the next CO's operation(s) vis-à-vis the new strategic objectives and the national priorities.

²⁷ For example, in relation to activities that may be handed over to the government (e.g. School Feeding – see 2009 SF policy). Note table 4 of the revised school feeding policy updates on possible strategies WFP can take to support countries to move through the transition process.

4.2. Evaluability Assessment

Evaluability is the extent to which an activity or a programme can be evaluated in a reliable and credible fashion. It necessitates that a policy, intervention or operation provides: (a) a clear description of the situation before or at its start that can be used as reference point to determine or measure change; (b) a clear statement of intended outcomes, i.e. the desired changes that should be observable once implementation is under way or completed; (c) a set of clearly defined and appropriate indicators with which to measure changes; and (d) a defined timeframe by which outcomes should be occurring.

41. The WFP Indonesia Country Strategy (2011-2015) developed by the CO in 2010 will bring valuable information to the evaluation as it partially guided the WFP portfolio under evaluation. However the CSD is not an operational document and does not contain performance results against which WFP reports. Thus the primary benchmarks for assessing performance will be a combination of the operation project documents, standard project reports as well as qualitative assessment of WFP's work on capacity building.

42. The evaluation will also be informed by the 2012 review made by WFP Indonesia²⁸. This publication highlights WFP's shift from the direct operational role they had prior to 2011/2012 to focus more on longer term solutions.

43. Given that the top donor to the portfolio are private donors, the evaluation may benefit from the strategic evaluation on *WFP's private sector partnership and fundraising strategy* carried out in 2012. The evaluation used a range of methods, including visits to five COs – including Indonesia.

44. Some 2013 quantitative data will not yet be available while conducting the evaluation. The evaluation team will take this into account when developing the evaluation's data collection strategy.

4.3 Methodology.

45. The evaluation will employ relevant internationally agreed evaluation criteria including those of relevance, coherence, efficiency, effectiveness, sustainability and connectedness – appropriately linked to the three key evaluation questions.

46. During the inception phase, the evaluation team will design the evaluation methodology to be presented in the inception report. The methodology will:

- Examine the logic of the portfolio based on the common objectives arising across operations;
- Be geared towards addressing the evaluation questions using triangulation of information and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data²⁹. A model looking at groups of “main activities/sectors” across a number of operations rather than at individual operations should be adopted.

²⁸“WFP Indonesia 2012 in Review”. The review is not an evaluation and is not based on norms, standards and good practice of the international evaluation community.

²⁹ The evaluation matrix – presented in the inception report - will be a crucial organizing tool for the evaluation. A qualitative approach will be key to assess WFP's work in the context of Indonesia.

- Take into account the limitations to evaluability as well as budget and timing constraints.

47. The methodology should demonstrate impartiality and lack of biases by relying on a cross-section of information sources (e.g. stakeholder groups, including beneficiaries, etc.) and following a systematic process to answering the evaluation questions with evidence.

4.5 Quality Assurance

48. WFP's evaluation quality assurance system (EQAS) is based on the UNEG norms and standards and good practice of the international evaluation community (ALNAP and DAC). It sets out processes with in-built steps for quality assurance and templates for evaluation products. It also includes quality assurance of evaluation reports (inception, full and summary reports) based on standardised checklists. EQAS will be systematically applied during the course of this evaluation and relevant documents provided to the evaluation team. The evaluation manager will conduct the first level quality assurance, while the OEV Director will conduct the second level review. This quality assurance process does not interfere with the views and independence of the evaluation team, but ensures the report provides the necessary evidence in a clear and convincing way and draws its conclusions on that basis.

49. The evaluation team will be required to ensure the quality of data (validity, consistency and accuracy) throughout the analytical and reporting phases.

5. Organization of the Evaluation

5.1. Phases and Deliverables

50. The evaluation is structured in five phases summarized in table 7 below. The three phases involving the evaluation team are concentrated as follows: The Inception phase involves a briefing of the evaluation team in Rome, followed by an inception mission to the Indonesia CO (team leader and evaluation manager), then by the inception report providing details for conducting the evaluation fieldwork. The Fieldwork phase is anticipated to require approximately 3 weeks in the field and involve primary and secondary data collection and preliminary analysis. The Reporting phase concludes with the final evaluation report (a full report and an Executive Board summary report) that will be presented to WFP's Executive Board in February 2015. A more detailed timeline can be found in annex 2.

Table 7: Summary Timeline - key evaluation milestones

Main Phases	Timeline	Tasks and Deliverables
1. Preparatory	Sept/Dec 2013	Draft and Final TOR Evaluation Team and company selection.
2. Inception	Jan/March 2014	Company contracted. Document Review. Team's briefing at WFP HQ Inception Mission and inception reports.
3. Evaluation, including fieldwork	April 2014	Evaluation mission, data collection, internal exit debrief Teleconference/Debriefing Analysis
4. Reporting	May-Oct 2014	Analysis. Report Drafting Comments Process & Reviews Final evaluation report
5. Executive Board follow up EB/1/2015 (February session)	Nov/Dec 2014 EB Secretariat: Nov 2014	Summary Evaluation Report Editing / Evaluation Report Formatting Management Response and Executive Board Preparation

5.2. Evaluation team/expertise required

51. The evaluation will be conducted by a team of independent consultants with relevant expertise for the Indonesia portfolio. It is anticipated that a core team of three evaluators (including the team leader), who may be supported by a technical specialist, will be required for the evaluation. It is expected that the team will consist of a mix of international and national consultants. Fieldwork in Indonesia will likely require a national consultant or research assistant speaking Bahasa.

52. The team leader will have the additional responsibility for overall design, implementation, reporting and timely delivering of all evaluation products. The team leader should also have a good understanding of food security issues, and familiarity with the key actors in Indonesia and with the relevant portfolio issues. He/she will have excellent reporting skills in English.

53. The evaluation team should combine between its various members the following competencies and expertise:

- Strong experience in strategic positioning related to food assistance to vulnerable populations affected by recurrent natural disasters, and related to capacity building in a MIC country.
- Deep understanding of the MIC environment in Indonesia (e.g. a geographically dispersed country still facing major food and nutrition security issues, while having social protection schemes).

- Expertise in Food security and Nutrition (especially in micronutrient interventions).
- Knowledge of WFP school feeding programme activities and policies - especially as they relate to capacity building and handover, and WFP rural livelihood activities.
- Knowledge of the UN and WFP work modalities, WFP types of programmes, and the WFP transition from food aid to food assistance.
- Ability to conduct a complex evaluation with a strong strategic dimension, and to design an appropriate methodology.

5.3. Roles and Responsibilities

54. This evaluation is managed by the WFP Office of Evaluation (OEV). Diane Prioux de Baudimont has been appointed as Evaluation Manager (EM). The EM has not worked on issues associated with the subject of evaluation in the past. She is responsible for drafting the TOR; selecting and contracting the evaluation team (via contracting a consultant firm); managing the budget; setting up the review group; organizing the team briefing in HQ; assisting in the preparation of the field mission; conducting the first level quality assurance of the evaluation products and soliciting WFP stakeholders feedback on the evaluation report. The EM will also be the main interlocutor between the evaluation team, represented by the team leader, and WFP counterparts to ensure a smooth implementation process.

55. WFP stakeholders at CO, RB and HQ levels are expected to provide information necessary to the evaluation; be available to the evaluation team to discuss the portfolio's performance and results. The CO will facilitate the organisation of the two missions³⁰ in Indonesia; facilitate the evaluation team's contacts with stakeholders in the country; set up meetings and field visits and provide logistic support during the fieldwork. The nomination of a WFP Country Office focal point will help communicating with the evaluation team. A detailed consultation schedule will be presented by the evaluation team in the Inception Report.

56. The contracted company will support the evaluation team in providing quality checks to the draft evaluation products being sent to OEV for its feedback. Particularly, the company will review the first draft evaluation report, prior sending it to OEV.

57. To ensure the independence of the evaluation, WFP staff will not be part of the evaluation team or participate in meetings where their presence could bias the responses of the stakeholders.

5.4. Communication

58. WFP stakeholders at CO, RB and in Rome will be kept informed during the evaluation process and will be invited to provide feedback on two core draft evaluation products i.e. the TOR and the evaluation report. Their role will be to cross check factual information, highlight potential gaps in the analysis, and not to provide evaluation

³⁰ The Inception Mission takes place after the evaluation team's briefing at HQ. The Team Leader and the Evaluation Manager (OEV) are coming to Jakarta. The evaluation mission/fieldwork takes place after completion of the Inception Report. The entire evaluation team is coming to Indonesia.

quality assurance or approval.

59. Evaluation preliminary findings will be shared with WFP stakeholders in CO, RB and HQ during a debriefing session, after the fieldwork. This early verbal feedback, prior to the draft evaluation report, gives WFP the opportunity to clarify issues and ensures a transparent process.

60. All evaluation products will be written in English. It is expected that the evaluation, with the contracted company providing quality control, produce reports that is of very high standard and evidence-based. While the final evaluation report is the responsibility of the evaluation team, it will be approved by the OEV Director, on satisfactory meeting of OEV's quality standards.

61. The summary evaluation report along with the management response to the evaluation recommendations will be presented to the WFP Executive Board in February 2015. The final evaluation report will be posted on the public WFP website. The CO is encouraged to circulate the final evaluation report with external stakeholders in Indonesia.

5.5. Budget

62. The evaluation will be financed from the Office of Evaluation's budget at a *total* estimated cost of USD 230,000. The total budget covers all expenses related to consultant/company rates, international travels, and OEV staff travel. The evaluation team will be hired through an institutional contract with a consultant company.

Annex B Methodology

Introduction

1. The methodology for this CPE was fully set out in the Inception Report (IR) (Turner et al, 2014). This Annex summarises the methodology adopted and comments on the team's experience in conducting the evaluation.

Evaluation guidelines and standards

2. WFP OEV's EQAS guidelines for country portfolio evaluations provided a strong procedural and methodological framework. Their clear templates for the inception report and evaluation report were very helpful. The OECD DAC and UNEG evaluation standards were adhered to. The evaluation employed the evaluation criteria according to WFP standard practice, as set out in the OEV Technical Note on the subject (WFP, nd.b).

Evaluation Matrix

3. The evaluation team took the key evaluation questions from the TOR (see o above) and broke these down into a more detailed series of evaluation questions (EQs). The evaluation matrix in Annex C shows these questions and amplifies the points addressed in answering each of them, as well as the analysis and indicators used for this purpose; the main sources of information; and the data collection methods. The detailed EQs and the matrix were designed to ensure balance between the three overarching key EQs as well as an intuitively logical sequence of enquiry.

Methodology and data collection instruments

Data Collection/Instruments

4. The main instruments for assembling data and stakeholder views were:

- **Document/literature review.** The bibliography now at Annex Q is drawn from a much larger e-library of documents gathered with the support of OEV and the CO.
- **Review of secondary data.** The e-library includes a comprehensive collection of WFP's internal data, including SPRs and annual work plans, together with country-level data on performance in the various sectors in which WFP is engaged. It is beyond the scope of this evaluation to collect additional quantitative primary data, but the team drew systematically on earlier studies. In the case of this Indonesia country portfolio, however, there were no external evaluations from the review period on which the CPE could draw.
- **Key informant and stakeholder interviews** were the main form of primary data collection. The range of interview targets was indicated in the stakeholder analysis (Table 15), and a substantial number of interviews were already conducted during the inception phase. All interviews were treated as confidential and were systematically written up by team members and shared through a compendium in a confidential section of the e-library. The compendium facilitated triangulation of different interviewee recollections and perspectives.
- **Introductory workshop.** The team and the CO held an intensive one-day workshop early in the evaluation mission (see Annex I for the full report, which it is hoped will complement the CPE report itself as an instrument for future

management of the Country Programme). This was attended by management and at least three staff working on each of the three pillars of the Country Programme. During the workshop, groups developed and refined the stakeholder analysis (Table 15) developing (and reconfirming) outcomes for each 'direct partner', reviewing the elements and logic of the theory of change for each main prototype in the portfolio, identifying the key interventions of WFP, specifying and explaining deviations between plan and performance, and attributing the contribution of WFP to changes that occurred in target variables. Particular attention was given to perceptions of performance and challenges in capacity building, the development of prototypes and the influence on GOI that such prototypes are intended to achieve. This exercise helped to build ownership in the CO of the CPE.

- **Field visits.** The principal field visit (by the full team) was to NTT province, which is where much of WFP's beneficiary-level work is currently being carried out in the fields of MCN, school feeding and FFA. Two members of the team made a shorter, secondary visit to NTB province, outside the main period of the evaluation mission. By the time of the visit, WFP's sub office and FFA activities had been closed. This provided a useful (though early) opportunity to assess the effectiveness (and possibly impact and sustainability) of the work WFP had done. Field visits were used to gather more interviews and focus group discussions (see below) and also, to the extent possible, to mitigate some of the known gaps in available data. They helped in the assessment of capacity issues, not least through observation of service delivery at local level.
- **Focus group discussions (FGDs).** The field work included FGDs with beneficiaries (with separate groups for women) and with WFP, GoI and other staff involved in delivering programmes. To gain the opinions and views of as many members of the focus group as possible, participatory approaches and tools were used where appropriate. The detailed choice and preparation of instruments was done in country in consultation with the national consultant, interpreters and other field workers.

Evaluation process, feedback and validation

5. The development of methodology during the inception phase was linked to extensive work on the country context and on initial analysis of the portfolio. Following a briefing mission to WFP HQ from 21 to 23 January, an inception mission, comprising the Team Leader, Gregory Rooney and the OEV Evaluation Manager, supported by Zoe Driscoll, then visited Jakarta from 18 to 21 February 2014. It allowed confirmation of the stakeholder analysis, initial contacts with key non-WFP stakeholders, and planning of the main evaluation timetable.

6. The full team participated in the fieldwork phase between 9 April and 30 April 2014. A number of national holidays and the national elections held on 9 April made it more difficult to schedule interviews, but it was ultimately possible to meet most of the planned interviewees. Key exceptions were Bappenas, the Ministry of Home Affairs and the Ministry of Education.

7. As in most CPEs, it was a challenge to find interviewees (particularly in WFP) who could recall the early years of implementation of the five-year portfolio under review. Due largely to resource constraints, staff turnover has been such that the institutional memory in the CO has become even shorter than it is in most organisations.

Analysis and report preparation

8. As noted above, the team developed an evaluation matrix that responded to the three main evaluation questions set out in the TOR. The report then attempted to answer the 15 sub-questions set out in the matrix, and the subordinate points under each of them. The following considerations arose, and are presented here as an aide memoire for possible discussion with, or in, OEV.

- It is not always easy in practice to distinguish clearly between main evaluation questions 1 and 2, or to drive a clear line of discussion that moves logically from 1 to 2. In practice, it is hard – and arguably not always productive – to separate discussion of strategic positioning from discussion of the quality of strategic decision-making.
- Structuring the report according to the 15 sub-questions in the matrix proved to be a somewhat mechanical exercise, which did not allow as concise and smooth flowing a discussion as might be ideal. The presentation was eventually restructured in an effort to enhance the logical progression of the information and arguments. In consequence, it probably became less clear to the reader where exactly to find the treatment of all the 15 sub-questions (and their component points) that were set out in the evaluation matrix. This was judged to be a price worth paying.
- It would be beneficial to develop a separate EQAS quality checklist for CPE reports, particularly in MICs. While the current checklist is an invaluable guide to WFP evaluation authors, there are elements of it (for example the points under section 2.3) that are less relevant for this type of evaluation.
- As the IR for this CPE acknowledged, it is difficult to undertake the analysis of efficiency, using the emerging questions and methods that OEV is now adopting, with the time and resources available to an exercise on this scale. It became necessary to restrict the efficiency discussion to a limited number of relatively qualitative points.
- As WFP's corporate portfolio evolves through the period of the current SP, the assessment of performance in the fields of capacity development and advocacy will become a more prominent part of the organisation's evaluation function. It will be important to give more attention, in EQAS and elsewhere, to appropriate methodologies for this purpose. This evaluation did apply capacity development concepts and analytical frameworks (some drawn from WFP itself) and devoted a day with the CO team to an introductory workshop that undertook stakeholder analysis across the portfolio and explored the (implicit) theories of change guiding the different work streams. While time-consuming and exploratory, this workshop was judged to be a productive input to the CPE process.

Annex C Evaluation Matrix

Area of enquiry	Specific questions	Analysis/indicators	Main sources of information	Data collection methods
Key question 1: alignment and strategic positioning of WFP's country strategy and portfolio				
Strategic positioning	EQ1. What is the strategic context of WFP's country strategy and portfolio in Indonesia?			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Indonesia's humanitarian and developmental needs (gender disaggregated), priorities and capacities National agenda, policies and co-ordination frameworks Decentralisation context, especially the role of provinces and districts Objectives and activities of strategic partners (see stakeholder analysis) Characteristics of the MIC environment Relevant aspects of WFP's mission, strategic plans and corporate policies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Standard international economic, social and governance data National development plans and relevant sector policies International analysis of MIC characteristics WFP Strategic Plans and relevant sector policies Mapping of actors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> International data sets GoI and partner policy statements (including aid strategy) WFP and other international agencies' MIC analysis and strategy Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Document research Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO GoI (national, provincial), partner agencies

Area of enquiry	Specific questions	Analysis/indicators	Main sources of information	Data collection methods
	EQ2. How relevant have the country strategy and portfolio been to Indonesia's humanitarian and developmental needs?			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do the CSD and PDs reflect a consistent strategy (and underlying theory of change) over the evaluation period? • How explicitly do the CS and portfolio address humanitarian needs? • How accurately do the CS and portfolio target humanitarian needs? • How explicitly do the CS and portfolio address developmental needs, including capacity development? • How accurately do the CS and portfolio target developmental needs, including capacity development and influencing strategy? • How gender disaggregated, balanced and proactive are the CS and portfolio? • How well targeted is the gender disaggregation of the CS and portfolio, if any (including in capacity development interventions)? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Statements in CSD and PDs • Comparison of WFP operational objectives and targets with other analysis (EQ1) • Review of treatment of gender in CSD and PDs • Comparison of WFP operational objectives regarding gender with those of national policy and partner programming • Comparison of programme data and needs data • Capacity gap analysis • Capacity framework 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CSD, PDs • Analysis generated for EQ1 • Comparable WFP and partner programme documentation and data • Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Document research • Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO, GoI (national, provincial), partner agencies
	EQ3. How well aligned have the objectives of the country strategy and portfolio been with the stated national agenda and policies?			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How coherent have the CS and portfolio been with the Long-Term and Mid-Term Development Plans? • How coherent have the CS and portfolio been with the National Food and Nutrition Action Plan (including provincial plans)? • How coherent have the CS and portfolio been with the National Disaster Management Plan? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consistency of WFP objectives and strategy (PRRO document, CSD, CP document) with relevant GoI policy, strategy and plans: at overall level of livelihood and food security and with reference to specific sectors: nutrition, disaster management and response. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CSD, PDs • Analysis generated for EQ1 • Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Document research • Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO, GoI (national), partner agencies
	EQ4. How coherent and harmonised have the country strategy and portfolio been with those of partners (multilateral, bilateral and NGOs)?			

Area of enquiry	Specific questions	Analysis/indicators	Main sources of information	Data collection methods
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have there been contradictions or duplication between the country strategy and portfolio of WFP and those of partners? How complementary have the roles of WFP and partners been? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Consistency of WFP objectives and strategy (PRRO document, CSD, CP document) with relevant partner strategies and plans and coordination frameworks Degree of active harmonisation and collaboration achieved between WFP and partners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> CSD, PDs Analysis generated for EQ1 Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Document research Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO, GoI (national), partner agencies
EQ5. How strategic has WFP been in its alignment?				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is the comparative advantage of WFP in Indonesia? How explicit is WFP's strategy about maximising its comparative advantage? How far does WFP's strategic positioning respond to the MIC environment of Indonesia? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Review of WFP CSD and PDs for analysis of comparative advantage and how it should be exploited and maximised Review of WFP CSD and PDs for analysis of MIC context and how strategy and programming should respond to it Consideration of WFP potential to add value in the context of other actors' strengths and weaknesses (EQ1 above) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> CSD, PDs Analysis generated for EQ1 Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Document research Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO, GoI (national), partner agencies
EQ6. What trade-offs have there been between WFP strategy and national strategies?				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How congruent are the WFP mission, Strategic Plan and corporate policies with the relevant elements of Indonesian national planning (see EQ3)? What deviations from global WFP strategy have there been in WFP Indonesia's country strategy and portfolio? What deviations from WFP technical standards (e.g. in nutrition and school feeding) have there been in the interests of better alignment with GoI standards? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Check for inconsistencies and/or compromises between WFP mission, SP and corporate policies and those of GoI. Are they identified as such in the WFP documentation? Check for explanation of these inconsistencies and/or compromises, if any Check for inconsistencies and/or compromises between global WFP strategy and that of WFP Indonesia Check for explanation of these inconsistencies and/or compromises, if any. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> WFP SP Relevant WFP policy statements CSD, PDs Analysis generated for EQ1 Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Document research Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO, GoI (national), partner agencies

Area of enquiry	Specific questions	Analysis/indicators	Main sources of information	Data collection methods
Key question 2: factors and quality of strategic decision-making				
Strategic decision-making	EQ7. To what extent has WFP analysed hunger challenges, food security, nutrition and gender issues in Indonesia?			
	<p>For each of its interventions, what analysis did WFP undertake in deciding whether and how to intervene? In particular:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • use of data and analysis gathered by WFP and others for strategy formulation; • analysis of the food security, nutrition, livelihoods and gender context, and how this is used for effective targeting; • information on other national and local social safety net programs and how WFP might influence and coordinate; • use of WFP research and monitoring data to inform strategic decision-making. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Review of written and oral evidence concerning the analysis WFP undertook in preparing its PDs and CSD during the review period • Assessment of clarity and thoroughness with which PDs and CSD refer to relevant data and analysis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CSD, PDs • WFP analysis and data • Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Document research • Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO
	EQ8. To what extent has WFP contributed to placing these issues on the national agenda, to developing related national or partner strategies and to developing national capacity on these issues?			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What explicit efforts has WFP made: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • in policy advocacy on hunger, food security, nutrition and gender dimensions of these challenges? • towards developing national and sub-national capacity for monitoring, analysis and decision-making in these fields? • Has WFP: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • influenced GoI and /or other partners on these issues? • strengthened national and sub-national capacity for analysis and decision-making in these fields? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysis of documentary record on WFP advocacy efforts, if any, in these areas • Analysis of documentary record on WFP capacity development efforts in these areas • Analysis of documentary evidence, if any, on the influence that WFP advocacy has had • Analysis of participant perceptions of the extent and effectiveness of WFP advocacy and capacity development in these areas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • WFP records, including SPRs • Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Document research • Interviews: OMB, CO, GoI (national and provincial), partner agencies 	

Area of enquiry	Specific questions	Analysis/indicators	Main sources of information	Data collection methods
EQ9. What internal and external factors affected WFP's choices in its country strategy and portfolio?				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To what extent were the choices in the CS and portfolio (including interim review and revision) influenced by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • perceived comparative advantage; • corporate strategies and change processes; • previous programming; • national policy; • resource availability; • organisational structure and staffing; • analysis of context and need; • monitoring information; • emergencies; • other factors? • How explicitly were these factors ranked and compared in strategic decision-making? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysis of available documentation on preparation of CS and PDs • Analysis of perceptions of participants in preparation of CS and PDs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • WFP records including Budget Revisions • Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Document research • Interviews: HQ, OM, CO (including previous incumbents)
EQ10. To what extent has WFP in Indonesia been able to learn from experience and adapt to changing contexts?				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What (systematic or ad hoc) efforts has WFP made to learn from experience in WFP, including adaptations to the changing context in Indonesia (cf EQ1 above)? • To what extent has WFP benchmarked its plans and performance in Indonesia against those of WFP and other organisations elsewhere? • How has WFP responded to developments in international understanding of food insecurity, nutrition, school feeding etc. (including the developing context of WFP's global strategy and policies)? • Do WFP's (and GoI's) monitoring systems provide feedback loops from beneficiaries, individuals and communities? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • References in WFP planning to broader WFP experience and to evolving context in Indonesia • References in WFP planning to relevant performance bench-marks and standards and developments in international understanding of paradigms, approaches • References in WFP planning to feedback from beneficiaries, individuals and communities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PRRO project document • Country Strategy Document • Country Programme document 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Document review

Area of enquiry	Specific questions	Analysis/indicators	Main sources of information	Data collection methods
Key question 3: performance and results of the WFP portfolio				
Performance and results	EQ11. How efficient have the main activities in the WFP portfolio been, and why?			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How efficient has WFP been in terms of logistics, systems and delivery? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analysis of selected unit costs: FFA, staff training, beneficiary training, selected logistics indicators, school feeding, nutrition. Comparison of cost, quality, timeliness in relation to other organisations and/or WFP in other settings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> WFP records and reports Other agencies' records and reports 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Document research Interviews: OMB, CO, partner agencies, other agencies active in the relevant sectors
	EQ12. How effective have the main activities in the WFP portfolio been, and why?			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How well targeted and effective have nutrition activities been? How well targeted and effective has capacity building in the field of nutrition been, and why? How well targeted and effective have school feeding activities been? How well targeted and effective has capacity building in the field of school feeding been, and why? How well targeted and effective have food for assets/training activities been in building household and community capacity to resist livelihood shocks and stresses? How effective has capacity building in VAM and related fields been, and why? How effective has capacity building been with regard to disaster preparedness and response, and why? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analysis of available WFP and GoI data on changes in indicator variables on relevant aspects of nutrition, livelihood resilience and institutional capacity since baseline Review of WFP M&E analysis of extent to which positive changes can be attributed to WFP activities Analysis of perceptions of qualified observers about extent to which positive changes can be attributed to WFP activities, and why 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> WFP M&E data Analysis of change in relevant variables and sectors Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Document research Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO, GoI, partner agencies, other agencies monitoring and analysing the relevant sectors
	EQ13. What has been the level of synergy and multiplying effect between the main activities in the country portfolio?			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To what extent have the main activities in the country portfolio complemented each other? What multiplying effects have there been between the main activities in the country portfolio? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analysis of linkages and complementarity between activities in the CP Analysis of extent to which activities in the CP have facilitated increased outputs and/or enhanced effectiveness of other activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> WFP records and reports Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Document research Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO 	

Area of enquiry	Specific questions	Analysis/indicators	Main sources of information	Data collection methods
EQ14. What has been the level of synergy and multiplier opportunities with partners at operational level?				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To what extent have WFP operations complemented those of multilateral, bilateral and NGO partners? • To what extent have multiplier opportunities developed between WFP operations and those of multilateral, bilateral and NGO partners? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysis of linkages and complementarity between activities in the CP and activities of partners • Analysis of extent to which activities in the CP have facilitated increased outputs and/or enhanced effectiveness of partners' activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • WFP records and reports • Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Document research • Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO, partners
EQ15. How sustainable are the results of the main activities in the WFP portfolio likely to be, and why?				
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How sustainable are the results of WFP activities in the field of nutrition likely to be? • How sustainable are the results of WFP activities in the field of school feeding likely to be? • How sustainable are the results of WFP activities in the field of food for assets/training activities likely to be in building household and community capacity to resist livelihood shocks and stresses? • How sustainable are the results of WFP activities in the field of disaster preparedness and response likely to be? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysis of perceptions of qualified observers about how sustainable WFP-influenced change is likely to be, and why 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysis of change in relevant variables and sectors • Informants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Document research • Interviews: HQ, OMB, CO, GoI, partner agencies, other agencies monitoring and analysing the relevant sectors

Annex D People Consulted

Inception Phase

Name	Affiliation	Date
Rome briefing		
Sally Burrows	OEV Deputy Head	21 and 23 January
Diane Prioux de Baudimont	OEV Evaluation Officer	21–23 January, 18–21 February
Federica Zelada	OEV Research Assistant	21–23 January
Giulia Baldi	Programme and Policy Officer (Nutrition), WFP Rome; Former Programme Officer (Nut.), WFP Indonesia	Tuesday 21 January
Natalie Aldern	Programme and Policy Officer (Nutrition), WFP Rome	Tuesday 21 January
Joyce Luma	Chief of Food Security Analysis Service, WFP Rome	Tuesday 21 January
Victor Tsang	Programme officer, Gender Office, WFP Rome	Tuesday 21 January
Anthony Craig	Emergency Preparedness and Response Chief, WFP Rome	Tuesday 21 January
Getachew Diriba	Head of Country Capacity Strengthening, WFP Rome	Wednesday 22 January
Moctar Aboubacar	Programme Policy Officer in PPI, WFP Rome	Wednesday 22 January
Meena Fernandes	School Feeding Programme Policy Consultant, WFP Rome	Wednesday 22 January
Chad Martino	Programme Officer RMP, WFP Rome	Thursday 23 January
Caterina Galluzi	Programme Officer (Donor Relations), WFP Rome	Thursday 23 January
Patricia (Pia) Artadi-Facultad	Partnership Manager, Private Partnerships Asia, WFP Bangkok Regional Office	Thursday 23 January
Volli Carucci	Chief of Resilience Unit, WFP Rome	Thursday 23 January
Interviews before Inception Mission		
Giulia Baldi	Programme and Policy Officer (Nutrition), WFP Rome; Former Programme Officer (Nut.), WFP Indonesia	Monday 10 February
Interviews during Inception Mission (18–21 Feb)		
Myrta Kaulard	Country Director, WFP Indonesia	18–21 February
Nils Grede	Deputy Country Director, WFP Indonesia	18–21 February
Anders Petersson	Programme Officer, Food Security Analysis and Program Monitoring, WFP Indonesia	18–21 February

Name	Affiliation	Date
Katherine Shea	Monitoring and Evaluation Consultant, WFP Indonesia	Tuesday 18 February
Ria Sitabutoa	Monitoring and Evaluation, WFP Indonesia	Tuesday 18 February
Elviyanti Martini	Programme Officer (Nutrition), WFP Indonesia	Tuesday 18 February
Suryani Djafar	Programme Assistant (Nutrition), WFP Indonesia.	Tuesday 18 February
Jason Brown	Training and Outreach Manager, Australia-Indonesia Facility for Disaster Reduction	Tuesday 18 February
Jeong Park	Disaster Management Adviser, Disaster Response Unit, Australia-Indonesia Facility for Disaster Reduction	Tuesday 18 February
Blandina Bait	Programme Officer (Kupang), Head of NTT Sub-Office NTT Indonesia	Wednesday 18 February
Rajan Moektijasih	Head of UNOCHA Indonesia	Wednesday 18 February
Knarik Kamalyan	Deputy Head of Office, UNOCHA	Wednesday 18 February
Titi Moektijasih	Liaison and Coordinator Officer UNOCHA	Wednesday 18 February
Stefanus Indrayana	General Manager Corporate Communication, Indofood, Jakarta	Thursday 19 February
Daniel Adriaens	Project Manager, EPR, WFP Indonesia	Thursday 19 February
Ikhsanuddin	Senior Logistics Assistant, WFP Indonesia	Thursday 19 February
Likita Dinarsyah Tuwo	Vice Minister of National Development Planning, Bappenas	Friday 20 February
Nina Sardjunani	Deputy Minister, Bappenas	Friday 20 February
Ina Hernawati	Deputy Minister for Women's Empowerment and Child Welfare, Coordinating Ministry of Social Welfare	Friday 20 February
Junjungan Tabunan	Emergency Response Director, BNPB	Friday 20 February

Evaluation Phase

Name	Affiliation
Interviews before Evaluation Mission	
Ashwani Muthoo	IFAD Office of Evaluation
Interviews during Evaluation Mission (9–30 April)	
Daniel Adriaens	Project Manager, WFP
Sharad Adhikary	Acting Country Representative , Technical Officer, WHO

Name	Affiliation
Oni Ataupah	Head, Forestry District, TTS
J. Atonis	Secretary, Food Security and Counselling Agency, TTS
Yusuf Amnifo	Nutritionist, Health Office, TTS District
Anika	Staff, Bappeda, Kupang District
Robert Arifin	Head, Nutrition and Special Food Division, Indofood
Dian Astriana	Head, Corporate Communication, GarudaFood
Nurina Ayuningtyas	Agricultural Office, Central Lombok District, NTB
Irawan B.	Staff, Marketing, GarudaFood
Dian Nurtjahjati Basuki	Officer, HIV, WFP
Semiawati Bansae	Cadre, Posyandu, Oetnutnanan Village, Kelurahan of Cendana, Soe Sub-district, TTS District
Basri	Head, Water User Farmers Group/GP3A of Tanah Beak and Karang Sidemen Villages, Central Lombok District, NTB
Tjuk Eko Hari Basuki	Head, Centre of Food Availability and Vulnerability, Food Security Agency
Melianus Bell	Secretary, Rukun Warga (RW, Community Neighbourhood Cluster), Oetnutnanan Village, Kelurahan of Cendana, Soe Sub-district, TTS District
Immanuel M.E. Bram	Education, Youth, and Sport Office, Kupang District
Jon Burrough	Co-Director, Australia-Indonesia Facility for Disaster Reduction
Yumina Bulla	Villager at posyandu meeting, Kuni, TTS District
Djose Nai Buti	Head of Department, Bappeda, NTT
Fabrice Carbonne	Country Director, Action Contre la Faim (ACF) Indonesia
Maria Catharina	Senior Programme Assistant (Nutrition/School Feeding), WFP
Dhian Dipo	Head, Sub-directorate of Micro Nutrient, Ministry of Health
Suryani Djafar	Senior Programme Assistant (Food Technologist), WFP
Sylvi Peku Djawang	Head, Food Availability and Insecurity Section, Food Security Office, Kupang
Debi Doeka	Secretary, Sanggar Suara Perempuan Foundation, TTS
Yusra Egayanti	BPOM
Ayub Titu Eki	Bupati, Kupang District
Sugeng Eko Irianto	NPO Nutrition, WHO
Erniah	Food Security Agency
Mery Fallo	Cadre, Posyandu, Kuni, TTS
Nimrod Fallo	BPD member, Kuni, TTS
Frids	Staff, Bappeda, Kupang District
Nikendarti Gandini	Head, WFP Sub-Office, Papua
Maxi Gelan	Villager at posyandu, Leobisa, TTS
Rajan Gengaje	Head, OCHA Indonesia
Nils Grede	Deputy Country Director, WFP

Name	Affiliation
Peter Guest	Programme Adviser, WFP Regional Bureau for Asia
Prateek Gupta	Country Director, Helen Keller International (HKI) Indonesia
Fatchul Hadi	Primary Secretary, BNPB
Harlan Hale	Regional Adviser, OFDA
Lalang Ken Handita	Food Security Agency
Prihatin Haryono	Head, Food Availability Department, Food Security Office, NTB
Ina Hernawati	Deputy VI, Coordination Department of Women Empowerment and Children Welfare, Ministry of Coordination for People Welfare
Hadji Husen	Head, Food Security Office, Kupang
Ikhsanuddin	Logistics Officer (Supply Chain, DRR), WFP
Charles Kumar	Logistics Officer, Jakarta, WFP
Stefanus Indrayana	General Manager, Corporate Communication, Indofood
Dwi Setyo Irianingsih	Manager, Corporate Social Responsibility, Corporate Communication Division, Indofood
Isbandrio	Head, Community Nutrition, Health Office, NTT
Purwanta Iskandar	Head, UNICEF Sub Office, Kupang
Vinhus Istinari	Senior Programme Assistant (Pipeline), WFP
Doddy Izwardy	Director, Directorate of Nutrition, Ministry of Health
Lalu Kelan Jali	Food Security and Counselling Implementation Agency, Central Lombok District, NTB
Dedi Junadi	Programme Officer (VAM), WFP
Adam Jung	Monitoring and Evaluation Officer, USAID
Kris Kalfatu	Staff, Bappeda, Kupang District
Sinta Kaniawati	General Manager, Unilever Indonesia Foundation
Knarik Kamalyan	Deputy Head, OCHA Indonesia
Myrta Kaulard	Country Director, WFP
Maria Kefi	Villager at posyandu, Leobisa, TTS
Selfi Kefi	Teacher, Gemit Primary School of Oelbubuk Village, Molo Tengah Sub-district, TTS
Herman Yosef Darius Tome Kelen	Programme Assistant, WFP, NTT
Matheus A. Krivo	Director, Animasi local NGO, TTS
Khiam Jin Lee	Head of Corporate Affairs and Programme Division, ASEAN Co-ordinating Centre for Humanitarian Assistance on Disaster Management
Daniel Leuama	Villager at posyandu, Leobisa, TTS
Dinti Loasana	Teacher, State Karisin Primary School, Kupang District
Cory Manafe	Staff, Education, Youth, and Sport Office, Kupang District
Johanis Bau Manek	Field Monitor Assistant, WFP, NTT
Asthryda AW Maranda	Field Monitor Assistant, WFP, NTT
Mohamad Marji	Programme Officer (Nutrition/Safety Nets Programme, WFP)
Elviyanti Martini	Programme Officer (Nutrition), WFP

Name	Affiliation
Dju Maurits	Staff, Bappeda, Kupang District
Jakup Mauvano	General Village Staff, Balu, TTS
Jemi Mella	Head, BPBD, Kupang
Ravi Menon	Country Manager, Global Alliance for Improved Nutrition (GAIN) Indonesia
Yohana Mubatonis	Cadre, Posyandu, Kuni, TTS
Mukah	Forestry Office, Central Lombok District, NTB
Norwina Nabunome	Villager at posyandu meeting, Kuni, TTS
Yoseph Nahak	Head, Food Testing Section, BPOM NTT
Obed Naitboho	Vice Head, TTS District
Yusak Na'o	Forestry Assistant, TTS
Yoselfina Neolaka	Posyandu cadre, Leobisa, TTS
Yusak Oppusunggu	Programme Specialist, USAID
Niken Esti P.	Staff, Market Insight, Garudafood
Yupiter Pah	Head, Department Cooperation, Cooperation and Investment Agency, TTS
Jeong Park	Disaster Management Adviser, Disaster Response Unit, Development Cooperation, Australian Embassy, Jakarta
Anders Petersson	Food Security Analysis and Programme Monitoring Officer, WFP
Marthen Rahakbauw	Head, Bappeda, Kupang District
Teuku Rahmatsyah	Assistant Country Director, Head of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation Unit, UNDP
Ha'i Raja Lawa	Acting Head, WFP Sub Office, NTT
Eninofa W. Rambe	Manager, Timor and Sumba Area, World Vision Indonesia
Nova Ratnanto	Emergency Officer, OCHA Indonesia
Hosianilu Rantau	Head, Health Office, TTS
Alberto C. Real	Head, Food and Horticulture Vegetation Section, Agriculture Office, TTS
Yeni Restiani	BPOM
Detty Rosita	Deputy Assistant, Deputy VI, Coordination Department of Women Empowerment and Children Welfare, Ministry of Coordination for People Welfare
M. Saleh	Staff, Health Office, Kupang District
Rut Salem	Cadre, posyandu, Kuni, TTS
Stanlake Samkange	Director of Policy, Programme and Innovation Division, OSZ, WFP
Semuel Sele	Principal, State Karisin Primary School, Kupang District
Helena Seran	Nutrition Specialist, ACF Indonesia, TTS
Susten Susfaet	Head, Sub-department, Cooperation Department, Cooperation and Investment Agency, TTS
Yulius Sesfad	Principal, Gemit Primary School of Oelbubuk Village, Molo Tengah Sub-district TTS

Name	Affiliation
Widya Setiabudi	Senior Programme Manager, Australia-Indonesia Facility for Disaster Reduction
Katherine Shea	Monitoring and Evaluation Consultant, WFP
Junji Shimada	Minister, Embassy of Japan
Pandapotan Siallagan	Secretary, Bappeda, Kupang District
Juairia Sidabutar	Programme Officer (M&E), WFP
Tetty Herlfery Sihombing	Director for Food Product Standardisation, BPOM
Grace Silvia	BPOM
Sintus	BPBD, Kupang
Daud Sira	Chair of School Committee, State Karisin Primary School, Kupang District
M. Solihin	Bappeda, Central Lombok District, NTB
Satriyani Sonbai	Villager at posyandu meeting, Kuni, TTS
Sumalee Steruphansen	Logistics Officer, WFP, NTT
Anung Sugihantono	Director, Directorate General of Nutrition and Mother Child Health
Bambang Sulistianto	Deputy, Bidang Logistics, BNPB
Micha Sumule	Field Monitor Assistant, WFP, NTT
Sunardi	Director, Logistics, BNPB
Nunuk Supraptinah	Senior Programme Assistant, WFP, NTT
Suratmono	Acting Deputy for Food Safety and Hazardous Substance Control, BPOM
Iip Syaiful	Head, Sub-directorate of Macro Nutrient
Willy Tael	Staff, Animasi Local NGO, TTS
Epi Tahun	Assistant, District Office, TTS
Yuma Taibolo	Staff, Bappeda, Kupang District
Kazuko Takabatake	Attaché (Agriculture, Food and Agro-Industry), Embassy of Japan
Nelson Tanelab	Villager at posyandu, Leobisa, TTS
Theresia Laura Bere Tarak	Logistics Assistant (NTT)
Johanis FD Telsoni	Head, Non-formal and Informal Department, Education Office, TTS
Filpin Therik	Head of Program, Sanggar Suara Perempuan Foundation, TTS
Simon Heintje Tulandi	Project Manager, STBM SHAW-TTS/TTU, Plan International Indonesia
Shigeru Ushio	Minister, Embassy of Japan
Coco Ushiyama	Former Country Director, WFP Indonesia. Country Director, WFP Malawi (by telephone)
I Wayan Aswina Widiastika	Staff, Food Security Office, Kupang District
Marcellinus Jerry Winata	Officer, Public Information and Private Sector Relation, WFP
Waila Wisjnu	Manager, Health, Wellbeing and Nutrition, Unilever Indonesia Foundation
Sri Wulandari	Maternal Children Health and Nutrition Specialist, NTT Area, Word Vision Indonesia
Teuku Yunansyah	Senior Programme Assistant, WFP, NTB/NTT

Name	Affiliation
Triwidiastuti	Head, Economic Planning Unit, Bappeda, Central Lombok District, NTB
Yettyasani	Food Security and Counselling Implementation Agency, Central Lombok District, NTB
Mohammad Zubirman	Head, Sub-department of Food Vulnerability and Stock, Department of Food Availability, Food Security Office, NTB

Annex E Additional Information on the Portfolio

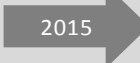


Table 5 Portfolio Details

Project Number	Title	Approval Date	Food Budget (dollars)	Total WFP project budget (dollars)
197	Rehabilitation after Volcanic Eruption	12/06/1964	1,168,050	1,866,761
469	Lombok Rehabilitation Scheme	11/03/1969	877,598	1,135,410
590	Off Shore Exploration for Research	23/01/1970	25,923	32,799
617	Maternal and Child Health Centres	15/04/1970	13,244,989	16,205,560
648	Reaffor. And Water Shed in the Upper Solo River	08/11/1970	4,762,160	6,038,210
589	Irrigation land Development and Settlem. In Sumatra	22/10/1971	2,294,672	3,479,735
714	Hospital Feeding	25/04/1972	520,798	743,274
715	Rehab. And Develop. In Transmigration Areas in Sumatra	28/04/1972	3,654,399	5,294,069
648PX	Reforestation and Watershed Management	25/03/1975	2,955,846	3,812,702
2055	Transmigration and Settlem. For Agri. Development	03/10/1975	2,436,181	3,876,820
2260	Agric. Development through Transmigration	30/08/1976	3,200,500	4,195,000
2340	Volcanic Debris Control	04/11/1977	9,181,900	13,232,100
2343	Social economic Develop. In Java Forestry activities	31/10/1978	7,871,000	10,059,100
617PX	Maternal and Child Health Centres	24/05/1979	4,665,500	5,877,000
2482	Flood Control and Rehabilitation	22/06/1979	1,376,100	2,026,600
2260P1	Rural Development through Transmigration	31/10/1979	1,811,000	2,408,000
259700	Regional development through transmigration in Sulawesi Province	29/10/1981	20,501,133	26,313,170
2574	Development training and Income Generation activity for women	12/11/1981	984,600	1,339,400
262300	Regional development through transmigration in Riau Province	29/04/1982	13,939,843	16,796,345
262100	Watershed Rehabilitation in East Nusa Tenggara Province	07/10/1983	1,190,551	1,943,334
281200	Regional development through transmigration in Lampung	30/05/1986	32,558,071	38,222,543
262101	Watershed Rehabilitation in East Nusa Tenggara Province	14/12/1990	5,397,019	6,123,514
430500	Development of rainfed Agriculture in east Java	09/08/1991	1,484,700	1,765,468
680QX	Volcanic Debris Control	24/08/1970	1,008,364	1,358,537
2057QX	Rehabilitation Irrigation Canal	24/01/1973	804,162	1,155,856
2058QX	Rehabilitation Irrigation Canal in Demak	24/01/1973	734,650	895,092
2059QX	Rehabilitation Irrigation Canal in Java	24/01/1973	804,449	995,113
2060QX	Rehabilitation Irrigation Canals Wonogiri	24/01/1973	771,882	947,525
2061QX	Rehabilitation Irrigation Canals Jogjakarta	24/01/1973	844,848	1,106,299
2062QX	Rehabilitation Irrigation Canals Panogoro	24/01/1973	695,348	827,430
2063QX	Rehabilitation Irrigation Canals East Java	24/01/1973	676,399	831,541
2064QX	Rehabilitation Irrigation Canals Bojonegoro	24/01/1973	880,204	1,063,070
2065QX	Rehabilitation Irrigation Canals East Java	24/01/1973	742,042	947,485
2066QX	Rehabilitation Irrigation Canals South Sulawesi	24/01/1973	293,745	426,509

2392QX	Construction irrigation canal Kebumen	17/06/1977	994,977	1,413,572
376800	Raheilitation Works drought Areas Central Java, West & East Tenggara	12/09/1989	1,470,000	1,984,500
806EM	Relief of Victims - Volcanic Eruption Bali	09/04/1963	666,215	951,649
846EM	Famine Relief, Island of Lombok	14/12/1967	154,577	210,114
866EM	Flood Victims East Java	15/05/1968	286,275	389,930
869EM	Resettlement of Refugees in Kalimantan	29/07/1968	712,542	1,010,041
862EM	Flood Victims	06/04/1970	302,522	363,425
981EM	Drought Victims	13/12/1972	794,560	1,036,444
1057EM	Refugees from East Timor	24/02/1976	156,727	182,419
1132EM	Vulcanic Eruptions and Drought	18/05/1978	439,635	583,624
1170EM	Food Assistance to flood, landside and drought victims	07/06/1979	2,342,200	2,892,500
1181EM	Food Aid to Vietnamese Refugees	13/07/1979	1,600,460	2,258,583
1284EM	Food Assistance to indo-China Refugees	28/04/1982	407,550	639,550
1314RF	Assistance to Victims of the Galunggung Eruptions	03/12/1982	2,324,400	2,744,230
1348RF	Emergency Assistance to Refugees from Indo-China	25/08/1983	387,000	507,500
1397EM	Emergency Assistance to Refugees from Indo-China	09/07/1984	423,000	665,200
1425EM	Emerg. Assistance to Refugees from Indo-China	07/02/1985	273,600	315,000
1432RF	Emergency Assistance to Refugees from Indo-China	04/04/1985	328,000	398,000
143201	Emergency Assistance to Refugees from Indo-China	06/09/1985	189,869	243,390
143202	Emergency Assistance to Refugees from Indo-China	25/03/1986	85,050	85,052
316900	Food-Aid for Refugees from indo-China	29/08/1986	271,460	320,489
416000	Food-Aid for Refugees from indo-China	19/10/1989	1,474,123	1,521,696
416001	Food Assistance for Refugees of Indo-China	14/12/1990	2,209,401	2,404,223
416002	Food Assistance for Refugees of Indo-China	18/09/1992	1,750,006	1,903,417
6006.0	Assistance to Drought Victims	23/04/1998	86,940,709	148,218,540
6195.0	Food Assistance for the Urban Poor Affected by the Economic Crisis	09/02/2000	47,941,705	74,719,983
10069	Assistance to IDPs/Urban Poor	13/02/02	37,056,180	63,713,727
10069.1	Assistance to Recovery and Nutritional Rehabilitation	27/02/04	53,440,693	108,323,608
100692	Nutritional Rehabilitation in Indonesia	13/06/07	74,516,661	112,599,501
10402	Assistance to People Affected by the Earthquake and Tidal Waves	27/12/04	316,400	498,877
10405	Assistance to Tsunami Victims - Indian Ocean Region	04/01/05	100,783,823	200,760,745
10406	Logistics Augmentation in Support of WFP Indian Ocean Tsunami EMOP	03/01/05		22,413,794
10407	WFP Air Support of Humanitarian Relief Operations - Indian Ocean Tsunami	03/01/05		45,550,223
10408	Establish. of a UN Joint Logistics Centre	03/01/05		5,649,768
10498	WFP Shipping Services to support the Temporary Shelter Plan of Action	21/10/05		42,313,990
104981	WFP Logistics Support Unit	08/10/07		12,455,623
10526	Immediate Response Emergency Operation Earthquake in Central Java	29/05/06	351,710	499,756
200082	Logist, and Emergency Telecom. Clusters Support to the Humanit. Community's Response to West Sumatra Earthquakes	09/10/09		1,997,308
200218	Mentawai Tsunami, West Sumatra	05/11/10	116,325	495,567
200245	Country Programme	16/11/11	20,318,997	44,558,762
Total	74 Operations		586,185,978	1,093,135,691

Source: Terms of Reference

Table 6 Timeline and funding level of Indonesia portfolio 2009–2013

Operation	Title	Time Frame	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
CP 200245	Country Programme	Jan 12 - Dec 15							Req: \$44,795,183 Contrib: \$11,913,886 % Funded: 27		2015 	
IR-EMOP 200218	Mentawai Tsunami, West Sumatra	Nov 10 - Jan 11				Req: \$495,567 Contrib: \$459,677 % Funded: 93						
SO 200082	Logist. and Emerg. Telecom. Clusters Support to the Humanit. Community's Response to West Sumatra Earthquakes.	Oct 09 - Dec 09		Req: \$1,997,308 Contrib: \$670,357 % Funded: 34								
PRRO 100692	Nutritional Rehabilitation in Indonesia	May 08 - Dec 11	2008 		Req: \$ 112,599,501 Contrib: \$46,208,610 % Funded: 41							
SO 104981	WFP Logistics Support Unit	Oct 07 - Mar 12	2007 		Req: \$12,455,623 Contrib: \$ 7,627,063 % Funded: 61							
Food Distributed (MT)			12,955		5,180		4,694		1,437		1,222	
Direct Expenses (US\$ millions)			18,334,000		10,429,000		8,494,000		5,998,000		3,679,145	
% Direct Expenses: Indonesia vs. WFP World*			0%		0%		0%		0%		0%	
Beneficiaries (actual)			M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
			439,102	562,569	190,367	212,671	146,192	185,494	44,424	45,865	29,188	33,903
Total of Beneficiaries (actual)			1,001,671		403,038		331,686		90,289		63,091	

Source: SPR 2013, Resource Situation May 2014, APR 2009 - 2013

Requirements (Req.) and Contributions (Contrib.)

*Absolute figures are too low and not captured by the %

Table 7 Indonesia 2009–2013 – Financing Sources

Donor	CP Indonesia 2012–2015		PRRO 10069.2	
	Confirmed to end 2013 (USD)	Share of Requirement	Confirmed (USD)	Share of Requirement
Japan	1,237,878	2.76%	253,000	0.22%
USA	1,250,000	2.79%		
World Bank	549,995	1.23%		
Australia			10,102,271	8.97%
EC			835,655	0.74%
Germany			369,822	0.33%
Indonesia			6,945,363	6.17%
UN CERF			1,991,584	1.77%
Multilateral	3,147,494	7.03%	9,552,656	8.48%
Private Donors	4,001,358	8.93%	7,939,804	7.05%
Carryover from previous operations	864,006	1.93%	7,311,211	6.49%
Miscellaneous Income	634	0.00%	907,243	0.81%
Total	11,051,365		46,208,609	
Operational Requirements	44,795,183		112,599,501	
Shortfall	33,743,818		66,390,892	
% Shortfall	75.33%		69.60%	
% Received	24.67%		30.40%	

Source: WFP, 2011f; WFP, 2012d

Table 8 Overview of major operations

Operation Number	Operation Title	Timing	Strategic Objective	Objective	Activities	Beneficiaries by activity	Planned Beneficiary number	Funding obtained	Donors	Cooperating International Agencies	Operational Government Partners
PRRO	PRRO 100692 – Nutrition Rehabilitation in Indonesia	1 May 2008 – 30 June 2012	SO1, SO2, SO3, SO4	The PRRO addressed micronutrient deficiencies to improve the nutritional status of vulnerable groups, focusing on the eastern areas of Indonesia.	The PRRO comprises five major components: school feeding, mother and child nutrition (MCN), food for work (FFW), assistance to tuberculosis (TB) patients and capacity development.	WFP assistance focuses on rural areas of acute poverty, food deficits and high under-nutrition – East Java, Madura, Lombok, West Timor and slums in Java 1) School feeding covers all primary schools in targeted districts, including areas of Greater Jakarta. Children aged 6–13 receive fortified biscuits School Feeding phased out in NTT (2010) and NTB (2011). 2) MCN concentrates on children aged 2–5 and pregnant and lactating mothers. 3) Private and public TB clinics identified in the poorest communities of Greater Jakarta, East Java and West Timor, where the highest TB rates occur. Activity suspended June 2009. 4) FFW target poor communities in Madura, Lombok and NTT. The involvement of women in identifying and managing projects was encouraged 5) Relief for Padang earthquake victims.	845,000	US\$46,208,610	Australia, EC, Germany, Indonesia, Japan, Private Donors, UN CERF, Multilaterals	UNICEF, FAO, UNDP, ILO	Coordinating Ministry of People's Welfare; National Disaster Management Agency (BNPB); Government agencies at the district level, including Education, Health, Forestry, Agriculture, and Public Works
CP 200245	CP 200245 – Country Programme Indonesia	01 January 2012 – 31 December 2015	SO2, SO4, SO5	Supports the government's commitment to achieve food and nutrition security for all, and is designed to enhance the government's	Food-assistance-for-assets (FFA), mother and child nutrition (MCN) and home-grown school meals were	Beneficiaries were the most vulnerable communities, in terms of food insecurity, under-nutrition and impact of climate change. Geographic targeting was based on the food security and vulnerability atlas (FSVA) and government consultations, and concentrated on Nusa	416 960	US\$11,051,364	Japan, Private Donors, USA, World Bank, Multilaterals	UNICEF, FAO, UNDP	National Disaster Management Agency (BNPB); Ministry of Planning; the Vice President's

			capacity in three areas: (i) monitoring, analyzing, mapping and addressing food security; (ii) emergency preparedness and response; and (iii) the reduction of under-nutrition below critical levels. WFP's approach was to provide food assistance, addressing immediate needs of the most vulnerable groups in high priority food and nutrition insecure provinces, while also investing in evidence-based interventions and strategic partnerships to strengthen WFP policy advocacy efforts.	implemented in partnership with local government and the private sector.	Tenggara Barat (NTB), Nusa Tenggara Timur (NTT) and Papua provinces. 1) School Feeding pilot schools were prioritised due to the limited funding available 2) MCN activities focused on the critical window of opportunity of the first 1,000 days (from pregnancy until two years of age) for the prevention of stunting. 3) Food FFA, participation of women was encouraged, especially for mangrove plantation, while more men participated in land conservation and construction of water catchment.					office; Ministry of Health
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Source: Project Documents; Resource Situation Documents; SPRs 2009-2013

Table 9 Summary of WFP Indonesia portfolio, 2009–2013

The two periods shown in this table represent the first part of the review period, dominated by the PRRO, and the second, dominated by the CP.

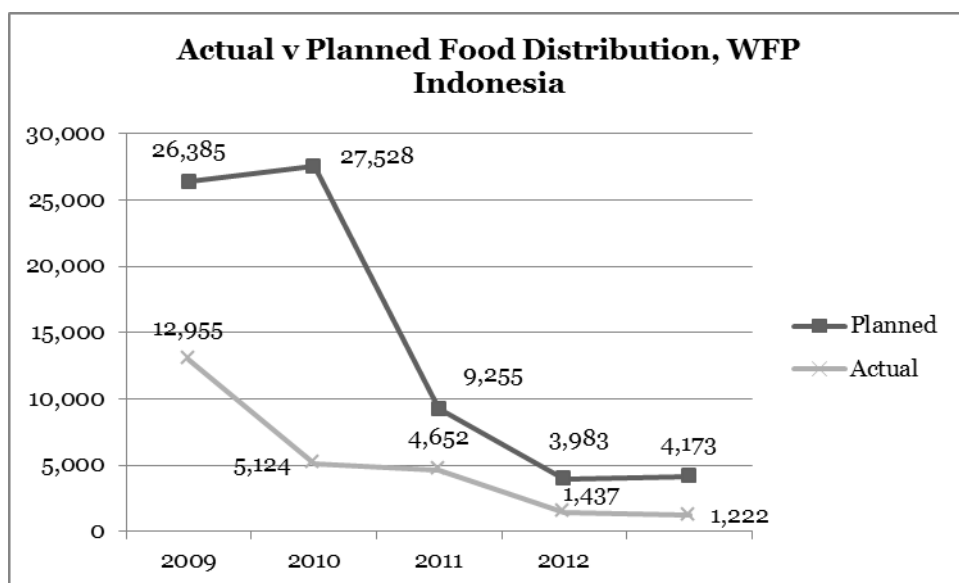
Sector	2009 – 2011		2012 – 2013		Significant changes
	Activity	Location	Activity	Location	
VAM	<p>WFP food security analysis and mapping played important role in identifying food insecure areas and targeting assistance.</p> <p>Food Security and Vulnerability Atlas (FSVA) of Indonesia (2009) launched in May 2010. The Atlas is fully integrated within the government system and the government Food Security Offices through WFP capacity building.</p> <p>WFP also provided technical assistance to development of provincial FSVAs of 14 vulnerable provinces and developed a prototype FSVA for NTT and NTB with the central food security agency, the National Statistics Office and other research institutions</p> <p>In 2010 community government officials trained in monitoring, analysis and mapping activities.</p> <p>By 2011 the level of co-funding for joint projects by the Government particularly for VAM related activities increases.</p>	<p>National, Provincial and District levels. Prototypes on NTT and NTB.</p>	<p>WFP food security analysis and mapping played important role in identifying food insecure areas and targeting assistance, which concentrated on the eastern part of the country (NTT, NTB, Papua).</p> <p>FSVA used as advocacy tool. Chief achievement of WFP’s analytical work of 2012 was the influence of the FSCA on to two principal policy documents: the FNAP (GoI, 2010b) and the CCAP (GoI, 2007). VAM studies were also incorporated into and gave increased momentum to SUN.</p> <p>A third edition of the FSVA was developed during 2013 in collaboration with Indonesia’s Food Security Agency.</p> <p>National Food Security Agency uses WFP prototype FSVAs to replicate over 20 provinces.</p>	<p>National</p>	<p>Increased contribution from the Government of Indonesia towards VAM activities.</p> <p>Growing GoI capacity to undertake VAM and produce FSVAs</p>
EPR	<p>SO [Special Operation] 200082: WFP Special Operation, supporting the efforts of the Indonesian authorities and the humanitarian community's response following the aftermath of the Padang Earthquake of September 2009. Provided assets, equipment, staff, systems and facilities that ensured logistics gaps in the supply chain to be filled and that the use of available assets to be optimized to provide a timely and efficient humanitarian response. The operation also supported the coordination, and information management for the logistics cluster response; as well as the provision of emergency telecommunications and data-communication networks and services for the humanitarian community.</p> <p>SO 10948.1: Three major activities under this Special Operation were: Phase 1. Providing logistical support and</p>	<p>Emergency Response to Mentawai Islands (2011)</p> <p>Special Operation of Padang Earthquake 2009.</p> <p>Special Operation Aceh</p>	<p>Continuing focus of SO 10948.1 on DRR capacity development of BPBA, BPBD staff and Rapid Response Team members.</p>	<p>Aceh</p>	<p>Experience gained during Special Operation folded in to EPR activities under CP</p>

Sector	2009 – 2011		2012 – 2013		Significant changes
	Activity	Location	Activity	Location	
	<p>consultancy to private sector and humanitarian organizations involved in rebuilding tsunami-affected areas; Phase 2. Assessing port and institutional capacity, procuring and delivering training programmes and; Phase 3. Forecasting latent cargo demands through the development of a database of existing and potential cargo.</p> <p>Port development program completed by September 2010. Various consultations with local authorities and the Multi Donor Trust Facility concluded that the demand for WFP to continue its operations in Aceh under its current portfolio of activities and technical capabilities remained. These consultations identified a need for capacity-building beyond the scope of port management and noted the results obtained from the achievements of the previous</p> <p>Relations developed with the University of Syiah Kuala and the Ministry of Transportation to enhance the uptake and sustainability of the port training courses. New partnership developed from 2011 with the local government's planning department to develop their supply chain management capacities through the implementation of a joint initiative.</p> <p>2011 Emergency Response to earthquake and tsunami (3 month) supporting Government efforts to enhance food delivery and distribution systems. Provision of fortified biscuits and provision of storage facilities and warehouse management for all humanitarian actors involved.</p>				
MCN	<p>Through MCN activities, children (12–59 months) received a monthly ration of biscuits (2009/2010/2011), while pregnant and lactating women received a monthly ration on noodles (2009) and rice (2010). Food was distributed to PLW and children under 5 community health posts.</p> <p>WFP phased out MCN in NTB in 2011.</p>	NTT, NTB, East Java	<p>MCN activities focused on the critical window of opportunity of the first 1,000 days (from pregnancy until 2 years of age) for the prevention of stunting, using locally available specialised products for children 6–23 months (rice-soya blend (MPASI)) and pregnant and lactating women (fortified biscuits). Assistance delivered through community health posts.</p> <p>Children 24–59 months also received fortified biscuits to prevent acute malnutrition and</p>	<p>Prioritisation of the targeted sub-districts due to under-funding. By 2013, operating only in TTS district, NTT.</p>	<p>Shift in emphasis away from treating acute malnutrition to focusing on preventing stunting and continuing to prevent acute malnutrition.</p>

Sector	2009 – 2011		2012 – 2013		Significant changes
	Activity	Location	Activity	Location	
			<p>micronutrient deficiency but this was phased out in 2013.</p> <p>WFP invested in technical capacity development of national counterparts, providing training to staff on nutrition, health and hygiene, including trainings for local health posts personnel on anthropometric measurement of young children.</p> <p>Progress made in local development of lipid-based nutrient supplement, with WFP technical assistance. Study initiated to compare the effectiveness of LNS and MPASI to prevent peaks in wasting during the lean season.</p> <p>Cost of Diet study published in 2013.</p>		Shift in focus to first 1000 days from conception.
School feeding	In 2009, school feeding activities in Jakarta ceased but the Padang earthquake meant an increase in beneficiaries from school feeding. In 2010 the distribution of biscuits as a school feeding activity were phased out in NTT and WFP started small pilot school-meal activity using local food based school meals approach. Funded by private sector (UNILEVER). In 2011 WFP school feeding activity also phased out in NTB.	East Java, NTT, NTB. LFBSM prototype started in NTT, 2010, and conventional school feeding phased out there.	Home grown school meals pilots promote purchasing local food, school gardens, and nutrition and hygiene education. This continues to be funded by private sector (UNILEVER) and implemented in partnership with local government Study initiated in 2013 to investigate effectiveness of adding MNP powder to school meals.	Prototype started in Muara Tami sub-district, Jayapura district, Papua since 2012. Also Kupang rural and TTS districts, NTT.	Move towards local food based school meals.
FFW/A/T	<p>2009 FFW activities included targeting vulnerable populations, creating small-scale agriculture and rural infrastructure assets.</p> <p>2009 saw the first cost sharing of the government for capacity building efforts and FFW activities.</p> <p>Rice rations distributed under FFA and FFT activities.</p> <p>In 2011, following WFP phasing out FFA activities in 2010, the district of Timor Tengah Utara, NTT province, replicated FFA activities.</p>	NTT	<p>2012 FFA project began to build a dam and irrigation canal in Karang Sideman Village. WFP provided rice as incentive.</p> <p>In 2013 FFA activities targeted rural communities that are food and nutrition insecure and vulnerable to climate change. Rice and oil distributed to farmers as incentive for improving assets, such as water management. WFP trains farmer groups on land conservation and home garden development.</p>	NTB and NTT	

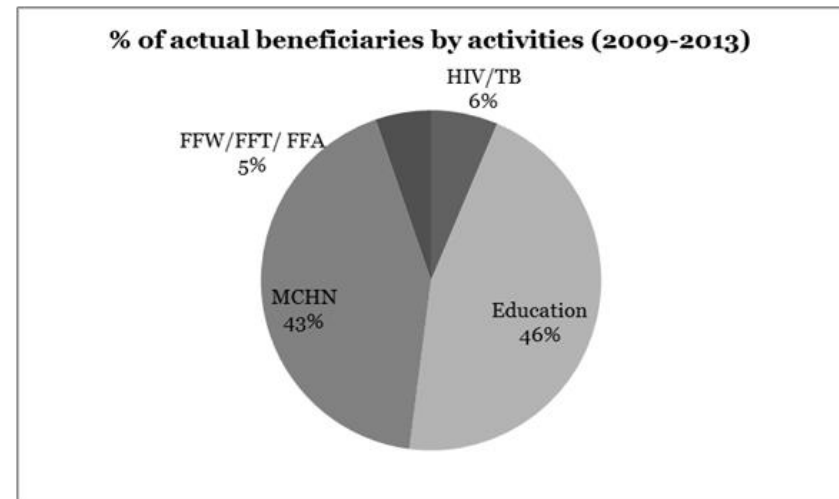
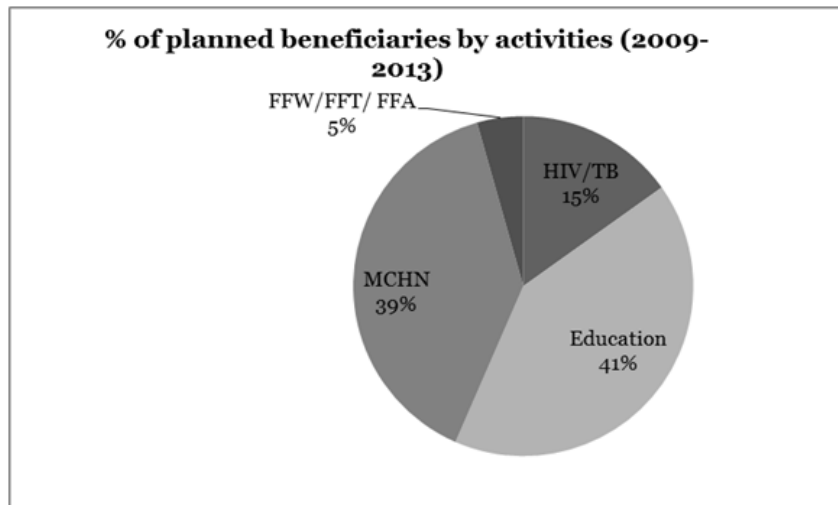
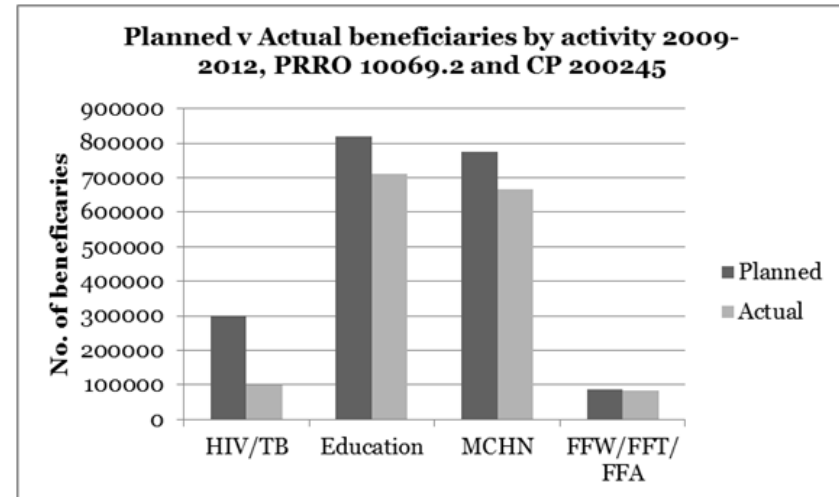
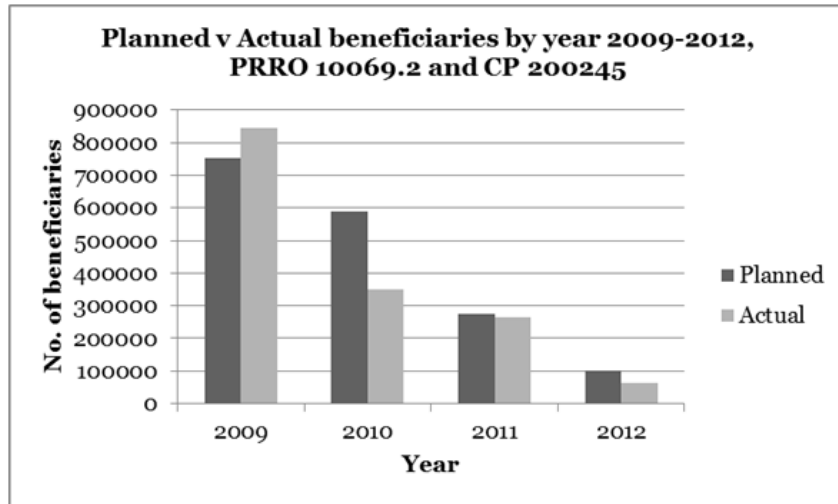
Source: SPRs 2009–2013

Figure 4 Actual v Planned Food Distribution 2009–2013



Source: SPRs 2009–2013

Figure 5 Planned and Actual Beneficiaries 2009–2012



Source: SPRs 2009–2013

Annex F Analysis in the Fields of MCN and School Feeding

Table 10 Analysis in the fields of MCN and school feeding

	MCN	School feeding
2010	Nutrition mapping and gap analysis: a mapping exercise to compile an inventory of nutritional status among the subgroups, map the main stakeholders and priorities and define WFP's added value and approach to nutrition. This was a key exercise in shaping the CSD (WFP, 2010o).	
2010	Joint Study on Nutrition Security and Food Security in Seven Districts in NTT Province, Indonesia: Status, Causes and Recommendations for Response: assessed the food and nutrition security situation in NTT and tried to link it to malnutrition indicators (FAO et al., 2010).	
2011	Lessons learned from the MCN in West Nusa Tenggara province: reviewed experience during the PRRO (WFP, 2011q).	
2011	Cash transfer feasibility study in NTT and NTB: explored feasibility of cash and voucher transfers as a more sustainable option than direct food deliveries (WFP, 2011r).	
2012	Anthropometric data: from late 2012, WFP has been collecting these data from children attending 30 <i>posyandus</i> in order to monitor the effects of the MCN programme.	WFP and the Research Centre for Population, Indonesian Institute of Sciences undertook a baseline study of the WFP Local Food Based School Meal (LFBSM) Programme in Timor Tengah Selatan (TTS) and Kupang Districts (Noveria et al, 2012).
2013	Cost of diet tool: this study looked at the proportion of households that could afford the minimum cost of a theoretical diet satisfying all family nutrient requirements in four areas of Indonesia (WFP, 2013o).	Building on the 2012 baseline survey, WFP and the Gadjah Mada University prepared a report on "preliminary findings from baseline data collection, effectiveness study on the integration of micronutrient powder into LFBSM in TTS and Kupang district" (WFP & CRH, nd).
2013	Study on Behavioural Analysis and Food Consumption/Dietary Practices amongst Children Under Five, Elementary School Age Children, Pregnant and Lactating Women in Timor Tengah Selatan District of NTT: since caring practices have been identified as a key factor in under-nutrition, this study aimed to explore the practices of mothers and children and determine what influences them (Hadi et al, 2013).	WFP undertook a baseline survey for the school meals programme in Papua Province (WFP, nd.f).

Annex G Indonesia Background Information

Geography and Administration

The Republic of Indonesia is an archipelago consisting of over 17,000 islands. It is made up of 33 provinces and 1 Special Administrative Region (Yogyakarta, which is governed by pre-colonial monarchy), which are divided into districts and villages. It has a population of 251 million, the majority of whom are Muslim. There are over 700 different languages spoken, with the official language being Indonesian.

WFP was present in Indonesia between 1964 and 1996, when Indonesia showed significant progress towards food self-sufficiency. It has been working there again since its return in 1998, following the El Niño-induced drought, helping over 20 million food-insecure Indonesians, primarily in the aftermath of natural disasters and economic shocks.

Currency

The Indonesian Rupiah (IDR) is the currency of Indonesia.

Fiscal Year

Indonesia runs on a calendar fiscal year (January 1 – December 31).

National Objectives

Box 1 National Medium-Term Development Plan 2010–2014 priorities

- Priority 1:** Reform of the Bureaucracy and Governance
- Priority 2:** Education
- Priority 3:** Health
- Priority 4:** Reducing Poverty
- Priority 5:** Food Security
- Priority 6:** Infrastructure
- Priority 7:** Investment climate and business climate
- Priority 8:** Energy
- Priority 9:** Environment and Management of Natural Disasters
- Priority 10:** Left-Behind, Frontier, Outermost, and Post-Conflict Areas
- Priority 11:** Culture, Creativity, and Technological Innovation

Source: GoI, 2010a

Geographic Vulnerability

Table 11 Summary Table of Natural Disasters in Indonesia 1900–2014

	Number of Events	Total Killed	Total Affected	Damage ('000 US\$)
Drought	9	9,329	4,804,220	160,200
Earthquake	103	30,113	8,533,149	7,059,326
Tsunami	9	168,372	580,520	4,506,600
Epidemic	35	3,966	689,029	-
Flood	158	6,468	9,282,694	5,496,047
Landslide	49	2,382	393,889	121,745
Storm	12	2,013	30,248	1,000
Volcanic eruption	52	18,271	1,176,026	344,390
Forest fire	9	300	3,034,478	9,329,000

Source: EM-DAT, 2014

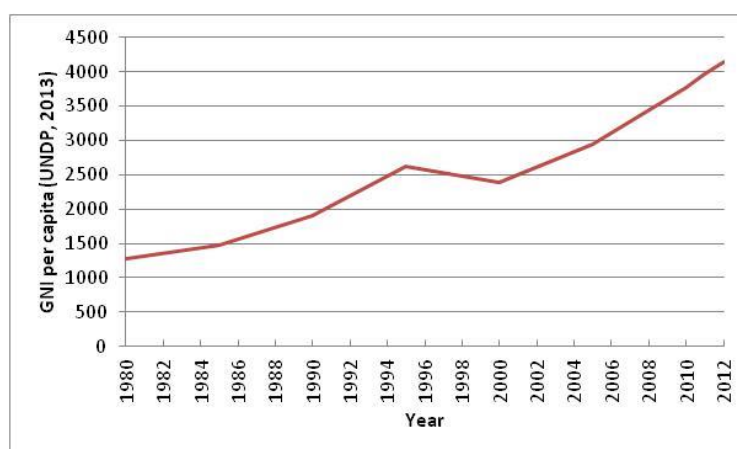
Table 12 Top 10 Natural Disasters in Indonesia 1900–2014 sorted by numbers killed

Disaster	Date	Number Killed
Earthquake	26/12/2004	165,708
Earthquake	21/01/1917	15,000
Earthquake	Jan-66	8,000
Earthquake	27/05/2006	5,778
Volcano	1909	5,500
Volcano	May-19	5,000
Earthquake	12/12/1992	2,500
Storm	Jun-73	1,650
Volcano	03/01/1963	1,584
Volcano	1930	1,369

Source: EM-DAT, 2014

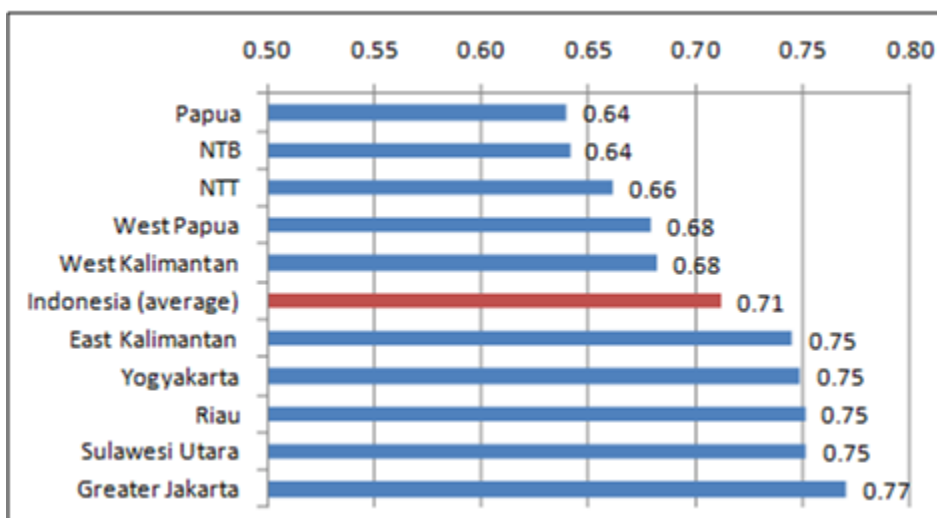
Economy and Poverty Trends

Table 13 Indonesia's GNI per capita 1980–2012



Source: UNDP, 2013b

Figure 6 Human Development Index by Province (5 lowest and 5 highest)



Source: National Statistics Bureau (cited in WFP, 2011p)

Progress on the MDGs (GoI, 2012)

MDG 1: Eradicate Poverty and Hunger

Poverty mitigation efforts in Indonesia have shown meaningful progress, which has been in accordance with the MDGs as was demonstrated by the reduced proportion of people living under the national poverty line, i.e. from 15.10 percent (1990) to 12.49 percent (2011) even when the Poverty Depth Index went down from 2.70 to 2.08 during the same time period. The rate of GDP growth per worker strengthened from 3.52 percent (1990) to 5.04 percent (2011). Additionally, a reduction was observed in the proportion of people suffering hunger between 1989 and 2010 as the prevalence of under-five children with low weight went down from 31 percent to 17.9 percent.

MDG 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education

Efforts to achieving universal primary education have been in step with the MDGs, as is demonstrated by the implementation of basic 9-year education in Indonesia. In 2011, the Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) in primary education reached 95.55 percent; Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who complete primary school was 96.58 percent; and the literacy rate for the population aged 15–24 years reached 98.75 percent for women and 98.80 percent for men.

MDG 3: Promote Gender Equality And Empower Women

Efforts to promoting gender equality and women's empowerment have largely been on track for MDGs achievement by 2015. In 2011, the NER of girls to boys at primary school level (SD/MI/Package A) was 98.80; at junior secondary school (SMP/MTs/Package B) the figure was 103.45; while at higher education level it was 97.82. The literacy ratio of women to men in the 15–24 year group age reached 99.95 percent in the same year.

Meanwhile, targets in step with the MDGs include the NER of females to males at senior high school which reached 101.40 in 2011. An increase in contribution by females is observed in the labour affairs sector, notably in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector, which reached 36.67 percent in 2011. Additionally, the proportion of seats occupied by women in the parliament has likewise gone up: it reached 18.4 percent in 2011.

MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality

Efforts to reducing child mortality rates have been in step with the MDGs. This was demonstrated by the mortality rate of under-five children that went down from 97 (1991) to 44 per thousand live births (2007); the lowered infant mortality rate that went down from 68 to 34 per thousand births; and the lowered neonatal mortality rate that went down from 32 to 19 per thousand births. In the meantime, the proportion of under-1 children that received measles immunization went up from 44.5 percent (1991) to 87.30 percent (2011).

MDG 5: Improve Maternal Health

The proportion of delivery aided by trained health workers has been successfully increased from 40.7 percent (1992) to 81.25 percent (2011), however, on the other hand, the maternal mortality rate could only be reduced from 390 (1991) to 228 per 100,000 live births (2007). Meanwhile, the contraceptive prevalence rate for married women aged 15–49 years went up from 47.1 percent (1991) to 60.42 percent (2011).

MDG 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

Efforts to curb the spreading, lower the number of new cases, and create access to HIV/AIDS medication continue to require hard work, innovation, and creativity. The prevalence of HIV/AIDS remains fairly high at 0.3 percent in 2011, while access to new ARV has reached 84.1 percent of people with advanced HIV/AIDS infection. The incident rate for malaria has dropped significantly from 4.68 (1990) to 1.75 per 1,000 people (2011). Meanwhile, the incident rate for tuberculosis has successfully reached the MDGs target in 2011 that was to be achieved by 2015 when it dropped from 343 (1990) to 189 cases per 100,000 people/year.

MDG 7: Ensure Environmental Sustainability

Achieving a majority of the targets for ensuring environmental preservation still require a great deal of work. The ratio of actual forest cover to total land area dropped from 59.97 percent in 1990 to 52.52 percent in 2010, while CO₂ emission increased from 1,377.983 GgCO₂e (2000) to 1,791,372 GgCO₂e (2005). Moreover, the proportion of household with sustainable access to safe drinking water went up from 37.73 percent (1993) to 42.76 percent (2011), while those with proper sanitation increased from 24.81 percent (1993) to 55.60 percent (2011).

MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development

Indonesia's financial and trading systems have become more transparent, regulations-based, predictable, and non-discriminatory. This can be measured from economic transparency indicators which indicate an increase in the

export and import ratios to the GDP from 41.6 percent in 1990 to 45 percent in 2011. Meanwhile, the external debt ratio to the GDP dropped from 24.59 percent in 1996 to 8.28 percent in 2011.

The proportion of people with cellular telephones went up from 14.79 percent in 2004 to 103.90 percent in 2010. However, in 2011, the proportion of households with Internet access reached only 26.21 percent while the proportion of households with personal computers was only 12.30 percent in 2011.

Table 14 Portfolio and Context Timeline

WFP Country Portfolio Evaluation 2009-13							
	pre 2009	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	
Operations		SO 200082: Logistics and Emergency Telecom. Clusters Support to response to West Sumatra Earthquake		IR EMOP 200218: Mentawai Tsunami West Sumatra		CP 200245: Country Programme	
		PRRO 100692: Nutrition Rehabilitation in Indonesia		SO 104981: WFP Logistics Support Unit			
WFP History	2008-2013 . WFP Strategic Plan, with a move from food aid to food assistance.				December: Directive on cash and vouchers published mainstreaming the use of cash and vouchers across all WFP operations.	Global survey by WFP of school feeding. February: WFP nutrition policy launched March: launch of WFP capacity development toolkit.	October: Scaling up Nutrition (SUN) launched November: Revised School Feeding Policy launched
WFP in Indonesia	WFP Scale down in Aceh (2008) and Greater Jakarta (2009) due to under-funding of PRRO 100692.	2008-2009 : UNICEF co-fund WFP initiated impact monitoring on high food prices and provide financial and technical support to establish a pilot food and nutrition monitoring system in selected provinces.	WFP implementing prototype in support of reviatlising the national school meals programme in NTT	WFP - Gol 'Food Security and Vulnerability Atlas' launched	New WFP Country Strategy, Indonesia.	Gol and WFP sign new partnership framework and move towards a more equal partnership Gol becomes a fully fledged donor WFP implementing prototype in support of reviatlising the national school meals programme in Papua	
		WFP TB and Community Development Activities suspended in 2009 and 2010		March: Project Laserbeam started - a 5 year, multi-million dollar public-private partnership that seeks to eradicate child malnutrition October: Nutrition Gap Analysis (A nutrition mapping exercise and strategy formulation conducted in preparation for WFP Indonesia's new country strategy	Cost of diet Analysis conducted by FAO and the Ministry of Health		

	pre 2009	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	
Indonesia	1945: Indonesia becomes independent from the Netherlands.	January 2009: Gol assert ownership of development assistance and sign the Jakarta Commitment on Aid for Development Effectiveness.	President launched a national Rapid Response Team to Disasters.	March 2010: Gol launch Medium Term Development Plan (RPJMN) 2010-2014	Indonesia join the SUN movement and develop a multi-sectorial Food and Nutrition Action Plan	Indonesia ranks 121st out of 187 countries in the UNDP Human Development Index.	
	1950: Indonesia becomes the 60th member of the United Nations.						Indonesia rans 121st out of 187 countries in the UNDP Human Development Index.
	1967: ASEAN was established			March: Indonesia Climate Change Sectoral Road Map (ICCRS) released.		2010: West Sumatran Tsunami and Earthquake.	
	2007: Law on disaster mangement carried out the new perspective on disaster management: having inserted disaster management not only in an emergency response context, but also as pre-disaster and post-disaster.						
	2008: National Disaster Management Agency (BNPB) established to coordinate overall disaster management in Indonesia.						

Annex H Health, Food and Nutrition

Health

1. Health has significantly improved in Indonesia since the 1960s. The child mortality rate has declined from 220 per 1,000 live births in 1960 to 32 per 1,000 live births in 2013 (WHO, 2013a). Life expectancy has also improved from 43 years in the 1970s to 69 in 2011 (WHO, 2013a). In spite of progress, Indonesia faces demographic challenges and numerous epidemics, and is at a nutrition crossroads (see below). Under the current medium-term development plan (RPJMN 2010–2014) the foremost priority for development in health is to increase maternal, child and infant health, followed by an increase in nutritional status.

Food and Nutrition

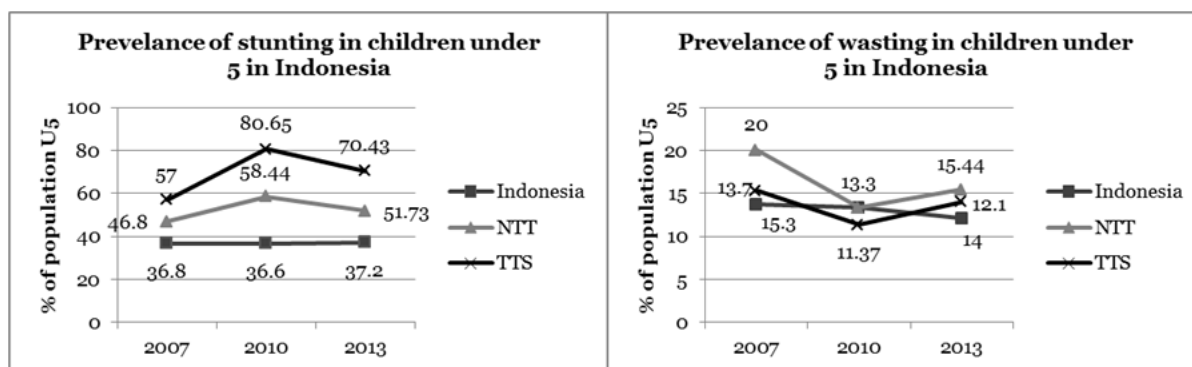
2. According to the 2010 FAO “State of Food Insecurity in the World” Report, two thirds of the world’s hungry live in just seven countries: Bangladesh, China, Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, India, Indonesia and Pakistan (FAO, 2010). FAO estimated that in the 2011–2013 period 9.1 percent of the population (approximately 23 million Indonesians) were undernourished (FAO, 2014). Infant and young child feeding practices are poor. Poor families cannot afford to meet the nutritional needs of their children, in particular with regard to iron, zinc, calcium, and B vitamins.

3. Indonesia is facing a double burden of malnutrition because whilst it still faces the challenge of stunting, it has a growing overweight and obese population. Adult obesity has increased from 13.9 percent in 2007 to 19.7 percent in 2013 (Riskesdas, 2007, 2013).

4. The nutritional status of children under five is still a major concern (see Figure 7 below), despite some improvement. From 2007–2010, stunting prevalence decreased only from 36.8 percent to 35.6 percent nationwide, with much higher levels in eastern provinces such as NTT, and an increase to 37.2 percent was seen in 2013. Wasting has continued to decrease from 13.6 percent in 2007 to 12.1 percent in 2013. In 2007 the proportion of underweight children under five was 18.4 percent. Although by 2010 the proportion had decreased to 17.9 percent, there was still large disparity across Indonesia and furthermore the proportion increased to 19.6 percent in 2013 (Riskesdas, 2013).

5. According to the Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) 2012, 41.5 percent of infants under 6 months were exclusively breastfed, an increase from 32.4 percent in 2007, while 28.7 percent of infants under 6 months were fed with a bottle (DHS, 2012). A nutritional causal analysis conducted by ACF in 2010 identified inadequate infant and young child feeding practices, as well as bad health and nutritional status of mothers mainly due to inadequate household food intake, as direct causes of under-nutrition. A lack of knowledge and negative perceptions about child feeding practices and nutritious food were found to underpin these causes, while inadequate mother and child health care, inadequate hygiene practices, a lack of access to safe water and sanitation, a lack of support from the community to mothers and children, low involvement of fathers in childcare, and a lack of supervision of children were also determining factors. Household food security was also found to be linked to under-nutrition, but food utilization was more of an issue than access and availability.

Figure 7 Prevalence of stunting and wasting in children under 5



Source: Riskesdas, 2007, 2013

6. The Government now has a five-year Food and Nutrition Action Plan (2011–2015) (GoI, 2010b) and improving maternal, infant and child health and nutrition remains its priority, focusing on stunting and the Essential Nutrition Intervention package. Each province also has a Provincial Food and Nutrition Action Plan which draws on the national plan but is tailored towards the local context. In TTS a district Food and Nutrition Action Plan had not been finalised at the time of the evaluation mission. For the first time nutrition was also included in the Medium Term Development Plan 2010–2014, which calls for “improvements in the nutrition status of mother and children among communities that are vulnerable to food shortages” and sets a target for the rate of underweight children to be less than 15.0 percent by 2014.

7. Indonesia joined the Scaling Up Nutrition (SUN) movement in December 2011. The Indonesian SUN Lead Group member is the Deputy Minister for Human Resources Development and Cultural Affairs at the Ministry of National Development Planning (Bappenas). The structure of the SUN Indonesia Movement is still being finalised.

Education

8. In the latest amendment of the Constitution, Indonesia makes a clear commitment to education, stating that the education budget should be at least 20 percent of the national budget (WFP, 2013a). Indonesia has made great progress in ensuring that primary school children get an education. 96 percent of children aged between 7 and 12 years old are attending school (UNESCO, 2011).

9. The Ministry of Education, in coordination with six other ministries, launched the supplemental food for school children programme, Program Makanan Tambahan Anak Sekolah (PMT-AS), in 2010. Provision of supplemental food for school children has been implemented in Indonesia since 1997 as one of the social safety net programmes, but the launch of PMT-AS marks a revitalization of this approach.

Annex I Introductory Workshop Report: Stakeholder Analysis

Outline of activities

1. On 11 April, the evaluation team held a workshop with senior CO staff. Twelve personnel took part, including the Country Director and the Deputy Country Director. They represented all the main work areas in the country portfolio. The workshop began at 0900 and ended at 1700, with a two-hour break for Friday prayers and lunch. Although various urgent operational issues prevented full engagement by all participants throughout the day's programme, there was detailed and constructive discussion by most personnel of the issues that the evaluation team had proposed for review. The programme is shown at Annex J below.
2. As the programme shows, most of the work was done by four thematic groups. The original intention was to divide participants into three groups, one for each column of the CP. However, as the MCN and SF work differs in various significant ways, two separate groups were formed to work on them. FFA and climate change work fell under the disaster preparedness and response column in the CP and has until recently been administered with that work stream. However, as the relevant personnel were not available to participate, the workshop did not cover those activities.
3. Following opening remarks by the Country Director and an introductory presentation by the evaluation team, the groups began by identifying the stakeholders relevant to their work theme, with reference to the categories developed by the evaluation team: strategic partners, direct partners, policy makers and ultimate beneficiaries. Particular attention was given to the direct partners: those whom WFP aims to influence directly, notably by building their capacity and enhancing their performance. Stakeholder mapping was undertaken with reference to the concept of spheres of control, influence and interest (IR, section 2.2). Some participants identified potential stakeholders whose engagement in WFP's work would enhance programme performance.
4. The core of the day's work was for each group then to identify the changes that WFP aims to achieve in and through each direct partner; to assess the extent to which those changes have occurred; and to identify the role and contribution of WFP in achieving the changes. This involved assessment of the quality and logic of design and operations. The former issue naturally meant considering the theory of change (ToC) underlying WFP's work in the various sectors, although shortage of time meant that the evaluation team did not introduce the ToC concept or frame the discussion in those terms. These tasks generated wide-ranging, sometimes detailed discussion. Not all groups were able to complete the task in the time available.
5. The last hour of the day saw brief presentations by each group of their main observations, with a focus on the strengths and weaknesses of programme design and delivery in achieving the changes in direct partners that were intended to lead to positive impacts for the ultimate beneficiaries.

Table 15 Stakeholder analysis

Strategic partners	Direct partners	Policy makers	Ultimate beneficiaries
Disaster preparedness and response			
Bappenas	BNPB		Population of Indonesia
	Provincial and some district BPBDs		
	Provincial Dept. of Social Affairs		
	Provincial Food Security Office		
	Provincial Bappeda		
	Bappenas		
Mother and child nutrition			
GAIN	<i>Posyandu</i>	Directorate of nutrition MoH	Pregnant and lactating women
UNICEF	PKK	Bappenas – Nutrition Division	Children < 6 months
WHO	Puskesmas	BNPB	Children 6–24 months
Helen Keller International	DHO – Nutrition Division	BPOM (Badan Pengawasan Obat dan Makanan/Food and Drug Surveillance Agency)	Children 24–59 months
Food and nutrition cluster (national)	Bappeda district level	Menkokesra	Mothers of children < 2 yrs
Food and nutrition cluster (provincial)	Private sector – Indofood, DSM, Garudafood	National AIDS commission/KPA	PLWHA
SUN – social association			
SUN – health professionals’ association			
Academic (UI, UNHAS, UGM)			
Province – Poltkekas (University looking at stunting, wasting data), UNDANA			
PNPM, MCA, Gene??			
UN Joint team on HIV			
Limited interaction:			
Provincial MoH – Nutrition Division (for recognition)			
Provincial – Bappeda (for recognition)			

Strategic partners	Direct partners	Policy makers	Ultimate beneficiaries
Directorate of MCN (MoH) (for recognition)			
TNP2K (to move nutrition up the agenda)			
Past interaction:			
RASKIN – rice fortification programme (was invited to participate in past but processes prevented it and invitation was late)			
Future partner:			
Board of Logistics (BULOG)			
School feeding			
Impact:			
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Improved clean and healthy life style (PHBS: Perilaku Hidup Bersih dan Sehat) 2. Improved nutritional status of school children 3. Improved education quality and experience of the students 			
Bappenas (Deputy of Community Nutrition/Gizi Masyarakat)	BPMK (Badan Pemberdayaan Masyarakat Kampung/Village Community Empowerment Agency → only in Papua)	<u>At national level:</u> - MoH (Nutrition, child unit, health promotion) - Bappenas (Community nutrition unit) - MoHA (Directorate General Village Community Empowerment)	Parents Students
MoHA (Directorate General of Community Empowerment, Directorate of Tradition Empowerment and Community Socio-Cultural)	Education Office at district level	<u>At local level:</u> DPRD Tingkat II (District level Parliament) of Kupang District and TTS District.	
BPOM	PKK at district level		
MoE (Basic Education Directorate)	Health office at district level		
PKK	Head of Bappeda in Kupang District and Socio-Cultural Dept of Bappeda in TTS District		
Unilever	Local NGO: - Yasna - Animasi		

Strategic partners	Direct partners	Policy makers	Ultimate beneficiaries
DSM (De Nederlandse Staatsmijnen/Dutch State Mines: chemical company)	School committee and teachers		
MoH (Nutrition, Child Unit, Health Promotion)			
Potential strategic partners			
UNICEF (WASH/Water, Sanitation, and Hygiene Unit)			
Bappenas (AMPL: Air Minum dan Kesehatan Lingkungan/Water and Sanitation)			
Impact:			
4. Improved productivity and livelihood local farmers through capacity building			
5. Improved capacity of local government to implement local school meals			
Ministry of Agriculture, Food Security Office	Agricultural Office at district level		Farmers' groups
	BPTP (Badan Penerapan Teknologi Pertanian/Agricultural Technology Application Agency)		
Potential strategic partners		Potential policy makers	
INGOs (WVI, Plan International)		DPR (Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat/National Parliament)	
VAM			
BPS	FSA: division dealing with FNSS, EFSA	FSA, in its policy role	Population of Indonesia
UNICEF	FSA: division dealing with FSVA	Bappenas	
OCHA	FSO (provincial): WFP has worked with East Java, NTB, NTB, Papua	Ministry of Finance	
ILO	FSO (district): WFP has worked with various districts	Ministry of Public Works	
Global Pulse	FSO (provincial and district) with which WFP has not worked directly	Bappeda	
Potential strategic partners	BNPB	FSO, in its policy role	
FAO	BPBD	BPBD, in its policy role	
World Bank	Potential direct partners		

Strategic partners	Direct partners	Policy makers	Ultimate beneficiaries
SMERU poverty research institute	Ministry of Social Affairs		
	TNP2K		
	Ministry of Health		
	Ministry of Education		

Intended changes in and through each partner

i. Disaster preparedness and response

With regard to **BNPB**:

- The BNPB is able to guide preparedness and response to disasters at the national and provincial levels specifically in the areas of logistics and telecommunications.
- The BNPB is capable of systematically training (design through implementation) BNPB staff, SRC members BPBD staff and other key organisations. The BNPB also intends to become a training centre for international Emergency Response actors in the ASEAN region (from 2012).
- BNPB has the infrastructure to support disaster preparedness and response activities including the hardware, software and personnel (from 2012/13).
- BNPB has the capacity to plan its preparedness actions in a systematic manner.
- BNPB is aware of and open to working in collaboration with WFP in the field of emergency response (moving from a focus on logistics to a more comprehensive emergency preparedness concept).

The climate change direct partners (Bappenas, FSO offices and Provincial Bappeda) were not discussed during the workshop as the key person was not available.

ii. Mother and child nutrition

Direct partners

Partner	Desired change
<i>Posyandu</i>	Once a month provide: taking weight, give food, education and counselling, Vit A, ANC and iron supplementation, immunization
PKK	Assist at <i>posyandu</i>
Puskesmas	Improve nutrition technical knowledge to deliver service in <i>Posyandu</i> To train cadres
DHO – Nutrition Division	Improve programme and budget plan Improve nutrition technical knowledge Conduct ToT Improve data handling and reporting Improve human resources Logistics and pipeline through the MoH has never been a goal due to poor infrastructure (though MoH can do it in emergencies)
Bappeda district level	Use Food and Nutrition Action Plan to advocate for increased budget in food and nutrition programmes
Private sector – Indofood, DSM, GarudaFood	Production, availability and affordability of specialised foods

iii. Policy makers

Partner	Desired change
Directorate of nutrition MoH	Include fortified specialised foods in following IYCF policies and develop Standards for Specialised foods and specialised food for vulnerable groups in emergencies Increase budget allocation for nutrition
Bappenas – Nutrition Division	Inclusion of specialised food in SUN PPP acceptance Intersectoral linkage in RPJMN
BNPB	Provision of appropriate foods in emergency for young children and PLW
BPOM	Development of standards for specialised food
Menkokesra	Increase funding allocation Better support with coordination and with line Ministries
National AIDS commission/KPA	Increase awareness and support for inclusion of nutrition to HIV Continuum of Care

iv. School feeding

This group focused on the changes still to be achieved during the remainder of the CP period.

Name of Partner	Expected Changes [over remainder of period]
Impact:	
1. Improved clean and healthy life style (PHBS: <i>Perilaku Hidup Bersih dan Sehat</i>)	
2. Improved nutritional status of school children	
3. Improved education quality and experience of the students	
Bappeda Kupang District	Advocate parliament to develop local regulations (<i>Peraturan Daerah</i> or <i>Peraturan Bupati</i>) on local school meals
Bappeda TTS District	
PKK Kupang District	Managing PMTAS at village level
PKK TTS District	
Education Office in Kupang District	- Influence Bappeda to allocate budget for PMTAS - Monitoring the implementation of PMTAS in all primary schools
Health Office	- Allocate budget to procure and distribute MNP to primary schools for LFBSM - Deworming tablets provided (2 times/year) for all children
Local NGO	- Transfer knowledge to school committee, children, religious leaders, local community - Replicate to other areas
School Committee and teachers	- Sustainable engagement on local school meal programmes - Expand the school garden programme to other primary schools and households (home gardens)
BPMK in Papua	- Advocate to local government (Bappeda and Parliament) to allocate budget for LSM engagement for continuing LFBSM - Increased community contribution
Impact:	
4. Improved productivity and livelihood of local farmers through capacity building	
5. Improved capacity of local government to implement local school meals	
Agricultural Office and BPTP	- Implementation and expanding school garden programme to be utilised in Posyandu program - Increase full implementation of good post-harvest handling to improve the quality of local maize.

v. **VAM**

Direct partners: FSA/FSO: the aim is to improve knowledge, understanding and skill relating to food and nutrition security analysis.

With regard to **FSVA:**

- improved methodology (indicators etc.);
- improved communication, outreach;
- improved policy recommendations.

With regard to **FNSS:**

- improved geographical coverage;
- improved timeliness of reporting;
- improved methodology (indicators etc.);
- improved communication, outreach.

Policy makers: the aim is improved relevance and performance of policies and programmes. Desired change:

- be exposed to food and nutrition security analysis;
- respond to exposure by allocating resources and targeting assistance to needy populations and worthwhile programmes.

Changes achieved

i. **Disaster preparedness and response**

With regard to **BNPB:**

Emerging Changes in BNPB	WFP Contribution to the Changes
<p>The BNPB is beginning to demonstrate their capacity in warehouse management. This has been verified in the case of Aceh, where follow up visits demonstrated that the warehouses were being run in a professional manner following international standards.</p> <p>Aceh, having had the experience of the Tsunami and the ongoing experience in disaster response (with a longer exposure to WFP and other institutional partners) gives a high level of importance to this issue. They have taken innovative steps of ensuring that training in disaster management is “credited” and therefore can be used for career progression of civil servants.</p>	<p>WFP has provided training to staff from BNPB and BNPB in logistics, including Warehousing; telecommunications and supply chain management.</p> <p>Worked with BNPB in the preparation of guidelines for warehouse management and tracking.</p>
<p>BNPB has and is using guidelines for radio communications during disasters and guidelines for warehouse management</p>	<p>Worked with BNPB in the preparation of guidelines for warehouse management and tracking</p>
<p>BNPM has demonstrated its ability to carry out a complex simulation including national, provincial, district actors as well as international organisations. It is consciously carrying out processes to collect and reflect on lessons learnt from this major simulation.</p>	

Emerging Changes in BNPB	WFP Contribution to the Changes
Demonstrated an enhanced capacity to deal with the Jakarta flooding in 2013/2014 and seen as much improved since 2012 and earlier.	
In terms of training, there has been some progress recently. This is partly due to a change in the leadership of the BNPB training unit. The new director has a more open and seemingly progressive attitude towards the role and quality of training. Under the old leadership, they are actively looking at certification (following Aceh experience) but the process became too rigid and complex and involved too many agencies. The new management intends to get on with the training work and look at certification in a more pragmatic manner.	With the old management at the centre, it was hard for WFP (or other donors) to get traction in the training centre.
The BNPB training centre is looking to bring training capacity in-house, instead of looking to other organisations and private consultants to provide training.	WFP has promoted building the internal capacity of the training centre, rather than depending on outside, contracted trainers.
They are using a national curriculum, but this curriculum has not benefited or taken on board the work of WFP. They have a national training schedule for 2014 AHA is hoping that BNPB can host regional trainings (seen as a recognition of capacity), but this has not been realized yet	WFP has supported the development of training modules for preparedness, response and logistics \$ WFP staff are to be placed in the training centre in 2014 Discussions are ongoing with the BNPB and training division on the strategic direction for WFP's interventions.

The climate change direct partners (Bappenas, FSO offices and Provincial Bappeda) were not discussed as the key person was not available.

ii. Mother and child nutrition

Direct partners

Partner	What has changed?	WFP's contribution
<i>Posyandu</i>	Improve knowledge of cadre Improved attendance by mothers	Training Provide food and materials
PKK	They assist	Training
Puskesmas	They provide services but education sessions are patchy They assist WFP in training but don't do by themselves although they could	Training and workshops
DoH – Nutrition Division	Budget has increased Staff turnover meant knowledge has been lost Staff turnover has resulted in nobody to do data handling function – trained person left 2 years ago – what about a replacement?? Human resource have not improved	Meetings and advocacy Training Discussions on human resources

Partner	What has changed?	WFP's contribution
	DoH participate in trainings	
Bappedda district level	FNAP is costed according to what programmes are running already – uncertain whether there have been increases in budget	WFP shared costs
Private sector – Indofood, DSM, GarudaFood	Production, availability and affordability of specialised foods achieved.	WFP worked with private sector, Project Laser Beam and ongoing activities since then

Policy makers

Partner	What has changed?	WFP's contribution
Directorate of nutrition MoH	FSF included in IYCF policy, standards haven't been developed (LNS trial ongoing) and specialised food for vulnerable group in emergencies initiated	WFP advocated for policy changes WFP advocated for budget increases as part of wider group – UNICEF more prominent WFP communication has been limited at national level – much more at district level
Bappenas – Nutrition Division	Limited acceptance to date	Advocacy/meetings WFP communication has been limited at national level – much more at district level
BNPB	Not achieved yet	Effort by nutrition stakeholders – WFP part of group
BPOM	Initiated	Advocacy/meetings
Menkokesra	No change	No real efforts made
National AIDS commission/KPA	Programme started 2014	Advocacy

Additional notes:

Workshop participants hope that the MCN programme can be scaled up to the other districts in the province and maybe to other provinces. However, they felt the current programme was not sustainable, particularly because of the logistics. They have a plan to start a system of giving vouchers to be exchanged for food through the safety net programme (BULOG).

There is also a plan to treat moderate acute malnutrition through the Community-based Management of Acute Malnutrition (CMAM) programme but there is no funding for that.

There has been no documentation or exercise to capture lessons learnt on working with the government.

iii. School feeding

Name of partner	Changes achieved	WFP contribution
Impact:		
1. Improved clean and healthy life style (PHBS: <i>Perilaku Hidup Bersih dan Sehat</i>)		
2. Improved nutritional status of school children		
3. Improved education quality and experience of the students		
Bappeda Kupang District	- Cost sharing for local school meals - Monitoring LFBSM (Local Food Based School Meals)	- Advocacy of cost sharing with conducting pilot project of LFBSM in WFP operational area
Bappeda TTS District	- Cost sharing for local school meals - Awareness to improve LFBSM with following the national competition of PMTAS (Hosted by MoHA)	- Training the staff to develop monitoring tools
PKK Kupang District	Replicate LFBSM to other schools (outside WFP operation area)	- Training PKK members to develop LFBSM
PKK TTS District	Local recipe bank to be used in integrated health post (Posyandu)	- Training PKK members about local recipe that is suitable for use with MNP
Education Office in Kupang District	Budget allocation for cooking with sugar ingredient	- Advocacy to Education Office to allocate budget - Distributing MNP to piloted primary schools
Health Office	- Awareness on impact of local school meals to improve nutritional status of school children - Awareness on potential local food diversity to be used in local school meals	Raising awareness of impact of the local school meals using potential local food diversity to nutritional status of school children by showing study results (ongoing)
Local NGO	- Integrated approach (BCC/Behavioural Change Communication training, food distribution, MNP distribution monitoring)	Training integrated approach to the local NGO
School Committee and teachers	- Contribution of other local ingredients (vegetables, maize, etc.) - Implement school garden (selected schools) - Implement BCC (Behavioural Change Communication)	Advocating and training school committees and teachers about LFBSM, school garden, and the BCC.
BPMK in Papua	- Key role for local community engagement in LSM Papua	Approaching BPMK to join with school feeding program in Papua.
Impact:		
4. Improved productivity and livelihood of local farmers through capacity building		
5. Improved capacity of local government to implement local school meals		
Agricultural Office and BPTP	- Implement and expand school gardens in WFP operation area, including budget allocation, to be utilised as ingredients in LFBSM - Increased knowledge and awareness on food safety aspect (i.e. aflatoxin in maize) - Joint training for local farmers groups	- Using BCC, WFP engage Agricultural Office to spread knowledge among community about benefits of school gardens. Crops for school gardens are selected, so they can be utilized for LFBSM. - Informing farmers about aflatoxin in the maize that can appear because of poor harvest handling.

iv. VAM

Direct partners: FSA/FSO:

With regard to **FSVA:**

- Improved methodology (indicators etc.):

- balancing the need to maintain comparability with previous editions of the Atlas while introducing wanted improvements, the following changes were made compared to the 2009 FSVA: (a) lack of access to roads passable by four-wheel vehicles has been expanded to include also lack of access to waterways passable by boat; (b) lack of access to safe drinking water was adjusted to exclude drinking water sources that are within 10 meters of a septic tank or latrine and therefore at greater risk of contamination; (c) stunting was included instead of underweight based on its ability to capture long-term nutritional deficiency and in order to align with government programmes, post-MDG discussions and the ambitious national goals of stunting reduction;
- WFP introduced “cost of the diet” in the atlas;
- the methodological approach for the composite analysis was improved to allow for greater transparency and objectivity. In addition to Principal Component Analysis, two other statistical methodologies were also applied: Cluster Analysis and Discriminant Analysis.
- Improved communication, outreach:
 - the atlases are commonplace in the food and nutrition security analysis community in Indonesia. WFP has ensured a professionally edited document, printed in sufficient quantities. See note on policy makers.
- Improved policy recommendations:
 - the atlas has a very long list of recommendations, although the process by which recommendations are formulated is not sufficiently consultative.
- General:
 - after WFP and FSA jointly piloted three provincial Atlases, the FSA independently replicated the product for approximately 25 other provinces during 2010–2012.

With regard to **FNSS**:

- Improved geographical coverage:
 - the number of districts that report has improved since the introduction of new national guidelines.
 - 2012: 70 districts reported, from 15 provinces
 - 2013: 187 districts reported, from 14 provinces
 - the increase is partly attributed to WFP.
- Improved timeliness of reporting:
 - In 2013, FSA classified the districts’ reporting as:
 - good (on time): 49 districts
 - moderate: 83 districts
 - low: 55 districts
- Improved methodology (indicators etc.):

- WFP helped put in place new national guidelines on what information to collect, expanding from production only into nutrition and other areas.
- Improved communication, outreach:
 - The visibility of FNSS has been and remains low.

Policy makers:

- Exposure to food and nutrition security analysis:
 - the atlases are commonplace within FSA, and to some extent within the Ministry of Agriculture, but less so within other policy makers. WFP is making a concerted effort to emphasise outreach for the 2013 Atlas.
- Response to exposure by allocating resources and targeting assistance to needy populations and worthwhile programmes:
 - FSA's DEMAPAN program used the Atlas to target US\$9.2 million to 3,414 villages in vulnerable areas;
 - Provincial Food and Nutrition Action Plans for NTB and NTT, and Climate Change Action Plans, have used the Atlas;
 - according to the Ministry of Finance, USD 32m was allocated to districts identified by the national atlas as high priority. The degree to which this budget allocation can be attributed to the atlases is unknown.

Apart from calling for evidence-based decision-making and resource allocation, the CP does not specify what change it would like to see in more detail. As such, it is difficult to evaluate the degree to which desired change has been effected.

Annex J Introductory Workshop Timetable

Table 16 WFP Indonesia CPE Workshop, 11 April 2014

Time	Content	Process	Facilitator
Plenary			
0900-0905	Opening		Country Director
0905-0945	Preparation: introductions, explanation of the purpose and usefulness of the workshop, outcomes and process. Introduction to the process: vision, stakeholder analysis, defining desired/designed outcomes, success achieved, intervention strategies, introduce the Theory of Change.		Greg
Four groups (VAM, Disaster Preparedness & Response, MCN, School Feeding)			
0945-1100	Stakeholder analysis: identifying the four different types of stakeholders: strategic; direct; policy makers and ultimate beneficiaries.	After a brief introduction, each of the groups will identify who are their direct partners, decision makers, strategic partners and ultimate beneficiaries.	Stephen, Jane, Sita, Greg
Plenary			
1100-1115	Description, explanation of the next activities		Greg
Four groups (VAM, Disaster Preparedness & Response, MCN, School Feeding)			
1115-1200	Identification of the changes WFP aims to achieve in and through each direct partner (part 1)	After a brief introduction of the types of intended influence and change in the group's specific field as understood so far by the evaluators, the group will debate and refine this model.	Stephen, Jane, Sita, Greg
1200-1400	Lunch		
1400-1500	Identification of the changes WFP aims to achieve in and through each direct partner (part 2)	After a brief introduction of the types of intended influence and change in the group's specific field as understood so far by the evaluators, the group will debate and refine this model.	Stephen, Jane, Sita, Greg
1500-1600	Assessment of the change that has been achieved in and through each direct partner, and of the role and contribution of WFP in this change.	This will be an evaluative discussion, assessing whether WFP's understanding of and plans for influence and change were realistic and how effective its performance has been.	Stephen, Jane, Sita, Greg
Plenary			
1600-1700	Presentation and discussion	Brief presentation by each group summarizing strengths and weaknesses in WFP's relations with stakeholders; in WFP's plans for influencing and change; and in WFP's progress towards achieving change.	Stephen, Jane, Sita, Greg
1700	Close		

Annex K Gender

Table 17 Progress towards gender equality indicators 2012, CP200245

	Planned		Actual		Planned		Actual	
	2012				2013			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
SO2 FFA								
Number in leadership positions on food management committees	400	200	426	122	750	375	270	59
SO4 School Feeding								
Number of members of food management committees trained on modalities of food distribution	30	1200	12	498				
Number in leadership positions on food management committees	720	3000	445	1827				

Source: WFP, 2013e; WFP, 2014a

Annex L Capacity Development and Influencing

Capacity development

1. Capacity development³¹ took a more central role in the WFP Indonesia programme as WFP moved from a food aid to food assistance focus. While the PRRO (2008) mentions capacity development, the focus of the programme was more operational than capacity oriented. By the time of the implementation of the CP in 2012 (with a lengthy planning process over two years including the development of the CSD in 2011), the emphasis had changed towards a focus on capacity development with operational aspects seen primarily as ‘prototypes’ or pilots. These prototypes were to be used as a testing ground and a means to identify good practice that could be scaled up through advocacy and influencing of government and other stakeholders, including the private sector and civil society organisations.

2. Each of the three components in the CP has capacity development as the primary focus:

Objective 1: Strengthen Indonesian capacity to monitor, analyse, map and address food insecurity.

Objective 2: Strengthen Indonesian capacity in disaster preparedness and response within the global framework of disaster risk reduction: the ‘Hyogo Framework for Action’ (HFA).

Objective 3: Strengthen Indonesian capacity to reduce under-nutrition below critical levels.

3. While both the CSD and the CP put capacity development at the heart of WFP work in Indonesia, significant gaps emerged in the development and application of a structured process to carry out this work. The WFP National Capacity Index process identifies six steps in developing a coherent, relevant and implementable programme for capacity development (WFP, nd.e). To this the evaluation team has added ‘Step 0’, the identification of key partners, including direct partners,³² with whom the programme needs to work to achieve its goals, and policy makers, whom the programme needs to influence to create sustainable and institutionalised changes in the way the GoI delivers results to the most vulnerable. Using these seven steps as a guideline, the evaluation team assessed the capacity development performance of the WFP portfolio in Indonesia.

Step 0 – Identify direct partners and policy makers who need to be influenced through stakeholder analysis

4. The stakeholder analysis conducted during the development of the CSD and the CP did not identify clearly the roles of each of the key stakeholders (particularly direct partners and policy makers at the national and sub-national levels). This lack of clarity³³ about who the key stakeholders were and what changes needed to be made led

³¹ WFP has adopted the OECD DAC definition of capacity and capacity development: **capacity is:** *the ability of people, organizations and society as a whole to manage their affairs successfully.* **Capacity development is:** *the process whereby people, organizations and society as a whole unleash, strengthen, create, adapt and maintain capacity over time* (OECD, 2011). **Capacity development addresses:** *issues at the level of individuals, organizations and the enabling environment.*

³² Direct partners are those individuals, groups, or organisations with whom the programme interacts directly and with whom the programme can anticipate opportunities for influence.

³³ The lack of clarity about who the key stakeholders for each programme component were became apparent during the document review and introductory interviews conducted during the inception mission. The stakeholder workshop conducted with WFP CO

to inconsistency in both capacity development and influencing efforts as noted below. The identification of key stakeholders was fairly ad hoc and based primarily on an intuitive assessment of key actors.

Step 1 – Build a common vision around one or more clearly stated development goals.

5. At the start of the CP, WFP did not develop a common understanding of the changes envisioned for each of the direct partners.³⁴ This step is particularly important in the context of the GoI, where capacity development is not seen as an essential organisational and institutional change (DRSP, 2006). Creating the common vision (and this should be done in collaboration with other strategic partners, such as UN agencies and INGOs working on the same or similar issues) creates buy-in and commitment from the leadership of the target organisation.

Step 2 – Identify CD Problems and Opportunities through Institutional Diagnosis.

6. Over the review period, there was no systematic assessment or diagnosis of the capacities of the direct partners carried out by WFP³⁵ in any of the component areas. Such assessments look at the individual, organisational and institutional aspects of the partner organisation and are best done together in order to increase ownership by the direct partners. Because there was no systematic assessment, there was no baseline statement of current capacities and capacity gaps that could be used to monitor progress (Step 5 below), nor was there any information available to focus attention on organisational and institutional issues to be addressed through capacity development interventions.

Step 3 – Identify Solutions (Outputs) to Capacity Problems as a Critical Path to Achieve the Commonly Defined Development Goal.

7. If systematic assessments are carried out with direct partners, combining the envisioned goal of the partner in terms of the changes it wants to see in its individual, organisational and institutional capacities, then a critical path of change can be identified for each capacity area, leading from the easiest and relatively simple to achieve to the most complex and difficult. Without such a critical path or milestones of progress, it is extremely difficult to develop a clear capacity development strategy (step 4) and a monitoring and evaluation system to ensure learning from the capacity development process. None of the components of the WFP Indonesia programme have mapped out the critical path to change, either internally or in consultation with their partners.

Step 4 – Formulate a Strategy for Change with Defined Roles and

staff on the first day of the evaluation mission confirmed that there had been no systematic mapping of stakeholders carried out by any of the four component groups (EPR, VAM, School Feeding and MCN).

³⁴There is no evidence that a visioning process was carried out within WFP itself, let alone in collaboration with partners. This was confirmed in interviews with WFP staff.

³⁵There is no documentation of any capacity assessments, except for an internal exercise using the NCI carried out in December 2012 by the VAM component team, most likely as a training exercise. The current head of the VAM unit indicated that when he arrived, this 'assessment' was not brought to his attention in the handover notes he received in early 2013.

Responsibilities.

8. Once the solutions (outputs) have been mapped and agreed, the next step is to develop the capacity development strategies that are to be used to achieve the desired changes: causal, persuasive or supportive (IDRC, 2011). The development of these 'strategies for change' provides a good opportunity to discuss and negotiate on the roles and responsibilities of each partner (including WFP), including issues around funding, staff turnover, internalisation processes, types of interventions, engagement of other strategic partners and the assets already available within the direct partner's control that can be brought to bear on the capacity issue. For the component areas in the WFP CP, no strategies for change were developed with the direct partners. The lack of such negotiated agreements had a detrimental impact on the success of any capacity development interventions due to uncertainty about responsibilities, roles, funding, follow-up and mitigating risks (such as staff turn-over). This reduced the impact of the capacity interventions at the individual, organisational and institutional levels.

Step 5 – Agree on How to Track and Assess Progress towards Outputs and Validate Strategy with Stakeholders.

9. The tracking and assessment of progress is critical for learning by all stakeholders and adaptation of interventions, as well as for the determination of the level of contribution or attribution of the programme to the intended sustainable organisational change. No monitoring system for capacity development was produced either at the component level or at the portfolio level. It was therefore difficult to determine whether the capacity development interventions were efficient, effective and worthy of replication, and brought about the desired change. Some donors expressed concerns about the impact of their investments, thus affecting future funding possibilities.

Step 6 – Use a 'Trial and Error Approach' to Implement the Critical Path towards Desired Capacity

10. Working in complex systems such as the GoI requires that capacity development be seen as an iterative process where a wide range of interventions such as technical assistance, training, cross visits and the introduction of tools and systems are used to trigger the desired changes. Without the systematic development of a concrete strategy for change (steps 0–4 above) and the establishment of an agreement to a robust monitoring and evaluation system (step 5), capacity development interventions tend to be ad hoc and responsive rather than systematic and proactive. Over the course of the CP, there was a heavy reliance on training (for EPR, school feeding and nutrition work) as opposed to other types of capacity development. Only in VAM was there a more systematic and varied set of interventions including technical assistance and tools introduction.

Analysis and conclusions

11. The lack of a systematic approach to capacity development with direct partners, from identification of partners to assessments to strategies to monitoring systems, meant that in general, the capacity development envisioned in the CSD and the CP did not bring about the desired changes at the individual, organisational and institutional levels.

12. There are several reasons why the capacity development focus in the CP did not lead to the development of a systematic strategy for capacity development and thus has not so far had the desired impact.

- a) The significant lack of funding for all WFP components and the ‘scramble for survival’: this shortfall severely limited the time available for a systematic exploration of capacity needs and the development of the deeper relationships with direct partners that required to come to agreement on a capacity development plan for each such partner.
- b) There was (and remains) no focal point for capacity development within the CO with the relevant skills and knowledge to assist in (and to insist upon) the development of capacity development plans for each component.
- c) The operational mindset and lack of organisational development experience of the staff teams in each component (with the possible exception of the VAM team), based on their previous experience in ‘delivery’ of goods and services, limited their ability to engage on the issue of capacity development with direct partners. Furthermore, very little capacity development support was provided by WFP at the regional or HQ levels to the CO staff to assist them in making the transition from food aid to food assistance.
- d) While some tools such as the NCI, the capacity development toolkit and the capacity development strategy became available over the evaluation period, interviews in the CO indicate that without training and technical assistance these tools were seen as somewhat impenetrable and difficult to use.
- e) Among many humanitarian and development agencies, both in Indonesia and worldwide, there is a tendency to see capacity development as ‘training’ and little else. There is a sense that anyone who possesses technical skills can successfully transfer those skills to others. This common perception of capacity development and the requisite skills does not take into consideration the need to address capacity at the individual, organisational and institutional levels.
- f) Training interventions were not well targeted, in terms of matching the materials to the people involved, and not strongly supported by other capacity development interventions such as technical assistance, tools and systems as well as an action reflection process to solidify the learning and influence the overall system, including decision-making and allocation of resources.³⁶
- g) Some interventions, such as logistics training with the BNPB and related agencies, introduced WFP materials used internationally. While these materials (facilitators’ guides etc.) are of a relatively high standard, the fact that they were not developed together with Indonesian staff of the agencies involved meant that they did not gain support within the partner agency. This was a consequence of the limited efforts at relationship building and ensuring effective communication with partners.
- h) The focus of the monitoring of capacity development activities was on inputs/activities and not on outputs/outcomes (i.e. the desired changes at

³⁶However, the EPR team supported the BNPB and BPBD in the development of SOP for warehouse management and logistics. This was particularly effective in Aceh during the PRRO and was therefore introduced at the national and subnational levels.

individual, organisational and institutional levels; the changes in policies, systems and practice and the critical paths to their achievement). There was limited support from WFP HQ and OMB in the systematic review of the WFP monitoring system to bring it into line with the capacity development approach of the CP.

13. While the findings above summarise performance over the review period as a whole, it is important to note that in the new strategies, plans and proposals developed by each of the component areas in the final months of that period there was a marked improvement with regard to planning for capacity development, with a much greater appreciation of the need for a systematic approach focusing on the individual, organisational and institutional levels. Moreover, the new documents reflected a much deeper understanding of the need to develop strong, open relationships with direct partners and to work together on the preparation of capacity development plans. That said, it would be good for each component team to review and reflect on the degree to which the seven steps noted above have been carried out.

Table 18 Capacity development approaches, 2009–2013

		0	1	2	3
Step 0	Identify direct partners and policy makers who need to be influenced through stakeholder analysis.		X		
Step 1	Build a common vision around one or more clearly stated development (goals).	X			
Step 2	Identify CD Problems and Opportunities through Institutional Diagnosis.	X			
Step 3	Identify Solutions (Outputs) to Capacity Problems as a Critical Path to Achieve the Commonly Defined Development Goal.	X			
Step 4	Formulate a Strategy for Change with Defined Roles and Responsibilities.	X			
Step 5	Agree on How to Track and Assess Progress towards Outputs and Validate Strategy with Stakeholders.	X			
Step 6	Use a “Trial and Error Approach” to Implement the Critical Path towards Desired Capacity.		X		

0= No work carried out

1= Some ad hoc work done, ephemeral, poorly documented and WFP focused

2= Some unstructured work carried out, mostly responsive with some input from partners

3= Structured activities and analysis carried out with direct partners and proactive interventions

Table 19 Capacity development approaches, 2013–2014

		0	1	2	3
Step 0	Identify direct partners and policy makers who need to be influenced through stakeholder analysis.		X		
Step 1	Build a common vision around one or more clearly stated development (goals).		X		
Step 2	Identify CD Problems and Opportunities through Institutional Diagnosis.		X		
Step 3	Identify Solutions (Outputs) to Capacity Problems as a Critical Path to Achieve the Commonly Defined Development Goal.			X	
Step 4	Formulate a Strategy for Change with Defined Roles and Responsibilities.			X	
Step 5	Agree on How to Track and Assess Progress towards Outputs and Validate Strategy with Stakeholders.		X		
Step 6	Use a “Trial and Error Approach” to Implement the Critical Path towards Desired Capacity.			X	

Key: as for Table 18 above.

Advocacy for Policy Change

14. WFP Indonesia has explicitly stated that one of the key goals of the CP is influencing the government of Indonesia to establish the policy and regulatory framework for ownership of hunger solutions (WFP, 2011p: 13). There are several dimensions to policy influencing. “Policy is a deliberate plan to guide decisions and achieve rational outcomes while legislation is a set of laws which allow or prohibit activities, creating incentives/disincentives that either reward or punish certain behaviours; policy guides action, legislation compels or prohibits behaviour” (WFP, 2010n: 98). In Indonesia, regulations need to be complemented with operational and technical guidelines (*juklak* and *juknis*) before implementation. Improved implementation requires not only the policies and regulations in place, but also the political will and capacities to deliver. In some cases, examples of good programmes can influence government practice and drive the adoption of new policy or regulations.

15. WFP has made a significant contribution to national and provincial policies, specifically in the areas of nutrition and food security. Working in collaboration with WFP, UNICEF and others,³⁷ national and provincial governments established:

- the RPJMN (2010–2014)³⁸
- the NFNAP (2011–2015)³⁹
- PFNAPs (2011–2015)

16. WFP influenced these policies, particularly by supporting the FSA with the production and dissemination of FSVAs at the national and sub-national levels (NTT and NTB) and using these maps in dialogue with government in the preparation of the action plans.⁴⁰ There is some evidence that these policies have led to significant increases in budget allocation and targeting to vulnerable communities such as the programme in NTB to have food stocks in place at the provincial, district and village levels in preparation for periods of low food availability and the decrease in the number of food insecure districts in NTT.⁴¹ On the other hand, there is not much evidence that advocacy by WFP has led to secure funding for key agencies (especially at the sub-national level) such as BPBD.

17. In terms of practice, the school feeding programme in a limited number of schools in Kupang district, NTT, and Jayapura city, Papua, triggered a response from

³⁷ Other agencies contributing included the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Internal Affairs, the Food and Drug Control Board, experts from Bogor Institute of Agriculture, University of Indonesia, professional organisations such as the Indonesian Nutritionist Association, the Indonesian Food and Nutrition Association, the Indonesian Medical Nutrition Doctor Association, UNICEF, WHO, and other NGOs.

³⁸ The 2010–2014 RPJMN is a medium-term, inclusive national development strategy created by the GoI in consultation with stakeholders from civil society and the private sector. The RPJMN aims for wealth creation at all levels of society, based on equity, justice and diversity. It has a strong territorial dimension, placing emphasis on the development of regional capacities within an integrated national economy. The RPJMN also promotes the development of human resources, talents and skills by focusing on improvements in access to and quality of education, health, social protection and living conditions for the most vulnerable. Special attention is given to South-South learning and knowledge exchange. (GoI, 2010a)

³⁹ National Plan of Action for Food and Nutrition, 2011–2015: in this plan, policy for food and nutrition is developed based on five pillar approaches of food and nutrition development: (1) community nutrition improvement; (2) food access; (3) food quality and safety; (4) clean and healthy life style (PHBS); and (5) institutionalisation of food and nutrition. The policy for food and nutrition is to improve community nutritional status, especially of mothers and children, through food availability, accessibility, consumption, and food safety, clean and healthy lifestyle including nutrition awareness, and followed by strengthening multisectoral and inter-programme coordination mechanisms and partnerships (GoI, 2010b).

⁴⁰ The VAM maps are cited several times in key policy documents at both the national and subnational levels and were referred to explicitly in interviews with Bappeda staff in NTB and NTT.

⁴¹ Interviews in NTT. There is also a claim by WFP in the CP document (WFP, 2011g: 9) that the government has allocated USD 32 million for the 100 most vulnerable districts. These numbers are not substantiated.

the local administrations to take over and expand these activities. There is no evidence that the FFA work carried out by WFP influenced policy or practice.

18. There is little evidence that WFP contributed to the strengthening of Indonesian capacity for analysis and decision-making in these fields. The focus in capacity development was mostly on increasing the technical capacity of staff, with very limited emphasis on analysis and influencing decision makers. There was also no discernible work done with decision makers themselves on how to use data in the development of policy, regulation and budget allocation. In interviews with the CO EPR team, it was noted that the most important factor for programme success was the ability of key subnational agencies (such as the BPBD and the Department of Social Services) to advocate for budgets and resources for disaster preparedness and response to both the executive (Bupati and Bappeda) and legislative (DPRD) branches of government. Little effort was made in this regard.

19. There was no clear advocacy strategy for each of the programme areas, stating what kinds of approaches were to be used, taking into consideration that multiple approaches would be required to create interest and resonance among policy makers, such as using evidence to prove improvements in wellbeing or resilience (such as comparisons, tracking, stocktaking, best practice); using appropriate forums (and structuring these forums for advocacy ends); using top-down interventions (getting senior people in the GoI to acknowledge and appreciate the work done) and bottom-up interventions (having lower-level government and beneficiaries articulate the success, usefulness and appropriateness of the interventions); using the media (especially at the district and provincial levels to highlight successful interventions through personal interest stories or reporting on more academic assessments); understanding the 'needs' of policy makers and honing the message to respond directly to these needs (electability, career enhancement, recognition and acknowledgement by citizens, national bodies, award makers, international community etc.) and responding to requests for information in an immediately useful way (one page summaries of key messages and evidence; presentations; strategy elements etc.).

20. The portfolio focused on what WFP could do to advocate, rather than looking for key Indonesian actors who could lobby and advocate more effectively than 'donors'.

21. There was an emphasis on (or apparent satisfaction with) high-level events and the involvement of high-level actors. For example, WFP staff interviews repeatedly cited the example of the President writing an introduction to or launching a product (VAM) as an example of effective advocacy. In practice, however, VAM was not being used by key decision makers on a regular basis to target programmes and interventions (e.g. TNP2K, Ministries of Education, Health, Agriculture, Public Works, PNPM, Raskin, direct cash transfers). Even the requests from various ministries (including Bappenas) for copies of the atlas did not necessarily translate into changes to programmes or policies.

22. However, interviews indicated that VAM was appreciated at the provincial level and was seen as helpful in developing the Food and Nutrition Action Plan in NTT. This plan, and the district FSNAP in TTS, resulted from WFP influencing and working well with World Vision International (WVI) and UNICEF.

Communication and Trust Building

23. Although the goal of the CP was the strengthening of government systems and institutions, WFP was not always effective in maintaining clear, open, two-way

communication of concepts, strategies, plans, implementation, outputs and outcomes. Moreover, there was less intense interaction with key agencies (specifically BNPB) on a day-to-day basis in jointly developing concepts and training materials, and conducting assessments together. Interviews show that the long-term relations with the FSA, on the other hand, were solid and moved towards more autonomy on the part of the FSA in producing the FSVA, with WFP acting more as a back-up.

24. There were tensions in the relationships between WFP, BNPB and various donors due partly (though not entirely, interviews indicated) to performance issues on the part of WFP. Poor communications exacerbated the situation. This led to a reduced level of trust in WFP by both BNPB and the donor community.

FFA as an influencing strategy

25. Food for Assets work is meant to demonstrate good practice and influence the way that the GoI carries out community-based programmes for climate change mitigation. In the districts and provinces visited, the government expressed an appreciation of the FFA approach and cited it (in Central Lombok) as good practice in terms of community engagement and buy-in. However, there is no evidence that these examples of good practice changed the way that the government works in this field. Some of the reasons cited are the complexity of budget arrangements in the GoI itself, which preclude direct support to communities and villages and require tendering processes for relatively small amounts of funds. While this may be true, WFP did not take such constraints into account in the design of its FFA projects. Nor did it develop strategies to convince the GoI of the benefits of these approaches and of ways to fund such community initiatives. Furthermore, while the approaches used by WFP in the FFA work were seen by government as ‘innovative’, international experience suggests that this was not the case. Furthermore, local CSOs were not engaged in the selection, preparation, implementation and post-project support of FFA activities. Nor was much effort made to develop case histories of successful FFA activities, with an analysis of the factors of success, and – apart from occasional high-level visits by central government officials – to use these examples to convince the GoI to take up these approaches.

Annex M Alignment with national agenda and policies

1. The **PRRO** document referred to a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) produced by the GoI in 2004 and stated that its interventions would be “in line with PRSP and MDG priorities”. It made particular reference to evolving government policy on nutrition, and noted that, overall, “success depends on convergence with donor-supported Government priorities in health and education” (WFP, 2007a: 9).
2. The **CSD** took care to align WFP’s work with government policies and priorities, having first set out the food and nutrition security context in Indonesia. It explained how it was aligned with the country’s long-term development vision (Vision 2025) as well as the medium-term development plan (RPJMN), the UNPDF (drawn up by the UN agencies in consultation with government), the Indonesia Climate Change Sectoral Road Map (ICCRS) and the Food and Nutrition Action Plan 2011–2015, whose preparation WFP had supported (WFP, 2011p: 14). An annex tabulated the interfaces between the three strategic priorities of the CSD and these various government plans, as well as the 2009 Jakarta Commitment on Aid Effectiveness, the UNPDF and the WFP Strategic Plan.
3. The **CP** set out a concise summary of the relevant government policies, as well as the UNPDF, and committed WFP to “support the Government’s commitment to achieving food and nutrition security for all Indonesians” (WFP, 2011g: 9). More specifically, it mentioned support for the GoI’s policy on strengthening food and nutrition security surveillance (FNSS) and for the national nutrition policy. Review of the national FNAP (GoI, 2010b) shows that the **MCN** strategy that WFP undertook through the CP was in line with the FNAP’s Improving Community Nutrition Pillar. WFP’s work on advocacy and policy change fell under the plan’s provision for Strengthening the Institutionalisation of Food and Nutrition. The behaviour change component of the CP was in line with the infant and young child feeding (IYCF) aspect of the FNAP. The use of complementary feeding products in non-disaster areas was less clearly aligned, while blanket supplementary feeding for mothers seems to contradict the FNAP, which states it should be given for those with chronic energy deficiency only. Review of the provincial FNAP for NTT shows a similarly strong overall alignment between WFP’s MCN strategy especially since the FNAP states that due to the high levels of under-nutrition in the province, MPASI should be distributed as part of a package including breastfeeding counselling and growth monitoring. However, as with the National FNAP, there is less clarity regarding food supplements for pregnant and lactating women (PLW).
4. The GoI has not recently given policy emphasis to **school feeding**, but earlier in the review period it did attempt to revive it. This influenced WFP to align its own school feeding programme with the government strategy and move to local food-based school meals. There was a strong overlap between WFP school feeding objectives and those outlined in the GoI Supplementary Food for School Children Programme (PMT-AS) with regard to diversification of food, using local agriculture and increasing local community income.
5. Overall, review of project documentation and interviews shortly after the end of the review period indicate growth in the GoI’s sense of **ownership** of the activities to which WFP was contributing. While the PRRO was prepared in consultation with government partners, a stronger sense of ownership seems to have been built during preparation of the CSD and the CP. Government informants generally described WFP as contributing to GoI programmes, rather than the other way round. This was most forcefully stated by the national Food Security Agency (FSA), which left the evaluation team in no doubt that the **FSVA** process is the FSA’s process and that the FSA would

continue it in the absence of WFP. There was unanimity, too, that the **EPR** sector is owned and driven by the BNPB, and that WFP's and other agencies' inputs must be aligned with BNPB strategy – while, at the same time, potentially seeking to influence it. However, progress was incomplete with regard to MCN and school feeding programmes, where not all ministries expressed a feeling of full understanding of and alignment with WFP strategy.

6. As in the FSVA work, WFP worked through national processes and structures as it sought to strengthen the new BNPB and selected provincial BPBDs. Developing the capacity of these Indonesian institutions was the central purpose of WFP's work in the EPR field, especially in the latter part of the review period. MCN and school feeding interventions were also undertaken through GoI structures and systems, apart from certain logistical and reporting elements.

Annex N PRRO and CP FFA Outputs

Table 20 PRRO FFA Outputs, 2008–2011

	Unit	Planned	Actual	% actual v planned
2008				
Microprojects under food for work	project	167	150	89.8
2009				
Area protected and/or rehabilitated with biological conservation measures	ha	1,918	1,918	100.0
Area protected and/or rehabilitated with physical conservation structures	ha	5,008	5,008	100.0
Agroforestry	ha	4,982	4,982	100.0
2010				
Cultivated land treated and conserved with physical soil and water conservation measures only	ha	35,000	335	1.0
Number of assisted communities with improved physical infrastructures to mitigate the impact of shocks	number		10	
Number of excavated community water ponds for domestic uses	number	120	1	0.8
Number of tree seedlings produced	number	33,000	33,000	100.0
2011				
Cultivated land treated with biological stabilisation or agroforestry techniques only	ha	200	0	0.0
Cultivated land treated with both physical soil and water conservation measures and biological stabilisation or agroforestry techniques	ha	200	1,985	992.5
Forest planted and established	ha	500	771	154.2
Assisted communities with improved physical infrastructures	community	35	35	100
Community ponds for livestock uses	pond	0	3	
Tree seedlings produced	seedling	0	75,000	

Source: SPRs (WFP, 2009c; WFP, 2010h; WFP, 2011d; WFP, 2012d).

Table 21 CP FFA Outputs, 2012–2013

	Unit	Planned	Actual	% actual v planned
2012				
Agricultural land benefiting from new irrigation schemes	ha	500	578	115.6
Coastal line protection with shelter belts and windbreaks	ha	1,000	1,056	105.6
Cultivated land treated and conserved with physical soil and water conservation measures only	ha	300	288	96.0
Forest planted and established	ha	150	125	83.3
Feeder roads built (FFA) and maintained (self-help)	km	8	8	100.0
Assisted communities with improved physical infrastructures	comm-unity	32	32	100.0
Community ponds for domestic uses	pond	25	25	100.0
New nurseries established	nursery	32	32	100.00
2013				
Agricultural land benefiting from new irrigation schemes	ha	350	270	77.1
Coastal line protection with shelter belts and windbreaks	ha	50	50	100.0
Cultivated land treated and conserved with physical soil and water conservation measures only	ha	413	332	80.4
Cultivated land treated with biological stabilisation or agroforestry techniques only	ha	10	10	100.0
Cultivated land treated with physical soil and water conservation measures and biological stabilisation or agroforestry techniques	ha	100	376	376.0
Forest planted and established	ha	250	199	79.6
Feeder roads built (FFA) and maintained (self-help)	km	2	2	100.0
Assisted communities with improved physical infrastructures	comm-unity	50	44	88.0
Bridges constructed	bridge	2	2	100.0
Community ponds for domestic uses	pond	5	6	120.0
Community ponds for livestock uses	pond	8	8	100.0
New nurseries established	nursery	170	165	97.1
Tree seedlings produced	seedling	358,700	358,700	100.0
Volume of check dams and gully rehabilitation structures constructed	m ³	22,000	22,000	100.00

Source: SPRs (WFP, 2013e; WFP, 2014a)

Annex O Alignment with WFP strategy and standards

1. Although designed before the organisation's **nutrition policy** was approved, WFP's MCN work in Indonesia was broadly in line with it: in particular its first objective with its commitment to "increase local production of nutritious food products and local fortification whenever possible and required" and its second objective, "serve as a resource, advocate and thought leader for food-based nutrition interventions to address under-nutrition" (WFP, 2012j: 8–9). The second objective includes reference to "integrating WFP's work into national policy frameworks, and including nutrition in national strategies" and "conducting operational research on and cost-benefit analyses of the effectiveness of programme interventions and products" (WFP, 2012j: 9). WFP's work to include nutrition commitments in the RPJMN is an example of the former in the Indonesia portfolio under review. Research with local partners on the reformulation of MPASI breast milk complement and the development of a lipid-based nutrient supplement is an instance of the latter.

2. WFP's school feeding policy (WFP, 2009) stated that "WFP will support governments in implementing school feeding programmes that are designed in line with the Eight Standards Guiding Sustainable and Affordable School Feeding Programmes". With reduced government commitment to school feeding, the first of these standards – sustainability – was not being met in Indonesia. It was not feasible to achieve the second – sound alignment with national policy frameworks – nor the third – stable funding and budgeting. The PRRO document showed little evidence of meeting the fourth standard – needs-based, cost-effective quality programme design; the CSD did not propose any school feeding intervention and the CP only referred to it tangentially. The 2012 SPR for the CP stated that school feeding activities were under way, but did not explain why (WFP, 2013a: np). The fifth standard – strong institutional arrangements for implementation, monitoring and accountability – was only partially met, at district rather than at national level. Good progress was made, however, with the sixth standard – strategy for local production and sourcing. However, the seventh was not achieved – strong partnerships and inter-sectoral co-ordination, linking school feeding with programmes like health and social protection. Finally, there was some progress towards the eighth standard – strong community participation and ownership. The revised school feeding policy of 2013 (WFP, 2013c) placed more emphasis on capacity development and linking with local agricultural production. WFP made limited progress in the first of these areas during the review period, but by 2013, as noted above, the Indonesia portfolio was increasingly well aligned with the principle of local agricultural production.

3. The CSD and CP were broadly in line with WFP's 2009 **capacity development policy**. The policy's objective is to "achieve nationally owned sustainable hunger solutions based on increased capacity for efficient and effective design, management and implementation of tools, policies and programmes to predict and reduce hunger" (WFP, 2009a: 11). It aims for outcomes at three levels: the enabling environment, the institutional level and the individual level. The CSD and the CP aimed to address each of these, with strategies and activities to achieve the desired outcomes. However, at the implementation level (with the possible exception of the VAM work), the portfolio faced the same constraints and repeated the same mistakes as noted in WFP's 2008 global evaluation of its capacity development work (WFP, 2008d; WFP, 2010p). These included limited helpfulness of guidance materials for capacity development and influencing; limited expertise of staff in capacity development; lack of a robust monitoring system to capture changes at the three outcome levels as opposed to output level (e.g. numbers trained); lack of systematic assessment of partners; over-reliance on training as opposed to a variety of capacity development

interventions; and the tendency to monitor and report on outputs (numbers trained) as opposed to outcome changes in organisational behaviour.

4. WFP's **gender policy** commits it to promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women (WFP, 2009b: 9). It identifies four areas of institutional action to strengthen its ability in this regard. Overall, the portfolio under review did not contradict this strategy, but there is little evidence of active effort to fulfil it. In the first area, development of staff capacity to mainstream gender in their work, only very limited training activity took place, with slightly more in sub offices than in the CO. In the second, accountability, efforts were made to enhance gender disaggregation in M&E data. But there is no evidence that WFP promoted accountability for gender mainstreaming among its partners. There was evidence of limited activity in the third area, advocacy. No communication and advocacy strategy on gender and hunger was developed. However, the organisation did commission a rapid assessment report on gender issues in food and nutrition security in NTT (Ashmad et al., 2012). In addition, efforts were made to mainstream gender into provincial FNAPs (WFP, 2013e: np; WFP, 2014a: np). In the fourth area, gender mainstreaming in operations, the portfolio was again more aligned with corporate policy in principle than in practice. There is little evidence that a gender perspective was incorporated into operations "at all stages of a project cycle" (WFP, 2009b: 13).

Annex P Recommendations: links to CPE and SER text

Recommendation	Recommendation addressed to:	See main text paragraph number(s)	See Summary Evaluation Report paragraph number(s)
R1. To clarify the structure and rationale of its portfolio in Indonesia, WFP should plan and deliver its work in two categories: institutional capacity development and prototypes.	CO	33, 88, 118, 144–153, 191, 193, 196, 199	11, 12, 15
R2. For each of its VAM, EPR, MCN and school feeding sectors, WFP should articulate a comprehensive capacity development strategy.	CO	154–165, Annex L	12, 25
R3. For each of its VAM, EPR, MCN and school feeding sectors, WFP should articulate a comprehensive advocacy and influencing strategy.	CO	153, 183, 199, 200, Annex L	26
R4. With the support of OMB and HQ, the CO should commit as much effort and resources to its school feeding work in Indonesia as it does to its MCN activities.	CO, with support of OMB and HQ and in consultation with GoI	53, 129, 130, 133–135	27
R5. With the support of the Private Sector Partnerships Division, the CO should seek funds to carry out further research to identify enhancements to MCN strategy in Indonesia, based on evaluation of the impacts of approaches used so far.	CO, with support of Private Sector Partnerships Division	196	22
R6. WFP should enhance its monitoring and reporting systems so that they are more relevant to the organisation's work in Indonesia and other MICs.	HQ, in consultation with Indonesia and other relevant COs	89, 96, 191	17, 28
R7. In Indonesia and similar MIC COs, WFP should ensure and sustain a basic minimum operating presence.	WFP corporate: planned by CO with support of OMB	45, 77, 153, 178, 200, 202, 204	32
R8. Except in Level 3 emergency situations, WFP should not supply or distribute food (including complementary feeding products) in Indonesia.	CO with technical support from OMB and HQ	60, 114, 189, 191	16, 17
R9. WFP should carry out an urgent, thorough assessment of its FFA work in Indonesia to determine the cost-effectiveness, sustainability and replicability of the approaches it has been pursuing and to determine whether continuation of such activities is justified.	CO with support of Policy and Programme Division	50, 136–143, 198	24

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Acronyms

ACCESS	Australian Community Development and Civil Society Strengthening
ACF	Action contre la Faim (Action Against Hunger)
ADB	Asian Development Bank
ALNAP	Active Learning Network for Accountability and Performance
ANC	antenatal care
ANCORS	Acehnese Civil Society Organization Strengthening
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development (now integrated into the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade)
Bappeda	Local Development Planning Agency (Province and District level)
Bappenas	National Development Planning Agency
BCM	Beneficiary Contact Monitoring
BLT	Direct Cash Transfers for the Poor
BMKG	Agency for Meteorology, Climatology and Geophysics
BNPB	National Agency for Disaster Risk Management
BPBA	Aceh's Disaster Management Unit
BPBD	Local Disaster Management Agency (Province and District level)
B POM	Badan Pengawas Obat dan Makanan (National Agency of Drug and Food Control)
BPMK	Badan Pemberdayaan Masyarakat Kampung/Village Community Empowerment Agency in Papua
BPS	Central Statistics Bureau
BPTP	Badan Penerapan Teknologi Pertanian (agricultural technology application agency)
BR	Budget Revision
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa
CB	Capacity Building
CCAP	The Climate Change Action Plan
CD	Country Director / Capacity Development
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CLA	Community-Led Appraisal
CLAPP	Community-Led Appraisal and Planning Process
CMAM	Community management of acute malnutrition
CO	Country Office
CoD	Cost of Diet
CP	Country Programme
CPAP	Country Programme Action Plan
CPE	Country Portfolio Evaluation

CS	Country Strategy
CSD	Country Strategy Document
CSI	Coping Strategy Index
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
CUSO	Canadian University Services Overseas
DAC	Development Assistance Committee of OECD
DCD	Deputy Country Director
DFID	United Kingdom Department for International Development
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DKI Jakarta	Daerah Khusus Ibukota Jakarta (province)
DM	Disaster Management
DOH	Department of Health
DPRD	Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat Daerah (legislative branch of government)
DRR	Disaster Risk Reduction
DSM	De Nederlandse Staatsmijnen (chemical company)
EB	Executive Board of WFP
EFSA	Emergency Food Security Assessment
EM	Evaluation Manager
EM-DAT	Emergency Events Database
EMOP	Emergency Operation
EPR	Emergency Preparedness and Response
EQ	Evaluation Question
EQAS	Evaluation Quality Assurance System
ER	Evaluation Report
ET	Evaluation Team
ETC	Emergency Telecommunications Clusters
ETL	Evaluation Team Leader
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FEG	Food Economy Group
FGD	Focus group discussions
FFA	Food for Assets
FFW	Food for Work
FFT	Food for Training
FNAP	Food and Nutrition Action Plan
FNSS	Food and Nutrition Security Surveillance
FSA	Food Security Agency
FSO	Food Security Office
FSTWG	Thematic Working Group on Food Security
FSVA	Food Security & Vulnerability Atlas

GAIN	Global Alliance for Improved Nutrition
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFATM	The Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (The Global
GIVAS	Global Impact Vulnerability Alert System
GNI	Gross National Income
GoI	Government of Indonesia
ha	hectare
HDI	Human Development Index
HEB	High Energy Biscuits
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
HQ	Headquarters
ICCSR	Indonesia Climate Change Sectoral Road Map
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
IDA	International Development Association
IDP	Internally displaced person
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
INGO	International NGO
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IPB	Bogor Agricultural University
IR	Inception Report
IR-EMOP	Immediate Response Emergency Operation
IYCF	Infant and young child feeding
kcal	kilocalorie
Km	kilometre
KPK	Corruption Eradication Commission
LAPAN	National Institute for Aeronautics and Space
LFBSM	Local Food Based School Meals
LNS	Lipid Nutrient Supplement
LSM	local school meals
LSU	Logistics Support Unit
LTA	Long-Term Agreement
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MAM	Moderate Acute Malnutrition
MCA	Millennium Challenge Account
MCHN	Maternal and Child Health Nutrition
MCN	Maternal and Child Nutrition
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MIC	Middle Income Country
MINT	Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria and Turkey
MMR	Maternal mortality ratio

MNP	Micronutrient Powders
MoH	Ministry of Health
MoHA	Ministry of Home Affairs
MPASI	rice-soya blend
MRE	Meals Ready to Eat
MRP	Minimum Reporting Package
NAD	Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam (province)
NCI	National Capacity Assessment Index
nd	no date
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio
NFNAP	National Food and Nutrition Action Plan
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
np	no page
NTB	Nusa Tenggara Barat (province)
NTT	Nusa Tenggara Timur (province)
OCA	Organisational capacity assessment
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
ODA	Official development assistance
ODST	Organisational Development Snapshot Tool
OECD DAC	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Development Assistance Committee
OEV	Office of Evaluation (WFP)
OFDA	Office of Foreign Disaster Assistance
OMB	Regional Bureau for Asia (WFP)
P2KP	Urban Poverty Reduction Programme
PACT	Private Agencies Collaborating Together
PD	Project Document
PEMPAL	Public Expenditure Management Peer Assisted Learning
PFM	Public Financial Management
PHBS	Clean and Healthy Life
PFNAP	Provincial Food and Nutrition Action Plan
PKH	Cash Transfer Programme
PKK	Family Empowerment and Welfare Movement
PLB	Project Laser Beam
PLW	pregnant and lactating women
PLWHA	people living with HIV/AIDS
PMT-AS	Supplementary Food for School Children Programme
PNPM	National Program for Community Empowerment
PPI	Policy, Programme and Innovation
PRRO	Protracted Relief and Recovery Operation
PVO	Private Voluntary Organization

QS	Quality Support
RASKIN	Beras untuk Orang Miskin (food-assistance programme)
RB	Regional Bureau
RCSI	Reduced Coping Strategy Index
RDA	Recommended Dietary Allowance
RMP	Performance Management and Monitoring Division, WFP
RPJMN	National Medium-Term Development Plan
RPJPN	National Long-Term Development Plan
RUSF	Ready-to-Use Supplementary Food
SAM	Severe acute malnutrition
SF	School Feeding
SFP	Supplementary Feeding Programmes
SKPG	Food and Nutrition Surveillance System
SMERU	Social Monitoring and Early Response Unit [full title no longer used]
SO	Special Operation
SO	Strategic Objective
SOP	Standard Operating Procedures
SP	Strategic Plan
SPR	Standard Project Report
SRC	Rapid Response Force (Satuan Reaksi Cepat)
SUN	Scaling Up Nutrition
t	tonne (1,000 kilograms)
T&B	TOR and Budget
TA	Technical Assistance
TL	Team Leader
TNP2K	National Team for the Acceleration of Poverty Reduction
ToC	Theory of change
TOR	Terms of Reference
ToT	Training of Trainers
TTS	Timor Tengah Selatan (province)
UGM	University of Gadjah Mada
UN CERF	United Nations Central Emergency Response Fund
UNDAF	United Nations Development Assistance Framework
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEG	United Nations Evaluation Group
UNHAS	United Nations Humanitarian Air Service
UNHRD	United Nations Humanitarian Response Depot
UI	University of Indonesia
UNDANA	University of Nusa Cendana
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

UNOCHA	United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNPDF	United Nations Partnership Development Framework
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USD	US Dollars
VAM	Vulnerability Analysis Mapping
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Programme
WHO	World Health Organisation
WID	Women in Development
WVI	World Vision International

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