Employment intensive Reconstruction Works in Countries Emerging from Armed Conflicts
Employment-intensive Reconstruction Works in Countries Emerging from Armed Conflicts

GUIDELINES
If one looks around the globe today, one finds a large number of countries in situations of full-fledged war or armed conflicts of some kind. And millions of people in those countries are affected by the crisis caused by such armed conflicts which almost invariably lead to a worsening of the situations regarding unemployment, underemployment and poverty. The immediate post-conflict situations are often characterised by such problems threatening large scale social exclusion and disintegration of social fabric. Prolonged armed conflicts usually cause widespread destruction to physical and economic infrastructure and disruption of economic activities. Such damages not only exacerbate poverty but also make reconstruction and recovery a difficult task.

Rehabilitation and repairs of damaged infrastructure are often a basic prerequisite for the overall reconstruction of an economy emerging from armed conflict. However, resources needed for such tasks are often much larger than what is available (even taking into account possible external assistance). One realistic solution to the problem of rebuilding infrastructure in such situations is to rely on what is readily available at low cost: locally available material, and unemployed/underemployed labour. In economies with low labour costs and extensive unemployment/underemployment, labour-intensive methods represent an attractive and cost-effective option for infrastructure works. Also, employment and income opportunities for demobilized soldiers, displaced persons and refugees can help victims of conflicts adjust to a new life, and reintegrate into the society.
One of the major objectives of the ILO is to assist its member States in their efforts at creating decent employment for men and women. And the use of labour-based methods in infrastructure has been demonstrated to be a very useful means of creating such jobs and contributing to the development of low-income economies characterized by the existence of widespread unemployment and underemployment.

For more than twenty years the ILO, with the financial assistance of a large variety of external donors, has planned, implemented and evaluated a large number of employment-intensive programmes aiming at investment in rural and urban infrastructure. The ILO is now trying to build capacity by compiling and condensing the experience from this work and by making it available to a broad audience. It also aims to convince governments of the validity of relying on more employment-intensive growth strategies.

The present guidelines are intended to demonstrate the usefulness of labour-based approaches in infrastructure in the task of reconstruction and rehabilitation of economies emerging from armed conflicts. Although these guidelines have grown out of the conclusions reached in three case studies\(^1\), they also draw on the experience gathered in the work of the ILO Employment-intensive Investment Programme over the years. They are meant to disseminate those lessons and to provide guidance for planning, programming and implementing employment-intensive investment programmes in post-conflict

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\(^1\) Respectively on Cambodia, Mozambique and Uganda in the framework of the ILO Action Plan for Countries Emerging from Armed Conflict (1996/97).
scenarios where, in addition to the ubiquitous unemployment problem, social warping complicates the transition to a peaceful society. These guidelines were written by Kaj Thorndahl, an ILO consultant who is a specialist on employment-based and poverty reduction programmes. Gehrard Feistauer and Philippe Garnier, both members of the Employment-intensive Investment Branch, were responsible for the final editing.

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INTRODUCTION

Photo: Van Imsehooit
1.1 Armed conflicts

Armed conflicts cause enormous social and economic destruction and often lead to the displacement of millions of people. Most of the countries affected have comparatively low rates of economic growth and high poverty, unemployment and underemployment rates. In addition, they either host refugees from other countries or can expect massive waves of returnees—nationals living in neighbouring countries as refugees who wish to repatriate. As peace is restored, large numbers of refugees, internally displaced persons, and ex-combatants wish to return to their communities, thereby placing an additional burden on over-stretched resources.

The reintegration of refugees, displaced persons, demobilized soldiers and others into civil life is recognized by governments, United Nations agencies, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and donors alike as vital for the establishment and maintenance of peace. It is also commonly accepted that the methods of reintegration adopted in the past by both developed and developing countries emerging from armed conflict should be used as a general guide. However, they require innovative adaptation to meet the needs of a particular situation and are not necessarily applicable in all circumstances.

Reintegration can be a most daunting challenge, and few governments are able to cope with it on their own. In order to make reintegration programmes and measures a success, assistance to national authorities is usually required. Donors, UN and specialized agencies, NGOs and all levels of local institutions can enhance support for the conflict-affected population through better planning, coordination and implementation.
1.2  ILO policies and mandate

The ILO has a long history of providing guidance to conflict-affected countries dating back to its inception at the end of the First World War in 1919. International labour standards were adopted towards the end of the Second World War, in 1944. Recommendation No. 71, “Employment (Transition from War to Peace)”, highlights, inter alia, the need for “special attention” to facilitate the re-employment of the demobilized forces and other conflict-affected groups such as young workers, women and the disabled. Recommendation No 73, “Public Works (National Planning)”, stresses the importance of public investments as a means to create employment.

For many years the ILO has responded to a growing number of requests from its constituents for assistance in various areas ranging from vocational training, micro enterprise development and employment-intensive investments to rehabilitation of physical infrastructure. Nowadays many ILO member States have been affected by conflict and urgently require assistance to carry out the formidable task of reintegration, reconstruction and building of sustainable peace.

In recent years, the ILO has enhanced its strategy and programmes for working in conflict-affected situations. In 1994-95 a larger programme, including an expert group meeting on the re-integration of ex-combatants, was implemented. A substantial number of specific projects has been or is being undertaken in countries such as Angola, Cambodia, Mozambique and Uganda. During

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the 1996-97 biennium the ILO launched an action programme on skills and entrepreneurship training for countries emerging from armed conflicts. The objective of the Action Programme was to enhance the capacity of countries emerging from armed conflict in planning and implementing programmes for effective re-integration of all conflict-affected groups and for building sustainable peace. The ILO assistance package designed for conflict-affected countries has three main components:

- employment-intensive investment programmes (EIIP),
- skills training, and
- small and micro enterprises development.

Among others, two main documents were recently drawn up on the basis of an assessment of past programmes, the experience of ongoing ILO projects in conflict-affected countries and a number of investigations to identify successful initiatives by national and international organizations, NGOs and other actors in post-conflict countries. These papers were presented and discussed in late 1997 at an interregional seminar called “The Reintegration of Conflict-affected Groups through Skill Training and Employment Promotion” at the ILO International Training Centre in Turin, Italy:

- “Guidelines for Employment and Skills Training in Conflict-affected Countries”.

The present Guidelines provide detailed advice on the re-integration of conflict-affected groups through employment-intensive investments for rehabilitation/reconstruction in the post-conflict context.
The main objective of these guidelines is to provide a planning and programming tool and advice for the timely and effective action as regards

- rehabilitation and development of the physical, economic, social and institutional infrastructure damaged during armed conflicts and

- re-integration of conflict-affected groups in this process through employment creation applying employment-intensive techniques.

Further aims are to share the experience gathered from EILPs in post-conflict situations and to give an overview of this process, the stages involved and a basic idea of the methodologies required.
The process mainly consists of four consecutive stages:

- inception,
- planning,
- implementation, and
- evaluation.

The reader will find guidance on:

- collecting and analysing relevant information in line with the objectives of the programme at the inception and planning stages;
- overall programming at the national level during the inception and planning stages;
- coordinating at both the international and national level during inception, planning, and implementation stages;
- managing and monitoring during the implementation stage; and
- programme/project evaluation during all stages.

These Guidelines are aimed at policy makers and planners at the national level and other key national and international actors and implementers of post-conflict reintegration, rehabilitation and development programmes. They are also meant to provide information for interested staff at the ILO and in other international organizations (i.e., UNHCR).
2
CONFLICTS AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES
2.1 Scope and complexity of the problem of conflict-affected countries

Some 25 countries are presently experiencing (or have recently experienced) crises resulting in massive loss of life, human suffering, insecurity and deterioration of social, economic, institutional and political structures and systems. Heading the list of conflict-affected countries are Afghanistan, Angola, Burundi, Cambodia, Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Eritrea, Haiti, Liberia, Mozambique, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan and Zaire. New areas of concern e.g., are Chechnya and the Balkans.

According to various sources, recent crises have resulted in millions of casualties. At the end of 1996, UNHCR was assisting 13 million refugees and 4 million returnees, with several more millions living in war-like conditions or internally displaced. While conditions continue to improve in many crisis countries, recent trends indicate that these problems are likely to persist well into the future.

The situation in post-conflict countries is often volatile and differs from one country to the next. Therefore, specific solutions for each situation need to be found. In some countries conflicts have continued intermittently for many years, impeding full-scale programmes for demobilization and rehabilitation.

In most situations, the end to an armed conflict is brought about with external assistance through various stages of peace-making operations and negotiations. Typically, these negotiations comprise three parts: military, political and economic.
Military measures include an initial cease-fire and cessation of hostilities, disarmament and peacekeeping arrangements. Political measures focus on transitional arrangements for civilian rule, agreements on framing a new constitution with a view to facilitate democratization, national reconciliation measures and demobilization. Economic measures include humanitarian aid coupled with capital and technical assistance from internal and mainly external sources, in overcoming the consequences of the conflict and in rebuilding the economy.

The following three phases are usually observed in post-conflict situations:

1) **Emergency phase:**

   *addresses the immediate elementary needs of conflict-affected persons, often linked with humanitarian assistance;*

2) **Rehabilitation phase:**

   *focuses on vital reconstruction needs, including relocation and resettlement of refugees and displaced persons;*

3) **Development phase:**

   *aims at achieving long-term national development priorities.*

Annex 2 provides a detailed overview of the three phases and discusses the ILO’s role and the potential of the EIIP in each phase.
These three phases tend, however, to overlap in the unstable situations characterizing many conflict-affected countries. Often, there are no distinct boundaries or events to determine the transition from one phase to another. The progress from emergency to development is also known as “the continuum”⁴ which is characterized as follows:

- there is no disruption of activities during the three phases,
- during each phase the ground for the activities of the next phase is planned and prepared.

Unfortunately, the continuum is not always a smooth one-way sequence of interventions, where life-saving relief gradually and more or less automatically moves into life-sustaining rehabilitation, followed by a process of sustainable development. However, even in the most complex post-conflict situation, programming for humanitarian assistance should be put in a broad perspective of sustainable development, not a narrow focus on immediate problems.

Development activities should consolidate solutions to a humanitarian crisis and prevent them from recurring. Ideally, humanitarian and development modes of assistance should be mutually supportive and re-enforcing. Their respective roles and complementarity should be clarified at the very outset of a collaborative effort addressing the needs, vulnerabilities and capacities of conflict-affected countries and societies. In short, a far-sighted policy, preferably developed on a case-by-case basis, is essential.⁵ However, the successful implementation will depend on coherent planning with due regard to the timeliness and complementarity of actions.

⁴ See UN Consultative Committee on Programme and Operational Questions, 1995: *The Relief to Development Continuum*, New York.

⁵ A recent example is provided in the case of Afghanistan.
There is a general consensus that the problems of conflict-affected countries need to be based on common acceptance of fundamental principles to guide relationships, roles and responsibilities of national and international actors and partners in their joint efforts to re-integrate the conflict-affected groups and in the rehabilitation of damaged infrastructure. There is also a general recognition that simultaneous and consistent action is essential during all stages to achieve humanitarian relief and development cooperation objectives.6

2.2 Damage caused by conflicts

Civil conflicts and war often destroy human, social, physical and economic capital. The economy is usually severely disrupted. Large population groups are unable to provide for themselves because they have been displaced and/or because their means of income have been destroyed. War is often connected with a rapid decline in economic performance. Moreover, the capacity of a post-conflict country to offer employment and income is often negligible. Production in both industry and agriculture declines sharply with adverse effects on economic output and exports. Consequently, foreign exchange resources shrink, leading to scarcity of essential imports.

In most conflicts, physical infrastructure is a prime target for damage and destruction. Opposing forces aim at roads, bridges, railways, energy supplies and communication systems to isolate the enemy and to obstruct supplies and reinforcements. Schools, health facilities, drinking water supplies, irrigation systems and other items of public or private infrastructures are also damaged or destroyed. Markets are affected and investments

curtailed while the supply of money dwindles and per capita income drops.

The security situation is generally precarious. In many cases there is a proliferation of landmines in such areas hampering local activities in most sectors of the economy. Adding to the insecurity is the rootlessness of former combatants, who have not settled, have no income and who may remain involved in banditry. Easy availability of arms, widespread unemployment and food shortages often contribute to increased banditry and crime in an unstable society.

The collapse of the economy is a major problem for the re-integration of conflict-affected people into normal civilian life. The fragility of the economy impairs economic growth and generation of employment outside subsistence agriculture.

## 2.3 Conflict-affected groups

Although residents in a conflict-affected area will have experienced adverse effects on their lives, not all will have suffered to the same degree and therefore cannot be accorded equal priority.

Refugees, internally displaced persons, female-headed households, disabled persons and orphan children are all vulnerable groups who need special, immediate attention. Demobilized soldiers/combattants form a special group whose needs must be catered for in order to guarantee the peace process.

Large numbers of people are displaced internally or are refugees in another country. In Africa and Asia alone statistics compiled over the last ten years indicate that some 50 million people have been displaced. All displaced per-
sons need to be reintegrated after the cessation of hostilities. Most of them usually originate from rural communities and want to return to their area of origin once hostilities have ended, except demobilized soldiers who on the whole prefer to relocate to urban areas. However, the basic infrastructure may have been destroyed and landmines may make the use of cultivable lands impossible.

Combatants and civilians alike may have suffered physical disabilities and psychological trauma arising from armed conflict. The large numbers of disabled persons and the destruction of health infrastructure increases the social burdens on individuals, mainly on women.

Conflicts bring about important demographic changes. Often, an unbalanced sex ratio is one of the consequences of war, with women outnumbering men. It is important that this fact be reflected in policies, strategies and programmes. Women and children are reported to constitute more than 80 percent of the world's refugees and there are indications that they constitute a similar proportion among the internally displaced. A high dependency ratio is thus formed with many children, including orphans, but also the aged and disabled, all depending on the women. The incidence of female-headed households normally soars and with it the extent of poverty.

A key question in many conflict-affected countries relates to the efforts that should be made to target the demobilized for special assistance. In cases, such as Mozambique, where the demobilized already have been accorded substantial privileges, preferential treatment may have a potential for creating antagonistic feelings amongst the other conflict-affected groups towards the demobilized. In rural communities, exclusive preference should in principle not be accorded to the demobilized. It would be better if all conflict-affected groups were considered beneficiaries in reintegration programmes.
3
PARTNERSHIP FOR REINTEGRATION AND REHABILITATION
3.1 Partnership and Strategic Framework

The government should have “ownership” of and take responsibility for the recovery process. However, expectations and needs are at their highest at a time when national capacity is at its lowest. The basic employment and rehabilitation needs of a country emerging from armed conflict can best be met by a partnership including the national authorities and other relevant international organizations. International partners should support the efforts of national authorities in the reintegration and rehabilitation process. However, in view of inadequate economic, social and political structures and systems in post-conflict countries, the international community cannot limit its activities to supporting the authorities. It must also take practical aspects of the situation into consideration and give priority to the concerns and needs of people at the local level.

UN organizations can play an essential role by assisting in the creation of the best possible conditions for recovery. The effective implementation of a comprehensive recovery programme requires the closest possible alliances between these agencies and organizations. Moreover, close cooperation with other key partners such as international and national NGOs, bilateral donors and the Bretton Woods institutions, is a prerequisite for developing adequate crisis responses and approaches. If possible, contingency plans should be agreed upon by the agencies concerned well before the cessation of hostilities. The respective roles and responsibilities of pivotal UN agencies should be clearly spelled out so as to avoid the unnecessary duplication of efforts or waste of resources when the time comes for them to provide a comprehensive support programme to a country affected by conflict.
Preparation for recovery is needed early on and it is generally recognized that the establishment of a so-called strategic framework for recovery is essential. The strategic framework should provide for a process in which the concerns of national authorities and special concerns of donors, the UN system, international NGOs, Bretton Wood institutions and others lead to more effective planning, programming and financing of all recovery efforts. Employment-intensive investment programmes should, whenever possible, be planned and implemented within such a strategic framework.

3.2 ILO and Employment-intensive Investment Programmes

The ILO has developed employment-intensive investment programmes over the past two decades and has assisted some 40 countries with their implementation, thus creating ample knowledge on the subject. Based on its long experience and expertise in setting up integrated programmes for employment creation, the ILO has developed a standard programme package, which ensures that employment is created in the short and long terms coupled with an increase in labour force capacities. This package consist of three complementary components: the EIIP, vocational training for employment, and small and micro enterprise promotion. This type of integrated employment programme covers a wide spectrum of conflict-affected persons: from unskilled workers who have nothing more than their labour to offer, to semi-skilled workers wishing to upgrade their skills for quality employment and small entrepreneurs wishing to establish or expand small businesses in the informal or formal sector.

See UN/CCPOQ 1997 op cit.
At the international level the ILO actively participates in the key UN inter-agency committees planning reintegration and rehabilitation programmes for countries emerging from armed conflict. The capabilities and the expertise of the ILO has been recognized in a survey made by the UN. The ILO works closely with UN bodies, funding partners, NGOs and other international agencies in order to complement certain inputs for its programmes which are needed for social and economic reintegration.

In a strategic framework, the ILO is generally assigned to set up, coordinate and manage, as necessary, an employment promotion programme. This programme would comprise, as appropriate, components for employment-intensive infrastructure rehabilitation, vocational skills training, and small and micro enterprise development.

For EIIPs the starting point is during the relief and humanitarian operations, which are established perhaps even prior to the cessation of hostilities. The ILO will work closely with relief organizations such as UNHCR, UNICEF, ICRC and the WFP. An ongoing working relationship between these organizations is important in order to prepare for early action. A special inter-agency working group may be formed to co-ordinate the EIIP and to share all available and relevant information.

4

EIIPs

A TOOL FOR REHABILITATION OF WAR-AFFECTED ECONOMIES AND EMPLOYMENT GENERATION FOR CRISIS-AFFECTED GROUPS

Photo: Van Imschoot
War-affected economies are usually faced with two major challenges: the huge gap between available resources and omnipresent needs, and economic recovery, thwarted by the loss of job opportunities and damage to the infrastructure. Rapid economic recovery is hindered greatly by these problems.

The symptoms of such a scenario are high unemployment among the unskilled on one side and lack of resources for infrastructure investments and production on the other. One proven way out of this scenario is to

THE EXPERIENCE OF THE WORK PROGRAMME ADMINISTRATION IN THE UNITED STATES (1933-1940)

Before the First World War, industrialized countries had set up relief and public works programmes aimed at helping people without work or on welfare. At that time, governments’ concerns were mainly socially oriented, almost with a philanthropic bent. Limited financial resources resulted in subsistence wages, shift work and a choice of works requiring a minimum dependence on materials and equipment. As early as 1909, “ready-to-implement” schemes were being considered as a swift response to widespread unemployment.

In the post-war period, the trend shifted towards more economic-oriented concerns. The objective was no longer to employ as many people as possible, but to maintain full employment in the construction sector by means of anti-cyclical policies. In practice, classical monetary measures were preferred to budgetary policies in order to maintain prosperity.

In 1929, the collapse of the stock market in the United States triggered an unprecedented crisis leaving 25 to 30 per cent of the working population unemployed. The Roosevelt administration, set up in 1933, rapidly implemented a series of programmes designed to provide employment to male workers who had lost their jobs, at least to those capable of performing manual labour. The main programmes are listed below:
launch programmes which minimize scarce capital input and make use of what is available: unemployed or under-employed labour and local materials.

There are examples in recent history and in developed countries where, in periods of acute unemployment, employment-intensive investment programmes to rehabilitate the infrastructure have provided the necessary boost for the economy and, at the same time, employment for crisis-affected groups.

- the Civilian Conservation Corps, which put young men to work in forests and national parks;
- the National Youth Administration, which employed young men in community maintenance works;
- the Work Progress Administration (WPA), the most important and well known of these programmes, focused on road construction and all kind of public works. These infrastructure and construction works were carried out by force accounts (government-run) and did not contract activities to private sector enterprises.

Interestingly, recipients were paid the minimum hourly wage for these types of works. However, employment was limited to a maximum number of hours per month depending on family needs. Labour costs were paid by the federal government, while other costs were defrayed by NGO’s, state governments and communities, who also were in charge of supervision. The WPA created 13.7 million work years during the seven years this programme was in effect. Thanks to these schemes, millions of families managed to survive with dignity during this period. In addition, countless public infrastructures were established which were to have a direct impact on the future development of the United States’ economy.
Once operational, EIIPs immediately generate employment and income for large numbers of individuals. Logically, they stimulate long-term employment as they contribute to the rehabilitation of the infrastructure by constructing, rehabilitating or maintaining roads, canals, water supply and sanitation systems, housing, schools, health facilities, etc., which in turn are a prerequisite for the development of the national economy.

Historically, EIIPs have been implemented in normal, non-conflict situations; programmes in conflict-affected countries being the exception. However, guidelines, manuals and training materials which have been developed for planning, implementation and evaluation of EIIPs may, especially in regard to technical aspects, prove valuable in post-conflict situations as well.\(^9\) However, the need for more detailed advice on planning, implementation and evaluation of EIIPs in conflict-affected countries has been expressed by concerned countries. The purpose of these Guidelines is to share the experience gained from EIIPs in post-conflict situations.

### 4.1 EIIPs: Objectives and rationale

The general objective of EIIPs is to alleviate poverty by speeding up local economic development. Local economic development is fostered through productive investments in physical infrastructure, e.g., transportation, communication, irrigation, etc., as well as investments in social infrastructure such as housing, schools, health clinics or drinking water.

\(^9\) Annex I contains an annotated bibliography, including references to some of the existing guidelines and manuals.
The more specific goal of EIIPs is employment and income generation. The principal advantages of EIIPs is that they provide scope and flexibility to generate both short-term, immediate employment through construction, rehabilitation, and maintenance of the infrastructure, and long-term sustainable employment through the productive use of the same infrastructure.

Moreover, there are spin-offs through the injection of cash for wages and local procurement into the local, conflict-affected economy. By investing in locally available resources rather than in imported machinery and manpower from non-local sources, a market is created for the goods and services provided by the local economy.

The rationale of employment-intensive investment programmes is to give, during the design phase when-
ever possible, priority to the input of labour over the input of equipment. Occasionally such programmes are also termed labour-intensive.

However, some operations require the use of certain equipment. If employment-intensive methods cannot provide outputs or products of adequate quality or if these methods are not cost-effective, the investment should be undertaken by an appropriate mix of labour and equipment.

### 4.2 EIIPs: Experiences and potential impact

A large number of employment-intensive investment programmes have been planned, implemented and evaluated, so their impacts and effects are well documented. The programmes have been well monitored and many projects have undergone external evaluations.

Infrastructure is one of the main economic sectors in developing countries. Construction, rehabilitation and maintenance of infrastructures account for almost half of domestic capital formation and absorb up to 70 per cent of public investment funds and some 40 per cent of international development assistance.\(^\text{10}\) At the same time, lack of efficiently functioning infrastructures remains a major obstacle to development and economic growth. Moreover, post-conflict countries are usually burdened with very high foreign exchange debt obligations and low export levels due to war damage. In the post-conflict situation the opportunity cost of foreign exchange is at its highest. Therefore, technologies which promote for-

eign-exchange savings are crucial for speeding up a country’s economic recovery.

In many developing countries there has been a bias in favour of equipment-intensive construction methods with dependence on expensive imports of both machinery and services. However, recent experience has shown that labour-intensive methods are often more cost-effective: they are 10 to 30 per cent less costly, incurring only half the imports and creating two to three times more employment to produce infrastructure of comparable quality and standards. In a post-conflict situation the financial situation is generally dire and a precise comparison of the costs involved in choosing a technology should receive special attention. Sometimes, there is unqualified or hasty decision-making in this field based on habits and unrealistic expectations or “approved” departmental norms. Alternative construction methods and, therefore, the extent to which labour can substitute for equipment, are often not considered at the design stage. This leads to the automatic use of project designs, which are generally biased against labour-based methods. EIIPs are particularly relevant in situations where there is a labour surplus, which is generally the case in a post-conflict situation.

The cost of EIIPs is relatively low, because they depend on the most commonly available local resource, i.e., unskilled labour. Other input factors such as supervisors, skilled labour and machinery are kept to a minimum. By maximizing the most abundant and cheapest resource, and minimizing the scarcest and more expensive inputs, the costs of EIIPs are comparatively lower than other ap-

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approaches. Unskilled labour is normally paid at current minimum wage rates, often supplemented with food rations at subsidized prices and sometimes paid entirely with food (food for work) during times of emergency. Labour wages are generally set at a level comparable with alternative agricultural earnings, but at the same time keeping the labour demand at a level which would not, to any significant extent, divert labour from alternative productive agricultural activities. Labour wages paid in recent years under investment programmes have generally corresponded to the equivalent of US$1 to US$2.5 per day for unskilled workers, with wages for skilled workers from 50 to 100 per cent higher. It is, however, generally acknowledged that the use of labour-intensive methods is effective when the cost of unskilled labour does not exceed US$4 per day.

A well-planned EIIP may directly raise the socio-economic capacities of conflict-affected populations. It will also strengthen the vocational skills of many workers, encourage social cohesion between local residents and people displaced by conflict, and bring about greater social stability in the post-conflict environment. This is especially relevant where large population movements have taken place. For example, during the reconstruction of a rural road, individuals from each community along the road may be given technical training. Once the project is completed, some of these individuals will form local maintenance crews. Training workers for future maintenance or for continued infrastructure rehabilitation and development should be part of most EIIPs.

EIIPs are ideally suited to the active participation of the affected communities, because they neither require heavy equipment nor advanced engineering know-how. The post-project maintenance of the rehabilitated infrastructure will be labour-intensive as well and create long-term employment for some maintenance teams. After some
training during the life of the project, local leaders should be able to manage the operation and maintenance of the infrastructure.

Post-conflict situations are often characterized by a fairly lengthy period of reintegration of vulnerable groups such as internally displaced, refugees and demobilized soldiers. Acquiring land, preparing it, building houses, etc., usually take considerable time, during which little income may be earned to meet basic needs. These needs may be partly or fully satisfied through special assistance programmes for certain groups. However, for those without such support, EIIPs provide an income-earning opportunity to carry them from the preparatory phase of resettlement to economic reintegration.

Countries suffering from emergencies caused by conflict or natural disasters such as drought or floods often attempt to fulfil the basic needs of the affected populations through free distribution of food and other commodities. However, free distributions often have negative psychological effects and create a dependency of vulnerable groups on the donor community. EIIPs allow the affected populations to become actively involved in a project, which is not only of significant benefit to the community in the long term, but also provides employment on a remunerative basis in the short term.

### 4.3 Examples of EIIPs

In Cambodia, an ILO project launched in October 1992 included components for labour-based infrastructure rehabilitation (mainly rural roads and irrigation schemes),

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12 For an indication of the assistance provided by the ILO, see for example: *International Labour Review*, Vol. 131, No.1, 1992, which contains a number of articles on and bibliographic references to the subject.
capacity building for decision makers and technicians and vocational training. The programme concentrated its attention on demonstration, replicability, and the acceptance of the EIIP approach by national authorities and funding agencies. Several projects were implemented in the four provinces which had the highest concentration of demobilized combatants (30,000), returnees from refugee camps in Thailand (20,000) and internally displaced persons (about 90,000). By the end of 1994, the project had constructed or rehabilitated 220 km of tertiary roads and 56 km of canals for irrigation systems, while employing up to 6,000 workers per day. The programme provided training to more than 150 road and irrigation engineers. Ten small contractors were given special training for future long-term rehabilitation/maintenance work. Nearly 60 per cent of the workers were women. The project was not targeted solely at demobilized soldiers, but at returnees and internally displaced persons as well.

In Mozambique, ILO projects assisted the government in introducing labour-based road improvement and maintenance systems, which eventually developed into the Feeder Roads Programme. This programme sought to remove one of the principal constraints, that of limited access to agricultural and rural areas in the country. The programme entailed the organization of district-level labour brigades and started with two, each involving around 300 workers in 1989. It developed into 23 brigades of 150 to 250 workers each in 23 districts in 1994. A gradual expansion of the programme to the entire country is planned by the government. The programme is open to all conflict-affected groups, with women’s participation averaging at ten per cent.

In Uganda, an employment-intensive approach has been applied to rural roads construction, rehabilitation and maintenance for a long time. The earliest ILO-supported projects started in 1981 on a pilot basis. A total of six have contributed to the development of a comprehensive EIIP coordinated by a labour-intensive investment unit in the Ministry of Planning and Economic Development. One programme was an emergency relief action designed to help people resettle. It entailed a wide variety of investments, ranging from schools to roads and agro-forestry. Another project focused on roads and involved the rehabilitation of more than 600 km of rural feeder roads. Urban investments were also made with an emphasis on the rehabilitation of primary drains and construction of secondary drains in an informal settlement.
5
EIIP PLANNING
FOR REINTEGRATION OF
CONFLICT-AFFECTED GROUPS
AND REHABILITATION OF
CONFLICT-DAMAGED
INFRASTRUCTURE
Experience suggests that the following areas should be considered in the planning and design of future support programmes for countries emerging from armed conflict:

- identification of international partners in employment programmes, in particular within the UN-agencies, international organizations and NGOs;
- definition of the role and responsibilities of the partners;
- identification of target groups;
- identification of types and scope of infrastructure to be improved;
- preparation of the scope of EIIPs;
- exploration of the potential for donor funding;
- preparation of agreements on specific interventions; and
- coordination of specific interventions.

Planning of employment-intensive investment programmes should be based on answers to the following questions of priority: Should priority be given to the rehabilitation of the conflict-damaged infrastructure, to the reintegration of the conflict-affected people, to economic growth or to a combination of the three?

The selection of priorities may be difficult. In most countries, different interests and values lead to diverse perceptions of priorities. Depending on the source of funding and its allocation, government priorities for EIIP and decisions by the donors may differ. Moreover, political interests have often clashed in the past with local socio-economic needs; careful planning and inter-agency coordination can help to avoid inadequate decisions. It is therefore necessary to establish an en-
abling environment for consensus on the most fundamental issues.

National policies for adoption of the EIIP approach is essential. Often there is a need for widely based policy support. In a situation where the national government is in a state of reorganization and re-establishment, the strategic framework may be an adequate forum for setting such policies. Priorities may be set according to policy directives. Once priorities are established, a rough outline of the EIIP in terms of local infrastructure rehabilitation and employment generation can be defined in accordance with available funding.

In a situation featuring multiple projects, certain basic provisions, conditions and parameters should be agreed upon in the interest of consistency. They are as follows:

- determining remuneration systems and working conditions,
- setting technical standards and
- taking environmental precautions.

Such basic provisions and parameters do not imply uniformity, rather they provide broad guidelines for the design and implementation of individual projects. It is evident that conditions may vary from one region to another and from one type of scheme to the next. Adjustments will need to be made in each project as required by the local situation. The situation will vary widely particularly in a post-conflict situation, not only geographically but also over time. Planning, designing and implementing EIIPs and its projects need to be developed and updated continuously.
5.1 Policy support

The preparation and adoption of national policies for employment-intensive investment is an important prerequisite for post-conflict reconstruction. These policies will form the basis for EIIP planning and programming, and should include the following parameters:

- approval by technical ministries and adoption by high-level decision-making bodies of labour-based technologies for rehabilitation as a preferred means to reconstruct the conflict-damaged social and economic infrastructure and as an important means to assist in the reintegration of conflict-affected groups through the creation of immediate employment;

- support for sustainable labour-intensive construction and maintenance of the essential infrastructure in the longer term;

- by carefully selecting the infrastructure works to be conducted, a clear indication of who should constitute the intended target group(s): demobilized combatants, returnees, internally displaced persons and/or local residents;

- commitment and priority to employ local workers and utilize locally available resources for investments;

- decentralization of responsibility for implementation; and

- participation of rural and urban communities in the investments and their future maintenance.

Once a consensus regarding the main policy is reached, the following criteria should be considered for its development:
Conflict specificity: Conflict-affected populations need immediate assistance in the emergency period. As many people as possible should benefit from decisions on investments as soon as possible. The criteria for creating immediate employment should also address security problems, the danger of landmines and related aspects, the resettlement of conflict-affected displaced populations and infrastructure rehabilitation.

Clear objectives: The policies should emphasize three mutually re-enforcing goals: employment creation, infrastructure construction, and capacity building; it should lead to the improvement of social and economic conditions.

Targeting: Employment generation and the improvement of economic conditions of conflict-affected groups through reintegration must head post-conflict government priorities. The direct beneficiaries (demobilized combatants and their dependants, returnees, internally displaced persons, etc.) should be identified in the policy statement.

Linkages and synergy effects: EIPs should be included in general development planning and complement and reinforce other ongoing development activities. A policy statement should provide a recommendation for inter-agency cooperation.
5.2 Planning criteria

In a war-torn region, identification of target groups and infrastructures to be reconstructed or rehabilitated are the first steps of planning. There are some basic choices that need to be made: 1) what area(s) should be selected for intervention; 2) in what order of priority should the interventions be programmed; and, 3) how should the interventions be timed. The selection of target areas may be evident and in an emergency situation exclusively based on a positive assessment of the security situation combined with accessibility. However some general criteria for rational decision-making is suggested below.

Selecting geographical areas of operation depends upon several factors:

- insecurity, landmines, and inaccessibility may make it impossible to work in a given area;
- large numbers of conflict-affected people should draw assistance;
- if the infrastructure is in good condition and offers an adequate base for economic growth, there would be less need for an EIIP;
- labour in sufficient numbers must be available close to the tentative sites:
- the capacity of local government institutions to organize and implement employment-intensive investment programmes.
In some cases, the initial assumptions relating to the availability of administrative and logistical capacity as well as availability of sufficient labour have been over-optimistic.\textsuperscript{14} To avoid unpleasant surprises and logistical constraints, the launching of small-scale pilot projects may be recommended. Pilot projects would also allow for gradual logistical and institutional capacity building.

The next crucial issue is to decide which individual projects should be given priority, assuming that several projects have been formulated. It is advisable that the following five criteria be used as the basis for sound decision-making:

\textbf{Targeting}:

\begin{itemize}
  \item focusing on areas and projects where employment (and income) can be generated for very poor, conflict-affected, or vulnerable groups, e.g., demobilized combatants, internally displaced persons, refugees, etc.
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Short-term employment}:

\begin{itemize}
  \item the cost per workday (with due consideration to the established remuneration system for workers); a low cost per workday will normally be a strong argument in favour of labour-intensive methods;
  \item the number of workdays of short-term employment which can be generated for conflict-affected groups during the investment period.
\end{itemize}

**Long-term employment:**
- the number of jobs generated through the productive use of the investments (e.g., additional jobs in the agriculture sector owing to a large area of irrigated land)
- the number of jobs produced through increased economic activities as a result of upgraded infrastructure (e.g., additional employment in the transport sector, small workshops)

**Technical feasibility:**
- the extent of damage to the infrastructure;
- secure access to the areas where reconstruction activities can safely take place;
- dependence on parallel programmes for the elimination of dangers, i.e., clearance of landmines.

**Economic feasibility:**
- cost/benefit projection (the economic return, i.e., the benefits of the investments in comparison to the costs) also taking into account complementarity with other programmes/projects, e.g., the potential for local agricultural and small industry development, etc.
- effects in parallel programmes, e.g., opening up of areas hitherto isolated

The weight and importance of each criterion may vary, according to political considerations, the region involved and the phase itself, whether the emergency, rehabilitation or development phase.
Table 5.2 gives an example of a possible use of the criteria for prioritizing specific projects by phases. The priority weights given in this example range from 1 (highest) to 5 (lowest). They relate to a particular situation and should be applied to different situations with proper judgement.

Table 5.2: Criteria for the planning of EIIP projects and their priority by phases
(1 = highest priority, 5 = lowest priority)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Emergency Phase</th>
<th>Rehabilitation Phase</th>
<th>Development Phase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Targeting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short-term employment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term employment</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical feasibility</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic feasibility</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table indicates that in the emergency phase the highest priorities relate to people-oriented activities, i.e., short-term employment and targeting. In the rehabilitation phase the other criteria, including economic feasibility, also gain weight. In the development phase technical and economic feasibility gain ground along with long-term employment creation; EIIPs, however, continue to have important social dimensions.

ILO 1979: Guidelines for the Organization of Special Labour-intensive Works Programmes, Geneva, gives a detailed explanation of selection criteria in Section I, B.
A few lessons can be learned from planning and implementing programmes in post-conflict situations:

- keep the programme simple with a focus on conflict-affected persons;
- rely on well-tested approaches but make adjustments when necessary; and
- make accessibility a prerequisite for future development. For instance, investing in road construction, in particular gravel and earth roads, offers excellent employment generation opportunities.

Experience from recent reconstruction efforts shows that it is difficult and perhaps counter-productive to aim an EIIP exclusively at demobilized combatants. In general, infrastructure rehabilitation is carried out in communities consisting of several needy groups and it is advisable to include all disadvantaged people in the same employment programme. In areas with large concentrations of demobilized combatants, an employment quota may be established for this target group, e.g., a minimum of 20 percent of all unskilled workers should be recruited amongst the demobilized.

Timing of the programme and its individual projects is the last decision to take. Drawing from experience, one can conclude that governments and their external partners are under time pressure in most post-conflict areas. Consequently, planners sometimes allow for an unrealistically short time frame of a few years, while, in reality, reconstruction and reintegration may be a question of a decade or more. An initial project may only become operational after one year owing to all kinds of obstacles such as delays in senior staff recruitment and procurement.
Furthermore, the technical planning involved in implementation may also be time-consuming. Realistic time frames should therefore be established.

Planning an EIIP calls for the collection of substantial data through traditional research and interviews and surveys. In an emergency situation, it may not be possible to gather and analyse in an orderly fashion all the information and data required. This should not stop the planning process, however. Systematic attempts should be made to fill the gaps whenever an opportunity arises. In emergency situations consultations with key informants and knowledgeable individuals are always useful. Rapid reconnaissance and appraisal techniques may be utilized to obtain qualitative and quantitative assessment of the situation. Direct consultations with the different target groups is a must. This line of communication should stay open during the entire planning and implementation process.

In near-emergency conditions immediately following a conflict, i.e., particularly during the starting phase of an EIIP, a lack of information necessary for establishing basic conditions and parameters may be a problem. Therefore, EIIPs must sometimes be planned based on assumptions and data from the pre-conflict situation or experience of other countries, but always with the post-conflict situation and its limitations clearly in mind. Because of gaps in the planning process, the programme design must remain flexible and capable of being adapted and/or modified as the situation develops.
5.3 Cooperation and capacity building

In a post-conflict situation governmental structures are often weak and unable to take responsibility for the planning and implementation of a large-scale EIIP. If so, it may be necessary to establish a supportive partnership structure between the national authorities, the UN system, humanitarian organizations and other relevant partners. In any case, a coordinating agency responsible for the overall planning and coordination needs to be identified or set up. Depending on the size of the programme and the timing, that structure may require additional staffing or may assign the responsibility to a focal person of existing staff and/or a coordination committee.

Many programmes are launched by the UN system and the donor community with a coordinator responsible for several programmes within a UN organization. Some important tasks of the coordinating agency require particular technical and social expertise. Expertise for the design of EIIPs (programme formulation, outlining the main points of an EIIP (definition of objectives, identification of target areas and groups, planning criteria, etc.) and for programme evaluation is available from ILO EIIP specialists. Cooperation with other sector specialists to support national experts may be envisaged if necessary. Expertise for specific project formulation missions is also available at an earlier stage in order to draw up project documents for submission to donors interested in financing EIIPs.

In situations exacerbated by war or prolonged regional conflict, the shortage of skilled, experienced workers, engineers and administrative staff is felt most acutely. The institutional capacity of all levels of government to provide technical, social and financial support becomes very
Further, availability of qualified staff is a key factor of institutional capacity and competence. Managerial personnel, engineers, technicians, supervisors, foremen, surveyors and accountants are as necessary as a large population of workers. As it may be difficult to find qualified personnel at local or national level, many posts in EIIPs may remain vacant, resulting in the need to bring in international experts to fill project posts, as well as other reintegration and rehabilitation positions. However, foreign-dominated programmes face a long-term problem if local capacity building needs are underestimated or neglected. The risk is that, once the international experts have left, the national authorities are not in a position to manage EIIPs or maintain the investments. Hence, a crucial factor in many EIIP is building capacity at all levels: capacity of the national authorities responsible for taking high-level decisions on investments, planning and monitoring capacity at central and local levels, capacity in implementing units at local levels, be they organized as part of government structures or as contractors in the private sector.

However, capacity building at various levels is a lengthy process which requires different types of training: classroom training, site training, training in learning institutions, and on-the job-training in subjects such as economics, engineering, management, administration, procurement, maintenance, etc. Projects implemented during the emergency phase usually focus on immediate outputs for war-affected target groups, as time may be too short to deal with capacity building. Therefore, training and capacity building will become a priority at the later stages of rehabilitation and during the development phase.

Training opportunities will attract semi-skilled national staff as well as unskilled workers. Most EIIP schemes will require certain skills of the labour force and certain tasks will require specific qualifications. Therefore, an EIIP project will normally include a training component. Interested and skilled individuals should be encouraged and rewarded for undergoing skills training. Even if the training results will serve only part of the project, training will pay off at some point in the future.

### 5.4 Financing EIIPs

Financial constraints are decisive factors in investment programmes, especially in a post-conflict situation. Not surprisingly, the mobilization of internal resources is not very effective, hence a general dependence on external funding. From the very beginning of national reconstruction and reintegration programmes, decision-makers will have to bear in mind that available funding will be insufficient to meet the basic needs of investment into the infrastructure. All sectors of the war-affected country, not just infrastructure, will compete for the funds. Therefore, infrastructure investments must be as cost-effective as possible and justified from an economic and social standpoint. Since interest in external funding of investments for infrastructure reconstruction and rehabilitation tends to wane once initial post-conflict assistance projects are completed, careful priority setting by national authorities for infrastructure investments is indispensable.

There are different types of external assistance, several of which are relevant to EIIPs:

- *Technical assistance* comes in the form of professional advice and cooperation in programme formulation and implementation. The ILO may prove instrumental in this respect.
Tied aid normally comes in the form of free supply of equipment, tools and processed materials. Such support may be used extensively in EIIPs as long as priority needs exist. However there is a risk that such aid may result in sustained dependence and may lead to a choice of technology which is too expensive for a particular economic scenario. Such aid may also prompt investments which, from the recipient country’s point of view, are of low priority, but which bind certain national resources. This may happen when, for example, construction equipment is supplied free of charge but the recipient country is charged for the operating costs. The employment generating aspect may be neglected and the technology may be inappropriate vis-à-vis locally available resources.

Financial aid generally comes in the form of grants during the emergency and rehabilitation phases. In the initial phases such aid is given without many strings attached. It often originates from humanitarian organizations/sources, developmental agencies or donors, seeking primarily to alleviate the effects of the conflict on the affected population.

Food aid is a special type of assistance, which may be abundant in a post-conflict situation. Food aid agencies, including the World Food Programme (WFP), have special sub-programmes known as Food for Work (FFW). Labour costs are normally the largest single cost item in an EIIP budget. FFW may be particularly appropriate for meeting some EIIP objectives, especially if casual workers accept food as part of their income. However, FFW should be phased out once the local food production in an area reaches self-sufficiency. Otherwise, external food aid may turn into an obstacle to the development of local food production.
5.5 Remuneration, mode of payment and incentives

An EIIP project will employ a substantial number of unskilled workers. It is essential that they be treated in a fair and decent manner. Emergency conditions must not be used as an excuse for unfair treatment of workers. Basic employment conditions will therefore need to be established, including wage level, mode of payment and incentives.

A distinction in the remuneration package is often justified according to the purpose and beneficiaries of the investment. The wage level may be lowered for those workers who benefit directly from the investment, e.g., if their own land is part of an irrigation rehabilitation scheme or if they own a plot of land in an area where bush clearing is being planned. Similar arrangements are justified if a group of people benefits from the investment, e.g., public wells, sewers, community roads, schools, etc. Such schemes can be viewed as community investments.

When the workers derive no direct benefits from an investment, e.g., from a roads project, the full minimum wage should be paid. These schemes are known as public works.

In an emergency situation this distinction may not be relevant or applicable, because the EIIP may be aimed at resettlement, and local communities are yet to be established. But in the later stages of the process a distinction needs to be made.
5.5.1 Determination of wages

Employment-intensive investments should provide employment and income for unemployed or substantially underemployed workers from poorer population groups close to the work sites without diverting them from other gainful employment. This implies that wages have to be fixed in relation to the opportunity cost of labour in agriculture in the lean agricultural season. The demand for labour in farming varies with the agricultural calendar: during peak agricultural seasons most workers are generally fully occupied, while in slack seasons unemployment and, in particular, underemployment are high. It is not too difficult to schedule EIIPs as a complementary opportunity to provide jobs and to generate income. For technical reasons, public works often come to a halt during the rainy season, when many agricultural activities also take place.

The wage level should be set in accordance with national legislation and the Minimum Wage Fixing Convention of 1970 (No. 131) requiring minimum wages to be established where appropriate.

However, in the aftermath of a conflict, agricultural incomes/wages are either very low or do not exist, i.e., there is no real competition for labour and no real opportunity cost. Therefore, wages should be set by assessing what is reasonable.17

Four main points should be considered in the determination of wages, as outlined below:

- Wages need to be attractive in order to recruit a sufficient number of workers, who will operate at adequate productivity levels and at low absenteeism rates.

Wages should be related to the cost of living and should suffice to cover the basic needs of workers and their families.

Wages should allow for some savings for future investments in housing or economic activities such as agriculture. In a post-conflict situation, these multiplier effects may be an objective in itself.

Wages should result in reasonable and competitive construction costs. Wage payments represent a high proportion of EIIP costs and vary from 45 to 65 percent of total costs.

The wage level will therefore need to be determined by an analysis of the following factors: the best available sources of income, cost of living, socio-economic characteristics of the targeted groups, and financial and economic feasibility.

5.5.2 Mode of payment

Wages may be paid in cash, in kind (normally as food packages) or in a combination of both.

Cash

Under normal circumstances payment in cash is the best and most convenient mode of payment. It gives workers full flexibility to spend their wages in accordance with their needs. Cash is also easy to handle and payment is problem-free. However, in a post-conflict situation commodities may be scarce or high inflation rates may affect the supply and value of money.
Kind

Free food is sometimes distributed in emergency relief operations, but only for a limited period, because free food does not stimulate the economic recovery of a conflict-affected region. EIIPs have been used as a vehicle for assisting in the process of phasing-out of food aid through the substitution of free food distribution with Food for Work.

There is also a well-established tradition for payment in kind (food) under EIIPs if the external resources are provided in the form of food aid. In the emergency period, particularly in situations of severe food shortages, payment in kind may be the workers’ preferred mode of payment, because it makes possible the maintenance of the wage value under inflationary pressures. However, the programme should correct its policies once the situation returns to normal.

There are specific disadvantages related to payment in kind:

- The composition of the food basket should be based on the workers’ preference, but it is often predetermined by the food supplier on an availability basis.

- The storage, transportation and distribution of wages in kind often becomes a major operation in itself which is both costly and cumbersome. Often food aid is associated with delivery problems and its free and frequent flow is never guaranteed. Workers are often not paid on time and or are not paid the exact package, because a food item may be missing. Late, insufficient payment is a disincentive and productivity may decline, while absenteeism may rise.
The general problems related to food aid cannot be discussed here; however, once agricultural production in the project area has been re-established at a sufficient level to cover local needs, payment in food should be phased out. Otherwise there will be a negative effect on local food production.

**Cash and Kind**

Funds for investments (and wages) are always limited. Supplementary resources in the form of food may often be mobilized from several food aid programmes. If wages, the largest item in an EIIP budget, may be paid in kind and such payment is acceptable to the workers, the scope of an EIIP may be expanded substantially.

However, once the emergency is over, workers should be paid a part of their wages in cash. The Protection of Wages Convention, adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1949, provides for partial payment in kind in certain cases. In programmes and projects assisted by the World Food Programme the agreement is that the share of the wages in kind should not exceed 50 percent of the total value. Therefore, a fifty/fifty ratio of cash to kind may be recommended for the rehabilitation phase. Payment in food should generally be phased out when the development phase is reached.

**Banking**

A special mode of payment covering the terms of payment in kind and cash is the so-called banking arrangement. The food component will keep the workers and their families fed, while the cash is saved during one or more construction seasons. The cash part of the wage (or a part of it) is kept on a dedicated account and bears interest at market rates, the purpose being to ensure that the worker will have accrued some savings at the end of his
employment, which may be invested or will sustain the family for some time once the scheme is closed.

“Banking” should be based on the voluntary agreement of the worker. This option is not advisable if the banking system is weak or if a high inflation rate would entail losses for the workers.

5.5.3 Incentives for productivity

Labour productivity is a key parameter in determining EIIP costs and payment based on performance is necessary to keep those costs under control. Piece work and task work are acceptable, proven methods of ensuring adequate productivity.

5.6 Working conditions

General working conditions should meet standards required by national law and international labour conventions.

Working hours

Working hours should be fixed and in principle limited to 40 hours a week and one shift. As many conflict-affected countries are located in the tropics, it is generally agreed that the working day should start soon after dawn and that there should be a break during the very hot midday hours. Short breaks during intensive physical works, as well as a weekend break, should be guaranteed. National and religious holidays should be respected. Where the labour supply is substantially greater than the employment opportunities, shift arrangements may be agreed upon locally.
**Wage payment intervals**

Wages should be paid regularly and promptly at predetermined intervals—weekly, or if acceptable to the workers, bi-weekly.

**Facilities**

Facilities on site should be adapted to local conditions. Ideally, workers should be recruited locally, within walking distance from the job site. Recruitment far from the sites and the establishment of camps should only be an exception. Provision of meals would consequently not be necessary as meals may be provided by the communities. Free supply of drinking water should, however, always be available on site.

Special facilities may be supplied to cater for exceptional needs, e.g., a day-care arrangement for women with child-caring responsibilities, that cannot otherwise be resolved. Special jobs may also be found for the disabled, the weak or the elderly.

**Safety and health**

The safety and health of the workers should be an ongoing concern. Protective clothing should be supplied when needed in activities such as stone crushing. A first aid kit should always be available on site. Awareness of safety-on-site needs should be raised among engineers, technicians, supervisors and gang leaders who are responsible for overseeing proper planning and operations. For example, construction work in post-conflict regions may occasionally call for the services of an ammunition-clearing team (bomb diffusion squad) and a landmine clearance programme, as well as fire and medical provisions linked to a safety-at-work assistance policy.
5.7 Technical standards

Investments using employment-intensive methods can compare in technical quality to those employing conventional equipment-intensive methods. Newly constructed or rehabilitated facilities are generally easier to maintain (and operate) by drawing mainly from the local resource base, i.e., using labour-intensive methods.

Experience shows that various types of infrastructure work can be carried out using labour-intensive methods. All types of earth works generally lend themselves to these methods, including:

- laterite/gravel and earth roads,
- small and medium-scale irrigation schemes,
- soil and water conservation works, including small dams,
- afforestation projects,
- water supply schemes.

Certain operations cannot be performed effectively by employing labour-intensive methods alone, such as compaction of earth layers in dams and roads or transport of materials over long distances. However, there are alternatives to heavy and expensive equipment such as animal-powered tillers or tractor-drawn rollers, which can be used effectively and competitively for the compaction of gravel roads. For materials transport (gravel) over long distances, tractor trailers are a common choice, but animal-drawn carts can also be used effectively over distances up to 2.5 km. The efficient use of animal-drawn carts depends to a large extent on local conditions such as terrain, practice and climate.
In view of the limited budget of a project, its employment potential primarily depends on what share of the budget can be allocated to labour and what share has to be spent on material, equipment, etc. Therefore, the employment potential of an investment depends on the choice of technology. In general, a whole spectrum of methods can be used to implement a project without affecting the quality of its outputs, from highly labour-based to machine-based methods. The costs of all inputs—labour, material, and equipment—determine how many jobs can be created. Unfortunately, costs of labour, material, and equipment differ from scheme to scheme, varying from site to site of the same scheme and, of course, with time. Therefore, it is difficult to quantify the employment potential of a project without knowing the local unit cost scenario or performing a comprehensive cost analysis.

For reasons of simplicity a project’s “labour intensity” is sometimes defined, measured and reported as labour costs expressed as a percentage of the total project cost. The following table provides examples of “labour intensities” of certain types of projects according to this definition,
Table 5.8 Examples of “Labour Intensities” (share of cost of unskilled labour, expressed as a percentage of the total cost)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Land improvement</th>
<th>Road construction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clearing:</td>
<td>Secondary road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>80 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terracing</td>
<td>Access road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reafforestation</td>
<td>Culverts/bridges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Irrigation</th>
<th>Building construction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Earthen dam, minor</td>
<td>Brick, single storey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 %</td>
<td>50 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main canal</td>
<td>Mud wall, single storey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 %</td>
<td>70 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While these figures are useful for macroeconomic and academic considerations, they are not reliable indicators for predicting the employment potential of a particular investment, because it depends greatly on the local unit cost scenario.

In the following example a specific technology has been chosen for a scheme which creates 10,000 workdays of employment per km of irrigation canal rehabilitated. Three different cost scenarios show how the employment potential and the share of the labour cost (“labour intensity”) change:
### Table: Costs and Employment Potential

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Scenario A</th>
<th>Scenario B</th>
<th>Scenario C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour input per unit of output</td>
<td>workdays/km</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit cost of labour</td>
<td>US$/workday</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour costs</td>
<td>US$/km</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other costs</td>
<td>US$/km</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total costs</td>
<td>US$/km</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>share of labour cost % (“labour intensity”)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funds available</td>
<td>US$</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment potential, workdays</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Owing to a change in the unit cost of labour from US$1/workday in scenario A to US$4/workday in scenario B, its employment potential drops to 40% of that of scenario A. The change in “Other costs” from US$10,000 in scenario A to US$40,000 in scenario C, perhaps owing to long hauling distances, results in the same reduction of its employment potential.

As shown, the figure relating to the share of labour cost (“labour intensity”) fluctuates widely and does not indicate a high or low employment potential. Calculating the labour cost percentage of a scheme with a particular unit cost scenario and using it for planning and decision-making in similar types of schemes, but in a different unit cost scenario, may lead to faulty decision-making.
Whether a technology has a cost advantage over other technologies depends on the local unit cost scenario and on the quantities of necessary inputs. Whether or not a particular technology should be considered for implementation depends on cost, on the availability of resources and on social needs, e.g., the degree of urgency to generate employment and income.

5.9 Women’s participation

Conflicts bring about important demographic changes. An unbalanced gender ratio is often created with women outnumbering men. It is important that this be reflected in policies, strategies and programmes. It is estimated that women and children account for more than 80 percent of the world’s refugees and there are indications that they represent a similar proportion among the internally displaced. A high dependency ratio is thus formed, including many children, orphans elderly and disabled persons, all of whom are dependent on women. Therefore, EIIPs will need to consider women as a target group in situations where the majority of the community members are women with a substantial number of dependants.

As there are many women among conflict-affected persons, they will form an important EIIP target group. Consultations with women during investment planning and implementation is therefore essential in order to ensure that the project design is adapted to the situation. Working hours, shift arrangements and the need to establish day-care facilities are all issues that will need to be addressed.

Labour-based work has proven suitable for women’s participation. Under different programmes the share of women in the workforce varies from 10 to 60 percent, depending on the country and the culture. As a rule, special
efforts are needed to reach and motivate women\textsuperscript{18}. Dissemination of information concerning the possibility of obtaining employment and participation in project activities in general is a must, but should be combined with separate consultations with women’s representatives concerning the aims and set-up of an investment.

Women should have equal access to all types of work activities, except those which require a great deal of physical strength. There must be equal pay for comparable work.

5.10 Environmental concerns

Conflicts are often accompanied by an extreme exploitation of natural resources and a neglect of valuable community assets (food storage facilities, water wells, wooded areas, etc.). Prolonged conflicts cause a great deal of damage to the natural environment, including contamination of drinking water sources.

Changes to the infrastructure must not be detrimental to the environment, either at the construction stage or thereafter because of neglected maintenance. Rather, investments in the infrastructure should help to preserve and protect the environment.

Overall, the use of employment-intensive construction methods leads to less destruction and they are more environmentally friendly than equipment-intensive methods. The design of a road to be built using employment-intensive methods is based on an alignment that follows the natural terrain as closely as possible\textsuperscript{19}, thereby avoiding large cuts and fills as with any

major interference with the natural drainage pattern. In equipment-intensive construction, the design is different: cuts and fills are made considerably larger with only a few larger drainage structures.

However, environmental assessments should be carried out rigorously prior to the finalization of project designs, as well as environmental monitoring during implementation and environmental impact studies after the construction stage. These steps enable rational modifications to be made to the design, implementation methods and subsequent maintenance and operation with the aim of optimizing the overall environmental impact while bearing in mind other legitimate project objectives. It is a program leader’s responsibility to ensure that technical standards are respectful of the environment and that sound environmental assessments are performed.

5.11 Public- or private-sector implementation

In many countries the role of government is presently being redefined. Nowadays, public investments are increasingly left to the private sector. The new role of government centres on policy formulation, the creation of a framework within which the private sector can develop, and, through its local technical authorities, on its role of “employer” in the contractual sense.

In a post-conflict situation neither the public nor the private sector function properly. Therefore, during the emergency phase and well into the rehabilitation phase, EIIPs are likely to be carried out on a project basis by specially assigned project staff. However, one should keep in

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mind that both the public and the private sector will have a role to play in the future. This implies that during the development of an EIIP, consideration should be given to build the capacity of both the private and the public sector. An EIIP may make a substantial contribution to boosting economic development by:

- introducing cost-effective labour-based methods,
- providing training in these methods to private- and public-sector personnel, and
- developing systems and procedures which enhance the effectiveness of labour-based methods and promote private sector participation. (See Annex 2.)
PROJECT FORMULATION
6.1 Process

Project formulation is a multi-step and sometimes iterative process, often in a competitive environment, if several implementing agencies submit proposals for project implementation.

Generally, project formulation starts with a project idea, i.e., a certain area has been identified at the national level as the future project area with broad ideas as to problems the project should tackle. The target group(s) will also have been identified roughly based on general criteria. Further, broad definitions of types of infrastructure to be rehabilitated, indications of the range of wage levels, labour conditions and other special issues might have been established. The crucial issue of funding (volume and timing) would also have been indicated. Normally, these parameters are laid down in a Short Programme Outline (SPROUT) for written submission to a number of financial institutions/donors. However, in emergency situations and under other special circumstances the submission of project ideas or SPROUTS may be organized in the form of pledging or round-table conferences with yet unidentified but interested donors.

The outcome of these submissions may be an expression of interest to finance the project. Sometimes, potential donors express concerns and give hints about what issues they wish to be addressed in addition to what was presented in the SPROUT.

Before deciding on important commitments of financial and other resources, most international implementing or funding agencies, be it within the UN system or outside, will require a project document in a particular format, which contains a detailed analysis of the problems involved and possible solutions.
Based on the SPROUT and, if applicable, on input from interested donors and other stakeholders, the agency interested in implementing the project will prepare a detailed draft project document for submission and approval by the funding agency.

Writing a project document means analysing the situation and planning the project in detail, a serious and demanding task for a team of experts. The team will consist of specialists with organizational, economic and technical expertise. The size of the team and its composition will depend on the areas of specialization required and on the size and specific features of the envisaged project. A formulation mission to the area of operation will be indispensable and may last one to two months.

The next step is to appoint or recruit a project formulation team and draw up its terms of reference (TOR). The team will travel to the area of operation, and conduct as many interviews as possible of the representatives of target groups, of the local population, the development community, and of local and central authorities. The team will analyse the situation in depth and carefully plan all project activities. Based on its findings and conclusions, the team will compile the draft project document, including detailed budgets and a work plan, in accordance with the format requirements of the available or potential investors/donors, be it the government or international agencies.

An outline of a model project document is provided below:\(^{20}\):

- **BACKGROUND**: describes the situation and the problems.

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STRATEGY: discusses alternative options for solving the problems; selects the most appropriate strategy.

OBJECTIVES: purposes and aims of an activity, representing the desired results which the activities are expected to achieve. Examples: basic social and productive infrastructure operating at the same levels attained before the conflict, conflict-affected persons provided with employment and income for three years.

OUTPUTS: specific end products generated by the programme/project activities in order to attain the objectives. Examples: 100 km of access road graveled, 20 supervisors trained, 1 million workdays generated.

ACTIVITIES: actions carried out in a project to produce planned outputs. Examples: recruitment of workers, spreading and compaction of gravel, development of training material.

INPUTS: goods, services, personnel, funds and other resources necessary to carry out all the project activities with the expectation of producing outputs and achieving project objectives. Examples: funds, staff, labour, equipment, hand tools, materials, etc.

INDICATORS: objective, measurable changes or results expected from a project. They are designed to provide a scale allowing one to measure the progress of a project in producing outputs and achieving objectives. They can also be stated as specific targets to be achieved at specific points in time during project implementation or they can be categorized by type, such as output indicators or impact indicators. Examples:

- the target group of internally displaced persons will experience an increase in their annual incomes with $ X as a result of short-term employment;
- at least 1,000 former refugees will be employed for 100 working days each on an annual basis as from year 2 of the project;
- the transportation time between X and Y will be reduced by 50 percent and transportation costs will be reduced by 40 percent (road project);
- the production value will increase by 30 percent (irrigation project); and
- government department Z will plan and implement road maintenance on the basis of labour-based technologies in the last year of the project.

**BUDGET**

**WORK PLAN**

Whilst the preparation of a project document is a complex task, several circumstances require a quick response:

- the urgency to start operations,
- the potential change in donor interest or priorities,
- deadlines in the programming cycles of implementing and funding agencies, and
- the competitive environment of project implementation.

Joint formulation missions with a representative of the funding agency may facilitate and speed up development of the project document and its approval.
6.2 Methodology

6.2.1 Basic surveys

The basis for formulating a sound project document is problem identification and analysis.

A first step towards identifying the problems will be to obtain an overview of the project area in terms of composition and number of conflict-affected persons and their location, the condition of the basic infrastructure and the security situation. Information for the overview may come from several sources, such as surveys, data collected by humanitarian agencies, rapid appraisals in connection with field visits, discussions with future beneficiaries and interviews with key informants. Information gathering is the cornerstone of the overview and should take place prior to the actual design work.

Potential sources of data: Government, UNHCR, WFP, other relief/humanitarian organizations.

Once the overview completed, more specific information will need to be gathered by means of:

- visits to and discussions with as many potential beneficiary communities as possible in order to provide details of:
  - the characteristics of the conflicted-affected groups: numbers, age and gender distribution, means of livelihood/coping strategies, family time budgets;
  - the state of community infrastructure: type, extent of damages, rough estimate of size of reconstruc-
tion work in cubic metres, square metres, kilometres, etc.;

- their needs and priorities with respect to employment/income as well economic, social and institutional infrastructures. The prospects of target groups participating formally in project activities, including their interest in being employed as casual workers, should also be assessed; and

- examination of the legal status and ownership of the lands and infrastructures. The purpose is to avoid giving advantages to individual owners and cutting into the legitimate rights of land owners.

- elementary technical and economic surveys/assessments: identification of and consistent information gathering in locations with potential for individual schemes—main roads, feeder roads, paths, irrigation, soil conservation, water supply, schools, clinics, etc. The security situation will also need to be assessed, especially with regard to landmines.

- stock-taking in the development community: identification of other similar activities ongoing in the area to establish potential and need for coordination and complementarity with other programme activities, and to avoid duplication of efforts.

Potential sources of data: government, UNHCR, WFP, UNDP, other projects in the area and direct contacts in the field.

- discussions with potential counterparts and partners: the availability of human resources and institutional capacity need to be established. In most post-conflict situations, organizations in both the private and the public sector are seriously affected.
Their infrastructures—offices, godowns, equipment and materials—are often targets which have suffered severe damage. Professional staff is either not available or extremely reduced. It is important to have a good grasp of the situation because it will have a bearing on the organizational set-up of the project and on the need for the recruitment of technicians, administrators and managers. This exercise will also provide the first step in a human resources assessment, which will become a starting point for a project component addressing the training needs of local staff.

6.2.2 Labour availability assessment

In normal circumstances EIIPs are aimed at absorbing surplus labour and/or increasing the incomes of poverty-affected groups. Therefore, a thorough survey followed by a detailed labour availability assessment is of key importance. However, in post-conflict situations this may be difficult to accomplish. First of all, there is a dearth of reliable statistics. Secondly, it may be clear that the majority of the conflict-affected people is in need of employment and additional income. Thirdly, it may be evident that with the limited financial resources available only a fraction of the conflict-affected population will actually become involved.

A rough estimate of the number of workdays to be created on project works may be made based on:

- the labour cost ratio for a particular investment, and
- a wage rate applicable in the project area.

Multiplying the labour cost ratio and the total funds available will result in the labour budget; dividing the labour budget by the wage rate will provide the estimated number of workdays.
To assess the labour availability of a target group (e.g., internally displaced persons, refugees, demobilized combatants), one begins by establishing the number of adults in the 15 to 60 age group. The next step is to assess their potential participation rate, i.e., how many adults and how long will they want to be employed as workers on project works. This may be done by estimating the number of people who are unavailable for the works, for any of the following reasons:

- otherwise engaged in productive activities,
- unable or unsuited to the work, or -
- unwilling to work.

Table 6.2.2 provides an example of a rough labour availability assessment.

**Table 6.2.2 Labour Availability Assessment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Employment potential estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Example:</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **Funds available:** US$1 million  
- **Labour cost ratio:** 50%  
- **Daily wage rate:** US$1.5/workday  
- **Potential number of workdays:**  
  \[1,000,000 \times 0.5 / 1.5 = 333,333 \text{ work days}\]  
- **The average number of work days in a work year is assumed to be 220.**  
  \[333,333 \text{ workdays} / 220 \text{ workdays} = 1,515 \text{ work years}\]
2. Labour availability assessment

Example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of adults aged 15-60 in target group:</th>
<th>10,000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unavailable for works:</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Available for works:</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A comparison of the employment potential of 1,515 work years with the estimated 6,000 adults available for work indicates that the labour supply is greater than the project’s employment potential. Consequently, it may be assumed that sufficient labour will be available. However, these figures are average figures based on information relating to a large project area. This assessment should be supplemented with specific considerations on the vicinity of specific schemes, because wide variations may occur from one location to the next. Labour availability is also subject to seasonal change. Particular attention should be paid to the agricultural demand for labour.

It is generally advisable to start EIIP projects on a smaller scale to test the availability of labour and then expand it, if there is a significant demand for employment.

6.2.3 Target group participation

Project feasibility and sustainability are furthered by the active participation of the target groups and communities in planning and implementing an investment project. This includes taking part in the identification, selection and prioritization of investments, mobilization of resources, including labour, and in the actual performance of the works. Lack of consultation with local communities and potential beneficiaries may result in inadequate maintenance and operation/utilization of the created as-
sets. This would result in unsustainable infrastructures and a failure to generate expected benefits.

The socio-economic needs of conflict-affected communities must be reflected in the planning and targeting of EIIPs. A realistic design requires an understanding of the needs and capacities of the targeted community to cooperate and to provide labour. Many difficulties in targeting specific groups can be anticipated and dealt with through a flexible, realistic assistance plan.

In communities with a high proportion of households headed by women, special steps need to be taken to encourage their participation in the works, and special conditions may need to be established, such as provision for child care and schooling. Where there is a high proportion of conflict-disabled ex-combatants or civilians, arrangements should be made to facilitate and even promote their involvement in employment and public investment projects. The ILO, for example, has prepared special tools and guidelines for Cambodian landmine victims—civilians and ex-combatants.

The capabilities of the community members with regard to the skills required during the works need to be investigated through a quick skills survey. In the chaotic post-conflict situation a number of skills normally unknown in rural areas may be found among displaced persons, because they have acquired them in a refugee camp, during military service or elsewhere. The project should make full use of available skills.

### 6.2.4 Feasibility

Schemes must be technically, financially and socially feasible.
6.2.4.1 **Technical feasibility**

Regardless of whether investments are carried out in a post-conflict or in a normal situation, the technical quality of an investment must be adequate, otherwise the funds for the investments are wasted. Technical feasibility is a precondition for undertaking an investment project, and this implies that labour-intensive technologies are suitable to achieve the outputs using available resources, within a given time frame. Technical feasibility studies are conducted by engineers and deal with the relationship between the technology and the following factors:

- product quality and design,
- project type and timing, and
- availability of resources.

Technical feasibility assessments require extensive knowledge of the subject matter.

Timing should be based on an assessment of the size of the investment in comparison with available resources and, e.g., meteorological or other seasonal considerations. Assessing the availability of the most important item—labour—was discussed in Section 6.2.2. above. Planning should aim at the shortest reasonably possible timing. Short but realistic implementation deadlines are essential not only because the assets should benefit the target groups in a timely manner, but also because long project delays will increase the time-based fixed project costs. As far as possible, resources should be concentrated on usable consecutive investments in order to finalize and make them productive quickly.
6.2.4.2 Financial feasibility

Available financial resources determine the scope of the project. In a limited budget, the scope will depend on wages and other costs. However, costs may vary from place to place and must be explored for each project site. As a rule, they cannot be changed. Matching available funds with financial needs is not always a matter of simple calculation. It may be necessary to make adjustments to the design or the timing of a project.

Strictly speaking, financial feasibility, meaning that there is a high rate of return from the investment, may not be a priority in a post-conflict situation. The objectives of reintegration of the conflict-affected groups into civilian life often deserves higher priority. Nonetheless, a choice must be made among different investments, and it is clear that high investment returns should be an important criterion in setting priorities.

It is well known that labour-based methods are often cost-effective, that is, they represent a least-cost solution. But a financial/economic feasibility analysis should also include a comparison with equipment-intensive methods. Cost-effectiveness should be true in both economic and financial terms. In addition, the use of labour-based methods should enable substantial foreign exchange savings. However, the situation in a post-conflict situation is such that the social objectives, i.e. employment and income generation, if necessary for the re-integration of conflict-affected groups, should prevail over narrow criteria related to economic growth.

A financial feasibility analysis is indispensable if choices are to be made among various schemes with economic or productive potential such as roads, irrigation, and afforestation. Only in emergency programmes may such an analysis be omitted. The traditional method of assess-
ing economic feasibility involves a cost-benefit analysis. It is beyond the scope of these Guidelines to describe the procedures\textsuperscript{21} in detail. Furthermore, the method requires the services of an experienced economist, who is not always readily available in such situations.

A simple calculation of the internal rate of return may be the best alternative. This can be done by using one of the spread-sheet programmes available for personal computers. The method is based on the following parameters:

- estimated lifetime of the infrastructure, on average 20 years,
- assessment of the investment costs, maintenance costs (estimated at 5 percent per annum) and operational costs over 20 years, and
- benefits (increased productivity or reduced transportation costs and time).

The internal rate of return on the investment is then calculated on the basis of the net benefits over the 20-year period.

### 6.2.4.3 Social feasibility

A social feasibility analysis should include an assessment of whether the investments and their design are culturally and socially acceptable to the communities located in the vicinity of the investment. Religious and other codes of conduct for what is socially acceptable, i.e., performance of wage labour in public places, mixing both sexes in the workplace, equal treatment of all workers regardless of background, etc., should be explored. Potential issues should be taken up in open discussions with

target group representatives at the planning stage and during implementation whenever necessary.

Social feasibility is related to the aim of creating short-term employment opportunities and income for the target group(s). An assessment can be made on the basis of two key parameters:

- the estimated cost per workday, and
- the estimated labour cost in relation to the total costs (labour intensity).

The comparison of these two factors in different schemes will provide a basis for selection, i.e., preference should be given to works with a relatively low cost per workday, and if short-term employment creation is an important objective, so should a high labour intensity ratio.

Focusing assistance on conflict-affected target groups is another important feature of a social feasibility analysis. If short-term employment is generated on a large scale, but not for the target group, it should not be considered socially viable. The feasibility analysis should appraise the potential for employing the target groups by:

- comparing the ratio of target group workers in the total labour force of the project, with the ratio of target group members in the whole population, and
- making sure that there is a substantial over-representation of the target groups amongst the workers.

A similar evaluation can be carried out for community investments, i.e., by determining who will stand to benefit from the projects. This can be accomplished by comparing categories of beneficiaries with the other community members.
Additionally, the effect of short-term employment should be measured in terms of the average number of workdays a worker will be employed, for example, for one year. The length of employment may be translated directly into income terms by applying the wage rate. By doing so, an assessment of the potential income generated from project works will be possible. A comparison between workers belonging to the target group and others may also be made.
7

PROJECT IMPLEMENTATION

Photo: Van Imshoort
A project becomes “active” when a financing agreement, usually in the form of a project document, is signed by the parties concerned. It becomes operational with the recruitment of a project manager. The selection of a qualified project manager capable of combining financial, logistical and engineering management, is therefore important. Implementation starts when inputs are acquired and activities initiated. However, the actual kick-off may be deferred for valid reasons.

An EIIP may be composed of a number of schemes. An individual scheme, such as road rehabilitation, may be composed of several construction sites. Other types of projects, such as a minor irrigation scheme, may consist of one site only.

Project implementation can be broken down into six steps:

- **Staffing and commissioning of the project**: The desk officer of the implementing agency will recruit and field the project manager. The project manager, in close cooperation with the desk officer, will recruit and appoint the project team, including field engineers, other technical staff, administrators and support personnel. The project team will establish the links to central and local authorities, equip the project premises, and establish the lines of communication to all concerned.

- The professional project staff will prepare a *work programme* for the performance of the works, giving an overview of the whole project period and details of the first construction season.

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The professional project staff will prepare the specific organizational set-up and technical resources of works in terms of manning tables for site staff, negotiating and concluding agreements with representatives of the communities and authorities concerned, adapt technical guidelines as necessary, invite offers or pro formas for construction work, organize for monitoring and supervising and for special surveys required.

The professional project staff will, in conjunction with the national counterparts and with conflict-affected communities/groups, select construction sites, prepare detailed designs and assign site staff.

The professional project staff will have the workers recruited by the community leaders and initiate the actual construction activities.

The professional staff of the project will feed and maintain the system of continuous monitoring and reporting on the progress of the project. Actual figures for costs, resources, amounts and output are collected, compiled for weekly and monthly statistics and compared with planned targets. If necessary, the resources are reallocated and the work programme is adjusted or revised in accordance project deadlines.

The tasks described in the last five steps are continuously repeated with the opening and closing of sites and schemes. Besides doing actual construction work, project management will in a pilot phase have the additional responsibility of adapting and refining certain aspects of the overall EIIP framework, including labour recruitment, costing of works, collecting figures for labour productivity, and developing or adapting technical standards, monitoring and reporting systems, training modules and tool specifications.
Realistic, output-oriented financial and logistical planning in line with the supply of resources to the individual schemes and sites is of utmost importance. Ensuring a steady cash flow is a precondition for timely, ongoing implementation and success. Particularly in post-conflict situations in which confidence levels are generally low, immediate and/or timely payment of workers and suppliers is indispensable. Traditional governmental budgetary and financial procedures are generally not suited for such operations.

Decentralized financial management, including decentralized responsibilities and procedures for the procurement of locally available materials and tools is essential, especially during the initial phases of an EIIP.

### 7.1 Project organization and staff

In a post-conflict situation, an EIIP will begin with the appointment of a project manager - generally recruited from abroad. The project management team will be composed of a financial manager/accountant, a senior storekeeper and an administrative assistant, possibly with a monitoring and evaluation specialist. Large EIIPs will require the recruitment of a senior engineer for each type of work: road, irrigation, etc.

Site staff size and composition will depend on the size and nature of the project:

- Unskilled casual labour recruited from amongst the conflict-affected groups, preferably by or in close cooperation with the community, will be divided into workgroups (known as gangs) of some 10 to 50 workers.
Each gang will have a leader responsible for organizing the works within the group, for maintaining discipline and ensuring that activities are carried out efficiently.

A foreman is required for every three to four gangs.

Depending on the nature and size of the works, a supervisor and/or site engineer may be needed. A variety of skilled workers, such as mechanics, drivers, carpenters and stonemasons may also be required. Administrative and logistical tasks may call for the services of a pay and accounts clerk and a storekeeper.

A large project will require a sizeable permanent staff. The project management team will, like any other major employer, need to develop ways and means of managing the staff bearing in mind recruitment initiatives, training, salaries and incentives, working conditions, career development, etc.

7.2 Recruitment, wage disbursement and training of labour

Recruitment

Recruitment of unskilled workers is done locally by the community leaders in close cooperation with site or project management. The labour force should live within walking distance of the site, about five kilometres away.

The recruitment process usually takes place as follows:

Project management will visit each site and meet and hold discussions with the leaders of the nearby com-
munities. It will explain project objectives, opportunities and conditions of work and discuss the local availability of casual labour with community leaders. Project management will ask them for an opportunity to meet all interested community members and present the project in order to gauge the actual interest and availability of labour. The project management team will also ask community leaders for support in recruiting the workers.

Project management and community leaders should encourage the conflict-affected target groups, including internally displaced persons, refugees, demobilized combatants, etc., to designate their representatives. A consensus should be reached concerning the employment to be shared amongst the different groups commensurate with their skills.

Community leaders should register all workers willing to work and decide, in accordance with project requirements, needs of the individuals, and skills represented, who should be employed. In a situation where the labour supply exceeds the demand, the group representatives should agree on shift work arrangements.

Actual recruitment takes place with registration on a master roll. Each worker will receive an identity/attendance card for easy identification and for registration of attendance, which will be the basis for later payment.

Certain recruitment selection criteria and/or quotas may have been included in the project design; i.e., workers to be recruited should have an income below a certain level, belong to specific target groups, such as the internally displaced, refugees and female heads of households, and there should be a job quota for a specific target group. Clearly, project management will need to comply
with these criteria and quotas. However, changes may be necessary, depending on the real world situation. Programme management should be responsive to proposals from project management.

The recruitment process may reveal a local or temporary labour shortage, despite previous assessments. The work programme may require adjustments so as to suit availability. If this fails to solve the problem, the project may need to be replanned or, at worst, abandoned. However, this not likely to occur in a post-conflict situation.

Recruitment must be voluntary: an individual must express the desire to work and actively apply for the job. This is a fundamental principle of international labour law as outlined in international conventions. Forced or compulsory labour is not permitted in the mobilization and recruitment of labour.

**Wage disbursement**

The establishment of wage levels was discussed in Section 5.5.1 above and is a major responsibility. However, wages need to be adapted to the local situation, particularly, if they are partly paid in kind. The size and composition of the food basket should be adapted to local tastes and the average size of a family/household.

Project management should determine productivity norms and daily tasks in line with general standards. Daily tasks should be planned according to an assessment of an individual’s capacity to do the physical works planned. The following factors may come into play:

- **Climate:** Extreme temperatures, humidity, strong winds and altitude may affect physical capacity to work.
Physical condition of workers: Their general state of health, and in particular their nutritional status, will clearly have an impact on productivity. In a post-conflict situation the nutritional and health status of workers will most likely be poor, and the output projections should be adjusted accordingly. An improvement in a worker’s nutritional status should lead to a readjustment of productivity norms.

Skills: A newly recruited labour force is generally not accustomed to the kind of physical work involved. Workers need to learn basic skills and to adjust to their tasks. Experience shows that they will develop efficient movements, thus requiring the expenditure of less strength. Output will initially be low. On-the-job training in the correct handling of implements and in the reduction of physical strain should be an integral part of a start-up phase.

Workers must receive timely payment of wages. This is a basic prerequisite, because they will depend on remuneration for subsistence. Furthermore, the whole reintegration process will depend on the confidence of the conflict-affected individuals towards society in general. Honouring agreements should be respected as a fundamental principle by project management.

Payment should be made in cash and/or kind at short, regular intervals, i.e., every week or every other week. Payment should be made directly to the worker, regardless of gender.

Savings schemes, or banking of wages, where cash wages are partially or fully deposited on a dedicated account, may be set up in close cooperation with the workers, but only with their agreement.
Training

On-the-job training in the correct handling of implements and in the reduction of physical strain should be an integral part of a start-up phase. More specific on-the-job training should be supplied in connection with community investments, i.e., works with a direct, exclusive benefit to the community. Further maintenance and/or operation will be the community’s responsibility. This will involve basic construction skills such as mixing of concrete, compaction of earth, basic masonry etc.

EIIP projects include techniques and operations which may be unfamiliar to newly recruited workers. Positions such as skilled worker, overseer or driver may be filled by individuals who do not have an adequate professional background. They are often recruited amongst unskilled workers, who have proven special abilities and interests during the initial works. In such cases, special training will need to be set up within the project, as formal training institutions are not generally equipped to offer the required courses, especially in a post-conflict situation.

Training in relation to community investments may be expanded to include administrative functions involved in running an irrigation system or a water supply system, for example. This may include different functions such as collection of charges, book and store keeping, accounting and disbursements.

See Miller, S., 1990: Training Needs Assessment for Special Public Works Programmes, ILO, Geneva, for further insights into EIIP-related training. ILO has, moreover, produced a number of training manuals covering a wide range of subjects.
7.3 Participation of local communities

The full participation of local communities in, and their support for an EIIP project is a key success factor. Local communities should be involved in the identification, planning, implementation, supervision and maintenance of the investments. Their part in the identification and planning process, in supplying labour and benefiting from training was dealt with in the preceding section. The present section will, therefore, concentrate on their role in project implementation.

In a post-conflict situation, organization of communities may become the direct responsibility of the project. An established community with a long tradition of leadership and interaction between its different groups and members may simply not exist. Target groups such as displaced persons and refugees share a common characteristic: their attachment to the specific locality is new; demobilized combatants and returnees experience a shorter or longer absence from their community. A new social organization will need to set up. It will be a long time before a strong community is firmly established. The project may in such a situation need to play an important role in its organization. The organization of each conflict-affected group would be a natural first step. This implies setting up a committee for each group, a committee whose members will represent the target group in discussions and negotiations relating to the project.

The committees will have an important role to play in terms of:

- information distribution,
- site identification,
recruitment of workers and shift agreements,
supply of locally available materials, water and possibly meals,
provision of overnight facilities for project staff,
guarding and storage of project equipment and materials, and
future maintenance.

In later phases, when the communities become more settled and the project takes root, the individual target group committees may merge into a full-fledged development committee, which will represent the whole community. The identification of community schemes will then become a key function of the committee.

7.4 Implementation of works

Project management will devise a project-level work plan. Different types of planning tools may be utilized to draw up the work plan, from a simple bar-chart to more complicated Gantt charts combined with network analysis or critical path planning. That choice is made by the project manager.

The main factors to be considered in a work plan for construction activities are the setting of production targets, scheduling of resources, selection of construction methods and a budget forecast. In principle a short work plan should be developed for each site and worked into an overall project plan.

On this basis each site will develop its own short-term plan to maintain a constant output and optimum resource utilization. Production must be monitored regu-
larly, output appraised and the plan amended if necessary.

A short-term site plan should include:

- the list of all tasks required in the correct logical sequence;
- the bill of quantities (list of operations) and estimated productivity norm for all operations;
- the calculated inputs, i.e., number and type of workers, tools and equipment, materials, etc., and
- the expected duration of each task and a work schedule.

7.5 Monitoring, reviewing and adjustment

Monitoring is the continuous supervision of the implementation of an activity. Its purpose is to ensure that input deliveries, work schedules, targeted outputs, and other required actions proceed according to plan.

Monitoring of progress in terms of output combined with productivity measurements should be undertaken at regular intervals at each site. The purpose is to allow the supervision of the individual sites but also to adjust plans and to gain valuable information which may be used to plan new sites and projects.

Productivity measurements should refer to a single task or operation such as excavation, spreading or unloading. This involves recording all inputs, from labour to materials and equipment and modes of operation (i.e., task

24 Coukis, B, 1983: Labor-based Construction Programs, Washington, provides a complete set of monitoring formats in Appendix I.
work or piece work). Labour may be measured in terms of workdays, and materials, in cubic metres, square metres or litres, for example.

Output measurements consist in a description of the task, the completed quantity of output, the period in question, comparison of task work/piece work and productivity.

The data collected should be analysed regularly at the site level, and at three- or six-monthly intervals at project level. The results should be presented in a progress report\(^\text{25}\) containing a revised work programme, as well.

While monitoring is a continuous everyday activity, reviews are decision-making events. Review meetings should be planned at six-month intervals or whenever the a n important need arises. A review will allow programme leaders, financial authorities (Ministry of Finance or an external donor agency) and project management to discuss the project. This will provide an opportunity to evaluate progress, and to make budget decisions, major work programme changes and project design adjustments.

A review meeting should be held every two years to determine the project’s impact on the target group and discuss the achievement of objectives. To this end, relevant information should be gathered with regard to the project’s socio-economic aspects.

Evaluation is a process which attempts to determine as systematically and objectively as possible the relevance, effectiveness and impact of activities with regard to their objectives. As such it is a learning and action-oriented management tool, an organizational process for improving activities under way and an invaluable aid to be used in future planning, programming and decision-making.

In a post-conflict situation an evaluation should focus on the following the key issues:

- whether the EIIIP under evaluation has become integrated into national efforts to better the social and economic situation of the project area,
- whether it has furthered the reintegration of the conflict-affected groups into civilian life, and
- whether it has made a cost-effective contribution to the rehabilitation of damaged infrastructures.

It would discuss the following points:

- the commitment of the post-conflict administration for the adoption of a labour-intensive approach;
- the EIIP’s role in developing national capacity at central, provincial, district, and community levels to programme, design, implement and monitor future EIIPs;
- the functioning of an effective consultative and coodination mechanism between partners and actors in post-conflict countries, such as UNHCR, UNICEF, WFP, ICRC, UNDP and bilateral funding agencies and international NGOs;
- the effectiveness and success of targeting strategies of an EIIP to reach the conflict-affected groups (favouring
one war-affected group over another in the same community will create social friction and tension);

- the extent to which an EIIP succeeds in providing substantial employment and decent income to a relatively large number of refugees, internally displaced persons, demobilized combatants, etc.;

- the economic impact of the income, in terms of providing a basic livelihood and as a means to permit settlement and engagement in other economic activities;

- the economic impact of the infrastructures provided to help the local and/or regional economy to develop;

- the contribution of an EIIP to help the target groups to become organized and make a contribution to the development of civil society;

- technical, financial and social soundness of the reconstructed infrastructures.

An evaluation can be performed during the project/programme implementation, at its final stage or upon completion.

An ongoing evaluation is the analysis performed, during the implementation phase, of the continuing relevance and likely outputs, effectiveness and impact of the project. Ongoing evaluation can assist decision-makers by providing information for adjustments of objectives, policies, implementation strategies, or other activity components, as well as future planning. The results are summarized in an evaluation report and presented and discussed at a review meeting. Evaluation is not a free service, but the systematic collection of data at regular intervals will help to keep its costs down. Compilation and analysis of data requires the assistance of an expert. A
systematic, continuous evaluation is particularly important in a pilot programme, where the EIIP will prove its potential. In a larger programme there is still a need for continuous evaluation, but it may not be necessary to go into detail.

*Final and ex-post evaluations* focus on the relevance, effectiveness, and in particular, on the impact and sustainability of the project. Ex-post evaluations are not common, often replaced by an appraisal towards the end of the project.

A major evaluation should performed at least every two to three years by a team of experts who have not been involved in the activities of the programme or project under review. The evaluation team will work on the basis of the terms of reference elaborated by the programme authorities.

The points included in an evaluation are defined below:\(^\text{26}\):

| **RELEVANCE:** | the degree to which the rationale, objectives, and expected impact of an activity are, or remain, pertinent, valid and significant. |
| **IMPACT:** | the degree of changes produced as the result of the activities that have been undertaken. |
| **EFFECTIVENESS:** | a measure of the extent to which an activity achieves its objectives. |

**EFFICIENCY:** the productivity of the implementation process of an activity—how well inputs have been converted into outputs. An efficiency analysis usually compares a variety of ways of conducting an activity to find the one which requires minimum inputs to achieve a fixed goal or produces maximum outputs from a fixed quantity of inputs.

**COST-EFFECTIVENESS:** the quality in terms of costs of an activity. The team may compare the costs of different ways an activity might be, or, might have been conducted, in order to find the least-cost approach to achieve the desired outputs and objectives.

**SUSTAINABILITY:** the ability to continue to produce positive results once international assistance has come to an end.
ANNEX 1
Annotated Bibliography

1. Partnership


A survey mandated by the ACC Consultative Committee on Programme and Operational Questions (CCPOQ) giving an overview of what the UN System has to offer in post-conflict situations.

2. Employment-intensive Investment Programmes


Describes the importance of special employment programmes to respond to the economic crisis and rising unemployment of the 1980s. Examines changes in economic conditions and policy environment. Highlights the changing nature of public works and provides a review and assessment of four special public works programme categories. Concludes with an analysis of two core issues: targeting and programme duration.


A condensed review of labour-intensive investment policies and methods as policy instruments to alleviate poverty and create productive and sustained employment. Presents the economic rationale and application methods, and examines the prerequisites for long-term employment creation through the design and implementation of small-scale, needs-oriented basic infrastructure. Special issues discussed: i) the roles of central and local government, ii) public or community works, iii) force account versus private-sector implementation, iv) supply- versus demand-led infrastructure, v) sustainability and replicability and vi) social funds.
3. EIIPs in conflict-affected countries


Examines the relevance and potential of employment-intensive works programmes in the reintegration of demobilized combatants into civilian life. Describes the experience of ILO and other agencies in implementing employment-intensive programmes in Cambodia, Mozambique and Uganda with respect to achieving the objectives of rehabilitation of infrastructure along with the reintegration of conflict-affected groups.


Reviews and assesses EIIP experiences in Cambodia, Mozambique and Uganda by comparing them with similar programmes, e.g., of WFP and UNDP. Establishes guidelines and checklists for the preparation of EIIPs in conflict-affected countries.


Short summaries of projects in 17 countries, containing an overview of background, objectives, beneficiaries, strategies and lessons learned.

4. Choice of technology

Roads Sector


Reviews the experience of the use of local resources for the construction and maintenance of roads and emphasizes two major innovations: i) involvement of the private sector, mainly small-scale contractors and ii) development of simple equipment. Gives an interesting overview of the
cost of labour-based road construction and maintenance in a number of African and Asian countries.


Explores low-cost methods in road construction and maintenance that are technically and economically viable and efficient. Discusses choice of technology from a theoretical perspective (Part I). Considers choice of technology in road engineering, in particular (Part II).


Breaks down road construction into different activities and compares the costs involved in each activity using equipment- and labour-intensive technology. Concludes that labour-based construction is around 30 per cent less costly than equipment-based. Analysis of the employment and the economic impact at the national level by means of a simplified macroeconomic model. Labour-intensive construction uses only half as much foreign exchange as equipment-based construction, creates over twice as many jobs and its multiplier effect on the national economy is also twice as high.

**Irrigation**


Presents three irrigation projects implemented by the ILO, one in Nepal and two in Tanzania. Analyses the projects in terms of organization, community participation, economic and employment impact.

**5. Planning and programming**

A useful and comprehensive manual based on ten years of research and fieldwork in nine countries. Summarizes the basic technical and organizational know-how needed by decision-makers and managers for the planning and implementation of employment-intensive work programmes.


Describes the main stages of the planning, design, organization and implementation of special public works programmes; aimed at national and international staff. Provides a valuable insight into the comprehensive design of labour-intensive programmes, discussing technical, socio-economic and training issues.


Comprehensive guidelines (1000 pages) based on two decades of experience in the implementation of employment-intensive works programmes in developing countries. Explores all angles of the subject, from planning and design, to implementation and evaluation.

### 6. Employment conditions and remuneration systems


Gives the historical background behind unpaid communal works, both voluntary and compulsory, in Burundi and Rwanda. Studies existing practices with respect to their social and economic viability. Concludes that non-paid “voluntary” or “forced” labour should be abolished.


Outlines evolution of labour-intensive employment programmes and provides a brief analysis of various ILO-assisted projects in the sector. Conclusions i) a direct link between productivity and remuneration in traditional public works should be (re-)introduced either through a basic minimum wage or through piece-work and, ii) contracts communal
works should be introduced based on negotiations between beneficiaries and external assistance providers; labour would thus be valued at its opportunity cost and appear in cost estimates; wage payments would be decided in the overall negotiations.


Presents an overview of the special relevance of international labour standards to employment-intensive works programmes in general and ILO’s technical assistance programmes in the sector in particular, and discusses their effective application. Standards discussed: employment policy, forced labour, child labour, equality.


Analyses unpaid labour in the context of self-help projects and examines the forms (cash or kind), methods (piece- or daily rate) and levels of remuneration applied in some 11 labour-intensive programmes assisted by the ILO. Concludes with policy prescriptions for simultaneously promoting employment, growth and equity.


In a number of developing countries the real value of public sector wages has fallen below a subsistence level and labour-intensive programmes are unable to recruit workers to operate at acceptable productivity levels. Analyses payment in kind as a possible remedy, but advocates flexible piece-work rates as the best theoretical solution.

7. Community participation


Identifies different forms of community participation by means of a comparative analysis of several ILO-assisted projects and highlights major issues relating to participation. Examines the interaction between the
principal organizations and actors involved in the projects and concludes that social investments (training and organizing communities/beneficiaries) must precede investments in infrastructure.


Positive findings drawn from the experience of many organizations in relation to community participation. Employment and poverty alleviation programmes in the infrastructure sector can influence decentralized government institutions and help create a framework for negotiations between the public administration on one side, and the private sector and grassroots organizations on the other. Productive capacities of the most marginalized groups can be developed and their awareness raised.

8. Design


A training manual which gives a thorough introduction to the logical framework approach to project design and evaluation. May also be valuable as a reference for international and national planners and managers involved in technical cooperation.

9. Implementation

Road Construction


Aimed at small contractors; deals with theory and practice of technical, financial and managerial issues. Workbook provides contractors with exercises to test skills.

Provides checklists for practitioners, but also lays the groundwork for the production of a comprehensive manual to assist policy makers, programme designers and managers.

10. Evaluation


Offers advice on the evaluation procedures for employment-intensive works programmes with a focus on project implementation and impact. Aimed at ILO member States, trade unions and employers’ organizations and their officials.
ANNEX 2
Emergency, Rehabilitation and Development Phases of EIIPs.

1. Overview

Objectives, planning requirements, composition of programmes and targeting may vary substantially from one phase to the next: emergency, rehabilitation and development. Although basic methodologies remain essentially the same, planning and programming standards and the possibilities of meeting them will vary. However, the phases will overlap considerably. Some initial problems may take a long time to overcome, while new structures emerge. With this in mind an attempt has been made to give an overview of the three EIIP phases and of the role the ILO can play in this process.

2. Emergency Phase

This phase follows the cessation of hostilities and often involves the repatriation of large numbers of returnees, the resettlement of internally displaced people, and support to the overall population affected by conflict. UNHCR usually takes a lead role in the resettlement process. Conflict-affected persons need assistance to rebuild their homes and rehabilitate basic local infrastructure (roads, water supply, drainage, sanitation systems, etc.). During the emergency phase it is important to keep people employed and fed. People would prefer to be directly involved in building and maintaining the basic infrastructure, rather than watching bulldozers and other equipment do the job. EIIPs should be closely associated with relief operations. UNICEF and WFP, often involved in
this phase, would, include the most vulnerable in their target areas.

WFP carries out relief operations in a particular country where people are driven from their land and lack self-sufficiency in food production. In areas where these programmes are not entirely of a critical emergency nature, Food for Work (FFW) activities are often the delivery mechanism for food distribution. WFP-FFW activities during the emergency stage generally deal with infrastructure rehabilitation support related to food production or market access.

EIIP activities during the emergency phase should include:

- a detailed assessment of the scope and content of an EIIP, possibly in the context of a broader employment programme; however, the EIIP should be kept simple with an emphasis on proven technologies and schemes such as roads;
- the establishment of appropriate mechanisms for planning and prioritizing of infrastructure works in cooperation with the government (if operational), leading UN and other international agencies;
- promotion of international labour standards, in particular those dealing with basic human rights;
- ad hoc training of local technical and supervisory personnel in the basic skills necessary for labour-intensive project implementation; and
- EIIP implementation, possibly in cooperation with the government.

Potential EIIP partners during the emergency phase are government, UNHCR, UNICEF, ICRC, WFP, UNDP, bilateral programmes, international organizations and NGOs.
3. Rehabilitation Phase

The rehabilitation phase should build on the emergency phase and be developed in close association with the government and local counterparts, especially those who, for various reasons, were not involved during the emergency phase.

Planning and coordination with all major programmes during this phase is indispensable. There will be a potential for complementarity between the actions of various programmes, specially within general infrastructure works comprising equipment- and labour-based activities, where major and minor works need to be performed according to an overall plan and timetable. In this phase the EIIP should be fully integrated into an overall employment programme aimed specifically at enhancing the capacity of countries emerging from armed conflict to plan and implement programmes for the effective reintegration of all conflict-affected groups and to build sustainable peace. The three main components of the employment programme are as follows:

- employment-intensive investment programmes (EIIP),
- skills and vocational training, and
- small and micro enterprises development.

In this phase EIIPs are likely to focus on the rehabilitation or construction of basic infrastructure in selected regions and districts in order to facilitate access and to boost the local economies. The priorities for these works are usually quite self-evident. In rural areas the aim is to re-establish a degree of self-sufficiency by means of improved irrigation systems, and roads for access to markets and services. In urban settings the reconstruction of basic water supply and sanitation, health and education
facilities, improved roads and housing facilities are key priorities. During the rehabilitation phase a substantial part of the works will consist of maintenance and major repairs to existing infrastructure which has been damaged or is in disrepair owing to lack of maintenance during the hostilities.

WFP services are likely to continue through this phase in the event of continuous food shortages or lack of food production. The WFP target areas are however likely to be much wider and more spread out than the operational areas covered by an EIIP. Food-for-Work support can be particularly useful for the maintenance of infrastructure works if it happens to be in a food deficit area.

During the rehabilitation phase the government will develop sectoral development policies and establish priorities. However, it may wish to concentrate its own efforts outside the areas drawing substantial external assistance. UN activities will be centred in areas of most need and will not cover the entire country.

EIIPs should transfer responsibility for the operational activities to government staff. The ILO should assist the government in the development of national EIIP policies and programmes.

During the rehabilitation phase the EIIP should focus on the following activities:

- assisting in the establishment of local and sectoral priorities in the target areas of the UN programme, with a special responsibility for the employment issues,
- coordinating closely with complementary programmes and establish partnerships (e.g., agricultural extension services for irrigation schemes under rehabilitation),
advising the government with regard to the development of employment-intensive policies and programmes,

introducing labour-intensive maintenance systems for rehabilitated infrastructures, and

intensifying the transfer of skills to counterpart staff and possibly handing over partial responsibility to government.

Potential EIIP partners during the rehabilitation phase include counterparts in the government, UNDP, WFP, bilateral programmes, international organizations and NGOs.

4. Development Phase

The development phase usually commences once the government has prepared a national strategy and programmes for development. A strategy is necessary, not only as a planning tool to consolidate policies and programmes, but also to prepare work packages for consideration by various donors and development banks. The establishment of a functioning government administration, with fully staffed and equipped central and regional departments and agencies, is a requirement for consolidating the development phase.

The ILO has always advocated a close partnership with policy makers in working out the details of the role of labour-based technologies to be utilized for the construction and maintenance of certain types of infrastructure.

The EIIP should become institutionalized as an integral part of normal government programmes; hence the need to intensify the transfer of skills to government personnel. Depending on government policies there is a potential for the utilization of smaller labour-based
contractors as implementer of works. This will include a reform of the governments procurement system in order to enable minor infrastructure works and maintenance activities to be tendered. This should give priority to local, emerging contractors, who utilize employment-intensive methods. By doing so, investments are made in local areas rather than in procurement from the capital or abroad.

In the development phase the full strength of the ILO’s wider mandate within international labour standards, whether labour law, social security, occupational health and safety, should be promoted through an integrated employment programme with broader aims.

During the development phase, EIIPs should focus on the following activities:

- advising the government with regard to finalizing a national EIIP strategy and programme, by, for example, issuing planning, implementation and evaluation guidelines;
- supporting development activities complementary to EIIPs, including the formation of specific partnerships with relevant development agencies;
- providing technical assistance to the government agency responsible for the coordination of EIIPs;
- intensifying the training activities related to design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of EIIPs, aimed at public and private sector personnel; especially establishing training for small-scale contractors to be able to deliver EIIP infrastructure contracts, and support the development of the potential for private consultancy involvement in infrastructure design and implementation, and
promoting the introduction of labour-based technology into the curricula of the local institutions of higher education for engineers and technicians with the objective of formalizing such curricula for engineers, planners and economists.

Potential EIIP partners during the development phase feature counterparts in the government, UNDP, bilateral programmes, specialized NGOs, the World Bank and regional development banks.
ANNEX 3
Checklists for Planning and Implementing Reconstruction Works in Countries Emerging from Armed Conflicts
CHECKLIST 1: Partnership for Reintegration and Rehabilitation:

Preparation of National Recovery Efforts

The following steps should be taken to foster the recovery and development of countries emerging from armed conflict:

1. establish a partnership for recovery between the national and international organizations, including the national government, the UN and its specialized agencies, humanitarian organizations and other relevant bodies;

2. develop the partnership along more formal lines, i.e., by drawing up a strategic framework designed to bring greater harmony into the planning, programming and financing of recovery efforts;

3. identify, within a strategic framework, the national and international partners in an employment programme, in particular those within the UN agencies, other international organizations and NGOs;

4. define the partners’ role and responsibilities in the employment programme;

5. strike an agreement on policies, overall EIIP organization and partners’ roles within the limits of the employment programme and strategic framework;

6. establish the potential for internal or external/donor funding;

7. agree on and coordinate specific operations among the different agencies taking part in the programme.
CHECKLIST 2: EIIP Planning for Reintegration and Rehabilitation:

Drawing up a National Programme

The following points should be borne into account in developing an employment-intensive investment programme for countries emerging from armed conflict.

1. National policies for EIIPs need to be formulated and agreed upon by the major partners.

2. Priorities should be set on the basis of policy indications. Selection criteria (social, economic, institutional, etc.) for EIIP projects need to be established.

3. Specific agreements relating to EIIP financing should be reached.

4. A rough outline of the EIIP must be drawn up according to established priorities, local infrastructure rehabilitation needs and available funding.

5. In EIIPs featuring several projects, certain basic conditions and parameters need to be established to ensure coordination: i) consistent remuneration systems and work conditions, ii) technical standards and labour intensities of works, iii) women participation, iv) environmental concerns, and v) the public and private sector involvement.

6. The determination of remuneration systems include: i) setting of the wage level, ii) deciding on the mode of payment, be it cash, kind, cash and kind, or a special banking arrangement, and iii) deciding on whether the wages will be paid as a daily wage or on the basis of productivity at piece or task rates.
7. Establishment of the basic working conditions would include: i) setting the working hours, ii) wage payment intervals, iii) deciding on the types and levels of facilities on site, and iv) deciding on the safety and health measures needed.

8. The setting of technical standards must ensure a good quality of the works with a view to facilitate the future maintenance of the infrastructures created.

9. Special initiatives should be designed to promote women’s participation in the projects.

10. Broad guidelines on environmentally friendly works should be given.

11. The role of the public and private sectors in the EIIP should be considered. Guidelines should be given for public- and private-sector development and measures should be planned for capacity building according to their roles.
CHECKLIST 3: Project Formulation:

Preparation of EIIP Projects.

The following points should be considered in the development of EIIP projects in countries emerging from armed conflict.

1. On the basis of the problems and needs identified at the programme planning stage, terms of reference will be drawn up for a formulation team. It will translate the broad programme objectives into one or several specific projects and prepare a project document detailing project interventions and budgets.

2. The basis for formulating a sound project document is a thorough problem analysis (an identification and assessment of the problems in the target area. To identify the problems the first step will be to obtain an overview of the project area in terms of composition and number of conflict-affected people and their location, the state of the basic infrastructure and the security situation.

3. On the basis of the overview more specific information from the identified project area will need to be collected during visits and discussions with the conflict-affected groups, by undertaking socio-economic and technical surveys and gathering information from other development activities in the project area.

4. A labour availability assessment is necessary to explore the demand for labour in relation to the supply.
5. Discussions will need to be held with the target groups of conflict-affected people concerning their role in the planning, implementation and future operation of the infrastructures. Possibilities for the organization and mobilization of the conflict-affected groups should be outlined and modes of cooperation, preferably in the form of contracts should be established.

6. In the process described above, a number of specific schemes and construction sites will be identified and a draft project design will be established.

7. The schemes and the draft project design will need to undergo a feasibility analysis in order to enable selection of the best composition of schemes, sites and other project arrangements. The feasibility study will include technical, financial and social assessments.

8. One or more project document(s) will be finalized and submitted to potential donors for consideration.
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