

An appraisal of EIIP's longer-term development impacts

Kirit Vaidya & Yash Khare

Prepared for the JCPI Unit, DEVINVEST Branch, ILO

October 2023

Table of Contents

List of Acronyms.....	4
Executive Summary.....	7
1. Introduction and context	15
2. Framing the study: Development impact and Theory of Change.....	16
3. Methodology and related literature review	24
3.1 The process and identification of projects included	24
3.2 Impact appraisal methodology: Literature review and specifying the methodology	33
3.3 Earlier and external evidence of impact: Literature review	36
3.3.1 Past ILO reviews of impacts.	36
3.3.2 More recent external evidence for assessing development impact (infrastructure investment orientation).....	42
3.3.3 Development impact of employment generation oriented projects.....	48
4. Presenting the evidence on development impacts.....	50
4.1 Introduction and accounts of impacts in the non-case study countries	50
4.1.1 Introduction.....	50
4.1.2 Cambodia: Long-term engagement in institutional strengthening, infrastructure improvement and social protection	54
4.1.3 Greece: A targeted PEP model to address long-term unemployment.....	56
4.1.4 Jordan: Humanitarian – development – peace nexus potential.....	57
4.1.5 Kenya: A strong legacy of development in the rural roads sector	60
4.1.6 Lebanon: Addressing the humanitarian-development-peace nexus.....	62
4.1.7 Madagascar: Investment and impact in the education sector	65
4.1.8 Mauritania: Addressing youth unemployment and social tensions	67
4.1.9 Mozambique: Complementary policy development and implementation support	68
4.1.10 Papua New Guinea (PNG): Benefits of EIIP participation in an integrated development project	70
4.1.11 Philippines: Support for developing resilience to natural calamities	72
4.2.1 Introduction to case studies.....	74
4.2.2 Cameroon: Mainstreaming the employment intensive approach in public expenditure	74
4.2.3 India: Maintenance capacity development support for a national rural roads programme.....	77
4.2.4 Nepal: Rural road maintenance - preserving assets and improving livelihoods of maintenance workers.....	84
4.2.5 South Africa: Addressing the challenge of persistent high unemployment.....	88
4.2.6 Tanzania: Support for developing and implementing the social protection strategy	94
4.2.7 Timor-Leste: Comprehensive EIIP impact.....	97
5. Conclusions and recommendations.....	106
5.1 Conclusions	106
5.1.2 Overview and summary of findings	106
5.1.2 EIIP development alignment with the ILO and global development agenda.....	114
5.2 Recommendations.....	119
List of references and website links	122
Appendix I: Terms of reference for the assignment	133
Appendix II: List of countries and – EIIP engagement 2012 – 22.....	136
Appendix III: List of persons consulted and providing information and documents.....	145

Table of exhibits

Exhibit 1: The ILO RBM model and its implications for EIIP	18
Exhibit 2: The disadvantages holding back development for the disadvantaged and potential EIIP contributions to mitigate	20
Exhibit 3: Theory of Change of EIIP development impacts	22
Exhibit 4: Steps in the appraisal of development impacts of EIIP projects	25
Exhibit 5: EIIP projects between 2012 and 2022 - projects included and excluded in this appraisal.....	27

Exhibit 6: Appraising impacts and types of evidence.....	30
Exhibit 7: Types of longer-term impacts evidence.....	31
Exhibit 8: Causal pattern types.....	34
Exhibit 9: Types of development effects related to improved rural roads.....	43
Exhibit 10: Road investment and rural development – selected evidence	44
Exhibit 11: List of countries included in the study	51
Exhibit 12: Level of confidence in evidence	53
Exhibit 13: Strength of longer-term impacts	53
Exhibit 14: Cambodia - Ratings of evidence and impact	56
Exhibit 15: Greece - Ratings of evidence and impact.....	57
Exhibit 16: Jordan - Ratings of evidence and impact	60
Exhibit 17: Kenya - Ratings of evidence and impact	62
Exhibit 18: Lebanon - Ratings of evidence and impact	64
Exhibit 19: Madagascar - Ratings of evidence and impact.....	66
Exhibit 20: Mauritania - Ratings of evidence and impact	68
Exhibit 21: Mozambique - Ratings of evidence and impact	69
Exhibit 22: Papua New Guinea - Ratings of evidence and impact.....	71
Exhibit 23: Philippines - Ratings of evidence and impact.....	73
Exhibit 24: Case study countries and reasons for their choice.....	74
Exhibit 25: Mrs Alice Ewanga’s story of advancement	75
Exhibit 26: Cameroon - Ratings of evidence and impact	76
Exhibit 27: Development impacts of PMGSY investment in roads.....	79
Exhibit 28: Summary comparison of impacts on users of PMGSY maintained roads and non-maintained improved rural roads	82
Exhibit 29: India - Ratings of evidence and impact	83
Exhibit 30: Testimonies of two RMG group members	86
Exhibit 31: Development of RMG worker’ financial inclusion	86
Exhibit 32: Nepal – Ratings of evidence and impact.....	88
Exhibit 33: Knowledge products developed with ILO support	91
Exhibit 34: New areas of ILO support to LDPWRI in Phase 4	92
Exhibit 35: South Africa - Ratings of evidence and impact	93
Exhibit 36: Tanzania - Ratings of evidence and impact.....	97
Exhibit 37: Timor-Leste - ERA-AF intervention dimensions	99
Exhibit 38: Improvement in access on roads constructed under ERA-AF.....	102
Exhibit 39: Case studies of beneficiaries of the ERA-AF project.....	102
Exhibit 40: Timor-Leste – Ratings of evidence and impact	105
Exhibit 41: Overview of impact ratings of countries.....	111
Exhibit 42: Modes and scope of EIIP interventions by country	112
Exhibit 43: Alignment of the longer-term impacts of EIIP with the four pillars in the ILO Strategic Plan, 2022-25	115
Exhibit 44: Climate change related elements in EIIP projects in selected countries	117
Exhibit 45: EIIP alignment with the Paris Declaration on aid effectiveness	118

List of Acronyms

ADB	-	Asian Development Bank
ADN	-	Agência do Desenvolvimento Nacional or National Development Agency (Timor-Leste)
AFD	-	Agence Française de Développement
AfDP	-	African Development Bank
AMP	-	Annual Maintenance Plan
ASIST-AP	-	Advisory Service, Information Services and Training (in labour-based planning and engineering) – Asia Pacific (region)
CBRM	-	Community Based Road Maintenance (Tanzania)
CCT	-	Conditional Cash Transfer
CfW	-	Cash for Work
CD		Capacity Development
DBTC	-	Don Bosco Training Centre (Timor-Leste)
DEVINVEST		Development and Investment Branch (ILO)
DFAT	-	Department for Foreign Affairs and Trade (Australia)
DPWI	-	Department of Public Works and Infrastructure (South Africa)
DRBFC	-	Directorate of Roads, Bridges and Flood Control (Timor Leste)
DLP	-	Defects Liability Period
DoLI	-	Department of Local Infrastructure (Nepal)
DoLIDAR		Department of Local Infrastructure and Agricultural Roads (Nepal)
DW		Decent Work
DWT	-	Decent Work Technical Support Team
ECES	-	ERA-AF Contractor Excellence Scheme
EGS	-	Employment Guarantee Scheme
EI	-	Employment Intensive
EIIP	-	Employment Intensive Investment Programme
EIIP	-	Employment Intensive Investment Programme
EIP	-	Employment Intensive Project (Keddeman)
EPWP	-	Expanded Public Works Programme
ERA-AF	-	Enhancing Rural Access Agroforestry (rural roads and capacity development project in Timor-Leste)
ERD	-	Estrada Rural Ba Dezenvolvimentu (Timor-Leste, also known as Roads for Development or R4D)
EU	-	European Union
FAO	-	Food and Agriculture Organisation.
FGD	-	Focussed Group Discussion
FTE	-	Fulltime equivalent
GoI	-	Government of India
GoMZ	-	Government of Mozambique
GoN	-	Government of Nepal
GoTL	-	Government of Timor-Leste
HABP	-	Household Assets Building Programme (Ethiopia)
HDI	-	Human Development Index
HIMO	-	Haut Intensite' de Main d'Oeuvre (High labour intensity, interpreted as employment intensive approach)
HQ	-	Head Quarters
ICR	-	Implementation Completion and Results (Report) (World Bank)
IADB	-	Inter-American Development Bank
ICT	-	Information and Communication Technologies
IDP	-	Internally Displaced Persons
IE	-	Impact evaluation
IHDI	-	Inequality adjusted Human Development Index
ILO	-	International Labour Organisation

ImpAss	- Benefits from assets improved and/or maintained by EIIP projects.
ImpEmp	- Long term impact on the livelihoods of project workers
ITU	- International Telecommunications Union
JCPI	- Jobs Creation through Public Investment
KTC	- Kisii Training Centre
LDPWRI	- Limpopo Department of Public Works, Roads and Infrastructure
LI	- Labour Intensive
LIC	- Labour intensive construction (South Africa)
LRB	- Local resource based
MGNREGA	- Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (India) – employment guarantee scheme commonly known by the name of the act under which it was created
MOPWT	- Ministry of Public Works and Transport (Leban)
MPW	- Ministry of Public Works (Timor-Leste)
MPWH	- Ministry of Public Works and Housing (Jordan)
MRD	- Ministry of Rural Development (Cambodia)
MRP	- Minor Roads Programme (Kenya)
NEP	- National Employment Programme
NGO	- Non-government organisation
NRRDA	- National Rural Road Development Agency (in India)
NSDP	- National Strategic Development Plan (Timor-Leste)
OCHA	- (UN) Office for Coordination of Human Affairs
OECD	- Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OSH	- Occupational Health and Safety
PBMC	- Performance Based Maintenance Contract
PEP	- Public Employment Programme
PDI	- Policy development and implementation support impact
PMGSY	- Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojna (Prime Minister's Rural Road Scheme, India)
PN2R	- Le Project National de Réhabilitation de Routes Rurale (Cameroon)
PNG	- Papua New Guinea
PRI	- Panchayat Raj Institutions (India)
PSAF	- Partnership for Sustainable Agro-Forestry
PSN	- Productive Safety Net
PSNP	- Productive Safety Net Programme (Ethiopia)
PSSN	- Productive Social Safety Net (Tanzania)
PwD	- Person With Disabilities.
PWP	- Public works Programme
R4D	- Roads for Development (Timor-Leste)
R4D-SP	- Road for Development Support Programme (Timor-Leste)
RARP	- Rural Roads Access Programme (Kenya)
RBM	- Result Based Management
RISE	- Research on Improving Systems of Education (Tanzania)
RMG	- Road Maintenance Group
RRMPIS	- Rural Roads Master Plan & Investment Strategy (Timor-Leste)
ROAP	- Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific (ILO)
ROAS	- Regional Office for Arab States (ILO)
RoTIMS	- Road Transport Information Management System (Papua New Guinea)
RuTIMS	- Rural Transport Information Management System (Nepal)
SDG	- Sustainable Development Goal
SME	- Small and medium-sized enterprises
SNRTP	- Strengthening the National Rural Transport Programme
SSA	- Sub-Saharan Africa
STREIT	- Support to Rural Entrepreneurship, Investment and Trade (Papua New Guinea)

TARURA	-	Tanzania Rural and Urban Roads Agency
TASAF	-	Tanzania Social Action Fund
ToC	-	Theory of Change
TOR	-	Terms of Reference
UNCDF	-	United National Capital Development Fund
UNDP	-	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund
UNTAC		United National Transitional Authority in Cambodia
USDOS	-	United States Department of State
WB	-	World Bank
WHO	-	World Health Organisation
ZIP	-	Zone d'Intervention du Projet (Cameroon)

Executive Summary

The study purpose and EIIP Theory of Change

The purpose of this study is to improve understanding of how the project implementation related activities of the Employment Intensive Investment Programme (EIIP) generate long-term development impacts which arise out of: (a) the benefits for users and the wider society of the improved assets, and (b) the employment and increased incomes of those employed on projects. EIIP projects typically aim to go beyond implementation and technical assistance towards sustainability of the pro-employment and employment generating effects. The sustainability aim is addressed by means of knowledge development, capacity building, policy influencing and technical advisory services at operational, institutional and policy levels built into the projects. The key cross-cutting aspects: (a) addressing inclusion of women, persons with disabilities (PWD) and other disadvantaged people, and (b) decent work conditions (fair income, equity in pay and conditions, occupational safety and health, social security, and occupational injuries insurance) are integral to EIIP projects.

Key issues considered in designing the study were: (a) specifying what constitutes longer-term development impacts; (b) determining the appropriate methods for assessing the impacts, and (c) the evidence available for assessing impacts. The methodology adopted has taken account of the interrelatedness of these three issues and the constraints imposed by the availability of evidence. The study has attempted to *assess* development impacts of EIIP projects but not attempted *impact evaluations* or *IEs* since *IE* normally refers to testing impacts of narrowly specified interventions by statistical methods. The methodology for assessing impacts in this study is based on a wider interpretation of impact evaluation which recognises that conclusions on impact can be drawn with varying levels of confidence depending on the nature of the available evidence when related to a Theory of Change (ToC) which is articulated below.

Development is interpreted in this study as the process of economic and social change leading to improvement in material livelihoods and wellbeing of people, in particular of the less well off, by reducing inequality and poverty. The word “wellbeing” has a wider multidimensional meaning to encompass “expansion of people’s freedoms and capabilities to lead lives that they value and have reason to value” (UNDP, 2022). The composite UN Human Development Index (HDI) attempts to capture wellbeing through indicators of “a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living”. The disadvantages which are obstacles against the less well off improving their wellbeing are: (a) limited personal or household capabilities and resources; (b) poor environmental conditions, which include the infrastructure, and (c) the socio-political barriers which exclude or limit opportunities for sections of the population. The EIIP approach contributes to addressing all three of these disadvantages.

EIIP projects encompass all or some of the following activities: (a) implementation of infrastructure works to create or maintain infrastructure assets; (b) capacity development (contractors and government staff), and (c) policy and institutional development support. These activities are intended to lead to: (a) improved economic and non-economic infrastructure assets; (b) improved capacities of contractors and government and local administration staff, and (c) changes in policies and institutions which could be deployed to sustain and extend the employment intensive approach.

The development impacts of improved economic assets, such as roads and irrigation, would be through better and lower cost access to markets and inputs leading to more and higher value added local production and services, lower cost of inputs and other products and improved economic and employment opportunities. The improved non-economic assets have varied functions and as a result varied development impacts. Construction of school buildings and health clinics improve access to education and health services. Improving community water supply meets a basic necessity and green works address preservation of the natural environment for its productive potential and quality of habitat.

Apart from the wider and wellbeing related developmental impacts of non-economic assets, their impacts on livelihoods could be through earnings from the employment depending on the level and reliability of earnings. Such earnings provide social protection if they are regular and predictable and over a period of time, such as in a public employment programme and enable households of participants to invest in human and physical assets to make lasting improvements in their livelihoods and wellbeing.

The capacity development and policy and institutional development and implementation support activities of EIIP projects are intended to enable governments and other agencies to sustain and extend the employment intensive approach and thereby amplify the development impacts. Important cross-cutting elements of EIIP interventions are decent work principles and a proactive approach to inclusion. Incorporation of these dimensions into the policies and practices of governments and other agencies would sustain and extend the development impacts of wellbeing at work and inclusion. The higher level impact of the EIIP approach is the contribution to resilience of poor and vulnerable people to adverse events and a peaceful, inclusive and well provided society.

Methodology and study scope

The features of the subject being examined which have a bearing on the methodology are: (a) the interdependent activities through which most EIIP projects work; (b) the multiple outputs and outcomes of most EIIP projects, and (c) limitations of the available evidence for assessing longer-term development impacts. The methodology appropriate for assessing impacts in this context is the theory based approach for drawing causal inferences where the ToC outlines the mechanisms through which the causes and effects are related. The methodology addresses data limitations by using a combination of formal, informal, incomplete and external evidence. Formal evidence is from dedicated formal studies of which there were very few. Informal evidence is from surveys and case studies which have relevance but do not provide rigorous evidence of impact. Incomplete or partial evidence is on proxy indicators from which development impact can be inferred, such as changes in transport modes and increase in traffic after improved access. External evidence is from studies of impacts of similar interventions in other locations and countries.

It is recognised that this approach for drawing causal inference requires judgement on the confidence in the evidence and the strength of impact. Ratings for these two aspects are used to form these judgements. The ratings on levels of confidence in evidence range from a rating of 1 for solely informal or incomplete evidence (for example from websites and limited reference in project reports or general external evidence) to a rating of 5 either from formal evidence or substantial informal, incomplete and/or strongly relatable external evidence. The ratings on strength of impact range from 1 for no indication of actual or potential longer-term development impact to 5 for strong evidence from a combination of formal, informal, partial and external evidence.

The sources of evidence for the study have been: (a) interviews with members of the JCPI team, EIIP experts in ILO regional offices and EIIP project staff, and (b) review of project evaluation reports and other project documents. The interviews were important not only for the evidence and sources of evidence for the study but also for their views on the nature and mechanisms of long-term development impacts. The focus of the study set out in the TOR was on EIIP projects implemented between 2012-22.

About 87 EIIP projects were implemented in 35 countries during the reference period. The projects varied in size scope and included some completed some years ago and others recently started. In some countries the engagement was through more than one projects and some projects were implemented over time in phases or through extensions. The initial screening of projects showed that in some countries the interventions were too small or short-lived for discernible longer-term impacts. Availability of evidence was also an issue for these projects and some other projects of some size and duration. The screening also showed differences in the country context and project features which were likely to have affected the nature and strength of development impacts.

Based on this initial screening, the decision was taken to conduct the assessments of impact at the country rather than project level and to include 16 out of 35 countries in the assessment (see Exhibit ES1 below for the list of countries included). In countries in which there has been a single project, there is no distinction between the project and country levels (for example India and South Africa). Examples of countries with multiple projects during the reference period are Cameroon, Philippines and Timor-Leste, though in the Philippines the projects were focused on responses to crises at local levels while in Cameroon and Timor-Leste the engagement was longer term in supporting implementation and in capacity development and policy and institutional strengthening. In Jordan and Lebanon the projects in phases over a number of years address the distress caused by the large influx of internationally displaced persons. Two countries (Cambodia and Kenya) are included for impacts of some significance well before the reference period. The project in Papua New Guinea (PNG) started relatively recently. It has been included for potential impact of a multi-agency

integrated project. A distinction also emerges between projects which were asset creation oriented and those oriented towards employment generation.

There are more detailed case studies of 6 countries (Cameroon, India, Nepal, South Africa, Tanzania and Timor-Leste). The remaining 10 included countries are Cambodia, Greece, Jordan, Kenya, Lebanon, Madagascar, Mauritania, Mozambique, Philippines and PNG. Of the remaining 19 countries not included, 14 are excluded either because EIIP interventions were brief and there was limited information or because the projects were too recent or continuing to consider impact. The remaining 5 excluded are Indonesia, Liberia, Somalia, Sudan and Tunisia. In these countries, and in particular in Somalia, Sudan and Tunisia, there has been significant EIIP engagement over time but the information available for inclusion in this study was too limited. The exclusion of these and other excluded countries does not imply that there are no actual or potential development impacts in them. A recommendation is included on how this document could be used as a base for adding assessments of impacts for more countries and improving the impact assessments of the countries included. The ratings are evidence based qualitative judgements adopting the causal inference approach.

The results and conclusions

Exhibit 41 in the report reproduced as Exhibit ES1 in the Executive Summary briefly describes the EIIP interventions for the selected countries and provides an overview of the ratings of confidence in evidence and strength of impact for development impacts through EIIP project activities. In the country level assessments numerous ratings for the outcomes and ratings are between digits. For example, the rating for confidence in evidence for Policy development and implementation support impact (PDI) for Cameroon of 3 / 4 is 3.5 in the Exhibit ES1.

The strongest confidence in evidence and strength of impacts across all the activities are for Timor-Leste and Nepal. In Timor-Leste the engagement was much longer term starting well before the reference period working through a number of technical assistance (TA) and implementation projects leading to the development and implementation of a national rural roads development strategy. Its scope was focused on the rural roads sector but within this focus the support was comprehensive. For Nepal while the evidence and impact ratings are comparable with those for Timor-Leste, the scope is much narrower, developing and providing support for a maintenance strategy for rural roads for an externally funded rural roads programme. The ratings on development impact through employment are higher for Nepal than for Timor-Leste because the evidence on impact on the livelihoods of rural maintenance group (RMG) members is stronger. For Cambodia and Kenya also there are high ratings but focused on CD and PDI and during a period well before the reference period. Notably there were studies of the impacts of the improved infrastructure for the communities benefiting from the improvements which have been largely absent or limited for other projects and countries.

The high ratings for CD and PDI for Cameroon are explained by the earlier support for a rural roads programme leading to support for the government in developing the national capacity and mainstreaming the employment intensive approach in government policy and allocation for HIMO projects in the public investment budget. The modest ratings for impact of assets created recognises the potential impacts of two current TA projects in two provincial cities. India and South Africa are examples of countries with sufficient actual or potential capacity. EIIP's role has been to support and complement national initiatives. In India the technical assistance had a narrow scope, to develop and implement an employment intensive maintenance strategy and operational system for a national rural roads investment programme. In South Africa it has been to provide broad scope technical assistance to the EPWP. The ratings for confidence in evidence and strength of impacts are middling because of: (a) the difficulty of separating the impact of EIIP TA from that of the programmes, and (b) insufficient evidence on the impacts.

Exhibit ES1: Overview of development impact ratings of countries and description of features of the projects

Countries	Ratings: Confidence in evidence / Strength of impact (1)						Brief description of the intervention, context and impact
	ImpAss	ImpEmp	CD	PDI	DW	Inclusion	
Cambodia	4 / 4	-	4 / 4	5 / 4	-	-	Started with emergency support in a national distress and weak institutions and capacities context. Pre-reference period substantial impact from assets created, capacity improved and policy developed.
Cameroon	2/2	-	4/4	3.5 / 3	-	-	Started from low capacity employment intensive rural roads programme. Later support to government to mainstream the EIIP approach in government policy.
Greece	-	4/3	4/3	5/3	2/2	-	TA to a targeted PEP model to address long-term unemployment with potential for replication.
India	3/2.5	3/3	3/3	3/3	2/2	3/3	TA to support maintenance capacity and system development for a national rural roads programme.
Jordan	1/1	3/1	2/2.5	2/2	3/3	3/3	Addressing the labour market and socio-economic distress caused by the influx of displaced persons. Employment generation oriented. Limited development impact of single episodes of employment.
Kenya	-	-	4/4	3.5/3.5	-	-	Pre-reference period impact through TA leading to strong capacity development and a national rural roads strategy. External financial support and national rural roads programme.
Lebanon	2.5/2.5	3/1	2.5/2.5	2/2	3/3	3.5/3	Addressing the labour market and socio-economic distress caused by the influx of displaced persons. Later exacerbated by the national economic crisis. Balanced employment generation / asset creation orientation. Low development impact of single episodes of employment. Potential of a PEP approach.
Madagascar	3.5/3	-	3/2.5	2/2.5	-	-	TA to support construction and maintenance of school buildings.
Mauritania	1/2	1/2	1/2	1/1	1/2	2/2	TA to provide skills and employment for youth and displaced persons.
Mozambique	2/2	1/2	1/3	3/3.5	2/2	2/1.5	Complementary policy development and implementation support. Designing and implementing pro-employment policies and employment-intensive projects. Stimulation of green Jobs through SME development and productive employment for women and female-headed households.
Nepal	3.5/3	4/4	4/4	2.5/2	3.5/3.5	3.5/3.5	TA to develop a rural roads maintenance strategy to complement a donor supported investment programme. Development of national and local capacities to implement the maintenance strategy and environmental and social safeguards.
PNG	1/2.5	1.5/1.5	1.5/2	1.5/2	2/2	2.5/1.5	Partner in an integrated development project. Transport infrastructure investment and maintenance for developing value chains for cash crops.
Philippines	2/2	1/2	1/2	2/2.5	1/1.5	2/2	TA support through multiple projects for developing resilience to natural calamities and water supply at local levels.
South Africa	-	-	3.5/3.5	3/2.5	3/3	3/3	TA to a national employment programme addressing the challenge of persistent high unemployment. Supporting the programme through capacity development and policy making and implementation.
Tanzania	1.5/1.5	1.5/1.5	1.5/1.5	2/2	3/2.5	3/3	TA to support development and implementation of a PSSN as part of the social protection strategy. Support for development of rural roads maintenance strategy.
Timor-Leste	3.5/4.5	2.5/2	4/3.5	4.5/3.5	3.5/3.5	4.5/4	Starting with emergency support from low-capacity and national distress situation. EIIP engagement through a sequence of TA and implementation projects. Comprehensive support for the development and implementation of a national rural roads development strategy.

Notes:

- (1) ImpAss - Impact of assets improved; ImpEmp – Livelihood improvement through employment; CD – Capacity Development; PDI – Policy development in implementation support; DW – Decent work principles; Inclusion – Participation of women, PwD and other disadvantaged groups.
- (2) The ratings between 1 and 5 are inserted here for all the countries from the earlier country by country assessments. Where the country level assessments are between digits, the rating in this table is shown as the mid-point. For example, a 3 / 4 rating is shown as 3.5.

The projects in Lebanon and Jordan are interventions at the humanitarian – development – peace nexus, where the interventions have been focused on humanitarian support in a distress situation. There is potential of social protection impact if there is transformation to a PEP approach. The ratings for Lebanon are somewhat higher for impact from employment because there appears to be a greater possibility of such a transformation in Lebanon because in Lebanon there is: (a) government policy level engagement through the adoption of the EIIP approach as a social protection instrument; (b) involvement of more government departments, agencies and NGOs in the EIIP project; (c) a wider range of activities including restoration of mountain trails, improving farm infrastructure and forestry works, and (d) the economic crisis in Lebanon makes the need for the PEP approach more acute. The ratings for Greece are high for impact through employment for the participants. CD and PDI are high but the size and scope of the project to which TA was provided was small.

The ratings for the remainder of the countries are middling to low either because there is insufficient evidence, limited size of projects and interventions or significant potential impact yet to be realised. There is further discussion of impacts of EIIP in these countries by modes of EIIP interventions which are not all mutually exclusive: (a) road maintenance model development; (b) social protection orientation; (c) contribution to integrated development; (d) TA support to national projects and/or policies; (e) partial, limited scale support, and (f) developing local resilience.

Road maintenance model development and implementation: This mode addresses an issue of key importance for the road sector by implementing an asset management approach to preserve and extend the development impacts of the road assets. The RMG based approach offers impacts in the form of improved livelihoods for women and men as demonstrated in the Nepal case study. India and PNG are other countries in which the model has been applied. There is large potential for adoption of the model in other countries reflected in one of the recommendations.

Social protection orientation: This mode is focused on development impact through employment for households benefiting from regular and predictable incomes as social protection to support and improve livelihoods of participants. The examples during the reference period are Tanzania and Greece in different contexts and on different scales. In Lebanon and Jordan there is need for this mode and potential. In other countries facing the challenges of youth unemployment and displaced persons such as Mauritania also there is need and potential. In South Africa, while employment generation is continuing and on a large scale, there is insufficient evidence to determine whether the length of employment and repeated access provide sufficient support to some households to improve livelihoods in a sustained way.

Contribution to integrated development: The STREIT project in PNG is the only clear and significant example of this mode included in the study. The mode has the capability to deliver higher development impacts because of the complementarities of components. The impact ratings for the STREIT project are low because the project is currently being implemented and therefore evidence of development impact is partial and limited.

TA support to national projects and/or policies: This mode is present in most EIIP interventions included in the study and demonstrates that support for national policies and development of capacities for sustainability of the employment intensive approach is integral to the EIIP mission. The countries in which impact through this mode is strongest or distinctive are: (a) Cameroon and Timor-Leste in which this role evolved over time to make a strong impact; (b) India and South Africa where technical assistance to national projects for capacity development have made distinctive impacts; (c) Mozambique where the support has been at the policy level; (d) Greece where TA supported a government programme, and (e) Cambodia and Kenya where there were significant impacts at policy, strategy and institutional development.

Partial, limited scale support: Two country examples in this mode are Madagascar and Mauritania. In Madagascar the support is for construction and maintenance of schools infrastructure through a sequence of projects. In Mauritania the focus is on skills development for youth and displaced persons on modest scales.

Developing local resilience: This mode is an aspect of the higher order impact “contribution to peaceful, inclusive and well provided society”. Cambodia and Timor-Leste are examples for the EIIP engagement which started in a period of crisis and instability which delivered impacts through a range of activities and

contributing to the higher order impact. Philippines included under this mode is in a different category. In the Philippines there was a sequence of water supply projects and climate resilient innovations in farming, such as land conservation projects, in response to typhoons as natural calamities to develop preparedness and resilience at local levels. Cameroon, Jordan, Lebanon and Mauritania are identified as countries in which there is potential of this impact. Cameroon has been included as “potential” because there was a project in two provincial cities in response to tensions related to youth unemployment and presence of displaced persons but the projects are short-term with no certainty of longer-term impact. The same applies in Mauritania. In Jordan and Lebanon there is evidence of short-term contribution to peace and stability and local resilience but no certainty of the impact being long-term.

There is strong representation of the rural roads sector in EIIP projects during the reference period. This is entirely understandable because of: (a) the identified need for improving access to address poverty and vulnerability through development impacts, especially where initial access conditions are very poor; (b) evidence on the benefits and development impacts of improved access; (c) suitability of the employment intensive approach for improving and maintaining rural roads, and (d) ILO EIIP expertise and experience in this sector accumulated over 40 years.

The focus of this review is on the contribution of EIIP to pro-poor development of which poverty alleviation is an aspect. Related to this emphasis is the highlighting of the need to direct more resources to alleviate the rural infrastructure deficit as an aspect of pro-poor development. The case for improving rural roads to improve access for poorly served rural populations is not based just on its pro-poor effects but also on the high returns on investments where the initial access conditions are poor as the external evidence reviewed shows. A distinctive contribution of the EIIP approach is that it goes beyond making the case for more resources for pro-poor employment generating investment by developing approaches to put the resources to good use in implementing them in a range of projects addressing the challenges in different contexts as demonstrated by the examples of projects in this study.

The issue of whether it is the employment intensive investment or just investment which is the key element for longer-term development impact is important to address. If the impact is solely from the investment and not its employment intensive nature, the rationale for the EIIP approach would be based on the cost advantage of the approach and possible operational advantages of the LB approach in rural contexts if the case on these aspects is valid. The wholistic case for the EIIP approach takes account of the cost and operational conditions but is wider. It starts from the premise of the need to prioritise support for the poor and vulnerable in the development process and proposing and implementing infrastructure improvement and preservation strategies which seek to optimise the benefits for poor and vulnerable people. The wholistic case encompasses participation of the target population in decision making and implementing, using local resources and developing local capacities including those of contractors and communities. Arguably the EIIP mission and approach have contributed to shifting priorities and resources towards pro-poor development.

A contribution of this document has been to identify areas in which there have been demonstrated development impacts during the reference period and areas where there is potential of development impacts, including interventions in the EIIP portfolios which are under represented (e.g. green jobs). The areas of demonstrated and potential impacts offer a guide for direction for the EIIP programme going forward which are proposed in the recommendations below. Before moving on to the recommendations, the alignment of the EIIP mission and impacts with elements of the global development agenda are summarised.

The intended longer-term development impacts of EIIP interventions align with ILO’s development agenda expressed in three of the four pillars in its 2022-25 Strategic Plan: (a) stimulating the economy and employment with a pro-poor focus; (b) supporting enterprises, jobs and incomes, and (c) protecting workers in the workplace. The development impacts of improved economic infrastructure by the interventions and their being sustained beyond the projects are illustrated by the Cambodia, India and Timor-Leste case studies. The development impacts from the employment generated depend on whether they are sustained over time such as by employment programmes. Protecting workers in the workplace and inclusion impacts depend on the sustainability of decent work and inclusion elements in national policies and their implementation.

EIIP aligns well with Target 9.1 “to develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure...to support economic development and human wellbeing, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all” under SDG 9, SDG 1 (End poverty in all its forms everywhere) and SDG 8 (Promote sustainable economic

growth and decent work). Given the large rural infrastructure deficit (for example, about 1 billion people lacking access to an all-season road and the challenge of maintaining rural infrastructure), 26% of the global population living below the World Bank poverty line and the added challenges of climate change and forcibly displaced persons, the EIIP approach has a potential to continue to make developmental impacts through improving livelihood prospects and providing social protection. An important dimension of SDG 1 is the need to improve resilience of the poor and vulnerable. Periods of employment offered by EIIP projects have the potential to make this impact if deployed in the PEP mode.

While only a small number of projects in the study were solely targeted at combating climate change (SDG 13), all recent projects are sensitive to climate change and include responses to it (e.g. reforestation in Lebanon and implementation of road construction and maintenance in Timor-Leste and Nepal). Distinctions are made between defensive responses to climate change and mitigating responses which could provide a basis for developing criteria for assessing impacts. Defensive responses are: (a) adaptations of EIIP works to withstand or recover from the effects of climate change; (b) projects specifically intended to develop resilience to effects of climate change, and (c) projects specifically intended to protect natural and other assets (e.g. through flood and erosion control). Use of local resource based (LRB) approaches and project components extending forested areas are examples of climate change mitigation, albeit on small scales when compared with the global scale and scope of the problem. Two other considerations related to SDG 13 and climate change are: (a) that disadvantaged rural people are the most vulnerable to climate change effects, supporting the case for EIIP interventions to improve and preserve infrastructure assets and develop resilience, and (b) the potential adverse climate change effects of increased economic activity and the need for national policies to control them.

EIIP principles and approach as a provider of TA or implementer of development projects aligns well with the OECD Paris Declaration on aid effectiveness which sets out five principles for improving the quality of aid and its impact on development. The Paris Declaration principles are: (a) developing countries taking ownership of their development strategies; (b) alignment of donor countries with developing countries' strategies and using national systems and institutions; (c) better coordination between developing countries and donors in their actions; (d) adopting a results oriented approach, and (e) being mutually accountable for the results.

Recommendations

The recommendations following on from the conclusions fall into two categories: (a) related to collection and presentation of evidence for assessing impacts, and (b) arising from the assessments of impacts.

Recommendations on evidence collection and presentation

The purposes of conducting development impact assessments are to: (a) improve the design of future projects; (b) inform actual and potential development partners (national stakeholders, providers of finance and collaborating agencies), and (c) strengthen the case for more EIIP initiatives. The challenges of assessing impacts of EIIP projects are the multiple means by which more than one development impacts arise and the time over which they evolve, some after projects end. Recommendations 1 to 4 address these challenges.

Recommendation 1: Make provision for assessing impacts independently of projects, either through a dedicated unit or personnel or by arrangement with ILO EVAL, if such an arrangement is possible, to enable a more rounded assessment of impacts to encompass those which evolve after projects end. An added advantage of such follow ups would be to identify issues which may be preventing the full impacts of projects to be realised and to advise stakeholders of what is needed to rectify the situation and make the case for further interventions if required.

Recommendation 2: Develop theories of change for projects and use them as a basis for identifying the impacts and develop an impact assessment plan differentiating between data collection and assessments to be undertaken during the project and after. The theory based approach for drawing causal inferences where the ToC outlines the mechanisms through which the causes and effects are related is recommended. The approach would lead to specifying a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection and analysis. Whether the plan could incorporate assessment of impacts after the end of projects would depend on whether Recommendation 1 is adopted.

Recommendation 3: Related to Recommendation 2, incorporating data collection plans and their implementation while the project is in progress are recommended. This would require specifying the data

requirements and setting up baseline and endline quantitative and qualitative data collection based on the theory based approach (also see Recommendation 4 below). Project LogFrames or results matrices could be adapted to incorporate these.

Recommendation 4: Develop reports giving accounts of actual and potential development impacts while projects are being implemented. The reports could be living documents during the projects reporting on the baseline, mid-line and endline surveys and other formal and informal evidence. They could include multi-media elements through links to videos of interviews and other evidence on project impacts and to external evidence. If recommendations 2 and 3 are accepted, the required evidence for such reports would be available. The ERA-AF meta-analysis document (Uriyo, 2022) has a number of elements of such a document.

Recommendations arising from the assessment of impacts

Recommendation 5: There is much greater need in other countries for the rural roads maintenance strategy and implementation model developed and adopted in India and Nepal. It is recommended that the potential for partnerships with the World Bank and other agencies financing investment in rural roads similar to the partnerships with the World Bank in India and Nepal is explored. The exploration would involve data collection to identify projects, screening to narrow down target countries and projects and proposing business cases for EIIP involvement.

Recommendation 6: There is need for investment in rural roads based on evidence on the proportion of rural people with inadequate access and demonstrated development impacts of improved roads. As for maintenance projects, partnerships with agencies which finance rural road projects is important for increasing activities in this area. As for recommendation 5, identifying potential target countries and projects and proposing business cases for EIIP involvement is recommended.

Recommendation 7: ILO EIIP is engaged in a number of projects at the humanitarian – development – peace nexus, some on large scales such as in Lebanon and Jordan, others of more recent origin and on smaller scales. Given the limited livelihood improvement impact of one off or episodic EIIP employment opportunities, collaboration with governments and development partners for scoping transition to PEP / Productive safety net models is recommended. National resources are unlikely to be sufficient in most countries and in some countries the need is more acute because of the presence of internationally displaced persons. These circumstances justify international financial support.

Recommendation 8: EIIP participation in integrated development projects was rare during the reference period among the countries and projects chosen for inclusion in the study. The most striking example is the STREIT project in PNG. Collaboration with governments and development partners for identifying integrated project opportunities with a view to developing initiatives is recommended. Recommendations 2 to 4 refer to developing and implementing an approach to assessing impact during project implementation. The STREIT project would be a good choice for testing the approach and obtaining results on impact for an integrated project.

Recommendation 9: All recent projects have adapted design and implementation to be resilient to the effects of climate change. While a number of projects included elements of adaptation to climate change, there was not a strong representation of some of the areas of new knowledge development and emerging needs related to combating climate change, notably green jobs, nature based solutions, promoting local technologies, combatting desertification and managing water resources. Given the seriousness of the challenge of climate change and its effects for disadvantaged people, the need and potential are large. Collaboration with governments and development partners for identifying project opportunities with a view to developing initiatives in these areas is recommended.

Recommendation 10: The limitations of this document related to the methodology and evidence have been referred to earlier. To mitigate the limitations for future studies, inputs are required from internal key stakeholders (the JCPI team members and EIIP regional experts and project staff) and external experts on: (a) interpretation of development impacts and the ratings, and (b) filling in any gaps in the evidence required to make assessments of development impacts of EIIP interventions more robust.

Recommendations 5 to 9 are ambitious and so it may be necessary to prioritise between them and geographically and initiate them through scoping exercises and policy papers leading to projects.

1. Introduction and context

The purpose of this study¹ is to improve understanding of how the activities, more specifically, project implementation related activities,² of the Employment Intensive Investment Programme (EIIP) generate long-term development impacts which arise out of: (a) the benefits for users of the improved assets, and (b) the employment and increased incomes of those employed on projects. EIIP projects typically aim to go beyond implementation and technical assistance towards sustainability of the pro-employment and employment generating effects. The sustainability aim is addressed by means of knowledge development, capacity building, policy influencing and technical advisory services at operational, institutional and policy levels built into implementation and technical assistance projects. The key cross-cutting aspects: (a) addressing inclusion of women, persons with disabilities (PwD) and other disadvantaged people, and (b) decent work conditions (fair income, equity in pay and treatment, occupational safety and health, social security where applicable and occupational injuries insurance) are integral to EIIP projects.

The study has been undertaken for the Jobs Creation through Public Investment (JCPI) Unit in the DEVINVEST branch of ILO's Employment Policy Department. The JCPI team at ILO Headquarters in Geneva coordinates and supports global EIIP activities and oversees the development of policies and new initiatives. In addition to the JCPI team, EIIP's Global Team consists of seven specialists based in the Regions and over hundred national and international experts. The Global Team implements a range of global, regional and country activities including implementing and providing technical assistance to projects, providing policy advice, preparing guidelines and promoting the programme.

In order to define the boundary of the study the agreed focus was on projects implemented during the years 2012 to 2022 which is referred to as the reference period for the study. The full list of projects implemented by EIIP during the reference period, including those not completed by the end of 2022, was provided by JCPI. Projects which were not completed by the end of 2022 were included. Appendix II shows the information extracted from the year by year data on EIIP projects initiated during the reference period, provided by JCPI.³ The Appendix shows project implementation and/or technical assistance to projects in 35 countries, mainly in Africa, Asia and Arab States. There is wide variation in the scope and type of engagement during the reference period. In Timor-Leste and Cameroon, engagement is over virtually the whole 11 year period while in other countries (for example Sierra Leone and Uganda) the interventions are more recent and as a consequence development impacts are unlikely to have emerged. In others there was insufficient information for assessing impacts. Longer-term engagements have much larger potential of development impacts but there are other aspects which affect the nature, size, scope and duration of impacts which are summarised here:

- The country context is important. Some countries started with very low capacity and lack of resources while others had the capacity and commitment to address the challenge of unemployment and underemployment.
- Not all assets have immediate productive or economic value. Investment in roads and irrigation works typically start having development effects⁴ through lower transport costs and more traffic and more productive farming. Investment in schools and health clinics have longer-term and wider benefits.

¹ See Appendix I for the terms of reference.

² The term "project" has been used in this report for employment intensive projects implemented by an EIIP team or technical assistance for projects implemented by other agencies, most commonly national. Larger employment programmes, e.g. the R4D programme in Timor-Leste and the projects in Jordan and Lebanon could be better described as programmes since they have been implemented in phases over time and included multiple sub-projects in the case of the projects in Jordan and Lebanon with multiple partners. JCPI and other EIIP staff also engage with member states to provide policy and technical advice.

³ There are 115 entries in Appendix II but a total of 87 projects since there are multiple entries related to some projects where additional funding is provided after the project start. This assessment in this study is at the country level. The rationale for this level and choice of countries included are explained in section 3.1.

⁴ Use of the term "development" here implies improvement in livelihoods through improved economic activities. There is more detailed consideration of the meaning of development relevant for EIIP interventions and this study in section 2.

- Related to the above, there is greater emphasis in some projects on asset creation while in others the focus is on addressing the unemployment and/or underemployment problem and the associated poverty.
- Where EIIP was active in a country before 2012 and still active during the reference period excluding the previous involvement may not provide a complete picture.
- There is justification for including some countries in which EIIP activities were limited during the reference period but earlier engagement in them had significant impacts. Examples are Cambodia and Kenya. While there were EIIP projects during the reference period, earlier EIIP engagements and their impacts were much more significant and have had lasting development impacts.

The presentation of methodology in section 3 below takes these and other aspects into account in selecting the countries included in the study.

Key issues considered in designing the study were: (a) specifying what constitutes longer-term development impacts; (b) determining the appropriate methods for assessing the impacts, and (c) the nature of evidence available. The methodology adopted has taken account of the interrelatedness of these three issues and the constraints imposed by the availability of evidence. These aspects are considered in more detail in the next two sections but some general observations are relevant here to set the context.

The terms of reference for the study specify “assessment of the longer-term development impacts” of EIIP. This study has attempted to *assess* development impacts but not attempted impact evaluations. The term *impact evaluation* (IE) has a specific meaning and is often restricted to testing impacts of narrowly specified interventions by statistical methods.⁵ This type of impact evaluation is not appropriate or feasible in this study because of the multidimensionality of EIIP interventions and their development impacts and insufficiency of formal evidence in most cases. The limitations of narrowly defined impact evaluations for projects such as EIIP have been recognised in the literature and alternative approaches have been proposed. This study draws on this wider literature for assessing development impacts. Section 2 draws on the development literature to specify what constitutes development and based on this proposes a Theory of Change (ToC) for the longer-term development impacts of EIIP to frame the study. Based on the study framing in section 2, section 3: (a) outlines and justifies the methodology adopted, and (b) sets out the approach for conducting the assessment with variable quality and types of data. Both these elements draw on reviews of relevant literature. Section 4 presents the evidence from assessment of actual and potential impacts followed by conclusions and recommendations in section 5.

2. Framing the study: Development impact and Theory of Change

Attention to framing the study is important because of the multidimensional nature of EIIP projects and the issues concerning the scope of the study, encompassing multiple projects and the challenge of incomplete evidence referred to above. The starting point in framing the study is to identify the ways in which the EIIP approach, linking “infrastructure development with employment creation, poverty reduction and local economic and social development”,⁶ contributes to development. The EIIP approach using employment intensive methods to improve or preserve rural roads and other infrastructure assets is complemented by the decent work agenda. While the infrastructure investment activity provides short-term employment, the assets created, depending on the types of assets, contribute to improving livelihoods or living conditions (e.g. by improving water supply and basic amenities) or addressing protection of the natural environment and address challenges posed by climate change. Further, EIIP has a wider agenda to sustain and amplify the impact on employment and improved livelihoods which encompasses: (a) preserving the improved assets to provide development benefits arising from the assets over a longer period, and (b) strengthening the capabilities and institutions of national partners for sustaining the EIIP approach for extending and expanding the employment and development impacts. The latter requires influencing policy and institutionalising the

⁵ There is further explanation of differences between IE and the methodology adopted in this study in Section 3.2 which specifies the methodology adopted in this study. Section 3.2 also cites sources in the IE literature on the restricted nature of narrowly defined IE which is not appropriate for all types of interventions. This critique of narrowly defined IE and proposed alternative solutions form a base for the methodology adopted here.

⁶ <https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/lang-en/index.htm>

employment intensive approach and ideally mainstreaming it in national policy and public expenditure frameworks.

Some terms related to the employment intensive approach frequently used in this report have been briefly explained here. The term “labour-based” (LB) refers to the use of appropriate labour and light equipment combination for effective and efficient infrastructure works and is used on programmes and projects where the emphasis is on asset creation or maintenance. The term “labour-intensive” (LI) usually refers to creation of maximum employment compatible with effective completion of the type of activity being undertaken. It is normally associated with programmes and projects with emphasis on employment generation, social protection and poverty alleviation. EIIP encompasses both these approaches and the term “employment intensive” has been used to include LB and LI approaches. The French term “haute intensité de main d’oeuvre” abbreviated to HIMO (High labour intensity, interpreted as employment intensive approach) is normally used for both LB and LI approaches. The term local resource based (LRB) is used for infrastructure works approaches which seek to make optimum use of local resources including labour and materials. It is often linked with community based works and local level planning, operation and maintenance.

The term “public employment programme” or PEP refers to publicly financed and government-implemented long-term investment programmes that directly create employment through productive activities with a high labour intensity. PEPs align with the LI approach referred to above. The primary objective of PEPs is typically social protection for those who need it because of shortage of employment opportunities or need to supplement poor household livelihoods earned from other sources. PEPs may also be partly or fully financially supported by donor agencies. Employment Guarantee Schemes (EGSs) are a type of PEP.⁷ The terms PEPs and PWP (public works programmes) are often used interchangeably. ILO EIIP differentiates between PEPs being a policy instrument for generating employment opportunities and PWPs having more emphasis on asset creation using appropriate labour-based and local resource based technologies. The term “employment intensive” encompasses PEPs and PWPs as programme types and the approaches outlined in the previous paragraph.

The EIIP mission as outlined above aligns well with a number of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs),⁸ most directly with SDG 8 (Promote sustainable economic growth and decent work) by providing employment on projects, compliant with decent work conditions, and improving economic infrastructure which supports economic growth and SDG 9 (Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation, in particular Target 9.1 “to develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure...to support economic development and human wellbeing, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all”). Further by providing employment in infrastructure development for poorly served, most commonly rural populations in improving the infrastructure, it contributes to achieving SDG 1 (End poverty in all its forms everywhere). The EIIP principle to include women and equity in their access to employment and pay and other conditions at work contribute to SDG 5 (Gender equality). Where there are social tensions because of poverty and insecurity or strains caused by movement of displaced persons, there is contribution to SDG 16 (Promote peaceful and inclusive societies through sustainable development). The EIIP Green Works offering and the incorporation of climate resilience in infrastructure investment contribute to combating climate change (SDG 13 “Take urgent action to combat climate change”).

The results based management (RBM) approach adopted by the ILO⁹ helps to develop the Theory of Change (ToC) to frame this study. For a conventional production process, labour would be solely an input in the RBM framework, but in Exhibit 1 which applies the RBM model to the overall EIIP mission and EIIP projects, employment is an input for asset creation and an output (decent inclusive employment). The activities are the operations and management processes which convert the inputs into the multiple outputs: (a)

⁷ There is further elaboration of EGS and other types of PEPs in section 3.3 which reviews external (mainly non-EIIP projects) evidence on development impacts of similar interventions.

⁸ The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted by United Nations Member States in 2015 sets out 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which are based on the premise that ending poverty and other deprivations must go hand-in-hand with strategies that improve health and education, reduce inequality, and spur economic growth while tackling climate change and protecting the environment.

⁹ ILO (2011) *Applying Results-Based Management in the International Labour Organisation: A Guidebook, Version 2.*

rehabilitated and maintained assets; (b) capable private sector contractors; (c) decent inclusive employment, and (d) strengthened institutional and technical capacities. The longer-term development impacts are related to attainments at the Outcomes and Impacts levels. The Outcomes level in Exhibit 1 identifies two elements, contribution to: (a) improved livelihoods from the income from employment generated and added value activities arising from the use of improved and maintained assets, and (b) sustenance of the EIIP approach beyond projects which would amplify the improved livelihoods outcome. The Impact level in the RBM (Exhibit 1) is the higher level dividend of the Outcomes in the form of a more peaceful, inclusive and well provided society. In the context of a crisis, the Impact level would be contribution to reduced livelihood distress and social tensions.

Exhibit 1: The ILO RBM model and its implications for EIIP

RBM model elements	Explanation	Elements specific to EIIP
Inputs ↓	Human and financial resources.	Finance, expertise (including management and administration) and labour. <i>Note that labour (employment) is an input into constructing and/or maintaining assets and an Output shown as “decent inclusive employment”.</i>
Activities ↓	Processes and actions which convert inputs into outputs.	Programme and project planning, implementation, monitoring and management.
Outputs ↓	The products, assets or capacities resulting from the activities.	• Rehabilitated and maintained assets • Capable contractors • Decent inclusive employment • Strengthened institutional and technical capacities for sustainability
Outcomes ↓	Expected effects of the outputs.	Contribution to the improvement of livelihoods through employment and improved infrastructure and sustenance of the EIIP approach.
Impacts	Long-term or higher level likely or actual effects.	Contribution to peaceful, inclusive and well provided society.

While the RBM model provides an overview of EIIP project related activities and their effects, a more detailed narrative of the activities and their interactions leading to outcomes and impacts is needed for the assessment of impacts. The initial brainstorming session with JCPI staff helped to elaborate on the RBM model and identify the means through which longer-term impacts could occur:

- Development impacts of the assets improved and/or maintained by EIIP projects (**ImpAss**).
These impacts refer to the contribution that improved or better maintained assets make for the target population, e.g. the rural population with poor access whose economic activities become more productive. There is a caveat with respect to investment in assets which have longer-term socio-economic and environmental impacts but no apparently directly identifiable economic benefits. This distinction between types of ImpAss impacts is made in the Theory of Change (ToC) for EIIP interventions outlined below.
- Longer-term impact on the livelihoods of project workers (**ImpEmp**).
This impact refers to improved livelihoods after project employment resulting from: (a) income earned being used for investment in human or physical capital leading to improved livelihoods, and (b) skills and experience gained from participation and any complementary training leading to more productive employment or self-employment. Even if project workers are not able to attain this type of long term impact, if a targeted public employment programme to provide predictable and regular levels of employment arises out of an EIIP intervention, there will be a social protection / poverty alleviation impact for the participants. Whether this materialises depends on the capacity, resources and commitment which relate to the following two elements affecting impact.

- Impact of capacity Development (**CD**) for continuing the employment intensive approach – private and public sector.
The impact here is not the capacity development per se but the longer-term development impacts the capacities developed could deliver through programmes outside the EIIP project and after the project ends. Capacity development of all relevant stakeholders is required. These include private sector contractors' technical and managerial capacities and public sector capacities at the decentralised local levels and in central governments to manage and support private sector implementation.¹⁰ Capacity development components commonly required in EIIP projects for their implementation form the foundation for capacity development required for the expansion and continuation of the EIIP approach. However, developed capacity is not a sufficient condition for impact as complementary government policies, resources and commitment are required to: (a) maintain the assets created to prolong the ImpAss benefits, and (b) sustain the development impacts of the employment intensive approach. An important related aspect is the development of sustainable training capacity to support sustenance of the employment intensive approach. The institutional context and resources need to be in place for sustaining capacity development.
- Impact of policy development and implementation support (**PDI**) is through national and local governments and other development partners adopting and implementing the employment intensive approach outside and beyond EIIP projects for improving assets and/or providing social protection and adopting the approach more widely.
Again the impact is not the adoption of policy, developing a strategy, having the resources, commitment and the institutional capacity, but the outcome of implementing employment intensive projects which have ImpAss and ImpEmp as well as DW and Inclusion impacts (see below). It is not sufficient for governments to adopt policies. The commitment, institutional framework and capacity to implement policies and projects are needed for this impact. Policy also needs to address the external conditions required to enable implementation of projects. Two examples of these conditions are: (a) recognition of the need for training and sustainable training capacity, and (b) access to finance for private sector contractors, notably local small and medium sized (SME) contractors who are most suited to undertake EIIP contracts. On the latter, for example the ability of contractors: (a) to access contracts depend on the procurement policies which are conducive for them, and (b) to secure finance which depends on the confidence that commercial banks have in the reliability of payment to contractors.
- Decent work practices impact (**DW**).¹¹
The longer-term impact here is adoption of decent work practices by employment intensive programmes and more widely. This is dependent on the capacity and policy development referred to above to incorporate decent work conditions in contracts for works and monitoring compliance.
- Inclusion (women, PwDs and other minorities) (**Inclusion**).
The impact here is inclusion of women, PwDs and other disadvantaged people in employment intensive projects and more widely. This is again dependent on the capacity and policy development referred to above.

DW and Inclusion are long-term development impacts in the sense that they are outcomes which address the disadvantages imposed by socio-political barriers (see Exhibit 2 and related discussion below). It is important to put the longer-term development impacts of EIIP interventions implied above in the context of the wider notion of economic development and their relevance for the poor and vulnerable. Narrowly focused, economic development refers to developing countries working their way up the ladder of economic performance measured by the value of output generated, Gross National Product (GDP) or Gross National Income (GNI). The premise is that higher levels of these aggregates for a country improve the living standards

¹⁰ This is assuming the typical EIIP model of implementation through private contractors.

¹¹ Decent work principles encompass adherence to International Labour Standards (ILS), human rights-based approach and gender equality (by including the principles of equal pay for work of equal value), decent working conditions comprising OSH aspects, occupational insurance and non-discrimination on gender or other grounds. Evidence of longer term impact is not the adoption of these principles on the EIIP projects but their adoption in policy and implementation on non-EIIP projects and other employment.

of its citizens. It is accepted by most that this characterisation of development is inadequate. It ignores how the fruits of economic development are distributed, in particular to the poorest and most vulnerable who are in most need. According to Todaro and Smith (2020) development is “a multidimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality, and the eradication of poverty”.

According to Sen (1999) income and wealth are not ends in themselves but instruments for “enhancing the lives we lead and the freedoms we enjoy” where freedom entails an expanded range of choices for societies and their members together with a minimization of external constraints on the pursuit of development for societies, households and individuals. The Todaro and Smith (2020) and Sen (1999) views are in line with Lewis’s (1963) statement that “the advantage of economic growth is not that wealth increases happiness, but that it increases the range of human choice” to enable greater control over nature and the physical environment to improve livelihoods. For Sen (1999) human “wellbeing” means being well, in the basic sense of being healthy, well nourished, well clothed, literate, and long-lived and more broadly, being able to take part in the life of the community, being mobile, and having “freedom of choice in what one can become and can do”.

The broader views of development focusing on human wellbeing, in particular of the most disadvantaged, and recognising the multidimensionality of wellbeing, resonate well with the UNDP Human Development Index (HDI) which is based on the definition of human development as “the expansion of people’s freedoms and capabilities to lead lives that they value and have reason to value.” Hence development is not just about meeting basic needs but to have opportunities to lead richer, more fulfilling lives. The annually published HDI is a composite index measuring average achievement in three basic dimensions of human development, a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living. There is also an inequality adjusted HDI (IHDI) to reflect inequalities in the three basic HDI dimensions.¹²

At a broad level, the disadvantages at the base of low human development and inequalities in human development are: (a) limited personal or household capabilities and resources for improvements in livelihoods and the health and knowledge dimensions of human development; (b) poor environmental conditions, which include the infrastructure, as a barrier against improvements on the dimensions of human development, and (c) the socio-political barriers such as traditions and customs which exclude or limit opportunities for sections of the population.

Exhibit 2: The disadvantages holding back development for the disadvantaged and potential EIIP contributions to mitigate

Disadvantage	EIIP’s potential for overcoming the disadvantage
Limited capabilities and resources	Improved transport infrastructure could improve access to health and education and support for improving productivity. Income from EIIP employment could provide resources to improve livelihoods and / or social protection, the latter if the work opportunities are provided regularly and predictably such as in an employment programme.
Poor environmental conditions	Economic and non-economic infrastructure are elements of environmental conditions which could be mitigated by EIIP investment.
Socio-political barriers	Inclusion of women and disadvantaged groups and their equal treatment contribute to reducing these barriers.

The limited capabilities and resources disadvantage is exemplified by rural households relying on limited amount of land and other resources and poor access to support for improving productivity, living conditions, health and wellbeing. Rural and urban households relying on unskilled and/or informal work for their livelihoods is a symptom of lack of access to education and resulting deficiencies in skills and knowledge. Poor environmental conditions are exemplified by inadequate access to the transport infrastructure or

¹² See UNDP (2022) *Human Development Report 2021/22, Uncertain Times, Unsettled Lives: Shaping our Future in a Transforming World* (New York: UNDP) and: http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/hdr2022_technical_notes.pdf

irrigation. The socio-political barriers could be against large sections of the population, notably large parts of the rural population and women, or minorities, persons with disabilities or ethnic groups. The EIIP approach complemented by decent work principles has the potential to contribute to the alleviation of all three types of disadvantages as indicated in Exhibit 2. It is the types of contributions and potentials illustrated in Exhibit 2 which make the link between EIIP interventions and the conceptualisation of development in the literature with wellbeing, especially of the most disadvantaged at its core.

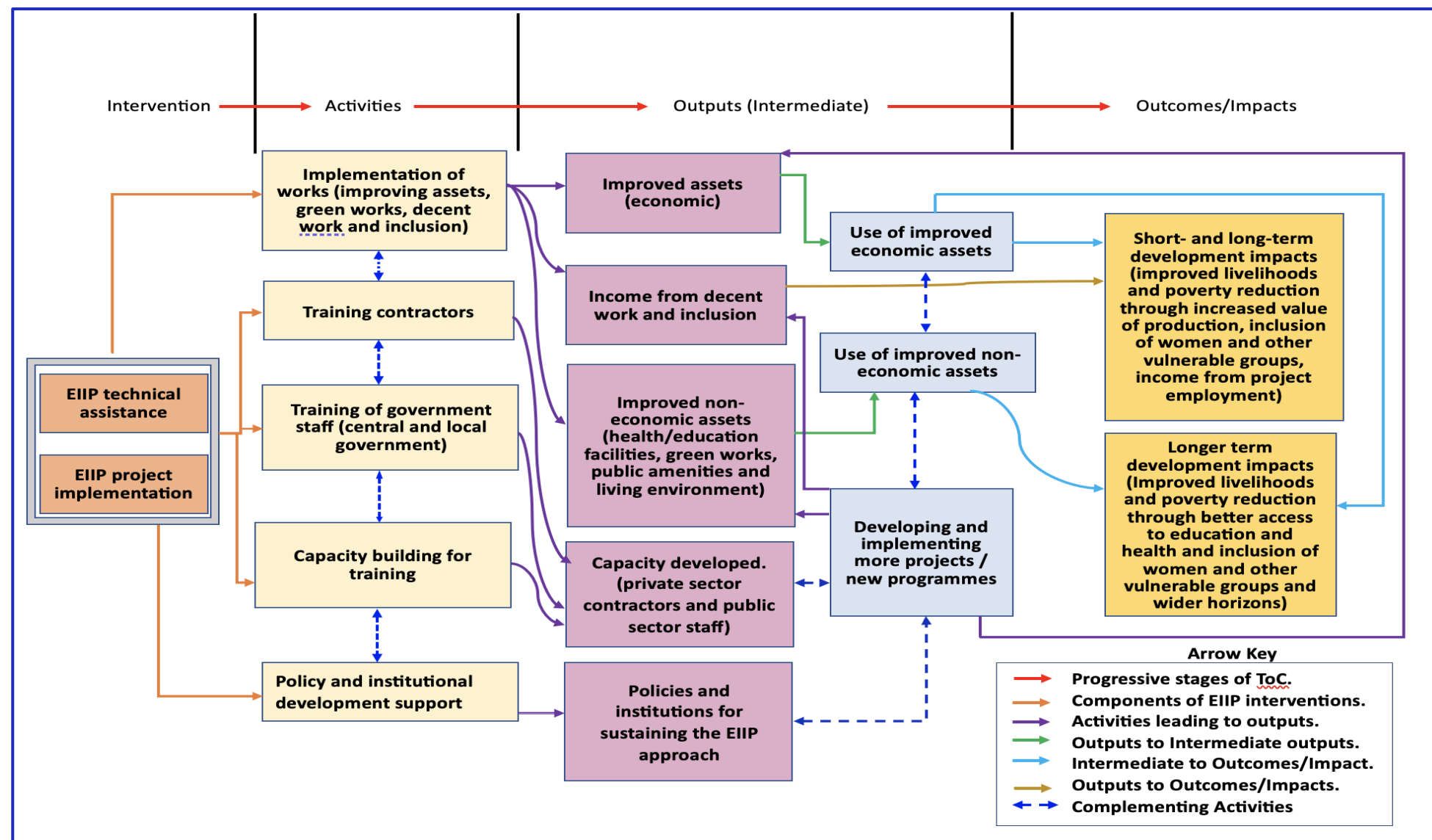
Based on the brainstorming exercise with JCPI staff referred to above, the human wellbeing for the disadvantaged focused notion of development and the initial review of evidence, a Theory of Change (ToC) for longer-term development impacts has been set out in Exhibit 3. EIIP projects either implement employment intensive works alongside technical assistance components or provide technical assistance only to such works. In both modes they encompass a number of complementary activities. The assets created or maintained could be directly productive, referred to as economic assets in Exhibit 3, such as roads, irrigation works or markets, or of wider non-economic benefits, such as green works addressing environmental challenges, meeting basic necessities such as community drinking water supply, construction or rehabilitation of school buildings and health centres and other municipal amenities infrastructure.

The development impacts of improved economic infrastructure, notably roads, is through lower monetary and time costs of transport stimulating more and higher value production and increased employment opportunities. The economic benefits of improved roads extend beyond lower cost of transporting produce, inputs and consumer products. Lakshmanan (2011) refers to the qualitative and dynamic effects associated with development processes, increased connections and flows of goods, people and ideas and resulting innovations leading to expanded economic opportunities and improved socio-economic conditions.¹³ In the “Longer-term development impacts” box in Exhibit 3, these dynamic effects are referred to as “wider horizons”.

The distinction between economic and non-economic assets is not entirely clear-cut. Roads as economic assets have non-economic benefits such as better access to schools and health clinics. Some non-economic assets (for example environmental, schools and clinics) do not have direct economic impacts on livelihoods directly through more productive economic activities but do affect wellbeing as defined above and have longer-term socio-economic and economic impacts. For environmental, the benefits are sustainability of the environment and productive natural resources such as forests and farmland and development of resilience to climate change. For schools and clinics, they are economic and wider wellbeing benefits from better educated and healthier people. However, in most cases the impacts are too long term and dependent on other interventions and conditions to be included as direct economic benefits. Projects which focus on improvements in non-economic assets, education, health or environment related and improving civic amenities are generally oriented towards livelihood support through employment. They could have longer-term economic benefits as indicated above or non-economic benefits such as improving civic amenities and the living environment and protecting the natural environment which are also aspects of development.

¹³ There are also potential adverse effects of improved access and increased travel such as spread of diseases, anti-social behaviour and exposure to harmful products which would need to be mitigated against.

Exhibit 3: Theory of Change of EIIP development impacts



Increased incomes from decent work for men and women on EIIP projects, whether asset creation oriented or employment creation oriented, contribute to improved livelihoods for the duration of employment if the increased income is additional to other income sources and does not replace such income. This is a short-term improvement which in most cases does not have longer-term impacts on livelihoods. There are two types of circumstances in which there could be longer-term development impacts from incomes earned from EIIP employment. The first is that the income from EIIP employment (or other employment intensive projects) is sufficiently large for project workers to take initiatives to overcome the disadvantages of limited capabilities and resources (see Exhibit 2 and related discussion above). The second is that if project employment is provided periodically over time and is regular and predictable, such as on a public employment programme, it has the potential of providing social protection. A level of security provided by such support is developmental in the sense that it supports the standard of living of the most disadvantaged, raises wellbeing and opens up potential for pursuing economic opportunities. The skills, knowledge, confidence and empowerment also contribute to improvement of EIIP workers' economic prospects after completing project work.¹⁴

Technical and project management training and policy and institutional development are often required for effective implementation for EIIP projects. The activities are training of private sector contractors and central and local government staff and support for policy changes and institutional reforms and strengthening (see "Activities" in the ToC in Figure 3). The outputs of these activities are improved technical and managerial capacities and policy changes and implementation (often requiring institutional reforms and strengthening). To the extent that these outputs are required for effective operation of the EIIP projects they do not strictly generate development impacts. However, the objective for including capacity development and support for policy changes and institutional strengthening in EIIP projects is not just to ensure effective implementation of projects but to attempt to create a favourable context and sound justification for sustaining the employment intensive approach beyond EIIP interventions, which is in line with the EIIP programme mission.

In Figure 3 the box "Developing and implementing more projects / new programme" by the country's government and other agencies supporting the country represents an "intermediate" output of the capacity building and policy development support. The development impacts are from the use of assets created and employment generated by these projects and programmes as shown in Figure 3. The complementary activities two way links represent mutually reinforcing outputs which strengthen sustainability. For example implementation experience on "more projects / new programmes" requires more capacity development and identifies policy and institutional aspects which need attention and the implementation experience helps to develop capacities. The two way links of "more projects / new programmes" with improved assets and their impacts strengthen the rationale for sustaining the approach. Capacity development, policy development and institutional strengthening leading to sustainable national projects and programme are typically difficult to achieve especially where the baseline levels are low and often require engagement over a sequence of projects over time.

The EIIP approach and projects incorporate the ILO cross-cutting themes of decent work and inclusion principles. Decent work and inclusion are included in the ToC in Figure 3 as the "Income from decent work and inclusion" output which leads to the "income from employment" impact for project workers.¹⁵ The inclusion aspect refers to the developmental impact reaching disadvantaged groups (inclusion on equal terms of women and PwDs and other disadvantaged groups including minorities). Decent work and inclusion principles and practice are included in the capacity building and policy support elements of EIIP projects. Whether there are development impacts on these aspects beyond EIIP projects depends on whether they are retained in national projects and policies and in the initiatives of other agencies. In summary, development impacts are the benefits arising out of the improved assets and EIIP employment for the target population and the sustainability and expansion of these benefits from the adoption of policies and projects

¹⁴ This aspect of EIIP impact has not been explicitly addressed in this study in any detail, reference is made to it in case studies where there is evidence. Confidence and empowerment are of particular importance for women, PwDs and other disadvantaged groups. Also see discussion below of the cross-cutting themes of decent work and inclusion.

¹⁵ Whether income from employment makes a development or social protection impact at the household level depends on whether it is sufficiently large or is paid at regular intervals as explained earlier in this section and later in the report.

as shown by the “Developing and implementing more projects / new programmes” output through the capacities and policies developed and implemented in Exhibit 3.

Where EIIP projects respond to crises they are at the humanitarian – development – peace nexus.¹⁶ Humanitarian support is provided through short-term employment to those affected by the crisis. The potential developmental impact is through the assets created and social protection if the crisis response is followed by an employment programme approach. Development of the resilience of poor and vulnerable sections of the population to cope with crises is an aspect of social protection which contributes to the reduction of tensions and peace. This relates to the higher-level impact of peaceful, inclusive and well provided society (see Exhibit 1). While this higher order impact is not shown in Exhibit 3 it is included in Exhibit 1 and arguably is an important ingredient of wellbeing and as such a development impact.

The ToC in Exhibit 3 has been used as the framework for examining the evidence from selected EIIP projects in this study. There are however challenges because of the wide range of projects undertaken and these being at different stages and with differing actual or potential developmental impacts. The approach to identify and assess complex projects with multiple dimensions and objectives and where the information available is only partial are other challenges. These aspects are addressed in section 3 (Methodology and related literature review). Unusually the literature review is incorporated in the methodology section because it serves the purposes of: (a) helping to specify the approach to assess impact appropriate for the EIIP context, and (b) reviewing the external evidence required to supplement evidence on EIIP projects for identifying and assessing longer-term development impacts.

3. Methodology and related literature review

3.1 The process and identification of projects included

The methodology developed in consultation with JCPI staff is essentially exploratory. Exhibit 4 sets out the steps followed. Initial review of EIIP documents including selected evaluation reports and the brainstorming exercise referred to in the previous section provided the foundation for developing the Theory of Change for framing the study. Within this frame, the approach adopted consisted of:

- Organising and gathering information about the projects through evaluation reports, interviews with members of the JCPI team, experts based in ILO regional offices¹⁷ and project staff and other relevant sources shared by the JCPI team.
- Reviewing project evaluation reports, documents supplied by JCPI and other sources for evidence on development impacts for the projects in the list supplied by JCPI.
- Screening the full list of projects supplied by JCPI using EIIP engagement and data availability criteria (see below).
- Conducting assessments of development impacts of the selected projects based on evidence in the documents and other evidence not captured in the documents, for example evidence from and views on key informants’ views on long-term development impacts of projects.

The list of EIIP projects which were implemented between 2012 and 2022 (see Appendix II) varied in size and scope and included some completed some years ago and others recently started. In some countries the engagement was through a sequence of projects in some continuing beyond 2022. The list in Appendix II excludes regional policy and coordination related initiatives included in the list provided by JCPI.¹⁸ Based on the initial examination of the list of projects alongside the available evidence the following conclusions were reached:

¹⁶ See Oxfam (2019) (*The humanitarian-development-peace nexus: What does it mean for multi-mandated organizations? Oxfam Discussion Paper*) and ILO (2021) (*Employment and decent work in the humanitarian-development-peace nexus, Geneva: ILO*) on this important area of EIIP engagement.

¹⁷ See Appendix III for a list of persons at the JCPI brainstorming session and interviewed. The appendix also includes names of persons who were consulted for the EIIP employment impact study (Vaidya, 2021) most people sister they will be anxious about it ladies and provided information and insights relevant for this study.

¹⁸ Examples of regional programmes were the Regional Asia Employment promotion in disaster response (2014) and Regional Africa (Burkina Faso) EIIP component of Joint Regional Support Program for the Implementation of Cross-Border Cooperation Activities (2020).

- In some countries the interventions were too small or short-lived for discernible longer-term impacts and these were to be excluded. Availability of evidence was also an issue.
- In some others, while there were projects of some size and duration the available evidence was limited and therefore the appraisal of impact could only be at a general level.
- In some countries EIIP engagement was substantial and through a sequence of projects.
- In others EIIP intervention complemented national programmes.
- As noted in section 1, the country context is important and some development impacts, notably sustainability of the EIIP approach, take some time to evolve. Impacts in some cases also depended on engagement before 2012.

Based on the above conclusions the decision was taken to conduct the assessment at the country level rather than at the project level. In countries in which there has been a single project, there is no distinction between the project and country levels (for example India and South Africa). Examples of countries with multiple projects during the reference period are Cameroon, Philippines and Timor-Leste. Regional EIIP initiatives are excluded as falling outside the ToR for this assignment with the focus on development impacts of country level projects. As noted earlier, some countries (Cambodia and Kenya) are included for impacts of some significance well before the reference period. The project in Papua New Guinea (PNG) started relatively recently. It has been included for potential impact of a multi-agency integrated project.

Exhibit 4: Steps in the appraisal of development impacts of EIIP projects

Activities	
1	Systematically review the EIIP documents including evaluation reports to gain familiarity with the Programme.
2	Organize a brainstorming session with the EIIP team to initially identify and map the development impact of EIIP work. Agree on the topics to be explored in this consultancy. Agree on relevant development frameworks to be considered. Given the multitude of objectives and impacts of the EIIP it is necessary to agree and be specific about the objectives and scope of the exercise, types of EIIP interventions and the potential areas of impacts (impacts) before the actual analysis starts.
3	Review relevant global development frameworks including relevant ILO policies and frameworks and determine how EIIP work contributes to these frameworks through its development impacts.
4	Collection of information and data through interviews with the EIIP team at HQ, the EIIP specialists in the regional DWTs and technical cooperation staff (and possibly national partners) working on projects. Review of relevant documents, websites, project reports and evaluations.
5	Draft the report identifying and describing development impacts and contributions to the global development agenda (relevant frameworks). Illustrate as much as possible with ILO EIIP project (evaluation) examples.
6	Present and discuss the draft report with the EIIP team in Geneva.
7	Finalize report based on comments received.
8	Prepare a draft brief brochure (6 or 8 pages with photographs, graphs, text boxes with examples etc)) summarizing the impacts of EIIP work (including the immediate employment impacts as researched last year) that can be used as promotional material.
9	Share the draft brochure with EIIP team.
10	Finalize the brochure based on comments received.

The appraisal in this assignment includes 16 of the 35 countries in the initial list supplied by JCPI. Of the 16 countries, there are more detailed case studies of 6 shaded ochre in Exhibit 5 (Cameroon, India, Nepal, South Africa, Tanzania and Timor-Leste). The remaining 10 included countries are Cambodia, Greece, Jordan, Kenya, Lebanon, Madagascar, Mauritania, Mozambique, Philippines and PNG. Of the remaining 19 countries not included, 14 are excluded either because EIIP interventions were brief and there was limited information or because the projects were too recent or continuing to consider impact. The remaining 5 excluded are Indonesia, Liberia, Somalia, Sudan and Tunisia. In these countries, and in particular in Somalia, Sudan and Tunisia, there has been significant EIIP engagement over time but the information available for inclusion in this assignment was too limited.

The exclusion of these and other excluded countries does not imply that there are no actual or potential development impacts in them. A limitation of this study is availability of evidence which has restricted the number of countries included. Data limitations have also constrained the appraisal of impacts for the countries included. The approach adopted to deal with data limitations is outlined below.

As noted earlier, the main issues to be addressed were: (a) the choice of methodology for assessing development impacts, and (b) conducting the assessments within the constraints of available evidence. The two issues are interrelated since availability of evidence and the nature of evidence have implications for the method which could be used. The substantive assessment methodology issue is addressed in section 3.2 with reference to literature on assessing projects which have multiple impacts, some with qualitative indicators of attainment, and multiple activities and outputs for achieving them. The methodology adopted required some reliance on evidence of impacts from similar non-EIIP interventions and impacts of EIIP interventions before the reference period. These are referred to as “external” evidence. It was necessary to rely on external evidence because of limitations of evidence which are addressed in the rest of this section.

Exhibit 5: EIIP projects between 2012 and 2022 - projects included and excluded in this appraisal

Country	Projects information	Years	Inclusion status for study
Afghanistan	Decent jobs through rehabilitation and maintenance of priority public infrastructure and decent work as part of crisis response.	2022	Not included. Too recent for impact.
Cambodia	COVID-19 socio-economic recovery for returning migrants and host communities in north-west Cambodia	2021	Included for pre-2012 engagement and impact. The 2021 project is too recent for impact.
Cameroon	8 TA projects to support a rural roads rehabilitation programme, urban works for youth employment and capacity and policy development support.	2013-2022	Case Study. EIIP engagement over long duration through various projects. Evidence of impact at policy level.
Comoros	Assistance for strengthening of political and institutional environment for employment creation.	2017	Not Included. Small, short-term project.
Congo (Democratic Republic)	Multisectoral Development and Urban Resilience Project in Kinshasa City. Intervention on a small scale and fairly recent to identify evidence for long-term impact.	2021	Not included. Too recent for impact.
Ethiopia	Disaster resilience work through labour intensive water sector works. Employment opportunity generation for host and refugee communities under PROSPECTS. ¹⁹	2019-21	Not included. Too recent. Limited information.
Gambia	Peace Building through employment opportunity creation. Short small scale intervention	2018	Not Included. Small, short-term project.
Greece	Support to a National Employment Programme: A new generation of public works schemes.	2016	Included. Actual and potential social protection impacts.
Guinea Bissau	Support programme for job creation. Short interventions.	2012, 2013	Not included. Insufficient data. Short interventions.
India	Technical Assistance (TA) to PMGSY Rural Road Maintenance programme.	2012, 2016	Included. TA to a large national programme.
Indonesia	3 Projects. 2 rural access capacity building TA. 1 TA to a green livelihood generation project.	2012	Not included. Insufficient information.
Iraq	Jobs and education for refugees and other vulnerable groups through cultural heritage protection and other activities.	2019-22	Not included. Too recent.
Jordan	Employment generation through employment intensive approach in a long, phased project and additional implementation and technical assistance projects.	2016-22	Included. Response to internationally displaced persons crisis. Potential longer-term impact.

¹⁹PROSPECTS partnerships are initiatives in a number of countries funded by the Government of Netherlands for inclusive jobs and education for forcibly displaced persons and host communities.

Country	Projects information	Years	Inclusion status for study
Kenya	3 Projects. Youth and refugee and host community employment projects. 1 under PROSPECTS.	2012,14,19	Included. Lack of evidence on the programmes during the reference period. Included for pre-2012 engagement and impacts.
Lebanon	Employment generation through employment intensive approach in a long, phased project with focus on roads, water, sanitation and decent work opportunities.	2016-22	Included. Response to crises. Potential longer-term impact.
Liberia	3 Projects Labour based public work in water and sanitation upgrading and security for neglected communities	2013,15,16	Not included. Insufficient evidence.
Madagascar	11 Projects in response to the programme for education for all. Construction and maintenance of primary schools including as disaster response and skills development.	2012-22	Included. Sequence of education sector focused projects.
Mauritania	10 Projects for employment generation for youths, refugee and host community in construction sector.	2014-22	Included. Sequence of projects.
Mozambique	4 Projects for Employment generation for youth and vulnerable communities through rural road infrastructure improvement and skills and value chain development. Policy level support.	2020,22	Included. Sequence of projects and policy level support
Myanmar	2 projects in areas of peace building and rehabilitation of communities in a conflicted area post pandemic. One to support remittance dependent communities affected by COVID-19.	2015,20	Not Included. Insufficient evidence.
Nepal	4 projects including maintenance component of Strengthening National Rural Transport Programme (SNRTP) and livelihood support for people affected by COVID-19.	2014-20	Case Study. Impact focused on SNRTP rural road maintenance.
Palestine	Enhanced national employment policy in the Occupied Palestinian Territory. Recent Intervention.	2022	Not included. Too recent.
Papua New Guinea	Employment Intensive Infrastructure Maintenance (roads, airstrips and water jetties) to support productive value chains.	2019	Case Study. Included for potential longer-term impact through improved access and integration with agricultural support.
Paraguay	Pilot Project: Road maintenance microenterprises implementation plan.	2013	Not included. Short duration. Insufficient evidence.
Philippines	11 projects for employment generation in response to crises (natural and human).	2012-19	Included. Crisis response and preparedness.
Sierra Leone	3 projects. Employment generation through labour-based work for youth.	2012, 21	Not included. Insufficient evidence.

Country	Projects information	Years	Inclusion status for study
Somalia	25 Projects for Employment generation for host and refugee communities in response to crises.	2012-20	Not included. Insufficient information.
South Africa	8 TA projects to support implementation of the national employment intensive Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) at national and provincial levels.	2012-19	Case study. TA for a large national programme.
Sudan	6 projects. Employment generation through labour intensive road infrastructure maintenance work.	2016-21	Not included. Insufficient evidence.
Tanzania	3 projects for inclusive growth, social protection and jobs. Productive Social Safety Net (PSSN) in phases and support for RISE programme preparation.	2016,19,20	Case Study. Sequence of Projects. TA for national initiatives.
Timor-Leste	6 projects. Employment generation through labour based infrastructure works in rural roads. Most recent are R4D, ERA and ERA-AF.	2012-21	Case Study. Sequence of projects during the reference period and pre-2012.
Tunisia	4 Projects. Support programme for the development of underprivileged areas and integrated local development.	2012-21	Not Included. Insufficient evidence.
Uganda	Inclusive jobs and education for refugees and host communities.	2019	Not included. Insufficient evidence.
Vanuatu	Increasing the quantity and quality of employment in recovery and reconstruction after a cyclone. Short intervention project.	2015	Not included. Insufficient evidence.
Yemen	Employment Intensive Investment Programme (EIIP) and decent employment for women in Yemen. Recent Project.	2021	Not included. Insufficient evidence. Too recent.

Colour code in exhibit:

Included in study	Included – case studies	Not included
-------------------	-------------------------	--------------

The previous section identified the types of impacts and means of attaining them. Assessment of whether the impacts have taken place and their significance require specifying the indicators of impact, a baseline for the indicators, arrangements for collecting evidence on impact indicators and conduct of the assessment. There are challenges in planning and implementing such assessments. EIIP projects are normally planned and implemented within a logical framework (LogFrame) identifying activities, outputs, outcomes and impacts. Progress on achieving outputs and outcomes are monitored during project implementation. Mid-term and end-term evaluations assess achievements of outputs and outcomes and the potential of projects attaining the intended development impacts. A few projects also collect baseline data which could be used to assess impact.

However, many longer-term development impacts evolve over a longer period than project durations and in some cases require more than one project interventions. Further provision for conducting evaluations of impacts including the setting up of the impact assessment frame and the required data collection rarely exist. As a consequence data available for assessing longer-term development impacts are at best partial. The approach adopted in this assignment is to rely on a combination of available evidence, recognising its limitations.

Exhibit 6: Appraising impacts and types of evidence

Category	Notes and explanations
Formal evidence	<i>Evidence from dedicated formal studies based on comparison of baseline and endline data or other rigorous approaches. Such studies are not usually included in projects because of resource limitations and there may not be sufficient time to assess impact within projects. Mid-term and end-term evaluations report on progress towards or likelihood of achieving the impacts but rarely on achievement of impacts because of the nature of EIIPs and their impacts.</i>
Informal evidence	<i>Informal evidence is case studies of individuals or focus group discussions (FGDs) affected by the improved assets and/or project employment. There could also be formal or informal adverse evidence of impact. There are also surveys, for example of the effects of earnings from project employment on participants' households' livelihoods. However, they mostly provide evidence on short-term improvements.</i>
Incomplete or indirect evidence	<i>This is proxy evidence from which impact can be inferred, often by combining it with external evidence (see below in the exhibit) or informal evidence. An example is increased volume of motorised traffic and lower travel cost. While such a change is not evidence of development impact (for example improved livelihoods of the target population), it can be used in combination with evidence from other similar situations, the external evidence referred to below in the exhibit, to infer impact.</i>
External evidence	<i>This is evidence from studies of impact of infrastructure improvement and increased incomes for households from interventions similar to the EIIP project being considered in other localities or countries.</i>

Exhibit 6 makes a distinction between formal, informal, indirect and external evidence used and Exhibit 7 specifies the nature of the different types of evidence for the impacts identified. Section 3.3 below reviews the external evidence which could be used in the way explained in Exhibits 6 and 7. The approach adopted has implications for the level of confidence in the evidence and the assessed impacts because of the data limitations and methodology. This is recognised in Exhibit 7 with further elaboration and justification of the approach adopted in section 3.2 below.

Exhibit 7: Types of longer-term impacts evidence

Long-Term development impacts	Formal Evidence	Informal Evidence	Incomplete Evidence.	External evidence
Benefits from assets improved and/or maintained by EIIP projects (<i>ImpAss</i>) <i>(Reduced poverty or improved livelihoods of people benefiting from the improved assets.)</i>	Formal evidence from impact evaluation studies (for example, based on rigorous comparison of baseline and end-line evidence or between treatment and control).	Individual or group testimonies or evidence from surveys that improved assets have increased incomes from productive activities.	For roads, increase in traffic volume and decrease in travel time and cost. Relevant evidence for other assets. Combined with external and informal evidence to infer impact.	Evidence from studies in other localities and countries to infer impact. But there are limits to such inferences because of differences in context.
Longer-term impact from employment on the livelihoods of project workers (<i>ImpEmp</i>) <i>(Sufficient income from short-term employment or regular income over time to improve livelihoods.)</i>	Formal evidence from surveys of workers before and during the projects and after a suitable time lag if the duration of employment is short and the project is small and short-term, to assess whether incomes earned and skills gained have enabled improved livelihoods beyond project employment. For continuing employment programmes of sufficient size and effective targeting, formal evidence is from surveys.	Informal evidence from individual or group interviews during and after project employment.	Surveys before, during and just after short-term project employment are relevant but insufficient for assessing longer-term impact for households in the absence of longer term follow up surveys or external evidence (but see qualification in relation to external evidence).	Evidence from studies in other localities and countries to infer impact. But there are limits to such inferences because of differences in context.
Capacity Development (<i>CD</i>) for continuing the employment intensive approach – private and public sector	Formal evidence is the demonstrated capacity of the private sector and the public sector (central and local governments and agencies) to implement employment intensive projects to improve assets and/or provide employment for the target population beyond EIIP projects. But capacity cannot	Informal evidence is demonstration of capacity but not effective if not complemented by government policy as	Incomplete evidence is demonstration of capacity through tests of competence or demonstrated competence, but which could not be deployed to deliver employment	Inference from external studies is not normally relevant since the context is important.

Long-Term development impacts	Formal Evidence	Informal Evidence	Incomplete Evidence.	External evidence
	be demonstrated if complementary government policies and stakeholder engagement are not in place and implemented effectively.	noted under Formal evidence.	intensive projects beyond EIIP because of absence of complementary government policies and stakeholder engagement.	
Policy development and implementation support (<i>PDI</i>) National government adopting and effectively implementing the employment intensive approach.	The formal evidence is national government adoption of policies and implementation of projects (asset creation or employment creation oriented). This requires complementary capacities (see Capacity Development above) and resource commitments and effective governance.		Incomplete evidence is partial adoption of policies and partial effectiveness in implementing effective projects and programmes.	Inference from external evidence is not normally relevant since the context is important.
Decent work principles (<i>DW</i>)	Formal evidence is adoption of decent work principles and compliance on national projects and wider, monitored through inspection and surveys.	Informal evidence would be from interviews with individuals and groups.	Incomplete evidence is adoption of the principles but weak compliance.	Inference from external evidence is not applicable other than for learning.
Inclusion (women, PwD and other minorities) (<i>Inclusion</i>)	Formal evidence is setting policy targets and achieving them through the necessary strategies, compliance requirements and monitoring.	Informal evidence would be from interviews with individuals and groups.	Incomplete evidence would be partial success in setting policy targets and compliance.	Inference from external evidence is not applicable other than for learning from similar contexts.

Note: The short forms *ImpAss*, *ImpEmp*, *CD*, *PDI*, *DW* and *Inclusion* are used for these impacts throughout the report.

3.2 Impact appraisal methodology: Literature review and specifying the methodology

A key aspect addressed in this section is the nature and robustness of the assessment of EIIP longer-term development of impacts that can be conducted. As briefly noted in section 1 impact evaluation (IE) is a well-developed discipline with respect to the principles and application. However, there are at least two distinct evaluation approaches each suited for different types of interventions. According to White and Raitzer (2017) formal IEs are empirical studies which quantify the causal effects of interventions on intended outcomes. The emphasis in formal IEs is to compare what has occurred as a consequence of an intervention by comparing empirically observed outcomes with empirically constructed counterfactuals. White and Raitzer (2017) cite IEs of conditional cash transfers (CCTs) in Latin America and the Food Stamps Programme in Mongolia. Both studies provided clear results of beneficial impacts and played a part in persuading the governments to scale up the programmes. In Mexico the IE process built into the programme demonstrated the positive impact of CCT on poverty and access to health and education.

The quantitative comparison and rigour implied in the White and Raitzer definition are appropriate where there is a single intervention and the impact is expected to be assessable in the short-term, such as effects of cash transfers for families. The approach is challenging for EIIP interventions because of the multidimensional nature of impacts and where not all of the impacts can be quantified or assessed by quantifiable indicators. According to ILO (2013) “Public Employment Programmes (PEP) have a wide set of impacts because of their multi-dimensional nature and the multiple outcomes they create.....All PEPs create employment, generate income for participants and create assets / and or provide services. All of these in turn should generate a set of impacts at the individual, household and community-level and depending on the scale of the programme at the local, regional or national level”. ILO (2013) refers to PEPs which have an employment generation orientation. The statement is relevant for EIIP interventions with asset creation orientation as well.

Stern et al (2012) highlight the need to broaden the methods of appraising impacts of more complex interventions of which EIIP is an example. However, Stern et al (2012) also recognise that there is “a trade-off between the scope of a programme and strength of causal inference”. The authors accept that it is easier to make strong causal claims for narrowly defined interventions and more difficult for broadly defined programmes. The authors identify four types of approaches or frameworks to draw causal inference:

- Counterfactual framework: Causal inference from a comparison between treatment and control groups which are otherwise assumed to be identical, also referred to as experimental or quasi experimental. This approach is illustrated by the CCT examples cited above.
- Regularity framework: Causal inference through frequency of association between cause and effect through statistical analysis. Where there is numerical evidence on variables and a sufficiently large number of cases with and without a treatment or varying effects of treatment, statistical methods can be used to assess impact. An example is assessing impact on households’ livelihoods and economic activities of being at varying distances from a road improved by a project.
- Multiple causation: Causal inference based on a combination or configuration of causes which lead to an effect or effects. An example of this would be an EIIP project being implemented with other development initiatives which combine to make an impact. However, most EIIP projects themselves intervene through multiple activities and have more than one outcomes (see the ToC discussion in section 2 and Exhibit 8).
- Generative causation: Causal inference based on identification of ‘mechanisms’ that explain effects, also referred to as “theory based” and “realist” approach. This causal inference approach is best suited for most EIIP projects and is discussed further below.

Exhibit 8: Causal pattern types

Causal relationship types	Examples and comments
One cause (the intervention) associated with one outcome.	Example: A livelihood programme aimed at immediate reduction of income poverty. Comment: The single cause – single effect relationship is most amenable to the counterfactual approach. It could be appropriate for direct benefits for households of EIIP project workers but often typically incomes from one-off short-term employment have limited longer-term impacts. Potentially there are longer term social protection impacts from predictable and regular participation in employment programmes. Formal evidence from studies using the counterfactual approach for this type of impact is not available for the projects included in this study. There is however some external evidence.
One cause (the intervention) associated with multiple outcomes.	Example: A programme to improve road infrastructure aimed at improving travel and transport, commerce, and access to basic services. Comment: This example used by Stern et al (2012) aligns with EIIP projects investing in roads. In principle counterfactual and regularity based frameworks (statistical estimation techniques) could be used to design studies to assess the impact of road improvements for people benefiting (improved livelihoods and access to basic services). However, such approaches cannot explain the processes and interactions through which the outcomes are achieved. The generative “theory based” approach would complement a regularity based approach to explain how the processes and interactions achieve outcomes. Again formal evidence of this type of approach is not available, but there is substantial external evidence.
Multiple causes (interventions) associated with multiple outcomes.	Example: A ‘deepening democracy’ programme which combines supporting election with training members of parliament and encouraging a culture of accountability in political parties. Comment: The multiple activities under EIIP projects associated with multiple outcomes aligns well with this causal relationship type (see the ToC in Exhibit 3 and related discussion in Section 2). The theory based generative approach is the most appropriate for assessing longer-term impacts of complex interactive processes with impacts evolving over different trajectories. The weaknesses of the approach are subjectivity and potential bias in assessing impacts and the limitations of the evidence base for assessments. This is the dominant approach adopted in this study with its limitations recognised.
Multiple causes (interventions) associated with one main outcome.	Example: Improving maternal health by a combination of improved neonatal services, health education, midwife training and targeting low income families. Comment: For EIIP projects this could be the case if the focus is one main outcome, for example social protection through a PEP, but most EIIP projects align with the multiple causes associated with multiple outcomes type above.

Source: Adapted from Stern et al (2012) with additional material.

Exhibit 8 shows four causal relationship types with illustrations. The suitability of the causal inference frameworks for the causal relationship types is discussed and the applicability of the frameworks for assessing longer-term impacts of EIIP projects is considered. The counterfactual and regularity frameworks

could be appropriate for some EIIP impacts if the evidence is available. However, the approaches based on these frameworks cannot capture the multiple impacts which evolve through multiple interrelated mechanisms such as those outlined in the ToC in section 2. The multiple causes – multiple outcomes causal pattern type within the ToC framework, which falls within the generative / mechanism based approach, has been chosen as the most appropriate for assessing impacts in this study. The terms “assessing impact” and “impact assessment” have been used and not “Impact Evaluation (IE)” to distinguish the approach adopted from the narrowly defined IE approaches based on counterfactual or regularity frameworks.

Pawson et al (2005) argue that the generative “theory based” approach stems from a “realist” understanding of the world view according to which a situation exists independently of the person observing it. The implications for this study are that: (a) different persons bring their own interpretation of real world situations, and (b) situations are context specific which is challenging for generalisation from one context to another. While this world view provides some freedom to the observer in interpreting a situation, especially of a complex situation such as understanding the impacts of multi-activity EIIP objects with multi-objectives, the risks are subjective bias and difficulty of generalisation as noted earlier. Both these aspects are addressed below and the related limitations are taken into account in this study.

The subjectivity can be addressed by construct validity to some extent where construct validity refers to measures and indicators being valid for the study. According to Stern et al (2012) where there is complexity, multiple interventions as causes and multiple outcomes, construct validity is based on an understanding of the world view which in our case is provided by the ToC. At the project level construct validity is based on the knowledge and experience of project participants and stakeholders. In examining the longer-term impacts of multiple EIIP projects in this study construct validity has arisen from the knowledge and experience of EIIP experts.²⁰ Nevertheless, Stern et al (2012) recognise that the strength of causal inference is compromised where there are multiple interventions and outcomes. Further subjectivity cannot be completely eliminated by the type of construct validity achieved, reliance on the world view of stakeholders.

The second issue raised by Pawson et al (2005) above is that even if the interventions and mechanisms are similar, a common outcome cannot be guaranteed. This position argues against the use of external evidence from other locations and countries. While there are challenges of generalising from context specific observations according to Pawson et al, it is possible to draw conclusions on some common patterns, for example improved rural roads leading to improved livelihood through increased trade and production though the precise nature and magnitudes differ between contexts. In this study we use external evidence, that is evidence from other similar projects in different locations (see Exhibits 6 and 7 and related discussion in section 3.1) with the qualification that while precise outcomes will be different between contexts, conclusions can be drawn on general patterns of impacts from external evidence. Further, the ratings of confidence in evidence and strength of impact address this deficiency to some extent. Since the study relies on different types of data and in the methodology adopted the strength of causal inference is variable, ratings for level of confidence in the evidence and strength of impact have been used in assessing impacts. These ratings have been set out and explained in Section 4.1 (see Exhibits 12 and 13 and related discussion). The limitations of the approach are revisited in the conclusions and recommendations section with suggestions on how and to what extent they can be mitigated.

For programmes which include longer-term impacts with varying and unpredictable trajectories, for example because of the complexity of the context and changes in it, assessments have to be adaptable. Even when rigorous impact evaluations based on predefined strategies and baseline and endline data are not possible, results monitoring and real-time, operational, action-research oriented and formative evaluations during projects fill in gaps in evidence and provide understanding of actual and potential impacts.²¹ EIIP projects’ progress monitoring reports and evidence from mid-term and end-term evaluations and other projects documents²² fall in this category of evidence.

²⁰ The JCPI team and other experts consulted.

²¹ The part of the paragraph up to this statement has been paraphrased and adapted from Stern et al (2012).

²² An example is the meta-analysis report produced during the ERA-AF project in Timor-Leste which is referred to in section 4 when discussing the Timor-Leste case study. The ERA-AF report is not a meta-analysis in the scientific sense

3.3 Earlier and external evidence of impact: Literature review

3.3.1 Past ILO reviews of impacts.

Section 3.1 has defined the scope of the study within the frame set out in section 2. It has also identified the projects to be included in the appraisal and acknowledged the challenges relating to appraising longer-term impacts with data limitations. An approach to forming judgements on impacts from the available data has also been set out in section 3.1 (see Exhibits 6 and 7 and related explanation). Section 3.2 addressed the methodological issue of assessing impacts for complex multi-objective interventions and some interdependencies and complementarities between activities, outputs and outcomes such as is the case in most EIIP projects. Further the potential impacts are over differing time horizons (see the ToC in Exhibit 3 and related discussion in section 2). In this context the approach adopted has made a case for using “external” evidence, that is evidence on impacts from similar interventions.

The literature review in this section summarises some relevant “external” evidence. The starting point is Keddeman (1998) which reviewed socio-economic impacts of employment intensive projects (referred to as EIPs by Keddeman). Before undertaking his review, Keddeman summarised the findings of previous reviews of public works type programmes and concluded that such programmes have been used in a large number of countries at one time or another to address short-term food insecurity and loss of income. A broad conclusion drawn by Keddeman is that these programmes were more effective in addressing the short-term objectives of livelihood support than in addressing continuing livelihood support and benefits from improved assets, in other words in making longer-term development impacts. According to Keddeman, deficiencies in: (a) institutional arrangements; (b) technical capacity; (c) political and resource commitments, and (d) local participation in planning and implementation were responsible for the lack of success in attaining longer term impacts. The deficiencies identified by Keddeman and the challenges of overcoming them have continued to be relevant. The effectiveness with which they are addressed has a strong bearing on how well the longer-term impacts are being achieved.

Another factor contributing to low performance on longer-term impact identified by Von Braun (1995)²³ was continuation of a workfare approach beyond crisis with little concern for the assets created. The evidence from previous studies reviewed by Keddeman was that longer-term poverty alleviation and development have been more difficult to achieve and doubts persisted about the benefits to the poor of the assets created through public works. The observations on the deficiencies and continuation of the workfare approach beyond crises set the scene for Keddeman’s review of the impact of employment intensive projects. However, before looking further into Keddeman’s review it is noted that the inadequacy of short single episodes of employment implied above aligns well with the discussion in section 2 on the need for predictable periodic episodes for social protection and country level evidence in section 4 on low longer-term development value of single short episodes of employment and the development value of regular income from employment.²⁴ Keddeman focuses on poverty alleviation as an impact. This is a justifiable focus since employment intensive projects typically aim to provide employment for poorer and vulnerable people and build infrastructure for the improvement of their livelihoods and wellbeing. Nevertheless there is a distinction between development impact which is the focus of this study, and purely a focus on poverty alleviation. The development impact of the EIIP approach would be expected to be pro-poor but go beyond poverty alleviation to improved wellbeing through pro-poor economic growth and expanded choices.²⁵

The Keddeman (1998) review included projects²⁶ which were primarily labour-based asset creation oriented and labour-intensive with an emphasis on employment generation though the distinction between the two

but a rounded account of project achievements on its multiple objectives combining qualitative and quantitative evidence.

²³ Von Braun J (ed) (1995) *Employment for Poverty Reduction and Food Security*. IFPRI (International Food Policy Research Institute) Occasional Papers, Washington, cited in Keddeman (1998). Von Braun (1995) is one of the sources for the deficiencies identified above.

²⁴ For example see sections 4.1.4 and 4.1.6 for examples of Jordan and Lebanon on the lack of developmental impact of short episodes and 4.2.3 for Nepal where regular employment in maintenance has developmental impacts.

²⁵ See the discussion in section 2 referring to Todaro and Smith (2020), Sen (1999) and Lewis (1963).

²⁶ Keddeman uses the term “programme”. “Project” is used here for consistency with the rest of the document.

to the extent possible could have been clearer. In all 27 projects were included in Keddeman's review, an important criterion being availability of sufficient evidence. The sources of evidence were varied and included impact studies, end-term and mid-term reviews, comparison with equipment based approach and economic appraisals. Over half were road projects, irrigation projects were the next largest category with the remainder being forestry, urban and multi-sector projects.

A difference between Keddeman's review and this study is that the former encompasses all socio-economic impacts, short-term employment generation and poverty alleviation as well as the longer-term impacts of the assets created while the latter is focused on the longer-term development impacts. Apart from the short-term temporary incomes for project workers, Keddeman considers the following impacts:

- Short-term Indirect and induced effects²⁷ resulting from the incomes of project workers.
- Possible impacts of the lower cost of the labour-based approach.
- Longer-term impacts of improved infrastructure.

The TOR for this study exclude consideration of short-term indirect and induced effects. However, it is worth noting that there could be some development impacts in sectors supplying inputs for infrastructure works and these would be higher for employment intensive approaches in comparison with conventional equipment based approaches. Further, where a sustainable employment intensive approach is adopted on a larger scale the indirect and induced effects would amplify the impact. There could also be capability development effects in the sectors supplying products and services.

Keddeman (1998) considers comparison of costs of labour-based and equipment based construction, mainly of rural roads, at some length. The benefits arising from using labour-based methods if cheaper than equipment based are categorised as short-term since they benefit the economy²⁸ by reducing the cost of constructing the given length of roads. There are however some potential longer-term impacts based on the evidence cited by Keddeman of lower costs²⁹ through: (a) construction of more roads from the given budget extending the benefits of improved roads to more people, and (b) governments and other agencies being persuaded to adopt the labour-based approach by its lower cost in comparison with the alternative.

At the time of Keddeman's review and earlier, comparison of labour-based and equipment based costs was considered to be an important issue and indeed it remains a consideration. However, in recent years it has been less important than other obstacles to the adoption and mainstreaming of employment intensive approaches:

- Chronic shortage of resources for improving the rural infrastructure for most low income and lower middle-income countries (LICs and LMICs), either because of limited resources overall or insufficient resources allocated for rural infrastructure.
- Limited technical and management capacity to implement infrastructure works by employment intensive methods.
- Lack of policy and institutional framework for implementing employment intensive infrastructure works.

These obstacles are in line with the deficiencies which have prevented achievement of longer-term benefits Keddeman identified. The ToC in section 2 recognises the need for EIIP projects to address these aspects to achieve longer term impacts through sustaining the employment intensive approach.

An important issue that the cost comparison raises is that the benefits from the use of improved infrastructure arise irrespective of whether the approach is employment intensive or conventional. The employment intensive approach offers the added benefit from larger proportion of the investment

²⁷ Indirect employment and income effects are in sectors supplying tools, equipment, materials and services for infrastructure works and induced effects are from additional consumption as a consequence of direct and indirect employment.

²⁸ The benefits to the economy of lower import content of inputs into labour-based projects is also referred to. The other advantage favouring the employment intensive approach put forward has been difficulties related to operating equipment in rural areas. While this could be the case in some contexts there are also obstacles to implementing employment intensive approaches.

²⁹ Keddeman compares costs in nominal terms and in economic terms taking account of the opportunity cost of labour.

expenditure remaining in the local economy and being pro-poor. A question arises as to whether a more compelling case can be made to secure resources for investment in infrastructure for those poorly served and for the adoption of an employment intensive approach. Evidence presented later in this section on investment in the roads sector shows that the benefits and returns on investment are much higher from improving basic access where initial access is very poor than from investment in upgrading existing access to a higher level.³⁰

Further there are local developmental impacts of the EIIP approach arising from the adoption of local resource based (LRB) approaches, use of local small scale contractors, community contracting (where appropriate) and community participation in decision making and implementation. Combined with the higher benefits and returns on investment, the case for adopting the EIIP approach directed at locations and people who suffer from infrastructure deficits is more compelling than one based purely on the comparison of costs of equipment based and labour-based approaches.

The longer-term effects of EIIP projects are defined by Keddeman (1998) as effects and impacts occurring after project completion. The evidence available for assessing the impacts was found to be scarce and diverse with questions about its reliability. The main reasons put forward for this deficiency were: (a) the number of projects producing sustainable outputs was smaller than those implemented; (b) there was less frequent collection of information after completion of projects, and (c) methodological limitations. These issues have also been encountered in undertaking this study. The first and to some extent the second deficiency have been addressed by the screening described in session 3.2 to exclude projects with no or limited longer-term impact and where there is insufficient information. The evaluation frame and the methodological approach outlined in section 2 and earlier in this section address the second and third issues.

Keddeman found that for roads the available evidence was on traffic and household surveys to determine increases in traffic volumes, savings in transport costs, volumes of produce transported and/or sold, together with prices obtained. Evidence was also available for some projects on access to health, education, law and order. Attempts were made to determine impacts by comparing “treatment” roads (improved) with “control” (not improved) roads but this approach was not successful where it was attempted. Distance from the road, as a proxy for the effect of road construction/rehabilitation was also not successful. The default method most commonly used was to assume that nothing would have happened without road improvement.

Two examples of impacts of investment in roads referred to by Keddeman were: (a) a road in Tamil Nadu, and (b) Lesotho Labour Construction Unit. The road in Tamil Nadu was estimated to have been profitable largely because of savings in the cost of transport of silk cocoons. The high benefit was attributed to the road improvement complementing a parallel initiative to support small and marginal farmers to cultivate silk cocoons. The calculated ex-post financial rate of return for the road was 62%, the main benefits arising from a reduction in travel distance and cost. The developmental benefits identified were for farmers benefiting from cultivating silk cocoons, in particular for small and marginal farmers.

The study of the Lesotho Labour Construction Unit requested local people to list impacts and uses of roads in order of importance. Access to banking services and building materials shops scored highest among the purposes for which the road was used. Purchase of agricultural inputs and access to butchery shops and restaurants also scored high. Few people reported using the road for visiting groceries, going to school, church or health centres, possibly because these could be accessed without using the road. The most significant time savings were in accessing the commercial services listed above. Keddeman noted that poverty alleviation was not included as an impact but the existence of a road was viewed as a critical precondition for poverty alleviation. Referring to an earlier study³¹ Keddeman noted that roads are likely to reinforce existing social and economic structures and stratification processes and as a consequence the poverty alleviation impact of roads is low.³²

³⁰ See reference to evidence cited by Starkey and Hine (2015) and Banjo, Gordon and Riverson (2012) among others in section 3.3.2 below.

³¹ Howe J and Richards P (eds) (1984) *Rural roads and poverty alleviation*. London: Intermediate Technology Publications.

³² But see the critique of this observation below.

Keddeman noted that longer-term impacts of improved infrastructure for the communities served were rare. At least in part this is because of lack of evidence to demonstrate impact. An exception was a study to assess the impact of the Kenya Rural Access Roads Programme (RARP) on farming. For the RARP, no significant impact on agricultural production was found but there was evidence of labour mobility. Studies in India found evidence of importance of local participation in road selection and design contributing to subsequent maintenance and the need to view road construction as part of other initiatives to support development. A number of studies reviewed presented evidence on access to health and educational services and to government agencies as 'social' impacts. Also, movement of people and ideas was generally assessed to be more important than movement of goods.

There are a number of points of relevance for this study arising out of Keddeman's account above on the impact of investment in roads. The first is the importance of context. There are differences in impacts between the Tamil Nadu, Lesotho and Kenya studies which highlight the importance of context and hence the difficulties of generalising referred to in section 3.2. Nevertheless, in all three cases there appear to be development impacts. In the Tamil Nadu case the evidence is on impact for farmers, increased value from a productive activity which appeared to be dependent on a complementary initiative. In the Lesotho case the benefits were better access to commercial services and purchase of agricultural inputs. Access for education and health were not important because the road was not needed to access them. In Kenya, impact on farming was assessed to be insignificant but there was some evidence of improved employment opportunities.

The negative or neutral conclusion on the role of roads in poverty alleviation does not fully reflect the importance of access for development and related poverty alleviation. If the focus is on who benefits most in a community from an improved road it is likely that better off members of the community may benefit more. However, poor access puts the whole community at a disadvantage in comparison with communities which have better access. Therefore, improving access where initial access is poor (see "Disadvantage of poor environmental conditions" in Exhibit 2 and related discussion), is pro-poor and has the potential of wider development impacts through improved economic and non-economic assets. Complementary approaches at the community level could address the inequality of distribution of benefits at the community level. The principle of inclusion in the EIIP approach has a role in addressing this issue. The focus on pro-poor development which could be generated by improving access has wider development impacts than poverty alleviation. Section 3.2.2 reports on and reviews a number of studies of development impacts of roads and the mechanisms by which the impacts take place.

On impacts of irrigation projects Keddeman refers to ex ante studies of irrigation projects implemented in Nepal, Tanzania, India, Sudan, Burkina Faso and Mali which showed impressive long-term benefits in the form of agricultural production, employment and incomes as well as economic returns. EIIP engagement in irrigation projects in Nepal, in particular in small irrigation schemes in mountainous areas, goes back to the late 1980s. This has made it possible to follow implemented projects through repeat surveys and analyses. The ex-post studies showed that some ex ante studies were over-optimistic in their assumptions concerning the frequency of landslides, the ability of beneficiaries to undertake maintenance and repair damages, and the cost of marketing of produce. Nevertheless, the impact was considerable. While the assumed growth in foodgrain production of 100% after the second year of production was not achieved, it was considered realistic that the beneficiaries from the irrigation systems would be self-sufficient in 5 years in foodstuffs which could be locally grown.

There have been challenges in maintaining the irrigation systems in Nepal but a recent EIIP study³³ shows that of the 6 irrigation schemes constructed in 1995 which were examined, 4 were functioning but in need of minor repairs, the two others either required major repairs or rehabilitation. There were functioning Water Users Associations for five of the schemes and the District Irrigation Offices had recently repaired the systems which were functioning. Comparison of an irrigation scheme constructed by labour-based methods and formation of irrigation committees with one constructed by conventional methods with no irrigation committees shows that the labour-based approach beneficiary participation in irrigation committees added more areas of irrigated land and had higher yields and internal rate of return. A similar conclusion was

³³ EIIP (2021) *Guidance for operation and maintenance (O&M) of irrigation systems: maximizing local resources and community participation, Nepal and the Philippines*. Geneva: ILO.

reached for other irrigation schemes in India which put greater emphasis on participation of water users in construction and management. The above evidence suggests that smaller scale irrigation schemes are more amenable to labour-based and local resource based construction and maintenance and users participation can be more readily secured for them than for other assets because of the direct economic benefits for users.³⁴

In summary Keddeman concluded that comparison between “treatment” and control were preferable but the precise methodology and data were major challenges. Preference was expressed for evaluation of total impact but as we have noted in section 3.2 a rigorous total impact assessment where there are multiple causes (interventions) and multiple outcomes and a combination of quantitative and qualitative indicators, a strict treatment – control approach may not be possible and a causal inference approach, recognising its limitations, adopted for this study is more feasible and suitable. With respect to the weakness of data collection Keddeman’s suggestion of a separate budget or a fixed proportion of the total budget is sound. The proposal could be put on an even sounder footing by including an impact evaluation plan and a recommendation to ILO EVAL to include such evaluations in its portfolio.

In spite of the limitations, Keddeman concludes that there is good evidence in support of LB methods where they are appropriate and in such cases “governments and investors may now be asked to demonstrate why it is necessary to use EB methods and lose jobs”. Significantly for this study Keddeman states that the record of the reviewed projects on long-term effects of the EIIP approach where the implied long-term effect is poverty alleviation was poor. The evidence has been on “primary benefits” such as increased production and services and institutional changes. In the portrayal of the ToC for this study, the “primary benefits” are the outcomes with the development impact including improved livelihoods which offers a framework for inferring impacts from outputs and outcomes. Keddeman’s focus and that of the publications reviewed by him with respect to the longer-term impacts of the employment intensive investment approach has been on poverty alleviation. With the development emphasis of this study it is proposed that the focus should be on contribution to pro-poor development of which poverty alleviation is an aspect. It is argued that a case can be made that assets and benefits produced with LB methods may be more easily sustainable than those produced with more traditional methods. In principle this is a sound conclusion but in practice significant challenges related to institutional arrangements, capacity and political and resource commitments remain.

Favourable economic comparison of the labour-based approach with the equipment based (LB vs EB) approach is a part of Keddeman’s case in favour of the labour-based approach. Implied in the LB vs EB comparison are some economic benefits which have been interpreted as short-term. However they do have longer term impacts. It was noted earlier that if labour-based investment in rural roads is lower cost there are budgetary benefits for the public sector or more roads can be improved within the same budget. The other economic benefits arise from more use of local resources and therefore lower reliance on imports and resulting lower drain on scarce foreign currency. These benefits at the macroeconomic level may lead to longer-term economic development impacts if the interventions are of large scale and longer lasting.

Keddeman’s (1998) focus on the LB vs EB cost comparison was valid because of the challenges and issues of relevance and debate in the period preceding the Keddeman review. The longer-term impacts examined in this study are not explicitly concerned with the LB vs EB cost comparison. The focus is on the longer-term developmental impacts of addressing the deficit in infrastructure targeting the sections of the population who are disadvantaged by the deficit. The implicit assumption is that the case for the employment intensive approach has been made for certain types of infrastructure investment on a combination of grounds of which cost-comparison is a part. The other grounds fall into: (a) technical and operational, and (b) local pro-poor development categories. The technical grounds are that larger contractors using equipment do not have an advantage if works are small and dispersed in rural areas and there are access problems. They would also face delays in dealing with equipment breakdown and may not have an interest in undertaking small works.³⁵

³⁴ It is not possible to determine to what extent the relative success of these irrigation schemes was because of labour-based construction or the local resource based management involving users. Since the EIIP principles and approach encompass both these elements, the success was attributed to the EIIP approach.

³⁵ See the India case study (section 4.2.3) which indicates reluctance of equipment-based PMGSY road construction contractors to meet their obligation to carry out routine maintenance. More broadly, the EIIP approach has the

The local pro-poor development grounds are the benefits arising from generating more local employment, developing local SME contractors' capacities and developing their businesses, using local resources and inputs and developing communities' capacities to undertake and benefit from community infrastructure improvements.³⁶

Other differences between Keddeman (1998) and this study are: (a) that this study reflects the sustainability of the employment based approach through supporting policy and institutional strengthening and capacity development,³⁷ and (b) the focus on decent work and inclusion. Again these differences are understandable because of the changes in the mission and vision of the EIIP programme and the ILO since the Keddeman review. A more fundamental issue that ILO EIIP is contributing to addressing is highlighting the need to direct more resources to alleviate the rural infrastructure deficit as an aspect of pro-poor development.³⁸ The case for directing more resources in this direction is not based just on its pro-poor effects but also on the return on investment as the evidence in section 3.3.2 shows.

A more recent review and guidance on assessing impact is ILO (2013), an unpublished note with the aim "to provide policy-makers and practitioners with an overview of the various key issues related to the potential impacts of public employment programmes (PEP) and to understand the nature and complexity of conducting a comprehensive impact assessment."³⁹ The note also reviews some results from past impact evaluations "to highlight some of the implications for designing programmes to maximize their desired impact."

The guidance note identifies potential impacts of PEPs on individuals, households, communities, and institutions in some detail encompassing social, economic, and environmental dimensions. The note starts with the recognition that PEP have a wide set of impacts because of their multi-dimensional nature and the multiple outcomes they create. Based on a review of previous evaluations of PEPs, the note identified the areas of impacts to be evaluated as: (a) impacts from participation in work. (b) impacts of the incomes earned; (c) impacts of the assets produced and maintained and services delivered, and (d) institutional impacts of the programme. A detailed checklist of possible impacts under each area for the individual, the household and the community, categorised by social, economic and environmental has been provided. Possible negative impacts have also been identified.

The checklist in ILO (2013) demonstrates the complexities involved in undertaking comprehensive impact evaluations of PEPs and other types of EIIP projects. The note acknowledged that there is no consensus on the methodology for evaluating impacts of projects of such complexity. Given the different types of impacts and the range of qualitative and quantitative indicators a range of techniques and approaches for collecting evidence are proposed. They include random control trials, statistical analysis and qualitative appraisal using surveys, interviews and focus group discussions as means of data collection and drawing on project documents. For assessing macro level impacts, models of the macroeconomy combined with micro-level information from PEPs is proposed.

Comprehensive evaluations of impacts proposed in ILO (2013) would require multiple studies applying different techniques and a number of teams including academic researchers working within an overarching design. There is also a time dimension to be considered since some of the impacts may take longer to evolve. While use of Theory of Change is briefly mentioned in the ILO (2013), it needs to be given more importance for the narrative it would provide for framing the study. The relevance of the note for this study is the

flexibility to adapt to implement larger project such as longer rural roads and smaller community works. Maintenance of assets, of key importance, is also more amenable to the EIIP approach.

³⁶ This case in favour of the LB / LRB approach in comparison with EB is for interventions with asset creation focus. For interventions with employment generation / social protection focus the case does not need to be made though the choice of works needs to be suitable for the works to be undertaken and with high employment generation potential.

³⁷ Keddeman recognized the need for addressing these aspects for sustaining the approach.

³⁸ While the focus is on rural infrastructure investment, the case is also valid for non-rural disadvantaged communities with infrastructure deficits.

³⁹ While the note is specifically for assessing impacts of PEPs, it is relevant for other types of EIIP projects.

checklist showing the range of potential impacts and underlining the need for a ToC to scope and frame the study.

3.3.2 More recent external evidence for assessing development impact (infrastructure investment orientation)

The rest of this section reviews sources for evidence which can be used as external evidence to support the assessment of longer-term development impacts.⁴⁰ The focus initially is on infrastructure improvement works, in particular rural roads followed by a brief review of evidence on irrigation works. The rural roads focus reflects the emphasis on these assets in the EIIP programme overall and on EIIP projects during the reference period. There is. The review also includes evidence on employment generation oriented projects for the development impact related to the employment generated (including the incomes earned and skills gained) in section 3.3.3. In the ToC (Exhibit 3) this relates to “Income from decent work and inclusion” and the related discussion in section 2 which states that sufficiently large income from one-off employment complemented by skills development or an employment programme approach is needed for this longer-term impact. The impact could be in the form of social protection or investment to improve livelihood strategies or both.

There is a substantial body of evidence in studies using varied approaches on the benefits of improving rural roads for the rural economy and rural people. This brief review of evidence on impact of rural roads investment drawing on Vaidya (2016), who brought some of this evidence together, and additional more recent evidence is relevant as external evidence of impact for this study. Given the nature of the rural economy, notably the predominance of informal and own account employment, the links between economic development effects of improved roads and employment and livelihoods are complex and context specific. The impacts are improved livelihoods and reduced poverty through more productive self-employment (in agriculture and commercial activities) and employment. Generally the impacts are greater if the road improvements are on the categories of roads which address the most severe access constraints on rural households. A qualification is that the evidence is on investment in roads and not only roads improved using the EIIP approach.⁴¹

Exhibit 10 summarises selected evidence from a number of studies on the impacts of roads on the rural economy. The Bangladesh study (Khandker and Koolwal, 2011) shows a shift away from low productivity farming to non-farm employment implying a shift from low productivity to higher productivity work with increased food expenditure for categories of households benefiting most from the shift. The China study (Fan and Chan-Kang, 2004) reveals evidence of increases in agricultural and non-agricultural GDP with implied growth in employment and/or self-employment related to investment in lower specification rural roads. The increase in non-agricultural output is estimated to be much higher.

The Ethiopia studies (Dercon and Hoddinott, 2005 and Dercon et al, 2008) are in a context in which livelihoods are predominantly subsistence farming based with better access, especially to local market towns, improving livelihoods prospects because of the lower cost of inputs and consumer goods and better opportunities to sell farm and non-farm produce. The Georgia study (Lokshin and Yemtsov, 2005) by contrast shows shifts towards wage employment and small enterprises as offering more productive and remunerative work than farming as a consequence of improved roads.

Rural households typically rely on more than one livelihood sources, often combining farm production for subsistence or for the market with non-farm work. The qualitative appraisal studies in Indonesia, the Philippines and Sri Lanka (Hettige, 2006) provide a rounded overview of a range of different types of effects specific to the context and the circumstances of the households. They include increased employment, expanding businesses and increased farming productivity and incomes. On a rural road investment near Yogyakarta in Indonesia, Hettige (2006) found that improved roads and the increased ability to transport goods provided opportunities for those with skills and/or savings to invest in small businesses and small stores, or to become intermediaries, selling the village’s products in nearby markets.

⁴⁰ See section 3.1 for the rationale for using external evidence and related limitations.

⁴¹ As noted in the previous section the employment intensive approach would have some added benefits.

Exhibit 9: Types of development effects related to improved rural roads

Types of development effects	Indicators (and impacts of improved roads)
Effects through economic mechanisms	
1. More productive use of existing human and other resources	(a) Higher productivity and/or earnings from current economic activities (<i>lower cost of transport improving access to markets and reducing input costs leading to more productive use of resources, higher prices obtained for products and services offered, increased and diversified production</i>). (b) Higher wages indicating higher productivity but also greater labour scarcity (<i>improved productivity and additional employment opportunities locally and further afield</i>).
2. Shifting human and other resources from less productive to more productive sectors	Typically from low productivity farming and other informal sectors activities (incidence of underemployment) to more productive informal or formal sector activities (<i>lower cost of transport improving access to additional local and farther jobs</i>).
3. Productive sectors using more human and other resources	Increased employment and reduced unemployment (<i>increased production requiring more workers because of improved access to markets and lower costs</i>).
Effects through socio-economic mechanisms	
4. Improved access to education	Improvement of future skills and capabilities leading to opportunities for more productive economic opportunities for individuals and a more productive workforce in the longer-term. An important dimension of wellbeing.
5. Improved access to health facilities	Healthier individuals and workforce contributing to more productive individuals and workforce in the longer term. An important dimension of wellbeing.
6. Network effects of exposure to new people and ideas.	Exposure to wider economic opportunities and knowledge to improve existing practices and to introduce new ones. Relevant for improving livelihoods through innovations in current activities and introducing new ones for enhancing wellbeing.

The list in Exhibit 10 presents evidence of development impacts of improved rural roads relating them to the types of impacts and indicators of impacts set out in Exhibit 9. For example, Khandker and Kookwal (2011) indicates more productive use of resources signalled by a shift of workers from agricultural employment to non-agricultural employment which is more productive and pays higher wages (evidence of 1(a) in Exhibit 9). It is also evidence of shift of human resources to a more productive sector (evidence of 2 in Exhibit 9). By contrast, Dorosh et al (2010) imply higher value added in farming as a consequence of better access to urban areas and Fan and Chan-Kang (2004) using econometric methods find both improvements in farming and non-farming attributed to rural roads investment.

The Madagascar study (Jacoby and Minten, 2008) models the effects of high transport costs for the remotest households based on data from households with varying levels of remoteness and concludes that the remotest households could improve their incomes by 50%, but mainly from non-farm earnings, if their access was improved by a rural road. The Nicaragua study (Goss Gilroy Inc and Orbicon, 2010) is an evaluation of the impact of a labour-based rural roads programme with a focus on the impact of the improved roads. The study shows almost all the types of effects through economic mechanisms identified in Table 1 through improvements in farm incomes and farm and non-farm employment opportunities. By contrast in the Peru study (Escobal and Ponce, 2010) there is an unambiguous shift of employment from farming to non-farming.

The Rwanda study (OTF, 2010 reported in Government of Rwanda, 2013) is an example of lower transport costs resulting in higher farm gate prices and hence better livelihoods for farmers with better access. Dorosh et al (2010) developed a model for analysing evidence from 42 Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) Countries to assess the effects on agricultural production measured by the % of agricultural potential reached by an area of travel time to urban centres with 100,000 or more persons. Areas within 4 hours of travel from an urban centre reach 45% of the potential while areas 8 or more hours away reach just 5% of the potential. The evidence supports the proposition that access to urban markets provides an incentive to make more productive use of resources and to adopt more productive technologies. Access to better technologies may also be easier closer to urban centres.

Exhibit 10: Road investment and rural development – selected evidence

Country and study	Effect on employment	Effect types(1) and comments
Bangladesh (Khandker and Koolwal, 2011)	20-22% decline in agricultural employment, coupled with a 14-17% rise in non-agricultural employment. Increased per capita food expenditure for households in the 25-50% income percentile range suggesting higher labour mobility for this group.	1(b) (higher wages in non-farm employment implied). 2 (shift of employment from lower productivity farming to non-farming).
China (Fan and Chan-Kang, 2004)	Each additional km of rural roads generated 1m Yuan of non-farm GDP and 0.29m Yuan of agricultural GDP.	1(a) implied by generation of agricultural GDP. 2 and 3 implied by generation of non-farm GDP.
Ethiopia (longitudinal study of 15 villages) (Dercon and Hoddinot, 2005 and Dercon et al, 2008)	Access to local market towns affects rural economic activity. Households more remote from local towns are less likely to purchase inputs or sell products including artisanal products by women. Communities with better roads have persistently higher growth rates than others. Access to all-weather roads reduces poverty by 6.9% and increases consumption growth by 16.3%.	1(a) implied. Poverty reduction and higher consumption related to better access.
Georgia (Lokshin and Yemtsov, 2005)	Improved road project villages compared with control villages. More off-farm and female wage employment in project villages. Off-farm employment improved for non-poor households and female wage employment increased for poor women. The share of villages with SMEs significantly increased in project villages. No impact of road quality on agricultural product sales.	1(a) implied by increase in SMES. 1(b) implied by increased wage employment. 2 (shift from farming to non-farming). 3 implied by increased wage employment.

Country and study	Effect on employment	Effect types(1) and comments
Indonesia Philippines Sri Lanka (Hettige, 2006)	To increase income, project households would find employment locally (7%) or expand a small business (22%). By contrast, control households would expand agricultural production (29%) or raise small animals (22%).	1(a), 2 and 3 with variations between countries and projects – implying higher reward in non-farm activities. Households with no improved roads rely more on farming.
Madagascar (Jacoby and Minten, 2008)	Modelling the effects of high transport costs in Madagascar because of inadequate rural roads. A new rural road would reduce transport costs and improve incomes of the remotest households by 50%, mainly from non-farm earnings.	2 and 3. Indicates limited exploitation of agricultural potential.
Nicaragua (Goss Gilroy Inc and Orbicon for DANIDA, 2010)	Net 17% increase in employment for project communities in agriculture and non-agricultural activities (mainly construction). Improvements in agricultural incomes reported because of improved market access including new markets for cattle and milk and higher prices for producers.	1(a) and (b), 2 and 3. Indicates agricultural potential and non-farm employment opportunities. Labour-based road construction provided incomes and developed construction skills which improved non-farm employment opportunities.
Peru (Escobal and Ponce, 2002)	Improved motorised roads increased non-agricultural wage employment by 9% but agricultural self-employment declined by 8%. Non-agricultural wage income per capita increased by US USD115 per year.	2 and 3 (the latter inferred). Implies low productivity in farming and limited agricultural potential.
Rwanda (OTF, 2010 reported in Government of Rwanda, 2013)	Farmers within 7-10km of a main road receive 85-160% higher price for their produce than those further away.	1(a) – lower transport costs resulting in higher farm gate prices for products.
Various SSA countries – 42 (Dorosh et al, 2010)	Total crop production relative to potential production is 45% for areas within four hours travel time from cities of 100,000 people. It is just 5% for areas more than eight hours away. Agricultural production is positively correlated with proximity to urban markets and adoption of high-productive/high-input technology is negatively correlated with travel time to urban centres.	1 (a) – lower transport costs and better access to market improves productivity.

Note: (1) The numbers in this column refer to the types of development effects explained in Exhibit 9. For example, 1(a) refers to “Higher productivity and/or earnings from current economic activities).

The list in Exhibit 10 is selective and intended to illustrate the range of results and types of studies. There are numerous other studies evidence from which has not been included in Exhibit 10. For example, Mu and van de Walle (2011) found evidence of diversification of livelihoods in Vietnam with the impact being the greatest

in rural communes. From a review of rural roads projects in Nepal, Starkey et al (2013) found 25% increases in average incomes and food security along the new road corridors. Gachassin, Najman and Raballand (2010) studied the impact of rural roads in Cameroon and observed that improvements in livelihoods were as a result of increased opportunities for non-agricultural employment.

The studies cited above also observed that within the rural context the impacts were not generally pro-poor. Starkey et al (2013) found that while the impact of the roads investment was a 15% increase in the incomes of disadvantaged ethnic groups, the increase for the non-disadvantaged groups was 37%. Mu and van de Walle (2011) found that the poverty reduction impacts were the greatest where roads reached the remoter, poorer communes. The implication of the studies referred to above and the conclusion reached by Hettige (2006) is that road investments increase economic activity and reduce poverty, but people with resources (the non-poor) tend to benefit more. Gachassin, Najman and Raballand (2010) in assessing the poverty impact of roads in Cameroon also concluded that a more targeted approach is needed to reach the poorest communities. This relates to the broader issue of allocation of resources between highways and rural roads to ensure adequate level of access for the rural population which is considered below.

Hine et al (2019) concluded that the impacts of improvements in rural roads and transport services are broadly positive especially in low-income countries (Bangladesh, Nepal and Ethiopia). Those who benefited most were from poorest and most remote communities. This finding endorses the earlier observation in relation to the review of Keddeman (1998) that while in a location with improved access the most disadvantaged may not benefit most directly, whole communities are deprived by poor access and benefit from improvement. In Bangladesh Ahmed and Nahiduzzaman (2016) and in Nepal Charlery et al (2016) found increases in household incomes of approximately 47%, and 28% respectively after improved access though all the impact could not be attributed to improved roads. Wagale et al (2019) found that in India agricultural activity increased in the areas studied but there was no significant shift to non-agricultural occupations. For Vietnam Nguyen et al (2017) found that with improvement in access people were more likely to find jobs in manufacturing than in services.

In Africa, Hine et al (2019) reported evidence of increased agricultural production as a result of improved rural access notably in Ethiopia and Congo. Berg et al (2018) found that for SSA countries, improved market access expands cultivated land especially for best yielding cash crops and leads to an increase in local GDP growth that goes beyond the effect on cropland expansion. Hine et al (2019) and others also report on the impact on education and health of improved access.⁴² For education, Limi et al (2015) and Bell and Van Dillen (2014) found improvements in enrolment and attendance in primary and secondary schools for Brazil and India respectively. By contrast Aggarwal (2018) found examples of school dropouts between the ages of 14 to 20 as a result of improved access leading to more job opportunities. There was not much difference in primary school attendance of pupils but the improvement was in lower absence of teachers.

Aggarwal (2018) found positive impacts from better access to health facilities, improved awareness and use of services and better adoption of preventive health care practices and reduction in morbidity. Studies conducted in Bangladesh (Ahmed and Nahiduzzaman, 2016), India (Banerjee and Sachdeva, 2015) and Vietnam (Nguyen et al, 2017) found that improved access led to improvement in use of primary health care facilities and increased awareness especially of women of preventive measures leading formation of self-help groups.

Pfaff et al (2018) for Brazil and Damania et al (2018) were the only studies cited by Hine et al (2019) identifying negative impacts of increase in deforestation after improved access. These two studies highlight the need for taking account of environmental impacts when selecting projects and complementary measures to reduce such impacts. Findings of studies on the impact of roads have to be qualified in three ways: (a) impacts of road improvements recorded by studies cannot be fully generalised because roads are typically improved where their benefits have been perceived to be the highest; (b) roads benefit those who are better off and endowed with productive assets more than those who are less well off, and (c) functioning of the transport service sector has implications for the benefits for the road users. A competitive sector with low entry barriers

⁴² These are developmental impacts of types 4 and 5 (improved access to education and health facilities respectively) in Exhibit 9.

generates more benefits for users. Barrett and Swallow (2006) among others have found that households with access to adequate assets and infrastructure and faced with appropriate incentives engage actively in markets, while those who lack one or more of those three essential ingredients do not.

An obstacle to investment in rural infrastructure is insufficient resources for investment and maintenance. The balance of allocation is often in favour of larger infrastructure projects in the transport and other sectors. Starkey and Hine (2015) cite evidence from studies in different countries and contexts to show that generally providing basic rural access where it was initially very poor provided the greatest benefits. A study of public investments in rural Uganda suggested that the most basic ‘feeder’ roads had a benefit-cost ratio of 7.2, with 34 people taken out of poverty for each million shillings invested (Fan, Zhang and Rao, 2004). The econometric study by Fan and Chan-Kang (2004) shows marked differences in China in the output and poverty impacts of “low quality” (mostly rural) roads⁴³ and “high quality” (mostly inter-urban) roads in China. For an increase of 1 million Yuan of investment in low quality roads, the estimated increase in GDP is over four times that for high quality roads and the reduction in rural and urban poverty is similarly higher.

Banjo, Gordon and Riverson (2012) in their World Bank review of rural transport, emphasised the need to focus rural transport investments on the lower end of the rural transport network, to include local community roads, paths and trails, in order to meet the rural access and mobility needs of smallholder farmers. Further, the appropriate technology for investment in the infrastructure to provide basic rural access is labour-based. Hence devoting resources to such improvement have the added employment impacts during construction, rehabilitation and maintenance. While larger infrastructure projects are of national importance and generally require much larger resource commitments, the evidence presented here makes a case to ensure sufficient resources to be allocated for investment in rural roads for their economic returns and the pro-poor distribution of the returns.

A recent comprehensive review of literature on the impacts of the rural transport infrastructure (Kaiser and Barlow, 2022) supports the conclusions reached in this section on development impacts of improved rural access through economic and social mechanisms. Reference was made in section 2, related to the Theory of Change, to qualitative and dynamic effects of improved access through increased connections resulting in innovations and expanded economic opportunities and improved socio-economic conditions (Lakshmanan, 2011). In their review of studies Kaiser and Bairstow (2022) find effects of technologies and techniques which improve farming and knowledge of wider economic and employment opportunities which are in effect some dynamic effects referred to by Lakshmanan.

The projects included in this assessment of impacts include only a few irrigation works as sub-projects. Nevertheless a brief review of evidence is provided here to update Keddeman’s review and for potential projects in the sector. Keddeman’s review reports on smaller irrigation schemes and highlights the importance of beneficiary participation in decision making and operations and management for higher impact. The longer-term development impact of improved livelihoods occurs through the outcomes of increased agricultural productivity and production. Scognamillo et al (2022) explore mechanisms shaping the impact of the water resources management related public works component of Ethiopia’s Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) on beneficiaries and communities’ food security and vulnerability to shocks. Of particular interest here are the findings that PSNP beneficiaries are less likely to be food insecure and experience harvest losses in the aftermath of droughts. Beneficiaries are 79% less likely to experience food insecurity due to droughts. This greater resilience is attributed to the integrated community-based watershed development and water pump irrigation, including soil and water conservation measures and rangeland management (in pastoral areas) incorporated into the public works component of the PSNP. Moreover, the beneficial effects of the programme spill over to the community peers. The PSNP intervention integrates irrigation with environmental and climate considerations. The longer-term development impact is

⁴³ Fan and Chan-Kang (2004) refer to Expressways and Class I and Class II roads (broadly corresponding to “inter-urban highways” category in our study though with some overlap of the Class II roads with “major rural road” category in our study) built to high design standards at higher costs as “high quality”. They refer to Class III and IV and unclassified roads constructed to lower design standards as “low quality”. The average construction cost per km of “low quality” roads was estimated to be about 12 % of that for “high quality” roads. In the rest of this paper we refer to “high quality” and “low quality” roads as inter-urban and rural roads respectively.

improved resilience to shocks and the sustainability of the resilience because of the protection of the measures to conserve water as a precious resource.

Mupaso et al's (2023) systematic review addressed the smallholder irrigation and poverty reduction nexus. Publications over 3 decades, 1992 to 2022 were searched and a total of 62 articles. The studies reviewed had used varied methods, quantitative, qualitative and mixed and included studies in Asia and Africa. Mupaso et al (2023) concluded that investment in smallholder irrigation remains a key strategy for enhancing agricultural productivity, food security and livelihoods and reducing poverty but their full potential was not always realised. Overall the studies showed that smallholder irrigation contributed to enhancing household livelihoods and reducing poverty in most developing countries through some combination of increased farm production, introduction of higher value crops, improvement in food security, increase in household income and creation of employment. The improvements tended to be higher in Asia than in Africa. In some countries, the expectations of impact were not met. Such failures were attributed to poor management resulting in conflicts among water users, over-exploitation of water resources and the potential users not having the resources and knowledge to benefit sufficiently from irrigation. The EIIP approach which includes local participation, capacity development, policy support and attention to maintenance for sustainability would be strongly placed to overcome the challenges.

3.3.3 Development impact of employment generation oriented projects

The rest of this section draws on Beazley and Vaidya (2016) to focus on external evidence on the role of episodes of short-term employment such as those provided by EIIP infrastructure works⁴⁴ in generating long term development impact through social protection. Beazley and Vaidya (2016) use the term workfare for cash for work (CfW) without making a distinction between EIIP project type employment which requires productive work under well managed and supervised conditions and cash for work approaches where the work requirement is nominal or less structured. They note that one-off short episodes of employment do not normally provide social protection. This statement is well supported by a number of studies (McCord and Slater, 2009; McCord, 2008). The reviews of workfare schemes by Del Ninno et al (2009) and McCord and Slater (2009) show that most workfare programmes implemented in lower income countries offer single short-term episodes of employment in response to temporary disruptions of the labour market resulting in acute labour demand shortages, or as additional employment opportunities for poor households, to provide temporary support. Projects and programme offering single short-term episodes of employment in response to temporary disruptions and the distress they cause for the poor and vulnerable can be referred to as emergency PWPs to differentiate them from asset creation oriented PWPs⁴⁵ and PEPs defined as publicly financed and government-implemented long-term investment programmes in section 2.

For PWPs to fulfil the social protection function they should offer accessible work for those who need it or regular and predictable work for targeted sections of the population. Two PEP models which perform this function are: (a) Employment Guarantee Schemes (EGSs) as the needs based approach, and (b) productive safety nets or employment programmes using the targeting approach. Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme (MGNREGA) in India is an example of an EGS.⁴⁶ MGNREGA guarantees a given number of days of employment per year on demand. The entitlement to the given number of days is enshrined in law and households are entitled to compensation if the entitlement is not fulfilled. The programme has been innovative in taking a rights-based and demand-driven approach. There is evidence that the MGNREGA in India has made a significant contribution to poverty alleviation, improving food security for poor households and establishing a social floor for wage rates for unskilled agricultural workers favouring women (see Dasgupta and Sudarshan, 2011; Khara and Nayak, 2009; Ravi and Engler, 2009).

Productive Safety Nets (PSNs) aim to address chronic livelihood deficits by offering ongoing employment for a certain period of time for targeted people. The term productive refers to the nature of employment provided under PWPs to create assets of economic value and providing complementary support to make

⁴⁴ A distinction has been made between one-off short-term episodes of employment and regular employment in routine maintenance over time even if it is not fulltime.

⁴⁵ In section 2, a distinction was made between PWPs which in ILO use refer to asset creation projects or programmes and PEPs. This distinction is retained here.

⁴⁶ Such programmes are rare outside India. An example is the small scale Zimbalele Programme in South Africa.

livelihoods more resilient, in effect by addressing the underlying causes of the chronic livelihood deficits, economic underdevelopment and rural poverty. In this sense, PSNs not only provide support through regular and predictable cash transfers for targeted people when needed but also perform a social inclusion function by fostering economic development and improving the livelihoods of the poor and regularly excluded.

An example of a PSN is the PSNP in Ethiopia and the associated Household Asset Building Programme (HABP) in Ethiopia. The PSNP in Ethiopia as a long-term strategic solution for reducing food insecurity, originated from the reactive emergency food relief programmes for famine-prone areas. The PSNP was launched in 2005 by the Government of Ethiopia with the objective “to assure food consumption and prevent asset depletion for food insecure households in chronically food insecure woredas (districts), while stimulating markets, improving access to services and natural resources, and rehabilitating and enhancing the natural environment” (PSNP, 2010). The programme financed labour-intensive public works, such as road projects, soil and water conservation projects, water development projects and social services infrastructure projects.

Cash was paid for up to five days of work a month per household member, for six months a year, until the recipient households graduated from the programme by accumulating an asset and income level that enabled them to meet 12 months of food needs and to withstand modest shocks. In addition, about 20% of the participating households with members unable to work received unconditional cash or food transfers. PSNP+, launched in 2009, was aimed at connecting a subset of PSNP participants to financial services and markets to support their graduation from the programme. The PSNP was also linked to the HABP, which provided credit and agricultural extension services to support vulnerable households to engage in both farm and non-farm activities.

The PSNP is a productive safety net which includes a commitment to providing a safety net that protects food consumption and household assets and is expected to address some of the underlying causes of food insecurity and to contribute to economic growth. The productive element comes from an improved infrastructure and natural resources base created through PSNP public works and the multiplier effects of cash transfers on the local economy (PSNP, 2010). Employment programmes perform the same functions as PSNs in providing regular predictable income for the poor and vulnerable. The nuanced difference between them is that there is a greater emphasis in PSNs on the creation of economic assets of value for those who are targeted to work in PSN activities while employment programmes are likely to have less emphasis on economic assets and may include activities other than asset creation (economic or otherwise) such as municipal services or personal care.

World Bank and Overseas Development Institute (ODI) categorize programmes such as the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) in Ethiopia and the MGNREGA in India as social protection (safety net) programmes (World Bank, 2018, McCord 2012). The Kinofelis programme in Greece which is included in section 4 for impact assessment was categorized as an active labour market policy (ALMP) (ILO 2017). The South African Government does not categorize the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) (included in section 4 for impact assessment) as neither, referring to it as a PEP that plays a role in both social protection and employment creation (National Planning Commission, 2013).

As noted earlier, the development impacts of PEPs work through providing security and level of income. Depending on the context and the level of support, they could either empower the beneficiaries to make investments in human and physical resources to bring about livelihood changes or provide a level of social protection to supplement livelihoods. Another development impact related to social protection is for the PEP to set a wage floor where because of labour market conditions the wage rate is too low for sustaining livelihoods. Another developmental role of PEPs based on decent work and inclusion principles is in addressing the disadvantages of exclusion imposed by socio-political barriers⁴⁷ by providing employment opportunities for women and other disadvantaged groups on equal terms. There is evidence from some EIIP projects of the benefits and empowerment women and persons with disabilities gain from the work and incomes earned. MGNREGA provides a good example of a programme which has offered women opportunities to overcome some disadvantages of exclusion. Evidence from a number of studies in different locations and with differing purposes shows that by participating in MGNREGA women’s livelihood security

⁴⁷See exhibit 2 and related discussion in section 2.

has improved (Kaushal and Singh, 2016), they have gained financial independence and are able to repay debt (Babu and Sudhakar, 2014; Shobha, 2015) and attained higher levels of self-esteem (Sudarshan, 2014).⁴⁸

However, PEPs typically require substantial resource and political commitments over a period of years and the institutional capacities to implement the programme. The challenges could be easier with donor support and technical assistance. Section 3 has set out and justified the methodology adopted and in the last sub-section (3.3) has provided external evidence of development impacts of infrastructure investment and employment as context and to support the assessments at the country level if the evidence is weak. The approach adopted to assessing long-term development impacts in the next section is a pragmatic one given the complexities of EIIP projects and limits on available evidence and the scope.

4. Presenting the evidence on development impacts

4.1 Introduction and accounts of impacts in the non-case study countries

4.1.1 Introduction

Section 4 is the core of the study. Exhibit 5 listed all the country level EIIP projects undertaken during the reference period. The related discussion identified the projects to be included in this analysis and reasons for exclusion of others. Exhibit 11 lists the countries included for examining actual or potential impacts. The countries shaded ochre in Exhibit 11 are presented as more detailed case studies in section 4.2. Assessments of impacts in the remaining countries in Exhibit 11 are in alphabetical order in the rest of section 4.1. The “Types of impacts” column in the exhibit shows the main actual or potential development impacts of EIIP projects in the countries. The short forms for impact types were introduced in section 2 and further discussed in section 3.1. A key to them is provided below Exhibit 11 and used in the narrative.

In the absence of evidence from formal impact studies, the methodology outlined in section 3, using the theory based approach for impact evaluation based on the RBM (Exhibit 1) and ToC (Exhibit 3) is adopted. The sources of evidence are from formal appraisals of impacts where available but since such evidence is commonly not available, use of informal, incomplete and external evidence have been used to form judgements on the nature and significance of impacts.

⁴⁸ Also see de Mattos and Dasgupta S (2017) *MGNREGA, paid work and women’s empowerment*. Geneva: ILO.

Exhibit 11: List of countries included in the study

COUNTRY	Years	Impact types	Actual or potential impacts: Past and during the reference period
CAMBODIA	1992-2011, 2021	ImpAss, CD, PDI	The 2021 project “COVID-19 response: Socio-economic recovery for returning migrants and host communities in northwest Cambodia” during the reference period is too recent and short-term. Cambodia is included because of EIIP engagement pre-2012 which delivered longer-term development impacts.
CAMEROON	2013-22	ImpAss, CD, PDI	Adoption of the HIMO approach by the government for part of public sector investment and a HIMO unit in the government in addition to implementation projects during the reference period.
GREECE	2016-17	ImpEmp, CD, PDI, DW	Kinofelis (Public Benefit in Greek), a public works scheme targeted at the long-term unemployed, is included for the potential the model offered for addressing the challenge of long-term unemployed.
INDIA	2012-16	CD, PDI, DW, Inclusion	Technical assistance for developing and implementing maintenance strategy for PMGSY.
JORDAN	2016-22	ImpAss, ImpEmp, CD, DW, Inclusion	A large programme in response to influx of displaced persons. Limited long-term impact to date but with potential for a public employment programme.
KENYA	2000-2013	CD, PDI	There is insufficient information about the youth and refugee and host community employment programmes for appraising impact. Kenya is included because of EIIP engagement pre-2012 which delivered longer-term development impacts.
LEBANON	2016-18	ImpAss, ImpEmp, CD, PDI, DW, Inclusion	A large programme in response to influx of displaced persons. Some long-term impact through investment in roads and road maintenance. Potential for a public employment programme.
MADAGASCAR	2012-22	ImpAss, CD, PDI	Schools construction programme and capacity development.
MAURITANIA	2014-21	ImpAss, ImpEmp, CD	Projects for employment generation for youth and displaced persons.
MOZAMBIQUE	2020-22	ImpAss, ImpEmp, CD, PDI, DW, Inclusion	Capacity development and policy support.
NEPAL	2014-19	ImpAss, ImpEmp, CD, PDI, DW, Inclusion	Impact in the form of support for a rural roads maintenance strategy in collaboration with the World Bank (SNRTP).

COUNTRY	Years	Impact types	Actual or potential impacts: Past and during the reference period
PAPUA NEW GUINEA	2019	ImpAss, ImpEmp, CD, PDI, DW, Inclusion	Component in the STREIT (Support to Rural Entrepreneurship, Investment and Trade) programme. Transport infrastructure works to support value chains for cash crops. Potential impact.
PHILIPPINES	2012-19	ImpAss, ImpEmp, CD, PDI, DW, Inclusion	Mainly response to natural disasters during this period. Impact in the form of disaster preparedness.
SOUTH AFRICA	2012-19	CD, PDI, DW, Inclusion	Technical assistance to the EPWP at a province national level based on engagement which started well before the 2012.
TANZANIA	2020-25	ImpAss, ImpEmp, CD, PDI, DW, Inclusion	Impact in the form of support for a PSSN and a rural roads maintenance strategy in collaboration with the World Bank based on the Nepal SNRTP model.
TIMOR-LESTE	2012-21	ImpAss, ImpEmp, CD, PDI, DW, Inclusion	Comprehensive impact through asset creation, capacity development and support for policy and strategy for rural roads.

Abbreviations in Table 5:

ImpAss - Impact of assets improved; ImpEmp – Livelihood improvement through employment; CD – Capacity Development; PDI – Policy development in implementation support; DW – Decent work principles; Inclusion – Participation of women, PwD and other disadvantaged groups.

It was noted at the end of section 3.2 that ratings of confidence in the evidence and strength of impact were required because of the varying types of evidence and the methodology adopted for assessing impact given the complex nature of EIIP projects and their multiple outcomes, some requiring qualitative appraisal. The ratings using the 1 to 5 scale have been set out for the two aspects in Exhibits 12 and 13. The level of confidence in Exhibit 12 reflects the balance between formal, informal, incomplete and external evidence in drawing conclusions on impacts. For example, if there is evidence from a sound formal study of improved livelihoods from improved infrastructure (ImpAss), the rating in Exhibit 12 would be five. Lower ratings are for reliance on levels of combination of informal, incomplete and external evidence.

Exhibit 12: Level of confidence in evidence

Rating	Explanation of ratings
1	Informal or incomplete evidence (e.g. from websites), with no or limited external evidence support. Evidence weak overall but indicative of possible actual or potential longer-term impact.
2	Informal or incomplete evidence from project reports or other available sources. General external evidence support. Evidence indicative of actual or potential longer-term impact.
3	Informal or incomplete evidence from project reports or other available sources with case studies of beneficiaries and incomplete evidence (i.e. on proxy indicators). Relatable external evidence from similar contexts. Indicative of actual or potential longer-term impact.
4	Substantial informal or incomplete evidence from project reports or other available sources with more case studies of beneficiaries and other stakeholders and incomplete evidence (i.e. on proxy indicators) than category 3. Relatable external evidence from similar contexts.
5	Some formal evidence on development impact supported by substantial informal or incomplete evidence from project reports or other available sources and incomplete evidence (i.e. on proxy indicators). Strongly relatable external evidence support if required. Strongly indicative of actual or potential longer-term impact.

Exhibit 13: Strength of longer-term impacts

Rating	Explanation of ratings
1	No indication of actual or potential longer-term development impact.
2	Weak indication of potential longer-term development impact.
3	Some indication of actual or potential longer-term development impact.
4	Indication of actual or potential longer-term development impact.
5	Indication of substantial actual and potential longer-term development impact.

The level of confidence in evidence to some extent affects the strength of longer-term impacts rating in Exhibit 13, but the focus is on the strength of impact with some latitude on evidence. Even if formal evidence of impact is lacking, if the scale or scope of an impact type is large and there is a combination of informal, incomplete and external evidence, a higher rating has been given. For example if there is evidence of increase in traffic, lower transport cost and increased trading, a rating of 4 or 5 has been given based on relatable external evidence of livelihood improvement which is associated with these developments. For some types of impact a qualitative assessment and judgement are needed. Examples are development of capacity and establishment of policy context and their potential for sustaining the employment intensive approach where such potential has not been realised. As a consequence there is an element of subjective judgement in the ratings. Setting the ratings has formed a basis for discussion with stakeholders and refinement of the ratings where necessary.

Ratings are not provided for all types⁴⁹ for every country in sections 4.1 and 4.2 since not all types are relevant in all cases. For example for Greece, because of the nature of the programme and mode of EIIP engagement, ImpEmp, CD, PDI and DW are considered to be relevant and in Kenya, only CD and PDI in the historical context. Whereas for Timor-Leste ratings for all types of activities are included.

4.1.2 Cambodia: Long-term engagement in institutional strengthening, infrastructure improvement and social protection

As noted earlier and indicated in Exhibit 11, Cambodia is included for impacts before the study reference period (2012 to 2022). Following three decades of internal conflict which had devastated the nation, the Paris Agreement in 1991 established a basis for peace and reconstruction. Under this agreement the UN Transitional Authority in Cambodia (UNTAC) was established in early 1992 to administer and govern, oversee establishment of national administration and government and prepare for return to democratic government. EIIP engagement in Cambodia started in the same year as the establishment of UNTAC. The initial initiative was to rehabilitate secondary and tertiary roads to access rural communities and farmlands, which provided employment to returning refugees. This intervention was much needed because of the neglect of rural infrastructure in the previous three decades.

Shone (2001) identified 3 phases of EIIP and ASIST-AP⁵⁰ engagement in Cambodia between 1992 and 1997, the emergency phase (1992-3), the rehabilitation phase which started in 1993 and the later development phase during which the EIIP focus was on job creation for the war-affected population and demonstration of international labour standards. The rehabilitation phase which started in 1993 included support for the development of a rural infrastructure development and management strategy of the Ministry of Rural Development (MRD) and incorporated counterpart involvement in projects to develop capacity and support policy formulation.

On infrastructure investment EIIP projects focused on supporting the rehabilitation and maintenance of rural infrastructure, including roads, canals, and irrigation systems. The first project aimed to create employment opportunities for persons affected by the war, returnees from the border camps, demobilised soldiers and rural disadvantaged groups. These activities started during the emergency phase and continued into the rehabilitation and development phases. The socio-economic impact study⁵¹ for the roads component in the first project showed substantial increases in traffic, significantly lower transport costs, increased ownership of motorised vehicles, lower cost of operating and maintaining vehicles, more local produce going to market and lower prices of basic commodities for local communities. Local traders found prices and margins falling as they faced more competition but overall turnover increased which was an indicator of increased economic activity.

There were also non-economic benefits of improved security and better social communications and interactions. The surveys provided evidence of transport and economic improvements which are developmental in the sense of mitigating the environmental disadvantage and offering opportunities for overcoming the disadvantages of limited resources and capabilities at household levels.⁵² Evidence from the surveys was strongly indicative of improved livelihoods rather than formal evidence of this impact. The negative impacts of roads identified by some local people were undesirable influences coming into the villages and the increased amount of dust from the road surface and increased traffic, but overall even those

⁴⁹ More precisely the EIIP activities in the ToC in Exhibit 3.

⁵⁰ ASIST-Asia/Pacific (ASIST-AP) provided advisory and information services in labour-based planning and technology for the Asia / Pacific region and supported EIIP projects in the region.

⁵¹ Sakko, C J (1999) *Access, Transport, and Local Economic Development: The socio-economic impact of Labour-based rural infrastructure rehabilitation and maintenance in Siem Reap province (Project UNDP/UNOPS/ILO 'CARERE' CMB/95/011)*. Phnom Penh: ILO. The study compared villages benefiting from rehabilitated roads with those with unrehabilitated roads.

⁵² See Exhibit 2 and related discussion in section 2 for explanation and the notions of development which form the basis for the analysis in this study. The term "environmental" here refers to the conditions such as poor access and availability of services which are barriers to improving livelihoods and not the state of the natural environment and concerns about its deterioration.

who were concerned about these negative aspects thought that improved roads were a positive development for the villages.

The investment in rural roads implemented by EIIP was economically beneficial and attracted further investment from the Asian Development Bank (ADB). The President of the Asian Development Bank stated in the report and recommendation for the loan:⁵³ “The labour-based project has been a success; construction costs have been considerably lower than equivalent constructions using equipment; the project generated substantial employment opportunities for the rural population, including women and handicapped people; (..) roads have shown no significant problems, despite significantly increased traffic volumes.”

“The economic internal rate of return (EIRR) calculated, using transport cost savings, is 70% while the EIRR calculated, using incremental agricultural production, is 24%. These rather high rates reflect in part the low costs of the ILO rural road construction technology and the present poor state of access of the current roads network.”

Assessment of the impact⁵⁴ of the irrigation system constructed under the same project found that the area of irrigated land under cultivation increased by 16% and crop yields increased by 28%. Improved water supply contributed to crop diversity with vegetables becoming an increasing source of household income, the second most important after rice. Investment in an irrigation project led to increased yields and diversification of crops. Farmers benefiting from the scheme were less likely to seek off-farm employment and there was an increased demand for wage labour on the farms benefiting from irrigation. The impact of irrigation on farms was dependent on their distance from the secondary canal. The per cent of farmers who were producing below their annual consumption was relatively low at 17% in 1993. There was a marginal fall to 15% by 1999. The assessment of impact conducted 6 years after the investment in the irrigation scheme enabled capturing the impacts which took some time to evolve after project completion.

EIIP and ASIST-AP support for Cambodia continued as Technical Assistance to the Labour-Based Rural Infrastructure Works Programme following the government endorsing labour-based as the technology of choice for its rural infrastructure works. The four year “Upstream Project” under the technical assistance had four capacity building targets:

- To increase the capacity of the private sector by training small-scale contractors to carry out the rural infrastructure works using labour-based appropriate technology.
- To assist the Institute of Technology of Cambodia (ITC) to develop and deliver five engineering courses which included labour-based appropriate technologies.
- To assist the government in developing a maintenance strategy for rural infrastructure assets.
- To improve institutional capacity in the Ministry of Rural Development (MRD).

At the implementation level the local level infrastructure planning procedures were used to identify project interventions in four Provinces covered by the project. At the institutional level, the work was concerned with establishing the use of integrated rural infrastructure planning procedures throughout the Ministry of Rural Development including its provincial offices.

The 2004 ASIST-AP report⁵⁵ showed continuing substantial engagement in Cambodia in: (a) work with central and local governments to mainstream employment intensive strategies in public investment programmes, and (b) participation in developing donor-funded infrastructure projects. In 2006, the Mainstreaming Labour-based Road Maintenance Pilot Project demonstrated how labour-based road works technology could be applied to maintain roads and contribute to poverty reduction through the additional employment created. ILO EIIP also introduced local resource based approaches to upgrade infrastructure at the village level, which involved engaging local contractors, employing local labour and assisting in developing and formulating the National Social Protection Strategy for the poor and vulnerable with the aim of establishing a national social protection floor with universal access to basic health care and primary education. An important feature of

⁵³ The President of ADB's *Report and recommendation to the Board of Directors on a proposed loan and technical assistance to the Kingdom of Cambodia for the Rural Infrastructure Improvement Project*, Manila, September 1995.

⁵⁴ Kassie A (2001) *Evaluation of farm level impact of Barai irrigation system*. Centre for Advanced Study, Phnom Penh for the ILO Labour-based Infrastructure Works Programme “Upstream Project” CMB/97/M02/SID.

⁵⁵ ASIST-AP (2004) *Annual Progress Report May 2003 to April 2004*, ILO - Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. Bangkok: ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific.

EIIP's engagement in Cambodia is collaboration with other UN agencies and donors starting from the emergency and rehabilitation phases in the early 1990s to more development oriented collaboration later.

The inclusion of Cambodia as a development impacts case outside the reference period is as an example of long-term engagement starting from the fragile and unstable initial situation transitioning into delivering impacts through the interdependent activities of impacts from the assets created and maintained, capacity development and support for policies to sustain the employment intensive approach and incorporating inclusion and decent work principles. The value of this case is also as external evidence for assessment of interventions in other countries during the reference period where this is necessary. In Exhibit 14 the ratings for confidence in evidence and strength of impact are at the high end for ImpAss, CD and PDI because of evidence from studies of impacts for beneficiaries from the improved roads and irrigation works and the developed capacities of the MRD, the local administrations and contractors and contractors evidenced by implementation of projects and developing new initiatives.

Exhibit 14: Cambodia - Ratings of evidence and impact

Impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	Formal evidence from studies on project outcomes as proxy indicators of development (increased traffic and expanded economic activities), but not formal evidence of improved livelihoods as development impact. Substantial informal evidence. Evidence rating: 4	Proxy evidence from studies shows strong economic and social development resulting from improved access (more extensive) and irrigation (smaller scale). Strength of Impact: 4.
CD	Formal evidence from reports on capacity development at national and local government levels and of project implementation capacity (private and public sector). Evidence rating: 4	Strong evidence of impact at national and local government levels during rehabilitation and development stages and later, including in MRD. Technical and management capacity for implementing projects evidenced by works undertaken. With government following the guidelines formulated by the ILO in its project the capacity development impact is prominent in the country. Strength of impact: 4.
PDI	Formal evidence on adoption of employment intensive approach and mainstreaming in the public investment budget. Evidence rating: 5	Adoption of employment intensive approach for rural roads development and maintenance and mainstreaming the employment intensive approach. Allocation of sufficient resources remains a challenge. Strength of Impact is 4

4.1.3 Greece: A targeted PEP model to address long-term unemployment

Kinofelis (public benefit in Greek) is a public employment programme initiated to respond to the persistent high unemployment resulting from the 2007/8 global economic crisis and the severity of its impact on the Greek economy. The programme was restructured with technical support from EIIP between September 2016 to November 2017. While the EIIP intervention was of short duration and Kinofelis remains relatively small, providing employment to about 40,000 persons per year, it has been included here: (a) as an example of a public employment programme (PEP) providing social protection for a significant targeted minority, the long-term unemployed, and (b) as a model with potential for expansion and emulation to address long-term unemployment at different levels of development. Its contribution to development is to mitigate the disadvantage of limited resources and capabilities for an excluded group.

The seasonally adjusted unemployment rate in Greece rose from 8.1% in February 2008 to 27.9% in July 2013. Among the unemployed the proportion of long-term unemployed and very long-term unemployed was very high.⁵⁶ The Greek government introduced the restructured Kinofelis programme with EIIP technical assistance to provide 8 months of employment for the long-term unemployed in a range of municipal works including cleaning of aqueducts to improve water quality, rehabilitation of green spaces, care services for the elderly, children and people with disabilities and digitising of municipal archives. Kinofelis offered a model for productive PEPs as a part of active labour market policies (ALMPs) to provide social protection for the long-term unemployed, improve their self-worth in society and increase their chances of obtaining employment.⁵⁷ OECD (2020) recognised the value of the programme and recommended its expansion to cope with the scale of the problem. The EIIP technical support contributed to improved program design, capacity building, communication, monitoring and reporting, and evaluation.

Exhibit 15: Greece - Ratings of evidence and impact

Impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpEmp	Sound informal evidence from a survey on livelihood improvement and socio-psychological benefits of employment. Evidence rating: 4	Sound informal evidence of impact from survey. Long-term social protection support if the programme continues with improvements introduced by TA support. Middling rating because of continuation on small scale in comparison with need. Strength of Impact: 3
CD	Sound informal evidence from reports on capacity development and programme outcomes. Informal evidence from survey of beneficiaries. Evidence rating: 4	Implementation performance is informal evidence of improvement in the capacity of the government and municipalities to deliver. Survey of participants indicates evidence of some issues with delivery. Strength of impact rating: 3
PDI	Formal evidence on adoption of ILO recommendations on approach and continuation of the restructured programme. Evidence rating: 5	Adoption of ILO recommendations on approach and continuation of the restructured programme. Middling rating because of continuation on small scale in comparison with need. Strength of Impact: 3
DW	Informal evidence from EIIP web page on adoption of DW principles during implementation of the project. No information on whether continued beyond project. Evidence rating: 2	Informal evidence from EIIP web page on adoption of DW principles during implementation of the project. No information on whether continued beyond the EIIP project. Strength of Impact: 2

Exhibit 15 shows relatively high ratings on confidence in evidence for ImpEmp, CD and PDI based on the evidence from the survey and documentary evidence on outcomes and adoption of policies recommended. The ratings on strength of impacts are middling because the EIIP TA was to a continuing programme which remains on a modest scale.

4.1.4 Jordan: Humanitarian – development – peace nexus potential

EIIP'S engagement in Jordan in response to the influx of Syrian displaced persons started in 2015, with building capacity of small contractors to carry out infrastructure works using employment intensive approaches. The EIIP engagement is intended to provide support in a crisis for the government and people

⁵⁶ 19.5% of the labour force was long-term unemployed (unemployed for more than 12 months) and 12.5% very long-term unemployed (more than 12 months) according to the *EU Country factsheet: long-term unemployment in Greece*.

⁵⁷ EIIP (2017) *Getting back to work: A study of the social impacts of Kinofelis*. Geneva: ILO and ILO (2021) *The right to work now: Lessons from Kinofelis, the Greek public employment programme*. Geneva: ILO.

of Jordan to cope with the resulting labour market distress and pressure on public services and amenities resulting from accommodating the large number of Syrian refugees. EIIP's core project in Jordan is the Employment Intensive Infrastructure Programmes in Jordan which started in 2016 and has been implemented in phases since then.⁵⁸ Other EIIP engagements in Jordan included technical assistance to the World Bank financed Municipal Services and Social Resilience Project (MSSRP), the Norway government funded green works in agriculture and forestry to support refugees and host communities and more recently the Italian government funded green jobs and home enterprise development project.

The focus here is on assessing the impact of the core EIIP Jordan project and not the other projects referred to above. The stated development objective of EIIP Jordan is to contribute to strengthening resilience of local host communities and displaced Syrians by improving livelihoods for host community members and Syrian refugees through job creation and infrastructure development. The intended outcomes are: (a) employment generation; (b) asset creation, improvement or maintenance; (c) strengthening institutional and technical capacity for sustainability, and (d) improving employability. While the targets for short-term employment generation have been met there are issues related to longer-term development impacts of EIIP interventions.

Two studies⁵⁹ during Jordan EIIP Phase V⁶⁰ provide evidence on the impact on livelihoods and some insights on employability after EIIP participation. According to these studies most of the EIIP project workers were either unemployed or in low paid or precarious employment at the time of joining an EIIP sub-project.⁶¹ EIIP wages were very important source of income for survey respondents with the majority of workers indicating that their households were either fully dependent on EIIP wages (no other source of income), or predominantly reliant on EIIP wages (most important source of income). The largest categories of spending from EIIP wages were rent, paying off debts and food.

EIIP jobs were typically for 40 days.⁶² Following EIIP jobs, very high proportions of participants reverted to being unemployed with the remainder finding jobs similar to those prior to EIIP employment. Employability after EIIP employment remained a challenge mainly because of the distressed labour market situation and to some extent because of the modest levels of skills training provided by the project. While reference here is to studies during Phase V, surveys during earlier phases depicted a similar situation. In contrast with previous employment and by implication available unskilled employment opportunities, the EIIP projects provided stable and regulated work albeit for a limited period of time. Such short-term episodes of employment generating earnings to support livelihoods for the duration of the work have limited development impact. However, if a set number of days of employment⁶³ to members of targeted households with precarious livelihoods is offered periodically (e.g. every year) with regularity and predictability (in effect the PEP model) it would provide a level of social protection as a development impact (ImpEmp). Given the resource requirements and the externally imposed crisis, such an approach would require coordination and resource commitments involving partners working at the humanitarian – development – peace nexus.

On the development impact of asset creation (ImpAss), in Phase II, EIIP Jordan entered into partnerships with four ministries, Ministry of Public Works and Housing (MPWH), Ministry of Agriculture (MoA), Ministry of Local Administration (MoLA) and Ministry of Education (MoE) leading to projects in 4 sectors (roads maintenance with MPWH, forestry nursery, water cisterns and hydroponic cultivation units with MoA and municipal community works with MoLA and schools maintenance with MoE). While there is diversity in the range of sectors and project types, just over 61% of the project expenditure and 57% of the worker days were in road maintenance. There are potentially economic development impacts from improved or maintained assets (road maintenance, construction of water cisterns and hydroponic cultivation units). Evidence of such

⁵⁸ Referred to here as EIIP Jordan. Phase VI is the current phase.

⁵⁹ Excel Consulting (2022) *Workers Survey: Phase V of the project Employment through Labour Intensive Infrastructure (EIIP) in Jordan* and Stave S E, Nashwan A, Al-Khateeb H, Alakhras A (2022) *Conducting Workers Survey for Phase V of the project: Employment through Labour Intensive Infrastructure (EIIP) in Jordan*.

⁶⁰ The formal start and end dates were November 2019 and August 2022.

⁶¹ EIIP Jordan has been referred to as a project and numerous "projects" implemented within it as sub-projects.

⁶² Roughly equivalent to 2 months. There was a minimum 40 days requirement because of the donor's definition of a "job".

⁶³ EIIP Jordan offers 40 days of about 2 months equivalent days of employment.

impact is only available for water cisterns. A survey⁶⁴ of farmers benefiting from the investment in water cisterns reported that 72% of farmers increased their cultivated area, 51% saved more than 30% of irrigation costs and 69% had an increase in their incomes. The final evaluation report for the project indicated that some farmers would recoup their investment within 3 years, though the payback period for the whole investment would be much longer.⁶⁵ The development impact mechanism is Type 1(a) “Higher productivity and/or earnings from current economic activities” (see Exhibit 9).

The rest of the works under EIIP Jordan were predominantly non-economic, such as improving the community habitat and municipal community works.⁶⁶ These types of works are employment generation focused but also contribute to development broadly defined as contributing to community wellbeing. By implication, the expected longer term asset creation or preservation impacts are the improved living environment for communities and reducing damage to the environment, though evidence on these types of impacts was not available.

Jordan EIIP has supported the municipalities and MPWH in developing the capabilities to implement the activities using employment intensive methods (the CD element). Further, EIIP Jordan has partnered with MPWH and public works directorates over a number of phases and MPWH has adopted performance based management contracts in some of their road maintenance activities. Whether the capacities developed in the municipalities and MPWH will be sustained and enhanced to continue and expand the approach beyond EIIP are dependent on the Government of Jordan (GoJ) and external partners’ commitments and policies (the PDI element).

Jordan EIIP has delivered on decent work and inclusion. It has demonstrated how the disadvantage of exclusion can be addressed by raising and exceeding targets for participation of women (and persons with disabilities) by developing innovative solutions especially for women’s participation. The wider short-term impact has been through development of standard operating procedures (SOP) document for the cash for work sector and its adoption by other agencies. The longer term and larger impacts on DW and Inclusion are dependent on the practices being adopted on employment programmes and more widely.

At the humanitarian – development – peace nexus that EIIP Jordan has been operating, the development impact needs to be more nuanced to include contribution to reduce social tensions and resilience of the communities. In spite of EIIP employment providing short-term employment with limited impact on livelihoods, the studies cited above reported that the majority of workers agreed that members of the host communities and displaced persons working on the project reduced tensions between workers of different nationalities. However, it is likely that this reduction of tensions is limited to members of the communities who worked on the project.

With respect to resilience, EIIP Jordan’s development objective can be broadly stated as to strengthen resilience of local host communities and displaced Syrians by improving livelihoods for host community members and Syrian refugees through job creation and infrastructure development. The OCHA definition⁶⁷ of resilience applicable in this context is “the ability of communities and households to endure stresses and shocks. Communities and households are resilient when they are able to meet their basic needs in a sustainable way and without reliance on external assistance”. Episodic short durations of employment are not sufficient to develop this resilience but the employment programme approach could have the potential to contribute to developing resilience. The evidence shows that the EIIP Jordan has the potential to

⁶⁴ ILO ROAS (2019) *Water cisterns impact assessment analysis report: Job creation for Syrian Refugees and Jordanian host communities through Green Works in agriculture and forestry* (Employment Intensive Investment Program funded by the Government of Norway).

⁶⁵ Connell, J G (2018) *Job creation for Syrian refugees and Jordanian host communities through green works in agriculture and forestry* (JOR/16/10/NOR): Final Independent Evaluation. The water cisterns sub-projects were partnerships with farmers who contributed a part of the investment cost.

⁶⁶ There were some green works and maintenance of schools which are in a different category for development impact, access to education for much longer-term development and wellbeing and environment for sustainability.

⁶⁷ UN Office for Coordination of Human Affairs

contribute to developing the social protection dimension of development as a part of an employment programme model.

The rating for confidence in evidence in Exhibit 16 is low for ImpAss because of low asset creation content and evidence from just one study (water cisterns project referred to above) on impact. Strength of impact is also low for the same reason. For ImpEmp arguably confidence in the evidence is relatively high based on the survey evidence but the strength of impact is low because the evidence indicates no or very limited impact on livelihoods of participants and their households after project employment. On CD there are middling to low impacts on confidence in evidence and strength of impact signalling that the capacities developed have the potential to make an impact. On PDI the impacts are low because of limited engagement with the government on asset creation oriented or PEP type initiatives arising out of Jordan EIIP and other EIIP Projects. The ratings on DW and Inclusion are middling because of the impacts made by the project and its potential for wider adoption.

Exhibit 16: Jordan - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	Very limited evidence (1 study for 1 limited asset type) supported by general external evidence. Evidence rating: 1	Very limited evidence. Investment focused on non-economic assets with the exception of limited activities in the agriculture sector and maintenance of roads. Strength of Impact is 1
ImpEmp	Sound evidence from surveys does not support longer term impact on livelihoods through project employment. External evidence supports potential of impact. Evidence rating: 3.	Weak actual impact. Potential of longer term impact if an employment programme type approach is adopted (see PDI below). Would require policy and resource commitments (government and international partners). Strength of Impact is 1
CD	Informal evidence from reports on municipal and MPWH capacity development. Adoption by MPWH of PBMCs for maintenance. Evidence rating: 2	The capacity developed for Jordan EIIP has the potential to make an impact through future GoJ (see PDI below) or other development agencies' projects. Strength of Impact: 2/3
PDI	Informal evidence of limited potential of policies for asset creation oriented or PEP initiatives. Evidence rating: 2	limited potential of policies for asset creation oriented or PEP initiatives but there is a case for a government and external partnership PEP. Strength of Impact: 2
DW	Formal evidence of adoption of decent work principles on EIIP Jordan. Informal evidence on adoption of approach on other cash for work projects. Evidence rating: 3	Potential for longer term and wider impact dependent on continuation and scale of cash for work projects adopting the SOP. Strength of Impact: 3
Inclusion	Formal and informal evidence on inclusion of women and PwDs and models for achieving greater participation by women. Evidence rating: 3	Potential for impact based on the demonstration effect and GoJ and ILO initiatives. Strength of Impact: 3

4.1.5 Kenya: A strong legacy of development in the rural roads sector

There is insufficient information for assessing longer term impacts for the projects in Kenya during the reference period. The country is included in this assessment for EIIP's pre-reference period engagement, in particular for longer term impacts through capacity development (CD) and policy development and

implementation (PDI) support in the rural roads sector. EIIP has been active in Kenya since its inception. Its first engagement was technical assistance to the Rural Access Roads Programme (RARP) between 1974 and 1985⁶⁸ to support the design, planning, programming and organisational aspects. The TA was of key importance because labour-based methods for road construction were a new approach not only in Kenya but internationally.⁶⁹ In addition, EIIP was instrumental in establishing and strengthening the Kisii Training Centre (KTC)⁷⁰ for labour-based technology, planning and management and providing support in developing training materials and validating training programmes. By 1984 EIIP was involved in implementing pilot projects or programmes in seven African and three Asian countries based on the concepts, knowledge and experience from the Kenya RARP.

Overlapping with the last years of the RARP, the Minor Roads Programme (MRP) initiated in 1986 adopted labour-based methods to improve and maintain 3,000 kms of classified D and E roads. In 1997, the Road Sector Strategic Plan in Kenya adopted the Roads 2000 (R2000) strategy for maintenance of roads countrywide based on the experience, knowledge and capabilities developed during the RARP and MRP. The approach used the length-person system for routine maintenance introduced during RARP and later used on the MRP. In 2005 EIIP in collaboration with the UNDP, assisted the Government of Kenya in updating training materials and establishing the training plan for labour-based road works under Roads 2000 and proposed standardised contract management and tender procedures for smaller roads works which were incorporated in the KTC course modules. The ratings in Exhibit 17 on CD and PDI are high based on the evidence of the developed capacities and their use in developing and implementing a sequence of projects. No studies of development impact through PDI were found but such impact has been inferred from evidence on the adoption and mainstreaming of the employment intensive approach for rural roads maintenance and external evidence in section 3.3.2.

⁶⁸ Programme implementation started in 1976 and continued until 1991, constructing 8,000 kms of roads.

⁶⁹ The approach developed out of the ILO Technology and Employment branch research on alternative technologies for increasing employment (see de Veen (1984) *The rural access roads programme: Appropriate technology in Kenya*, Geneva: ILO). There was also complementary research by the World Bank, a donor for the RARP, on labour-based technologies in infrastructure works.

⁷⁰ KTC is now part of the Kenya Institute for Highways and Building Technology and has been a model for training for technical and management capacity development in other countries. A recent survey of training institutes engaged in training in employment intensive works in Africa elicited by ILO EIIP (Watanabe, 2020) elicited responses from 19 institutes in 13 countries.

Exhibit 17: Kenya - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
CD	Formal evidence on capacity development from reports and evidence of project implementation capacity. Establishment and functioning of KTC. Evidence rating: 4	Strong evidence of impact demonstrated by implementation of RARP followed by MRP and maintenance under Roads 2000. Strength of impact: 4
PDI	Formal evidence on adoption of employment intensive approach and mainstreaming in rural roads maintenance but no evidence of development impact found. Relevant external evidence. Evidence rating: 3/4	Adoption of employment intensive approach for rural roads development and maintenance and mainstreaming the employment intensive approach. Allocation of sufficient resources remains a challenge. Strength of Impact is 3/4

4.1.6 Lebanon: Addressing the humanitarian-development-peace nexus

EIIP'S engagement in Lebanon started in 2017 in response to the high influx of displaced persons from Syria and was intended to provide support in a crisis for the Government of Lebanon and Lebanese people to cope with the resulting labour market distress and pressure on public services and amenities. Since 2017 the EIIP Lebanon project, with the aim to construct, rehabilitate and maintain public assets, is being implemented in phases. While the initial focus was on providing support for Syrian displaced persons through income from work on EIIP projects, the project had to adapt to accommodate the increased number of Lebanese seeking support after the national economic crisis which started in 2020 compounded by COVID-19 and the Beirut Port explosion.

The project responded to the national crisis by widening the range of activities and working with more partners. EIIP Lebanon's impacts beyond providing short-term employment are summarised below.

- Improvement and maintenance of assets of economic and wider value (roads, markets, rural farming infrastructure and reforestation).
- Continuing road maintenance activities in partnership with the Ministry of Public Works and Transport (MOPWT).
- Formal handover of ownership and responsibility for maintenance to municipalities for sustainability beyond the project.
- Embedding an EIIP expert as advisor in the Ministry of Social Affairs (MoSA) to support integration of the EIIP approach in the national social protection policy.
- Development of the Employment Intensive Projects Guidelines endorsed by MoSA and Ministry of Labour to be adopted by all agencies providing employment based livelihood support. The Guidelines incorporate decent work principles.
- Innovations in developing and delivering projects in collaboration with NGOs. Examples are collaborations with the Lebanon Mountain Trail Association (to repair and maintain mountain trails used for leisure) and Lebanon Reforestation Initiative.
- Capacity building of contractors to implement employment intensive projects and training in the EIIP approach and decent work principles for agencies engaging in employment based livelihood support.

With respect to longer-term development impacts, there are some similarities between EIIP Lebanon and EIIP Jordan (see 4.1.4 above) but also some important differences. The stated development objective of EIIP Lebanon to contribute to strengthening resilience of local host communities and displaced Syrians by improving livelihoods for host community members and Syrian refugees are broadly similar to those for Jordan. The intended outcomes are: (a) short-term employment generation; (b) asset creation, improvement

or maintenance; (c) strengthening institutional and technical capacity for sustainability, and (d) improving employability. While the targets for short-term employment generation have been met there are issues related to longer-term development impacts of EIIP interventions as in Jordan. The differences between Lebanon and Jordan are that in Lebanon, more economic assets have been created, notably rural roads, and a well established relationship with MOPWT for continuing road maintenance activities.

On longer-term development impacts of the assets created (ImpAss) EIIP Lebanon reported⁷¹ that during the current phases of the project, the project had completed more than 20 infrastructure projects:

- 30 km agricultural roads construction in Tal Abbas, Kfaraaka, East Zahle, Marjayoun and Mairouba.
- 25 km irrigation network in Deir el Ahmar.
- 2 vegetable markets in Zgharta and Al Qaa.
- 4 km pedestrian networks in Jbeil, Ghobeiry and El Mina and Marjayoun.
- 3 km storm water drains in Kfaraaka and Mazboud.
- 2 km retaining walls construction in Bcharre and Marjayoun.
- 90 km road maintenance in and around Saida, Zahle and Jbeil districts.

All except the pedestrian networks and storm water drains are construction or maintenance of economic assets.⁷² In addition, in response to the economic crisis facing Lebanon, the project added forestry works and other initiatives in collaboration with NGOs to generate more employment.

Assessments of economic impacts conducted by EIIP Lebanon of three infrastructure projects implemented during the first two phases of EIIP (irrigation network in Deir al Ahmar-Baalbeck, a water reservoir in Hammana and agricultural roads in Tal Abbas-Akkar) showed that farmers and residents in the relevant communities had benefited from income increases and/or cost decreases. The benefits included increased agricultural cultivation and production and change in the crops grown resulting from the irrigation project, improved access to water for domestic consumption from the Hammana water reservoir and generally increased economic activity resulting from the improved infrastructure and earnings from EIIP employment. An economic appraisal of the benefits of three projects conducted during an earlier phase (2 roads and a market)⁷³ showed increased and higher value agricultural production and better product prices contributing to improving livelihoods.

On longer-term impacts from employment generation (ImpEmp), the conclusion is similar to that for Jordan. A survey of project workers⁷⁴ showed that the wages earned were mostly spent on basic living expenses (97% of respondents), repaying or servicing debt (44%) and increasing savings (18%). About one-third of respondents wanted the EIIP employment to last longer for sustained improvement in their livelihoods. The evidence from the survey showed that a higher proportion of project workers were unemployed after participation in EIIP. In spite of the worse employment situation, half the respondents stated that they had acquired new softer and technical skills on the job. As for Jordan, it can be concluded that the EIIP projects provided stable and regulated work for a limited period of time but have very limited development impact. If a PEP approach is adopted in collaboration with partners working at the humanitarian – development – peace nexus to offer a set number of days of employment periodically (e.g. every year) with regularity and predictability to members of targeted households with precarious livelihoods a level of social protection would be provided as development impact (ImpEmp).

Capacity development (CD) and supporting policy development and implementation (PDI) have been through training programmes for contractors, central and local government officials and agencies and NGOs working in the cash for work sector and the preparation and adoption of the EIP Guidelines⁷⁵ by MoSA and MoL. EIIP Lebanon has delivered on decent work and inclusion in its own implementation and by incorporating the

⁷¹ <https://www.eiiplebanon.com/results> on 1st June 2023.

⁷² The retaining wall construction is to protect a rural road in a mountainous area.

⁷³ Consultation & Research Institute (2022) *Economic Impact Study for Three EIIP projects: Final Report – January 2022 (Lebanon EIIP)*.

⁷⁴ Consultation & Research Institute (2021) *Final Report Employment Intensive Infrastructure Programme in Lebanon workers survey and perception survey on infrastructure projects: Final report*, June.

⁷⁵ ILO EIIP Lebanon, MoSA, MoL (2020) *Employment intensive projects in Lebanon: Guidelines*. Beirut: ILO EIIP Lebanon.

principles in the training for contractors and other agencies and in the EIP Guidelines. It has demonstrated how the disadvantage of exclusion can be addressed by developing innovative solutions for women's participation and by raising and exceeding targets for participation of women. The Hiya Tabni (She Can Build) initiative in partnership with UNDP included training of women on topics linked to community outreach as well as infrastructure works related activities through which decent work opportunities were generated for women and specifically those who headed households.

As for Jordan in the humanitarian – development – peace nexus at which EIIP Lebanon has been operating, the development impacts need to be responsive to the need to contribute to reduction of social tensions and resilience of communities. With respect to resilience, EIIP Lebanon's development objective can be broadly stated as to strengthen resilience of local host communities and displaced Syrians by improving livelihoods for host community members and Syrian refugees through job creation and infrastructure development. The OCHA definition of resilience referred to earlier in relation to EIIP Jordan is also applicable in Lebanon. Episodic short durations of employment are not sufficient to develop this resilience but the PEP approach would have the potential.

The EIIP intervention in Lebanon started as a response to an externally imposed crisis but has adapted to respond to the national economic crisis. So far, the impact, in addition to those arising from the assets created and maintained, has been in the adoption of the EIIP approach by the government and other agencies involved in livelihood support through work. Potentially, the intervention has developed a base for a public employment programme approach, to be implemented in collaboration with the government, international agencies and NGOs. The approach would offer a set level of regular income from decent employment which would provide a level of social protection for households with precarious livelihoods, bolster their resilience and be aligned with the humanitarian-development-peace nexus.

In Exhibit 18 the middling ratings for confidence in evidence and strength for ImaAss are justified by the creation of economic assets described above and informal evidence from (a) project completion reports,⁷⁶ and (b) simplified economic appraisals of two roads and a market in 2019. For ImpEmp, as for EIIP Jordan, arguably confidence in the evidence is relatively high based on survey evidence but the strength of impact is low because the evidence indicates no or very limited impact on livelihoods after project employment. On CD there are middling to low impacts on confidence in evidence and strength of impact because the capacities developed have the potential to make an impact through projects implemented by other agencies and Government of Lebanon with external support. On PDI the impacts are low to middling because while there are obstacles to implementation of a PEP type approach there was evidence of acceptance by the government of the need for such an approach because of the presence of Syrian displaced persons and the effects of the economic crisis for Lebanese citizens. The ratings on DW and Inclusion are middling, as for EIIP Jordan, because of the impacts made by the project and its potential for wider adoption.

Exhibit 18: Lebanon - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	Incomplete informal evidence of asset improvements and their impacts through evaluation reports and studies. Evidence rating: 2/3	The project constructs and maintains mostly economic assets, rural roads, markets, and more recently farming infrastructure. There is evidence of development effects from some economic assets. Strength of Impact: 2/3
ImpEmp	Sound evidence from surveys does not support longer term impact on livelihoods through project employment. External evidence supports potential of impact.	Weak actual impact. Potential of longer term impact if an employment programme type approach is adopted. Would require policy commitment (Government of Lebanon and international partners).

⁷⁶ There is a completion report for each sub-project under EIIP Lebanon which includes a statement of the intended benefits of the sub-project and key informants' responses on the effects of the project for the locality.

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
	Evidence rating: 3	Strength of Impact is 1
CD	Formal evidence of training provided for capacity development. Informal evidence from reports on central government, municipal, other agencies and contractor capacity development. Monitoring of implementation by Social Safeguards Officers. Adoption by MoSA and MoL of EIP Guidelines. Evidence rating: 2/3	Informal evidence of sound contractor capacity developed from implementation on the project. Capacities developed in central government and municipalities but its application restricted by the economic and political uncertainties. Strength of Impact: 2/3
PDI	Informal evidence of obstacles to policies and their implementation for longer term development impacts through investment in assets and employment generation. Evidence rating: 2	Informal evidence of obstacles to longer term development impacts. Potential impacts depend on policy changes, capacity development and external support. Strength of Impact: 2
DW	Formal evidence on decent work principles on EIIP Lebanon. Informal evidence on adoption of approach on other cash for work projects. Evidence rating: 3	Potential for longer term and wider impact dependent upon continuation and scale of cash for work projects adopting the EIP Guidelines. Strength of Impact: 3
Inclusion	Formal evidence on inclusion of Syrian displaced persons, women and PwDs and on policies and initiatives to achieve inclusion on the project. Some informal evidence of longer-term impact, e.g. acceptance of Syrian displaced persons' participation and empowerment of women and PwDs. Evidence rating: 3/4	Potential for impact based on the demonstration effect and GoL and ILO initiatives. Strength of Impact: 3

4.1.7 Madagascar: Investment and impact in the education sector

EIIP has been engaged over the past 30 years in collaboration with several agencies, the UNDP, UNICEF, WHO, EU/CARE, UNCDF and others to implement large scale rehabilitation and reconstruction in the aftermath of several destructive cyclones. The EIIP contribution has consisted of: (i) training and capacity building for small and medium-sized labour-based contractors in the building sector, and (ii) the promotion of contracting systems and procedures that ensure that contractors have better opportunities and offer decent work. The focus in this account of longer term actual and potential impacts of EIIP is on its part in the Education for All (EFA) joint ILO/UNICEF/WFP project funded by the Kingdom of Norway during the reference period. The intended longer term impacts of the EIIP component are through: (a) improving delivery of primary education by constructing schools; (b) developing capacity of national partners in designing, planning, implementing, managing and maintaining works by employment intensive methods, and (c) promoting the employment intensive approach.

The final evaluation report for the project⁷⁷ identified improving access to basic education by increasing the number of classrooms and developing the capacities of the relevant institutions to manage and implement the classroom construction programme and maintenance of classrooms by parents' associations. The evaluation reports on a study comparing 26 schools which have additional classrooms and parents'

⁷⁷ Sy M (2019) *Project HIMO bâtiment: Rapport d'évaluation finale de projet (MAG/15/03/CEF)* (Madagascar).

association engagement in maintenance from being included in the project (“treatment”) and 22 “control” schools which were not included in the project and had no additional classrooms. The comparison showed the differences:

- “Treatment” schools had more books and learning materials than control groups. The additional materials were provided by partner agencies in the programme.
- Reduction of 28% in the students per classroom ratio in the “treatment” schools, increase in the ratio of 2% in the “control” schools.
- Increase in enrolment of 32% in “treatment” schools compared with 4% for the “control” schools.
- Reduction in the drop-out rate from 10% to 6% in “treatment” schools, increase in drop-out rate from 11% to 17% in the “control” schools.
- Increase in the primary school education completion certificates attained of 65% to 75% for the “treatment” schools, decrease from 69% to 46% for the “control” schools.

The differences between schools benefiting from the EIIP project and the control schools are indicators which signal the longer term development impacts arising from improved human resources and contribute to the broader wellbeing of those benefiting from the education in the sense that Sen (1999) refers to.⁷⁸ It should also be noted that not all the outcomes identified can be attributed to the new classrooms constructed because: (a) the complementary inputs by partners such as improved learning materials would have contributed, and (b) the differences between “treatment” and “control” could have been because of other factors than the intervention since precise matching between the two samples cannot be assured.

There is potential of other impacts arising from the capacity developed of: (a) SME contractors to undertake the work by employment intensive methods, (b) local education administrations to manage the contracting process and train parents’ associations in maintenance. The model, if adopted as part of policy and supported by resources would also have the potential for an expanded schools improvement programme with potential of larger impact. However, the evaluation report (Sy, 2019) identifies a number of obstacles against longer term impacts through capacity building and policy development and implementation. The confidence in evidence in Exhibit 19 on ImpAss has been rated as being “incomplete” in spite of the study including treatment and control samples because there were complementary interventions (UNICEF providing learning materials) the changes could not be attributed solely to the investment in facilities. On CD the limitation is that training is an input and there are no indicators of the outcome of training.⁷⁹ The PDI rating is explained in Exhibit 19.

Exhibit 19: Madagascar - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	Sound formal but incomplete evidence of the impact of schools and classroom assets improvement (evidence from study of improved enrolment and pupil performance). Evidence rating: 3/4	Sound incomplete evidence of improved enrolment and pupil performance from which longer term “non-economic” development impact ⁸⁰ from better educated people can be inferred. Strength of Impact:3
CD	Sound informal evidence from independent final evaluation report on inputs into capacity development but levels of capacities attained are difficult to assess. Evidence rating: 3	Informal evidence of capacities of public administration organisations and SMES in the final independent evaluation report. The report has some reservations about the capacities of public administration organisations. Strength of impact: 2/3

⁷⁸ See section 2.

⁷⁹ This is a common issue on most projects as the outcome of training is often not possible to assess.

⁸⁰ See the distinction in section 2 in framing the study between economic infrastructure and non-economic infrastructure with wider or more long-term socio-economic and environmental impacts.

PDI	informal evidence from independent final evaluation report on policy model but not on government commitment or resources. Evidence rating: 2	Evidence of policy model for managing the process for building school classrooms using small scale contractors and maintaining by parents' associations. Limited information on government resources and commitments to develop the policy and project to continue the investment. Strength of Impact is 2/3
------------	--	--

4.1.8 Mauritania: Addressing youth unemployment and social tensions

Mauritania is included as a country in which EIIP's engagement during the reference period has been through multiple initiatives to address the challenge of youth unemployment. It started with the Chantier Ecole, using a dual training model combining classroom instruction and onsite training including learning by doing. The objective of Chantier Ecole was to train young people who have missed out on formal education, in a trade based on infrastructure construction or maintenance activities, while offering them support to take up productive employment. The model comprised classroom instruction and onsite training to fulfil participants' technical learning and its application on site. Students completing the training are awarded a certificate of acquired skills which is officially recognised by the State. Barroeta and Suarez (2016)⁸¹ describe the model and make recommendations for its sustainability for longer term impact.

Following the initiation of the Chantier Ecole model, ILO expanded the scope of activities in the EU funded PECOBAT project (2016 - 2020) to improve youth employability and private sector development. PECOBAT II financed by AFD (2018 - 2020) and EU upscaled activities. The PECOBAT projects provide: (a) certified training in construction, maintenance and repair activities; (b) construction of schools and roads; (c) promoting employability of young people through entrepreneurial skills and strengthening of the private sector. A project financed by the Japanese government (2019 - 2020) incorporated the Chantier École model and complemented the EIIP projects.

Another distinctive feature of the PECOBAT projects was to use local cheap materials and techniques which provide local employment and construct buildings suitable for extreme climatic conditions. Use of widely available local materials (adobe and mortar) requiring no firing or compression for making building blocks using basic tooling and relatively simple technical skills. A women potters' association was commissioned to make ventilation pipes from clay to be built into school buildings as ventilation.

The Chantier Ecole and PECOBAT model was replicated by the USDOS financed project "Promoting a model for sustainable livelihoods and social cohesion in Bassikounou Moughataa in which the Mbera camp hosts Malian refugees. The project objectives were to: (a) improve the employability of young Mauritians and Malian refugees through training and employment intensive construction of community infrastructure to benefit displaced persons in the camp and the residents of the Moughataa, (b) promote local economic development entrepreneurship and enterprise development. The assets created included an access road for Mbera camp, solid waste management/recycling centre, agro-food processing centre, livestock regrouping centre, schools and college rooms construction.

EIIP interventions have implemented a model combining training for disadvantaged and unemployed young, providing employment in the construction of some economic assets (e.g. roads) and assets of wider value (e.g. schools) and support small businesses. While there are some development impacts from the small number of assets created, there is greater potential impact from the replication of the model on a larger scale. In Exhibit 20 the confidence in evidence impact ratings for all types are low because the evidence on impact is principally external and the activities are on pilot scales. There is potential of larger impacts from assets created and employment if the activities are replicated.

⁸¹ Barroeta F and Suarez S (2016) *Étude diagnostique sur la formation et l'insertion professionnelle dans l'entretien routier en Mauritanie*. ILO.

Exhibit 20: Mauritania - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	External evidence only of impact of pilot scale economic and community assets works. Evidence rating: 1	External evidence only of impact of pilot scale economic assets and other community assets. Potential from replication and expansion. Strength of Impact: 2
ImpEmp	External evidence only of impact of pilot scale employment with skills development. Evidence rating: 1	External evidence of impact of pilot scale economic assets and other community assets. Potential from replication and expansion and innovative use of local materials and techniques. Strength of Impact: 2
CD	Partial and informal evidence of capacities developed – project beneficiaries, training providers and SMEs. Evidence rating: 1	Some capacity developed on a limited scale. Effective model demonstrated. Continuing effort needed to replicate, expand and innovate. Strength of Impact: 2
PDI	Limited informal evidence on engagement with ministries, e.g. on adopting policies for using local materials and inclusion of SMEs and youth in infrastructure works and certification of training. Evidence rating: 1	Limited informal evidence on engagement with ministries, e.g. on adopting policies for using local materials and inclusion of SMEs and youth in infrastructure works and certification of training. Limited commitment to date. Strength of Impact: 1
DW	Formal and informal evidence on adoption of decent work principles on projects. Evidence rating: 1	Potential for longer term and wider impact dependent upon replication of approach. Strength of Impact: 2
Inclusion	Formal and informal evidence on inclusion of women on projects. Evidence rating: 2	Potential longer term and wider impact dependent on replication of approach. Strength of Impact: 2

4.1.9 Mozambique: Complementary policy development and implementation support

One of Mozambique's main development challenges is persistent and wide-spread rural poverty related to low productivity farming and related under- and unemployment and poor quality of the infrastructure. The EIIP approach is highly suited for providing support for addressing this challenge. Since the early 1990s, Mozambique has been using an employment intensive approach for rural infrastructure works, especially for roads. In 2009, the Government of Mozambique (GoMZ) initiated a project that was aimed at putting employment at the centre of the national development agenda. The project proposed establishment of an employment intensive policy unit within the GoMZ to develop policies targeting the use of labour-based methods in infrastructure investments but the initiative lost momentum because of lack of funds.

The SIDA funded project “Decent work for sustainable and inclusive economic transformation in Mozambique”, MozTrabalha, initiated in 2016 supported the GoMZ policy objective and helped to revitalise the initiative. MozTrabalha had two main components: (a) a national institutional component focused on designing and implement pro-employment policies and programmes encompassing employment-intensive projects, and (b) an implementation component to include employment-intensive market infrastructure investments, stimulation of green Jobs through SME development and improved access to productive employment for women and female-headed households.

Under the first component MozTrabalha supported the formulation and implementation of the National Employment Policy (NEP). The NEP was approved by the council of ministers in 2016 and policy Implementation plans were developed for the period 2017 to 2024. MozTrabalha provided technical

assistance, training and research to support development of the NEP and the implementation plan. Twenty-one sectors were identified and relevant ministries and agencies were involved in implementing the NEP. GoMZ reported that implementation of the NEP generated about 1.9 million jobs between 2015 and 2019, out of which about 466,000 were for women. MozTrabalha has also supported the strengthening of other government departments and institutes (e.g. the Secretary of State for Youth and Employment; the National Employment Institute (INEP); the Institute for the Promotion of SMEs, and the Labour Market Observatory).

On the second employment intensive implementation component, the primary focus was to demonstrate models of intervention to meet the twin challenges of increasing decent work creation and delivery of quality infrastructure. This was done through the dissemination and adoption of EI methods and the implementation of demonstration pilots that involve training of young entrepreneurs to enable them to take part in the creation and maintenance of critical rural and urban infrastructure. The training strategy drew on ILO's experience in the country, particularly its work in the past with the Ministry of Public Works and Housing on capacity building for employment intensive works. The project has supported young women and men to develop their skills in gabion ditch infrastructure works to minimize land erosion risks. The project also supported the development of recreational infrastructure within community spaces to create a sense of belonging and social cohesion in communities. This intervention in Beira was featured by the UN as an example of good practice.

MozTrabalha has promoted the use of local alternative construction materials through training and provision of manual presses for young local entrepreneurs in 3 provinces. The production method is labour intensive, economically viable and contributes to reducing carbon emission. It has been proposed as a technology to be used in post cyclone reconstruction. MozTrabalha has also piloted several employment intensive road paving technologies, such as use of interlocked blocks in Maputo. The Government of Japan has contributed to the expansion of these pilots and supported restoration in the disaster affected areas through the dissemination and piloting of employment intensive paving techniques.

In March and April 2019 the country was hit by two consecutive tropical cyclones (Idai and Kenneth) that left a trail of death, damage and destruction in their paths. EIIP response was support for the restoration of public services. A technical and vocational educational training (TVET) centre was rehabilitated in the disaster-affected areas, using climate-resilient alternative construction materials. In the short-term, the public employment scheme served as a form of social protection. Overall there are significant actual and potential development impacts from support for policy development and implementation and related capacity development. The confidence in evidence and strength of impact ratings are low for all elements other than PDI in Exhibit 21 because the evidence reviewed showed pilot scale implementation activities. On PDI there is substantial informal evidence of policy level impact with potential of mainstreaming pro-employment policies and the employment intensive infrastructure works.

Exhibit 21: Mozambique - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	External evidence only of development impact of pilot scale works on economic and community assets. Incomplete evidence of impact on local materials development for construction. Evidence rating: 2	External evidence only of impact of pilot scale economic assets and other community assets. Potential of replication and expansion of works and materials development enterprises. Strength of impact: 2
ImpEmp	External evidence only of impact of pilot scale employment with skills development. Evidence rating: 1	External evidence of impact of pilot scale economic assets and other community assets. Potential from replication and expansion and innovative use of local materials and techniques. Strength of impact: 2
CD	Partial and informal evidence of capacities developed – project	Substantial capacity developed in government ministries and agencies, SMEs and project

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
	beneficiaries, training providers and SMEs. Evidence rating: 1	participants. Potential related to continuing government commitment (see PDI below). Strength of impact: 3
PDI	Substantial informal evidence of actual and potential impact, adoption and implementation of NEP and engagement with government departments and agencies. Evidence rating: 3	Substantial informal evidence of actual and potential impact, adoption and implementation of NEP and engagement with government departments and agencies. Strength of impact: 3/4
DW	Formal and informal evidence on adoption of decent work principles on projects. Evidence rating: 2	Potential for longer term and wider impact dependent on continuation of approach. Strength of impact: 2
Inclusion	Formal and informal evidence on inclusion of women on projects. Evidence rating: 2	Potential longer term and wider impact dependent on replication of approach. Strength of impact: 1/2

4.1.10 Papua New Guinea (PNG): Benefits of EIIP participation in an integrated development project

The Support to Rural Entrepreneurship and Trade in Papua New Guinea (STREIT PNG) Programme is the largest grant-funded Programme of the European Union in the country and the Pacific region. The Programme was developed under the umbrella of the 11th European Development Fund (2014-2020) and is being implemented as a United Nations Joint Programme under the leadership of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), partnering with the International Labour Organization (ILO), United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNCDF), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the International Telecommunication Union (ITU).

EIIP's participation in STREIT is currently in progress (2020 to 2025). It is included here in brief to demonstrate potential impacts of EIIP projects when it is part of an integrated development initiative. While there is substantial potential for the development of cash crops and fishing in PNG its geography, dispersed populations and poor transport and communications infrastructure, poses a major challenge. In response, the STREIT Programme objective is to "increase sustainable and inclusive economic development of rural areas" through a combination of two integrated outcomes:

- Increasing the economic returns and opportunities from value chains for cocoa, vanilla and fishery.
- Strengthening and improving the efficiency of the enablers of the value chains (the business environment and sustainable and climate-proof transport and energy infrastructure).

The transport infrastructure is identified as one of the enablers of cash crops and fishery value chains.⁸² The EIIP component of the STREIT Programme addresses the transport infrastructure as an enabler of the value chains. It includes routine maintenance of 312 Km of roads over 4 years, rehabilitation of 130 km of roads, rehabilitation and maintenance of 5 airstrips for reaching areas with no road access feasible and 3 jetties for the fishery value chain. Rehabilitation and maintenance using local resources and labour-based technology are expected to generate about 500,000 worker days of employment. Emulating the Nepal SNRTP model, routine maintenance is being implemented by RMG workers and a web-based Road Transport Information Management System (RoTIMS) is being established. Farm-to-market feeder roads relevant for the value chains are being maintained by 138 Road Maintenance Groups (RMGs). Payment is directly to the RMG workers' bank accounts.

The capacity development element delivered alongside implementation is training contractors and local administration staff on technical and management aspects of preparing and implementing projects. RoTIMS is being developed in consultation with the provincial and national level Ministry of Works and Highways

⁸² The other enabler identified is the business environment and support for agripreneurs and enterprise development.

officials and technical staff, thereby building their capacity to use and manage the system. Decent work and inclusion aspects are included in the training. There is engagement with Yawasoro Technical and Vocational Education Centre (TVET) for skill development of youth. Two Provincial Gender Mainstreaming Technical Working Groups (GMTWG), comprising of provincial line ministries, NGOs and civil society representatives, have been set up to help address inclusion.

One of the partners in STREIT is the International Telecommunication Union (ITU). The EIIP and FAO components of STREIT are engaging with ITU and relevant government departments on linking their capacity building activities with government investment in digital and telecommunications sector. This also involve supporting SME engagement in digital solutions for enhancing value chains and improving access to finance, information and extension services. These areas are of key importance in PNG given its geography. With respect to policy formation, other areas of engagement of the EIIP component with the Department of Works and Highways is to implement projects on a matched funding basis and provision of technical assistance for government funded infrastructure projects.

The development impacts of the EIIP component of STREIT are expected to be:

- Enhanced benefits from the improved value chains for cocoa, vanilla and fishery resulting from improved roads and other transport infrastructure leading to lower transport costs and increased transport capacity. A complementary non-economic aspect is better access to essential services for communities. The sustainability of these benefits is contingent on the improved capacities, systems and financial provision being maintained beyond STREIT.
- Workers engaged in rehabilitation works and in maintenance benefit from income supplementing their livelihoods. Rehabilitation work would be of short durations and therefore may have limited longer term development impacts unless the income received by participants from the employment is sufficient to invest in assets. Maintenance workers receive regular income over time which would enable them to improve their livelihoods and initiate other economic activities contributing to financial security as has been the case for RMG worker in Nepal.
- Workers are protected by the application of decent work principles. The inclusive approach provides opportunities for women and minorities.
- Capacity development and support for policy forming and implementation are parts of the project.

The EIIP component of STREIT is the only example of a project included in this study, which is part of an integrated development initiative. Potentially, its development impact is amplified by the contribution it makes to increase the production and value added from the three products. While the project is being implemented there is an opportunity to initiate studies for assessing the development impacts in collaboration with the development partners if such studies have not already been planned and plan studies of impacts which evolve after the project ends. The ratings in Exhibit 22 are on the low side for confidence in evidence and strength of impact because longer-term impacts from the development of the value chains for the three cash products are difficult to assess at this stage.

Exhibit 22: Papua New Guinea - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	The evidence in this case would be from impact through the three value chains and from other economic and non-economic impacts on which there is no evidence. Reliance is on external evidence only. Evidence rating: 1	Based on external evidence of providing access where the existing access is poor. There is a high potential but rating is middling because of complementary interventions but lack of direct evidence. Strength of Impact rating: 2/3.
ImpEmp	The evidence would be on impact of income and skills developed from project employment. No direct	The rating is based on potential development impact for RMG members. There is no evidence at present.

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
	evidence yet. External evidence (e.g. from RMGs in Nepal) would be relevant for RMG workers but not construction workers. Evidence rating: 1/2.	Strength of Impact rating: 1/2.
CD	Evidence from project reports of capacity development inputs and continuing engagement with private sector and government stakeholders on the policies and practices being implemented and related training. Outcome in the form of implementing projects is not possible to gauge at this stage. Evidence rating: 1/2	The capacity being developed has some potential to contribute to future national and externally supported employment intensive projects, dependent on policy direction. Low rating because of potential based on project initiatives rather than actual evidence. Strength of Impact: 2.
PDI	There is evidence from project reports of engagement with national and provincial governments which offer potential for policy development. Outcome in the form of implementing projects for development is not possible to gauge at this stage. Evidence rating: 1/2	Potential to contribute to future national and externally supported employment intensive projects. Low rating because of potential based on project initiatives rather than actual evidence. Strength of Impact: 2.
DW	Formal evidence on decent work principles on project. No evidence on potential for continuation in the future. Evidence rating: 2	Potential for longer term and wider impact dependent on continuation of approach. Strength of impact: 2
Inclusion	Informal evidence on initiatives to include women (formation of Provincial Gender Mainstreaming Technical Working Groups). Evidence rating: 2/3.	Potential longer term and wider impact dependent on replication of approach. Strength of impact: 1/2

4.1.11 Philippines: Support for developing resilience to natural calamities

There have been six EIIP projects in the Philippines during the reference period ranging in budget size from USD 100,000⁸³ to USD 3.2 million. The EIIP response framework⁸⁴ includes provision of immediate income support through employment in restoring basic community infrastructures and assets for poor and vulnerable families whose livelihoods were severely affected by typhoons. The model has been to work in partnerships with community-based organizations, national and local governments and NGOs to include:

- Rehabilitation and reconstruction of public assets such as houses, schools, roads, bridges, and agricultural and community infrastructure to improve community access to public facilities, health services, and markets for men and women.

⁸³ This was the initial Japanese support to the ILO response framework for dealing with the aftermath of super typhoon Haiyan in 2013 followed by USD 3 million contribution by Japan for livelihood recovery.

⁸⁴ ILO (2014a) *A practical guide for post calamity response: The Philippine experience*. Manila: ILO.

- Enhancement of the knowledge and skills of community members in locally resourced construction works, auto and small engine repair, food processing, handicraft production, sustainable tourism, and climate-smart agriculture.⁸⁵
- Support for job creation and job quality improvement through local enterprise development specifically by promoting better business management and financial planning practices of aspiring entrepreneurs and existing business owners.

The most recent project⁸⁶ aimed to provide access to safe water and create employment opportunities and contribute to poverty alleviation in the Mindanao region. The project incorporated green considerations in project design to ensure sustainability and to adapt to climate change. The final independent evaluation⁸⁷ of the project concluded that the project demonstrated “elements of sustainability” because of the sense of ownership and responsibility for outputs and outcomes established by working directly with communities and workers. The durability of clean water supply is dependent on local government and political commitment and resources which appeared to be in place at the time of the evaluation. The achievement of poverty alleviation was less obvious, though access to clean water is a contribution to improved wellbeing.

In addition to emergency response and support for recovering livelihoods, EIIP contributed to disaster preparedness with an emphasis on building local capacities and community engagement approach to deal with future natural disasters. An aspect of preparedness is greater resilience to future adverse climate events through green works and strategies such as coastal resource management, sustainable agriculture, climate related disaster risk reduction, water resources management and natural resources management. While emergency response is not immediately linked with longer term development impact, EIIP’s engagement in the Philippines demonstrates a dimension of development and wellbeing, improved resilience to adverse events at the household and community levels, as noted in section 2 in framing the study.

In Exhibit 23 the confidence in evidence and strength of impact ratings are low to middling because most of the focus has been on small scales to improve resilience to natural disasters and climate change. Adoption of the approach on a national scale with the requisite capacity would improve the impact.

Exhibit 23: Philippines - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	Incomplete evidence from a final independent evaluation of a project and some external evidence of impact of economic assets and other community assets rehabilitated and constructed. Evidence rating: 2	Evidence of the impact of rehabilitated and constructed assets in response to natural disasters and to develop resilience against climate change. Potential from continuation of the model and processes developed. Strength of impact: 2
ImpEmp	Incomplete evidence of impact of income from short-term employment and skills and enterprise development. Evidence rating: 1	Available evidence on conventional longer term impacts is weak. Potential impact from skills and resilience development but no evidence. Strength of impact: 2
CD	Partial and informal evidence of capacities developed – project beneficiaries and SMEs.	Some capacities and a disaster response model developed. Commitment and resources needed to deploy when needed.

⁸⁵ An example of climate-smart agriculture was the sloping agricultural land technology is ILO (2014b) *Typhoon Bopha - Sloping agricultural land technology: A post-calamity intervention on sustainable farming in Cateel and Boston, Davao Oriental*. Manila: ILO Country Office for the Philippines.

⁸⁶ Japan funded *Providing jobs and promoting peace through improved water supply and sanitation services in the Bangsamoro Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (BARMM)*.

⁸⁷ Morrissey T and Zabala K (2022) *Improvement of water supply equipment management capacity for the establishment of peace in Mindanao: Independent Final Evaluation*. Bangkok: ILO Regional Office.

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
	Evidence rating: 1	Strength of impact: 2
PDI	Informal evidence on local government and national ministries support for the EIIP disaster response approach and sustainability of the assets created and rehabilitated.	Informal evidence on local government and national ministries support for the EIIP disaster response approach and sustainability of the assets created and rehabilitated. But question marks about resources and capabilities for replicating the model in response to future disasters without external support.
	Evidence rating: 2	Strength of impact: 2/3
DW	Formal and informal evidence on adoption of decent work principles on projects.	Potential for longer term and wider impact dependent on replication of approach.
	Evidence rating: 1	Strength of impact: 1/2
Inclusion	Formal and informal evidence on inclusion of women on projects.	Potential longer term and wider impact dependent on replication of approach.
	Evidence rating: 2	Strength of Impact: 2

4.2 Case studies of impact

4.2.1 Introduction to case studies

A selection of case study countries have been separated for more detailed treatment in this section. The rationale for the selection is that they represent some distinctive types of contexts, models of EIIP intervention and types of impacts as shown in Exhibit 24. The case studies have been selected to highlight specific types of impacts. The title of each case study identifies the main impacts featured and the context. Some case studies highlight the comprehensiveness of impacts. There are some common themes between the case studies and between the case studies and the examples in section 4.1.

Exhibit 24: Case study countries and reasons for their choice

Country	Rationale for case study
Cameroon	The EIIP approach is mainstreamed in government policy with allocation in the budget.
India	Support for a large national rural roads programme to develop an effective maintenance strategy.
Nepal	Development of a rural roads maintenance strategy to complement a donor supported investment programme.
South Africa	Long-term engagement and support for a large employment generation through infrastructure works programme.
Tanzania	Support for a PSSN as part of the national social protection strategy.
Timor-Leste	The EIIP approach for developing the rural road network integrated into the national and rural development strategy.

4.2.2 Cameroon: Mainstreaming the employment intensive approach in public expenditure

EIIP has implemented a number of projects in Cameroon since 2003 when it was invited to address the high cost of rural road maintenance and low impact of the expenditure on rural employment. Since then alongside providing technical assistance to implementation of projects EIIP has supported the Government of Cameroon in developing and implementing pro-employment policies and in particular in establishing the role of the HIMO (haute intensité de main d'oeuvre or high labour intensity, interpreted as employment intensive) approach in the public investment programme. During the reference period EIIP has implemented 6 technical assistance projects⁸⁸ in the areas of:

⁸⁸ See Appendix II for the list of projects.

- Technical assistance for implementing the rural roads programme PN2R.
- Application of the HIMO approach to create jobs for young people within the framework of the Transport Sector Support Programme
- Urban infrastructure development and decent jobs creation project for youth in the cities of Maroua and Bamenda, provincial cities in the north-west and north-east where alongside youth unemployment there are socio-political challenges.
- Promotion of HIMO approaches and technologies for infrastructure works in urban areas in Cameroon.
- Project for the consolidation of the National Programme for the Rehabilitation and Construction of Rural Roads (PN2R) – HIMO Component.
- Technical assistance component for training of youth in the ADB funded Kumba-Mamfe Road Development Project.

The specifics of the EIIP TA as a component of the Kumba-Mamfe project is instructive. Objectives of the technical assistance were:

- Development within local administrations of the Kumba-Mamfe project area, capacities for the integration of HIMO technology to be used in the construction the Kumba-Mamfe road and rehabilitation of 118 kilometres of rural roads planned as a part of the project.⁸⁹
- Strengthening of the capacity of local administrations in the management of road maintenance contracts.
- Training young people from the project intervention area in HIMO technology.
- Developing the capacities of local small contractors in HIMO technology and preparing bids for contracts.
- Developing post-construction maintenance systems.
- Adopting a participatory approach by involving representatives of young people from local communes.

The project used a training site of five kilometres of rural earth roads in the locality alongside classroom training to:

- train youth in HIMO works for buildings, roads and sanitation works to prepare them to participate in Municipal Road Committees (MRCs) or become individual or collective contractors;
- develop the skills of local administration staff in identifying opportunities for using the HIMO approach, and developing the capacities of local contractors, supporting the production and use of local materials and tools, supervising construction rehabilitation and maintenance contracts and managing HIMO works overall, and
- develop the capacities of local SME contractors to manage and implement HIMO contracts.

Training was provided for 386 workers (77% men and 23% women) and 250 others including local administrators, contractors and young people. Women were enabled and supported to participate as workers, local administrators, trainees and contractors. To enable women to work on the construction site, more suited tasks were allocated to them and their progression was encouraged as Mrs Ewanga's story in Exhibit 5 shows. In addition to providing the training, the constructed training road improves all season access for two villages.

Exhibit 25: Mrs Alice Ewanga's story of advancement

Mrs Alice Ewanga, a young widow raising her children alone, was employed for 10 months on the construction training site. Initiated in public works by the project, she moved from the position of worker to chief technical road mender and then supervisor of a team of workers in the Committee of Rural Roads (CRR) in Loubange. Thanks to the income from the construction site and the training received, she launched a small business that ensured her financial independence. She hoped that the decentralization process in Cameroon would increase opportunities for road maintenance contracts for the committee of which she was the head.

⁸⁹ These rural roads, with the exception of the training site road, were not constructed.

While EIIP has continued to provide technical assistance for projects in Cameroon during the reference period, its larger development impact is through support for policy development, with a focus on addressing youth unemployment. The HIMO approach has been mainstreamed in the Public Investment Budget. The development impacts are continuing government policy to address unemployment, underemployment and poverty reduction combined with improving and preserving assets. Some of the key elements of the development of government strategy on the HIMO approach since 2008 are identified below.

- Since 2008, the government has published a strategic document for the promotion and implementation of the EIIP approach. It created the Unité Technique HIMO (EIIP Technical Unit) to promote the EIIP approach and implement pilot projects to collect data to guide the use of the HIMO approach and to reinforce the capacity of stakeholders (local administrators and contractors).
- The 2010 National Strategic Document identified the HIMO approach as the key vehicle for creating jobs and reducing poverty.
- In June 2012 the Prime Minister made a statement asking government departments to allocate about 20% of the Public Investment Programme Budget for projects to be implemented by the HIMO approach.
- In March 2014, the Prime Minister signed a decree specifying: (a) the definition of the HIMO approach for which the 20% budget allocation was to be used, and (b) the conditions of use of the approach.
- In June 2018, the new Cameroon Procurement Code introduced decent work conditions and use of the HIMO approach in project bidding document for the 20% of Public Investment Projects. The aim was to reinforce the objective of create more decent jobs for youth, women and other vulnerable groups.
- In 2020, the New Cameroon National Development Strategy (NDS, 2030) reinforced the place of the HIMO approach as the main tool for addressing the challenges of unemployment, underemployment and skill deficits.

Unité Technique HIMO in the Ministry of Economy, Planning and Regional Development has an annual budget of Euro 8 million which it uses to launch around 10 HIMO infrastructure projects per year. The Cellule also delivers capacity building sessions for stakeholders. Since 2012, the Public Works Ministry has allocated about Euro 45,000 per municipality per year for the maintenance of local roads to maintain the local roads by using the EIIP approach. There are about 360 municipalities In Cameroon. In some of them there are local committees which maintain rural roads.

EIIP collaborated with the Ministry of Employment and Vocational Training (MINEFOP) to develop a tool which is being used since 2017 to measure the employment generation effect of the allocation from of the Public Investment Budget for projects implemented by HIMO methods. The tool was intended to help policy makers review and evaluate the effectiveness of the strategy of mainstreaming the HIMO approach. Cellule HIMO promotes at least 10 sessions for capacity building to strengthen the competences of the different stakeholders in the HIMO approach.

The EIIP team works with some training centres to integrate the EIIP approach in their training programmes. Centre des Métiers des Travaux Publics” and the training centre Mission de Promotion des Matériaux Locaux have been offering HIMO training programmes each year since 2020. In 2023 the ILO signed a convention with the National Advanced Public School of Engineering in Public Works to introduce the HIMO approach in their training curricula for engineers and technicians. The ratings in Exhibit 26 reflect substantial impacts through CD ad PDI. The ratings for ImpAss reflect pilot level impacts during the reference period.

Exhibit 26: Cameroon - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	Very limited formal or informal evidence on impact of PN2R found. Informal evidence from small scale training cite (TA on Kumba-Mamfe project). Mainly external evidence on impact. Evidence rating: 2	Very limited formal or informal evidence found. Substantial external evidence on impact from studies of impact of improved rural roads, relatable to PN2R at a general level. Strength of Impact: 2

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
CD	Formal evidence on capacity development inputs from reports and evidence of project implementation capacity. Establishment and functioning of Cellule HIMO and training institute and budget for training. Evidence rating: 4	Sound evidence of impact demonstrated by evidence of mainstreaming of the HIMO approach and implementation of projects from allocated budget. Strength of impact: 4

4.2.3 India: Maintenance capacity development support for a national rural roads programme

The Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) (Prime Minister's Village Roads Scheme) was launched in 2000 by the Government of India to extend all-weather connectivity to a large proportion of rural population lacking connectivity. At the time of the launch, nearly 40% of rural habitations did not have all-weather connectivity.⁹⁰ The ambitious aim was to connect all settlements of 500 persons or more in plain areas and 250 persons or more in hilly, desert and tribal areas to the transport network.⁹¹ Nearly 170,000 habitations were identified as qualifying for inclusion in the scheme. By 2012 the scheme had made substantial progress towards achieving this aim but the ambitious target was not reached.

PMGSY was relaunched in 2013 (PMGSY-II) to complete the task and to provide connectivity to rural growth centres. By 2015, all-weather connectivity had been provided to nearly 120,000 habitations by constructing approximately 480,000 kilometers of roads and PMGSY was established as an effective programme managed by the National Rural Road Development Agency (NRRDA).

While there were well established norms for maintenance of rural roads, NRRDA was conscious of the substantial and increasing burden of maintenance created by the length of roads that had been constructed and upgraded and the additional roads to be constructed under the continuation of PMGSY. To address the challenge of sustaining the benefits of the PMGSY roads, NRRDA had introduced provision for maintenance of PMGSY roads by requiring contractors who constructed the roads to maintain them during the defects liability period (DLP) of 5 years. After the DLP the States were to be responsible for maintenance which was mostly passed on to the Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRIs).

There were however a number of concerns about the effectiveness of these formal arrangements for maintenance:

- Poor commitment on the part of the construction contractors to honour their maintenance obligations during the DLP and weak enforcement mechanisms.
- Inadequacy of State government funding⁹² for maintenance of rural roads.
- Lack of maintenance management and planning systems.
- Weak capacities and resources of PRIs to maintain the roads.

Launch of PMGSY-II in 2013 was supported by a loan of USD 1.5 billion from the World Bank/International Development Association for the PMGSY to be implemented in eight states (Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Meghalaya, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand and Bihar). ILO was invited by the Ministry of Rural Development and the World Bank to provide technical assistance to propose and support implementation of innovative solutions for developing a sustainable approach for maintaining roads in the

⁹⁰ All-weather connection through at least one route to the transport network.

⁹¹ Priority was to be given to habitations of 1,000 persons or more in plain areas and 500 persons or more in the hilly, desert and tribal areas.

⁹² State governments were to be responsible for financing and managing the maintenance of PMGSY roads along with the state highways and other rural roads. Formally the financing issue was addressed by including provision for maintenance in the construction contracts.

eight States, later extended to more states, in the face of the concerns identified above.⁹³ In collaboration with NRRDA, EIIP technical assistance was in the following areas:

- Development of a rural road maintenance policy framework at the national and state levels for developing their rural road maintenance policies.
- Enhancing the knowledge of maintenance practices of the state agencies and addressing challenges among state agencies that were in charge of rural roads,
- Creation of standard templates for road inventory and road condition surveys along with a Rural Roads Maintenance Management Manual to assist the development of Annual Maintenance Plans (AMPs).
- Development of training material for engineers and contractors covering the full spectrum of rural road maintenance issues.
- Demonstration of innovative processes for contracting rural road maintenance works in the form of Performance Based Maintenance Contract (PBMC) for routine maintenance and models of community contracting.
- Strategy for strengthening the capacity of PRIs for execution of maintenance works.
- Integration of ILO's Decent Work elements in the standard contract documents and implementing guidelines of the NRRDA.

ILO in collaboration with the NRRDA piloted and launched a routine maintenance system for Performance Based Maintenance Contracts (PBMC) and community contracting in 16 states to implement sustainable and institutionalized preventive maintenance for rural roads. The mobile app "Aarambh" launched in June 2017 is a web based application integrated with a geographic information system (GIS) for monitoring PBMCs and community contracts. Engineers' inspection reports are entered in the system and can be accessed at any time to examine maintenance related data (geographical locations, road condition attributes and inspection reports). Conformance / non-conformance of any road maintenance activity by the contractor can also be monitored by Aarambh. During 2017, more than 600 Engineers were trained under EIIP TA in the use of the system.

World Bank (2022)⁹⁴ highlighted the contribution of the targeted EIIP TA component which had the potential to be transformational. It assessed the asset management principles and forms of local contracting piloted under the World Bank funded part of PMGSY-II to be more effective than requiring construction contractors to be responsible routine maintenance. The report noted that involvement of local communities also increases their sense of ownership, as it generated employment for local communities, particularly for women. World Bank (2022) reported that 103 districts were implementing performance and/or community-based maintenance contracts introduced by December 2020 which was more than double the target of 50 districts.

Since the EIIP TA was an intervention supporting a large national programme, a distinction has to be made between the development impact of PMGSY and that of the EIIP intervention. Further, level and sustainability of PMGSY impacts are dependent on the adoption of EIIP interventions in the continuing PMGSY and wider. As a consequence assessing the longer-term impacts of the EIIP intervention in this case is more complex. A brief account is first given here of the development impacts of the PMGSY. This evidence is used as a base for identifying the impacts of the EIIP project.

There are numerous studies of the impacts of PMGSY from which four are selected here. The developmental benefits of roads constructed or improved under PMGSY are economic as well as socio-economic. The evidence on impacts in Exhibit 27 is related to the types of development impacts and the mechanisms through which they operate as set out in Exhibit 9. A distinction is made in Exhibit 27 between the more direct economic mechanisms through which human and other resources are better deployed in the development process and the wider socio-economic mechanisms.

⁹³ ILO & NRRDA (2015) set out the challenge and strategy and operational plan for addressing it based on EIIP experience and expertise.

⁹⁴ World Bank (2022) *Implementation Completion and Results Report (Loan Number 7995-In) for Additional Finance for PMGSY-III*. Washington: World Bank.

Bell and Van Dillen (2012) and Asher and Novosad (2016) indicate different types of impacts of PMGSY. The former assesses the benefits to farmers of higher product prices, the potential of offering a wider range of produce for sale and lower costs of inputs which improve their livelihoods. The latter, focused specifically on measuring the employment impact, identified households with less land or even functionally landless households as shifting out of lower paid farm labour to better paid non-agricultural work. The findings of the two studies are not necessarily conflicting since they assess the effects for households with different characteristics. Dappe et al (2021) use a difference-in-difference approach⁹⁵ and panel data collected from Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, and Rajasthan in 2009 and 2017 to assess impact. They report a combination of a shift for men from farm to non-farm employment and increase in women's economic activity in farming.

Exhibit 27: Development impacts of PMGSY investment in roads

⁹⁵ The difference-in-difference evaluation method compares changes in outcomes over time between a “treatment” group” and a “control” group. In this case comparison between habitations benefiting from PMGSY roads and habitations which had not yet benefited from them.

Study	Outcomes	Type of effect and impact mechanism
	increased by about 12%. Women stepped in to take care of farms after road connectivity leading to 5.5% increase in employment in connected habitations. PMGSY roads had a positive impact on human capital formation in rural India, with boys and girls benefiting equally. On average, children who were in middle or high school at the time their habitation was connected had 0.7 more years of schooling in 2017 as a result of PMGSY roads that were built in the previous three years. The share of babies delivered at home decreased by 30% in connected habitations. Vaccination take-up among children under the age of four increased by 15 percentage points.	Evidence of types 3 and 4 in Exhibit 9.
Ministry of Rural Development (2015)	Significant savings in travel time and cost to reach market were reported. Farmers reported shifting of production from staples such as cereals and pulses and products for subsistence towards higher value but more perishable vegetables and fruits. Increased use of fertilisers and improved seeds reported by some. More people were traveling outside their habitations for better employment opportunities and new small enterprises. About 95% of household reported 20% or more increase in income above pre-construction of road. Increase in number of schools and teachers and welfare centres. More people reported travelling outside to access health facilities and doctors and health workers were visiting more frequently.	Evidence of type 1 (a) in Exhibit 9. Evidence of type 3 in Exhibit 9. Evidence of types 3 and 4 in Exhibit 9.

Ministry of Rural Development (2015) attempted to assess the impact of the maintenance system and regime developed and implemented with EIIP TA support by comparing impacts for users of a selection of maintained PMGSY roads as “treatment” and non-maintained PMGSY roads as “control” through a sample survey in the habitations in the two categories. The summarised findings from the study in Exhibit 28 with comments added show that on a number of indicators (travel time savings, changes in employment, household incomes and access to education) the benefits of improvement of roads under PMGSY are higher for those using maintained roads. No differences were discerned in crop pattern changes and complementary investments by users. While the study has identified some impacts of maintenance for users it does not capture the full developmental implications of inadequate or absent maintenance for the reasons explained here:⁹⁷

- The maintained PMGSY and non-maintained roads in the study are of different ages and likely to be in different conditions and therefore the roads in the study are likely to be in different conditions. For example a non-maintained road just 2 years after construction may not show much deterioration and hence the lack of maintenance may have had limited impact on users.

⁹⁷ There is also a methodology issue since all changes cannot be attributed to the road maintenance difference between the “treatment” and control roads. Further, the study does not consider the impact for maintenance workers.

- The study also provides a “one time” comparison between the two samples which does not convey the full implications of lack of maintenance over the full lifecycle of roads and resource requirements of maintaining connectivity.
- The evidence from the study could have been an input into a comprehensive appraisal of impacts which encompass differences between the benefits for users of maintained and non-maintained roads, the need to prematurely reconstruct roads or lose all the benefits of improved roads as roads deteriorate without maintenance.

The last point above regarding a more comprehensive approach for conducting an assessment of impact of road maintenance interventions is the most important one. It is well established that without maintenance of roads they deteriorate rapidly and the advantages gained by expanding the road network are lost by the deterioration of the older part of the network. There are direct and indirect costs of lack of maintenance. The direct costs are related to it being cheaper in the long term to regularly maintain a road rather than to reconstruct the road after years of deterioration and damage. If road defects are repaired promptly, the cost is usually modest. However, if defects are neglected, an entire road section may fail completely, requiring full reconstruction at several times more than the cost of maintenance. The South African National Road Agency (SANRAL) estimated that repair costs can rise to six times maintenance costs after three years of neglect and to 18 times after five years of neglect.

The indirect costs of neglected or inadequate maintenance are roads steadily becoming more difficult to use, resulting in increased vehicle operating costs (more frequent repairs, more fuel use), higher monetary and time costs for road users and lower traffic volumes because of the reluctance of transport operators to use deteriorated roads. As a consequence the beneficial impacts of the investment in roads are curtailed and last for shorter periods. Further, since the duration of DLPs during which contractors are required to maintain the roads they constructed is 5 years, there would be no maintenance after the DLPs leading to the effects of non-maintenance outlined above.

Further, PMGSY roads on the whole are likely to have much lower traffic volumes and lighter vehicle loads than those assumed in making the broad assessment of road deterioration by SANRAL and others. Notwithstanding the qualifications above, EIIP TA has made a significant contribution by combining an effective LRB maintenance system with the potential of providing regular income and related developmental support for the households of the routine maintenance teams and a more cost-effective balance between construction and maintenance and its direct and indirect benefits in the states and localities in which the system has been implemented. This is a matter of some importance given the very substantial resources allocated by GoI to the investment to date in the construction of 738,000 kilometres of roads. The actual and potential impacts outside India are from the adoption of the maintenance model for rural roads globally. Information for more specific conclusions on the impacts beyond the EIIP TA in India was not available.

Exhibit 28: Summary comparison of impacts on users of PMGSY maintained roads and non-maintained improved rural roads

Type of impact	With maintenance	Without maintenance	Comments
All weather access	All habitations.	12% without all-weather access.	Roads of varying ages included. It is likely that relatively new unmaintained roads had not yet deteriorated sufficiently.
Complementary investments by users	Descriptive statement.	Descriptive statement.	Some respondents on non-maintained roads reported that they were concerned about effects of deterioration of roads. As noted in the text, relatively new unmaintained roads continued to deliver time savings.
Time saving to reach nearest agricultural market	56%	37%	Average time saving compared with the time before the road construction. On average the constructed roads with no maintenance continue to provide savings but at a lower level. See comments in the previous entry.
Travel time to work saving	26%	19%	Reduction in travel time to work in comparison with before road improvement. See comments in the previous entries.
Crop pattern change	Some change of production from staples and subsistence to higher value vegetables and fruits.	Similar changes in crops for non-maintained roads,	Crop pattern changes attributed to improved roads for both “treatment” and “control”.
Improved inputs	Increased use of fertilisers and improved seeds reported by some.	Similar changes in use of fertilisers for non-maintained roads.	Improved input changes attributed to improved roads for both “treatment” and “control”. Other factors may be responsible for these changes for both categories.
Employment change	43%	38%	Number of households reporting higher number of days of off-farm employment since the road improvement.
Change in household income	94%	87%	% of household reporting 20% or more increase in income above that before construction of road.
Change in household non-farm wage income	89%	64%	Refers to increase in incomes of households for whom non-agricultural unskilled work is the principal occupation.
Education changes	27%	15%	Percentages are number of habitations reporting more schools after road construction. The teacher to pupils ratio was also better in habitations served by PMGSY maintained roads.
Health facilities changes	High proportion of habitations reported reduced travel times to health facilities.	Proportion similar to those for maintained roads reported reduced travel times.	

In summary, the developmental impacts of the EIIP TA to PMGSY are from: (a) the benefits to users of the constructed roads providing all-weather service for longer periods; (b) related to (a), lower combined construction and maintenance costs leading to the ability of PMGSY to finance investment in more roads to benefit more people or for GoI to reallocate funds for other investments, and (c) improved livelihoods for PMGSY maintenance workers from increased income from the employment. The longer-term impacts are dependent on the NRRDA and the states adopting the approach. Capacity development (CD) and support for policy development and implementation (PDI) have been the main mechanisms for impact of the EIIP TA. Exhibit 29 shows the ratings and their explanations. The ratings are middling for confidence in evidence and strength if impacts because while the potential is substantial, the available evidence does not indicate full adoption on PMGSY and there is limited direct evidence of ImpEmp for maintenance workers.

Exhibit 29: India - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	Formal evidence from studies on impacts of PMGSY. Partial evidence from Ministry of Rural Development (2015) study of impact of maintenance system developed with EIIP TA support and World Bank (2022). External evidence of the impact of maintenance – reduced road life cycle costs. Evidence rating: 3	Evidence from studies shows economic and social impacts of PMGSY. Partial evidence of impact of EIIP supported maintenance system. Strength of impact will depend on full adoption of the approach by NRRDA. Strength of Impact: 2/3.
ImpEmp	No formal or informal evidence from project. Substantial external evidence on this impact of long-term engagement of maintenance workers. Evidence rating: 3	Sound external evidence of social protection from regular predictable earnings to supplement livelihoods for those engaged long-term in routine maintenance. Middling rating because of as yet not full adoption of community based routine maintenance based on available evidence. Strength of Impact: 3
CD	Sound informal evidence from reports on capacity development and programme outcomes, on implementation of the system and employment intensive approach. Limited evidence on capacity of PRIs. Evidence rating: 3	Implementation performance is informal evidence of improvement in the capacity of the agencies to deliver. Large potential if adopted (related to policy) on a large scale on PMGSY and other similar projects with the requisite capacity development. Strength of impact rating: 3
PDI	Formal evidence on adoption of EIIP recommendations on approach and its partial implementation. No evidence found on its continuation and wider adoption. Evidence rating: 3	Adoption of ILO recommendations on approach and continuation of the restructured programme. Middling rating because not adopted by all States for all districts and no information on its continuation. Strength of Impact: 3
DW	Evidence from EIIP training modules on the requirements to adhere to DW principles and related WB compliance requirement. No information on	Evidence from EIIP training modules and WB compliance requirement. No information on whether continued outside and beyond the project.

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
	whether continued outside and beyond the project. Evidence rating: 2	Strength of Impact: 2
Inclusion	Formal evidence of inclusion of women on project. Maintenance contracts awarded to women's self-help groups. External evidence of inclusion of women and vulnerable groups on other programmes, e.g. MGNREGA. Evidence rating: 3	Formal and external evidence of women's inclusion. Longer-term impact depends on continuation beyond the project. Strength of Impact: 3

4.2.4 Nepal: Rural road maintenance - preserving assets and improving livelihoods of maintenance workers

Nepal ranks among the least developed nations in the world and has South Asia's second-lowest GDP. It had modest GDP growth during the reference period, but had considerable reduction in poverty and improvements in rural connectivity during it. The topography and geology of Nepal, along with the high proportion of the population residing in rural areas make it difficult to provide all-weather access to all people and lack of proper maintenance exacerbated the situation. During the rainy season, many villages were cut off, as less than 20% of the rural road network remained in usable condition.

To ameliorate the situation, the Government of Nepal (GoN) sought assistance from the World Bank resulting in the World Bank financed Strengthening the National Rural Transport Programme (SNRTP) in 37 districts. The project was approved in 2013, commenced in 2014 and was completed by the end of 2020. The implementation components of the project were: (a) upgrading and rehabilitation of roads and bridges and other crossing structures; (b) periodic maintenance of roads, bridges and crossing structures, and (c) routine maintenance of roads and crossing structures. Components (b) and (c) of SNRTP were devoted to the maintenance of roads and structures. This emphasis in the programme placed by the World Bank was because of the concern related to the waste of road assets because of lack of maintenance which has been referred to earlier in the PMGSY India case study. The World Bank was also concerned about the deterioration of roads constructed under the previous World Bank financed Rural Access Improvement and Decentralisation Project (RAIDP) in Nepal.

ILO EIIP was asked to provide technical assistance for the maintenance component because of its expertise in local resource based employment intensive maintenance and its previous experience in Nepal. The EIIP pilot project implemented in five districts in Nepal testing a sustainable and systematic asset management structure focused on maintaining existing assets provided an input into designing the maintenance components of the SNRTP. A key feature in the design was the maintenance first approach based on the asset management principle that existing assets need to be protected before constructing new roads since maintaining existing roads is less costly than constructing new roads. The approach was applied to the core district network in 37 districts in Nepal.

The maintenance plus principle complemented the maintenance first approach since parts of the rural road network required spot improvements of road sections to achieve all-weather connectivity by roads which were otherwise in serviceable and maintainable condition. For the management of the maintenance of road networks it was essential to compile a database listing the roads and their conditions, maintenance requirements and planning and implementation of works. The project completed a digitised road inventory of district roads and completed the development of the Rural Transport Information Management System (RuTIMS)⁹⁸ which is a comprehensive rural road network data management tool to:

⁹⁸ Work on RuTIMS was started under the World Bank financed RAIDP programme.

- manage rural road assets including inventories of roads and crossing structures;
- prepare annual road maintenance plans;
- manage maintenance contracts and prepare progress reports, and
- maintain and update GIS-based rural road maps and databases.

Another important feature of the project was the mobilisation and deployment of road maintenance groups (RMGs). The RMG approach was effective in meeting the routine maintenance demands, addressing the maintenance backlog and take on some of the maintenance plus activities. The combined effective operations with cost efficiency, high labour intensity (over 60% of costs were wages) and providing employment for the poor and the vulnerable, including women. The last aspect is considered further below alongside the implementation of decent work principles.

Formal evidence from the World Bank implementation completion and results report (World Bank, 2020) and ILO reports on the project (ILO, 2020c and ILO, 2021c) show that the initial project target of maintaining 3,607 km of roads, under routine maintenance, within its first year of implementation. This target was eventually set at 5,500 km. By the end of the project, a total of 6,546 km were maintained under routine maintenance. The initial target for maintenance of crossing structures was set at 4,000 metres, while a total of 16,675 metres were maintained by the end of the project. Under periodic maintenance, the initial target of 1,400 km was surpassed and a total of 1,602 km roads were periodically maintained by the end of SNRTP.

The access improvement target was for the percentage of population within 2 and 4 hours walking distance of an all-weather road in terai⁹⁹ and hills districts respectively to increase by 4%. The actual increases were much larger, an increase of 12.4% in terai and 11.8% in hilly districts. The impact study reported in the World Bank Implementation Completion Report (World Bank, 2020) concluded that:

- The average distance to reach an all-weather road decreased by 60% for paved roads and 44% for gravel roads in the participating districts. The average travel time to reach an all-weather road decreased by 61% for paved roads and 42% for gravel roads.
- The average travel time for people to reach socio-economic centres was reduced by 24% for paved roads and 15% for gravel roads. Travel time to health services for pregnant women decreased by 18%. The average travel time to seek immunization services for children decreased by 21%.
- The vehicle operating cost decreased by 28% for paved roads and by 17% for gravel roads, while the trips by people in the participating districts to shops and restaurants increased by 63% and 47% in the for paved roads and by 57% and 69% for gravel roads.

It was not clear whether these improvements were for the maintained roads, rehabilitated roads or both. It is assumed that they represent the combined effects rehabilitation and maintenance.

Informal evidence is available from the maintenance component of SNRTP reports and individual testimonies of RMG workers of the impact on their livelihoods of project work. The criteria for selecting RMG workers were to target the most socially and economically vulnerable population, and women, especially single women living along the road. A total of 2,679 RMG workers were recruited during the project period (64% women, 8% were single women; 80% from disadvantaged and vulnerable groups of which 33% were from Dalit communities). The project positively impacted the livelihoods of RMG workers by providing them with regular income over a period of time. The total RMG workers wage bill was about \$11.2 million giving an average of about USD4,200 per RMG worker, earned over the whole period of employment.¹⁰⁰ Informal evidence on individual case studies in project reports show the additional earnings from RMG work enabled the workers to improve their livelihoods and develop business opportunities.

About 30% of RMG workers were able to purchase agricultural land and 60% were able to engage their families in animal husbandry, vegetable cultivation, and grocery shops. Wage income was also used to pay for children's education. About 20% of RMG workers had newly constructed toilets and 30% had renovated their houses. There are examples in Exhibit 30 of two RMG workers whose livelihoods were improved by participation in SNRTP. RMG workers benefited from financial inclusion by opening individual bank accounts,

⁹⁹ The lowland region in Nepal.

¹⁰⁰ About 6.5 million worker days were generated.

and 80% of them became members of local cooperatives, with average savings of NPR 60,000¹⁰¹ (see Exhibit 31).

Because of the skills they attained, some RMG workers were engaged in reconstruction of buildings in earthquake-affected districts. Many RMG workers started work for construction firms during the 4.5 months of demobilization from SNRTP. Some with their experience in periodic maintenance and upgrading works found employment with contractors when the project maintenance works ended. Some RMG workers found long-term employment with the Department of Roads as maintenance workers.

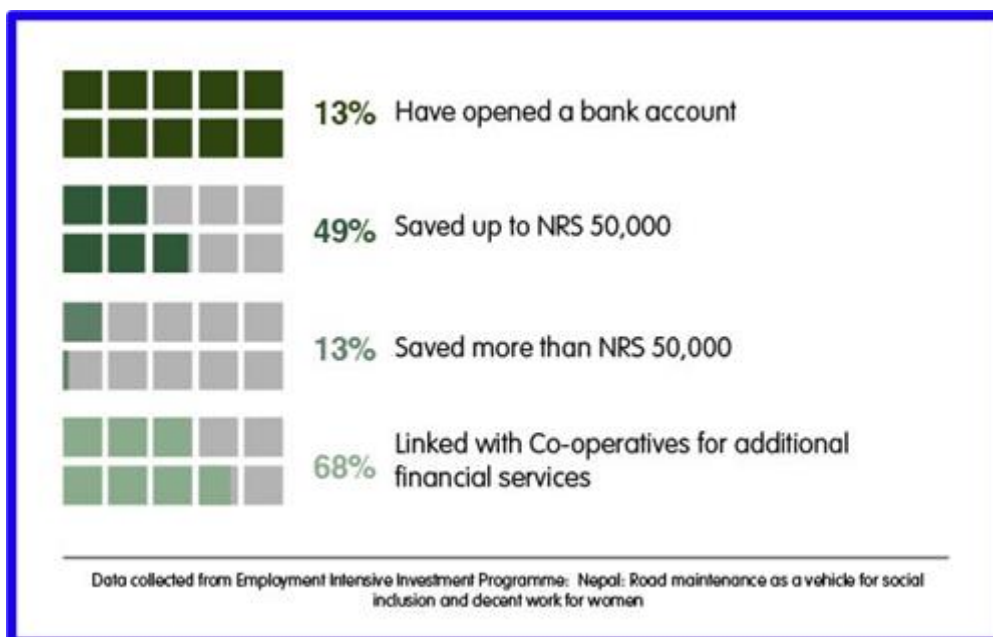
Exhibit 30: Testimonies of two RMG group members

RMG member Indira Maya Thapa. *Living in Raikot, she already owned a small store before she started working as an RMG member. But poor access to roads, and lack of traffic passing her store had severely hampered her earning capacity. However, after starting to work as a RMG, things got easier for her.*

“After I started working for SNRTP as an RMG, I was able to buy a plot of farmland with my savings without taking any loan, and was able to build my house. Plus, due to the project, the road to Raikot is more reliable making it easier for me to get things for my store, and also bringing customers who would otherwise not have passed or stopped at Raikot.”

“My work in SNRTP (Strengthening National Rural Transport Programme) as an RMG (Road Maintenance Group) member changed my, and my family’s life,” shares Bahadur Bishwokarma. A cancer survivor, Bishwokarma started working for SNRTP after cancer treatments depleted his savings and left him unable to work in his previous occupation as a metal smith. Working for SNRTP not only gave Bishwokarma a chance to earn a living but also a chance to regain his health, provide a better life for his family and build up his self-esteem. Such stories are echoed by nearly all SNRTP RMG workers.

Exhibit 31: Development of RMG worker’ financial inclusion



Roadside tree planting and bioengineering works were introduced as part of the routine maintenance works. The tree planting took place mainly in the terai areas for environmental protection and livelihood support to the RMGs. The most common tree species was mango for its high-value fruits that could benefit RMGs in the long term. It was agreed with the District Technical Offices and Village Development Committees that the RMGs would receive a 60% share of future income from fruits and timber. Bioengineering work was carried

¹⁰¹ NPR 120.67 = US\$1 (June 2020).

out on hill slopes and landslide-prone areas, consisting of grass planting, brush layering, palisades, live check dams, fascines, and tree planting.

In addition to formal employment opportunities, RMG workers were provided services and training, including (i) first aid training from local health service providers, (ii) free monthly health check-ups, (iii) accident insurance, (iv) free transportation to work, (v) access to digital banking services through free bank accounts to receive remuneration, (vi) financial literacy training, (vii) credit linkages to cooperatives for income-generating activities, (viii) loan facilities with flexible repayment schedules, and (ix) training on environmental protection and bioengineering activities. OSH practices developed for the project as an aspect of decent work were specified in: (a) project-specific clauses in the bid documents, and (b) the Routine Maintenance Group Guidelines. The project supported DOLI in revising its OSH guidelines.

In summary the outputs of EIIP technical assistance on SNRTP have included:

- Introduction of an effective system for planning and implementation of rural road maintenance incorporating digitization of 13,955 km of the road inventory in the 36 participating districts and establishment of RuTIMS (Rural Transport Information Management System) and a GPS enabled and web based Construction Site Monitoring (CSM) for remote monitoring and reporting.
- Capacity development and institutional strengthening of district administrations and engineers to manage maintenance.
- Financial planning to ensure adequate allocation of funds for routine, emergency and periodic maintenance.
- Establishment of Routine Maintenance Groups (RMGs), targeting women and other vulnerable groups as participants, for labour-based routine maintenance and bio-engineering works.
- Regular routine maintenance by the RMGs of 5,500 kms of roads between 2014 and 2019.

The development impacts of EIIP technical assistance have been:

- From the improved access to markets for farm produce, and improved access to essential services. achieved by the SNRTP maintenance component. Improved road conditions have led to reductions in vehicle operating costs, travel time and consequently increased economic activities.
- On the longevity of the economic and wider benefits of the improved and rehabilitated roads maintained in good condition. The local administration capacities developed and systems and processes are capable of continuing the maintenance strategy.
- On the improved livelihoods and financial inclusion of the women and men in the RMGs as outlined above.
- On the adoption of decent work practices. RMG workers were protected by Occupational Safety and Health (OSH) measures, accident insurance and payment of wages directly into their bank accounts, measures which are being adopted by GoN and local administrations.

The model of building in local resource based maintenance systems into rural roads investment programmes In India (see section 4.2.3) and Nepal is being replicated in PNG and has much wider potential for replication because of the compelling case for an asset management approach for roads and other infrastructure assets made in relation to Nepal in this section and the PMGSY in India in section 4.2.3. Whether the asset management and maintenance model continues to operate in Nepal is contingent on policy commitments at the national level and sufficient resources from national or external sources.

The ratings in Exhibit 32 take account of the role of ILO EIIP in SNRTP as provider of technical assistance. The civil works were carried out by the district authorities initially and later by the new provincial administrations. ILO EIIP built the necessary capacity in the local authorities to carry out the physical works and supported implementation. The ILO EIIP technical assistance consisted of (a) developing effective systems for maintenance of rural roads; (b) capacity building for staff in charge of road maintenance works, and (c) providing implementation support during the introduction of new systems and procedures. The performance of SNRTP maintenance indicated that the participating District Technical Officers (DTOs) and Infrastructure Development Officers (IDOs) had to a large extent acquired the requisite capacity to continue maintenance works beyond the EIIP project. The ratings are high across the board but somewhat lower for PDI because evidence on GoN adopting the RMG model on larger scale was not available.

Exhibit 32: Nepal – Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	Formal and informal evidence on outcomes (improved access and increased use of roads). Some informal evidence on impacts on livelihoods. Evidence rating: 3/4	Strong formal and informal evidence on outcomes (improved access and increased use of roads). Some informal evidence on impacts on livelihoods. Longer term would require later studies and whether the benefits of the improved and maintained roads are sustained. Strength of Impact: 3
ImpEmp	Formal and informal evidence of livelihood improvement impact on RMG workers. Evidence rating: 4	Formal and informal evidence of livelihood improvement impact on RMG workers from regular income from work over a period of time. Strength of Impact: 4/5
CD	Informal and some formal evidence of capacity developed and demonstrated in effective implementation – local administration officials, contractors and maintenance workers. Evidence rating: 4	Strong informal and some formal evidence of capacity developed and demonstrated through implementation. Continuous capacity development needed to update competencies and adopt new developments. Strength of Impact: 4
PDI	Informal and some formal evidence on adoption of some policies (DW and Inclusion). No information found on adoption and implementation of policy on the core rural roads maintenance strategy. Evidence rating: 2/3	Sound Informal and some formal evidence on adoption of some policies (DW and Inclusion). No evidence on adoption of policy on the core rural roads maintenance strategy. Strength of Impact: 2
DW	Formal evidence on decent work principles including OSH guidelines on the SNRTP ILO component. Informal evidence of adoption of approach by GoN. Evidence rating: 3/4	Strong formal evidence on decent work principles including OSH on the SNRTP ILO component. Guides produced for government departments and some informal evidence of adoption of principles. Strength of Impact: 3/4
Inclusion	Formal evidence from principles and practice for RMG workers (women and disadvantaged groups) and on promoting women's participation as professional engineers and administrators on the SNRTP ILO component. No evidence found on continuation. Evidence rating: 3/4	Strong formal evidence from principles and practice for RMG workers and on promoting women participation as professional engineers and administrators on the SNRTP ILO. Strength of Impact: 3/4

4.2.5 South Africa: Addressing the challenge of persistent high unemployment

The Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) in South Africa is a nationwide programme aimed at poverty alleviation in response to the challenge of persistently high unemployment and associated poverty. It was initiated in 2004 and is now in its fourth phase (2020 to 2024). Distinctive features of the programme are: (a) widening the scope to include four sectors, infrastructure, social, environment and culture and non-state (NGOs, non-profit organisations and Community Work Programme), and (b) provision of training for participants. The EPWP has evolved through phases to expand the employment contribution of the social, non-state and environment and culture sectors. The infrastructure sector has remained the largest employment generator though its share has been falling in recent years. It has been estimated that between the years 2019/20 to 2023/24 the infrastructure sector will have generated 34% of all the jobs created by

EPWP, about 710,000 out of 2.1 million fulltime equivalent (FTE) jobs. Under ILO EIIP TA, a report produced by Gamoo and Johannessen (2011)¹⁰² just before the reference period outlined the unrealised potential for generating employment by increasing the adoption of the labour-based approach in public works and capacity development and policies required for such adoption.

EIIP's role in South Africa, focused on support for use of the employment intensive approach in public works, which aligns with the infrastructure sector, started well before the launch of the first phase of EPWP in 2004 with technical assistance to the Gundo Lashu Contractor Development Programme in Limpopo which was a forerunner of the EPWP. Based on its international experience and involvement in the Gundo Lashu project, ILO EIIP provided technical assistance for the design and implementation of the Expanded Public Works Programme. Since the beginning of EPWP Phase 1 (2004 to 2009) the nature of ILO EIIP's TA has evolved alongside the national priorities and changing strategic focus and capacity needs of the EPWP. Initially the focus was on technical demonstration of viability of labour-intensive technology. Later It shifted to support the infrastructure sector of EPWP nationally and in Limpopo Province in creating of decent work opportunities by increasing the labour intensity of government funded infrastructure projects through: (a) policy development and promotion; (b) skills and capacity development; (c) technical and managerial advisory support; (d) research and studies contributing to the optimisation and mainstreaming of the use of labour-intensive methods, and (e) advocacy of strategies, processes and tools for upscaling of the infrastructure component of EPWP. By EPWP Phase 3 (2014 to 2019) the focus had evolved to include research, policy development and contemporary issues such as green jobs and sustainable livelihoods.

EPWP is an example of a large nationally managed and resourced pro-employment programme to which EIIP provides technical assistance to support policy and capacity development. There is mutual learning between EPWP and EIIP based on their long association. EPWP has been central to South Africa's National Development Plan aim to address the persistent high unemployment and associated poverty. The longer term aim is to reduce unemployment through economic growth, skills development and innovation. However, it is recognised that in the short to medium term the EPWP has an important role to fulfil by providing employment opportunities for the unemployed thereby contributing to poverty alleviation. In this context government policy recognises that there are trade-offs in the EPWP between the amount of employment generated, the poverty alleviation impact of incomes earned and the value of assets created and services delivered. The wide scope of projects in the multiple sectors under EPWP offers the opportunity to have differing balances between the three types of impacts.

EIIP technical assistance support is at the national and Limpopo Province levels. The two ILO Teams of Technical Advisers based in Limpopo and Pretoria complement each other to ensure efficient utilisation of both teams' capacities and conduct joint activities where appropriate. The national level is considered first. One aspect of EIIP TA at the national level, increasing the number of projects for employment intensive treatment and widening the scope of project types, is encapsulated by a recent briefing note produced by the Department of Public Works and Infrastructure (DPWI) in collaboration with the EIIP TA team.¹⁰³ The briefing note referred to low economic growth and rising national debt which reduce the national capacity to address the social challenges of high unemployment, poverty and inequality, a situation exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic. It also highlighted inequality in access to basic infrastructure, decent housing, water and sanitation, health services and access roads.

EPWP plays a key role in creating jobs and provision of basic infrastructure especially in rural and peri-urban areas. In addition, the programme has been able to create business opportunities for existing and new businesses (materials suppliers, service providers and contractors) over and above delivering durable public assets and creating jobs for semiskilled and unskilled participants. However, the briefing note recognises that

¹⁰²Gamoo L and Johannessen B (2011) *Study on enhancing the labour intensity in the Expanded Public Works Programme road infrastructure projects, South Africa*. Pretoria: Department of Public Works (DPW).

¹⁰³ DPWI (2020) *EPWP infrastructure led growth: Enhancing labour intensity of infrastructure projects to enhance employment opportunities – Briefing Note*. Pretoria: Government of South Africa. While the note was produced in response to the additional challenges posed by COVID-19, the case it makes has wider relevance for the South African context and the EPWP.

the full job creation potential of the infrastructure sector had not been realised because of policy, institutional and operational challenges.

The recommended responses to the twin challenges of unemployment and poverty on the one hand and lack of basic infrastructure for the poor and vulnerable in the briefing note are to: (a) bring forward, where feasible, infrastructure projects planned for the future; (b) identify new infrastructure investment areas, and (c) persuade public bodies to select construction and maintenance projects suitable for the employment intensive approach. Examples of the types of projects identified include:

- Basic infrastructure (e.g. water, sanitation, minor roads and stormwater drainage).
- Social infrastructure (e.g. health, education, housing and social amenities buildings).
- Major large projects (e.g. highways, ports, railway lines, power generation and distribution).

The government's spending in infrastructure development is substantial and therefore it has the potential to leverage its procurement power for employment generation while creating assets. There are preferential procurement regulations that benefit service providers and contractors (including community contracting entities and cooperatives). There is potential for extending the procurement power to include economic actors in the construction value chain to increase local content (human resources, materials, services, technologies including indigenous knowledge).

Within the framework of the overall social protection system, the EPWP is positioned to assist in addressing a gap in the social protection system through employment for those who are not covered by the social welfare system and are willing and able to work. The aim was to provide a significant number of unemployed South Africans productive work and to enable them to gain skills and increase their capacity to earn incomes while contributing to the development of their communities. EPWP therefore has a development objective targeting the poor and vulnerable, beyond providing short-term employment.¹⁰⁴

As noted earlier ILO EIIP has been providing technical advisory services to the Limpopo Department of Public Works, Roads and Infrastructure (LDPWRI) since the beginning of the EPWP and earlier. The support has included:

- Training and capacity development.
- Project management Support.
- Development of Technical Manuals/Guidelines and Administrative tools.
- Research and Development.
- Promoting of ILO Principles of good labour relations, decent work, amongst others.

In addition to capacity building support, which included training of over 2,100 officials and consultants, ILO EIIP has been acting as a conduit to similar programmes worldwide facilitating cross learning in the spirit of South-South Cooperation and international cooperation. The ILO has facilitated study tours to other countries implementing similar programmes in India, Ethiopia and Madagascar. It has also sponsored attendance of government officials at the ILO International Training Centre in Italy and at Regional Seminars for Labour based Practitioners. Other aspects of ILO EIIP TA in Limpopo included small scale contractor development, demonstration and rolling out of innovative and labour-intensive road paving technologies, production of many knowledge products relating to EPWP and labour intensive construction (LIC), establishing the training centre for labour intensive works and development of viable projects in all EPWP sectors. Exhibit 33¹⁰⁵ shows the knowledge goods produced under ILO EIIP TA to EPWP and demonstrates the scope of the TA up to 2019.

¹⁰⁴ Government of South Africa (2019) *Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) Phase IV Business Plan, 2019 – 2024*, Department of Public Works & Infrastructure, Republic of South Africa.

¹⁰⁵ Source: ILO (2019b) *Concept Note for Technical Support for LDPWRI in the Implementation of EPWP for the Period, January 2020 to December 2024 (Annex 1: Up-scaling employment creation through the Expanded Public Works Programme)*. Pretoria; ILO Office.

Exhibit 33: Knowledge products developed with ILO support

Documents produced	Year
EPWP Operational Guidelines	2007
Completed Phase 1 EPWP Business Plan	2007
EPWP communication strategy	2008
Phase 2 EPWP Business Plan	2009
LIC Building, Water, Wastewater and Solid Waste Guidelines	2011
LIC Sealed Low Volume Road Construction Guideline	2013
LIC Road Costing Guideline	2015
Phase 3 EPWP Business Plan	2014
Alternative Construction Materials Feasibility Study Report	2019
Comprehensive training plans and training materials	
Various Business Plans, project documents and concept notes	
Terms of reference for a range of assignments	

ILO EIIP also supports research and development activities of LDPWRI including identification of locally available construction materials and their processing and supply to create viable businesses for youth in Limpopo. Other activities under ILO EIIP TA to LDPWRI up to the end of Phase 3 (2014 to 2019) include:

- Assisting implementing agencies, particularly municipalities, in planning, designing and monitoring of EPWP infrastructure projects.
- Technical backstopping for programme / project managers implementing LIC projects.
- Supporting LDPWRI in the selection of learners and coordination of various learnership programmes¹⁰⁶ undertaken in the Province.
- Organising and conducting reorientation and technical training courses for programme/project managers and others on all aspects of LIC works.
- Assisting in the preparation of proposals and business plans for projects in the LDPWRI and municipalities.
- Reviewing and updating several EPWP management tools in consultation with the National Department of Public Works and Infrastructure (NDPWI).
- Assisting in the evaluation and procurement of consultancy services and in monitoring infrastructure projects.
- Assisting in the production of annual plans and preparation of 5 year EPWP Business plans.
- Assisting LDPWRI in undertaking and supervising research projects.
- Assisting LDPWRI in its advocacy of the LIC approach.
- Supporting LDPWRI in establishing and operating of the Limpopo Labour Intensive Construction Training Centre to be affiliated with the proposed National Labour Intensive Construction Training Centre.

The additional areas of ILO EIIP support to LDPWRI included in phase 4 (2019 to 2024) summarised in Exhibit 34 show response to the changing priorities of the EPWP to address climate change through public works, providing entrepreneurial opportunities for the young and developing their ICT skills. The ILO EIIP development contribution through technical assistance is through capacity development (CD) and policy development and implementation (PDI). Taking PDI first, there was the initial contribution to the design of the EPWP well before the reference period followed by support for developing and implementing the EPWP strategy through the business plans for the four phases. The PDI support has evolved in response to changing Government of South Africa priorities and emerging needs and trends. As outlined above, At the Limpopo Province level the PDI support has been at the broad strategic level as well as in the details and in policy implementation at the province and municipal levels. Advocacy for the LIC approach to increase the number

¹⁰⁶ Learnerships are incorporated in all components of the EPWP to enable participants to develop skills to improve employability.

of projects to be implemented by employment intensive methods, widening the scope of sectors in which the LIC approach can be deployed and increasing the labour content in projects being implemented by employment intensive methods.

Exhibit 34: New areas of ILO support to LDPWRI in Phase 4

ID	New Areas of ILO Support
1	Supporting the development of sustainable livelihoods for vulnerable groups through greening of EPWP.
2	Development of Employment Impact Assessment tools to enhance policy decisions.
3	Development of guidelines for Climate Resilient Infrastructure including existing and new social and administrative Infrastructure.
4	development of climate change safeguards related to infrastructure development;
5	Linking disaster preparedness and job creation.
6	Creation of sustainable youth owned enterprises in the EPWP sectors, including small scale contractors in road and building sub-sectors and local producers of construction materials.
7	ICT knowledge/proficiency and computer coding skills development targeting youth not in education, employment or training (NEETs).
8	Strengthening capacity of local authorities and sector ministries in the planning, implementation and monitoring of labour intensive works.
9	Research and development on the use of local-resource based technologies and energy neutral housing.

The capacity development (CD) support has complemented the PDI support at the national and provincial levels. As for PDI, support at the national level has encompassed training and knowledge development for senior management and technical staff. At Limpopo Province level, the training included more on site practical training for personnel at all levels and supervision and monitoring support to reinforce the capacity development. There are synergies between the national and province levels with the more specific interventions offering models for adoption nationally.

Exhibit 35 does not include ratings for ImpAss and ImpEmp since any impacts of ILO EIIP of these types are through CD and PDI technical assistance. On CD and PDI, the middling ratings for confidence in evidence and strength of impact are based on the available documentary evidence and the record of assets created and employment generated by the infrastructure component of EPWP. The ratings are not higher because of the difficulty of attributing proportions of attainments of EPWP on these aspects to EPWP and EIIP TA. Further on ImpAss, a distinction is needed between assets which would have been constructed in the absence of EPWP and assets improvement and maintenance which can be attributed to EPWP.

There is a case for considering the ImpEmp impact since EPWP is seen as a part of South Africa's social protection structure. There are seven means tested "social grants" mainly targeted to support children and those unable to work.¹⁰⁷ These were supplemented by free and/or subsidised basic services, including housing, water and sanitation, electricity, health and education. The total value of redistribution from the better off taxpayers to the poor amounted to about 10% of GDP per annum. The Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) provided benefits to most formally employed workers who become unemployed or are unable to work because of illness or maternity leave.¹⁰⁸ While many in the formal sector are reasonably well protected and the social grants target those unable to work, the EPWP was intended to provide support through temporary employment to unemployed working age youth and adults who are unemployed or reliant on informal work.

¹⁰⁷ See Gronbach L, Seekings J and Megannon V (2022) *Social Protection in the COVID-19 pandemic: Lessons from South Africa*. CGD Policy Paper 252. Washington: Centre for Global Development. The social grants were Child Support Grant, Older Person's Grant, Disability Grant, Foster Care Grant, Care Dependency Grant, War Veterans Grant and Grant-in-Aid.

¹⁰⁸ Many formally employed workers in the public sector or unionised private sectors are covered by contributory old-age pension and medical aid schemes organised along sectoral lines.

However, EPWP does not fulfil the formal PEP requirement of providing social protection for targeted households through regular and predictable employment.¹⁰⁹ Its emphasis is on providing employment rather than social protection and through EPWP employment and learnerships on improving employment prospects. Nevertheless, given the scale of all components of EPWP and the possibility of participating in a sequence of years, it is likely that EPWP fulfils the social protection function for some households and therefore has ImpEmp type of developmental impact for them. The Future Policy website¹¹⁰ reported that during Phase 1 (2004 to 2009) participants benefited from significant increases in income. The per cent of households who were able to save increased from 14.5% to 22.8% and almost 80% of respondents recorded positive changes to their own lives. Evidence from studies indicating livelihood improvements for participants on livelihood benefits was not found for later phases.

Recent studies have focused on improving employment prospects after EPWP which reflects the stated objective of EPWP. For example, Omotoso (2017)¹¹¹ found that adult females who participated in EPWP were somewhat more likely to get formal sector employment but their likelihood of being poor was not reduced. Hlatshwayo (2017)¹¹² in a qualitative study to understand the perspectives of EPWP beneficiaries through interviews found that although the respondents appreciated the temporary EPWP employment which provided short-term income support their main concern was inability to access permanent better paid employment. In the South African labour market context it is unrealistic for short-term EPWP employment to lead to improved employment prospects on any scale. EPWP could be having developmental impacts of improved livelihoods for households through repeated participation alongside the social grants. It was not possible to identify studies which have explored this possibility. There is potential for improving the ImpEmp impact if there is an orientation towards the PEP model. On DW and Inclusion, the ratings for ILO EIIP impacts are again middling because the Government of South Africa and ILO EIIP are strongly aligned on decent work principles and inclusion and so it is difficult to attribute impact between EPWP and ILO EIIP. While EPWP adheres strongly to decent work principles, the EPWP wage rate has been set at a level much lower than statutory wage rates in similar types of work.¹¹³ On DW at the national level for Phase 4, EPWP has set a minimum 60% participation of women, 55% of youth (in the 16 to 35 years age group) and 2% for PwDs. However, the middling ratings for EIIP TA development impacts do not imply low value of EPWP's employment generation contribution for South Africa as a part of its development plan. The ratings reflect the difficulty of attributing impacts between EPWP and ILO EIIP. The assessment highlights some issues related to availability of evidence and the short-term employment generation orientation of EPWP.

Exhibit 35: South Africa - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
CD	Informal evidence on capacity development inputs from reports, training materials and evidence of project implementation capacity.	Sound informal evidence of impact demonstrated by evidence of implementation of projects at the national and Limpopo Province levels. Evidence of capacity in the implementation of EPWP projects.

¹⁰⁹ As a response to the persistently high youth unemployment post-COVID-19, a case for considering an employment guarantee approach for youth has been made by Modise T (2021) *Government's EPWPs need a new focus* (<https://www.southafricanlabourbulletin.org.za/governments-epwps-need-a-new-focus/>). While the EPWP does not have the formal characteristics of a PEP its size and scale and continuation of over a sequence of years may offer longer term livelihood improvement prospects. This issue is considered below.

¹¹⁰ <https://www.futurepolicy.org/global/south-africas-south-africas-expanded-public-works-epwp/>.

¹¹¹ Omotoso K O (2017) *Estimating the effect of a job creation programme on female labour market outcomes and poverty in South Africa* (available online).

¹¹² Hlatshwayo M S (2017) "The Expanded Public Works Programme: Perspectives of direct beneficiaries." *The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa* 13(1).

¹¹³ The minimum wage for EPWP employment was raised to R12.75 per hour in February 2022. For farm and domestic workers the minimum wage was raised to R23.19 per hour. The exchange rate in February 2022 was approximately Rand(R) 15 = USD1.00.

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
	Evidence rating: 3/4	Strength of impact: 3/4
PDI	Substantial formal and informal evidence on support for policy development at the national level starting from support for development of business plans for the national and Limpopo province phases. Support for increasing labour content in projects and increasing the number of employment intensive projects. Middling rating because of lack of specific evidence on the precise contribution of ILO EIIP to EPWP achievements. Evidence rating: 3.	Informal evidence of impact through policy development at the national and Limpopo Province level. More specific and detailed support in Limpopo Province. Middling rating because of the difficulty of separating EIIP ILO impact from EPWP and lack of evidence on development impacts. Strength of impact: 2/3.
DW	Formal and informal evidence on adoption of DW principles on EPWP and more widely on protection of workers and social security. ILO EIIP is well aligned with government policies. Evidence rating: 3	ILO principles and recommendations well aligned with government policy. Middling rating because precise level of EIIP TA impact is difficult to assess from the available evidence. EPWP wage rate is well below the statutory minimum wage rate for comparable jobs. Strength of Impact: 3
Inclusion	Formal evidence from EPWP principles and practice. High EPWP minimum targets for participation of women (60% in Phase 4), young (55% in 18 to 35 age group) and persons with disabilities (2%). Middling rating because government policies are well aligned with ILO EIIP. Evidence rating: 3	Formal evidence from EPWP principles and practice for inclusion of women, young and PwDs. Women's participation target raised in Phase 4. Inclusion expected to continue on EPWP. Middling rating because government policies are well aligned with ILO EIIP so difficult to attribute impact to EIIP. Strength of Impact: 3

4.2.6 Tanzania: Support for developing and implementing the social protection strategy

Tanzania has been included here for the contribution to the social protection oriented development impact during the reference period, in particular under Irish Government aid between 2016 and 2021. EIIP's engagement in Tanzania goes back to 1986 to 1991 when the ILO supported the Rural Road Maintenance Programme in the Tanga and Mbeya Regions, followed by projects to develop private contractor capacity to implement road rehabilitation and maintenance. This long-term engagement demonstrated the potential contribution of the EIIP approach for improving and maintaining infrastructure and supporting poor livelihoods.

During the reference period Tanzania sustained high GDP growth rates averaging 6% to 7% per year, based on natural resources, agriculture, and tourism in the decade before COVID-19 struck in 2020.¹¹⁴ While the poverty rate has declined, the absolute number of people in poverty has not because of the high population growth. Approximately 70% of the population lives in rural areas, where the poverty rate remains high.¹¹⁵

¹¹⁴ Growth rates have been in the creditable 4.7% to 4.9% range between 2020 and 2022.

¹¹⁵ 59% in 2018 according to the World Bank international poverty line updated to USD1.15 per day in 2022.

Youth (persons in the 15 to 35 years age group) make up 66% of the labour force and have higher unemployment rates compared with the rest of the labour force. Majority of the population still lacks access to basic infrastructure, such as potable water, basic sanitation and health services, schools and communication and transport services. The situation disproportionately affects women, youth, children, and people with disabilities, with the largest proportion of them residing in rural areas. Job creation in the economic sectors has not been sufficient to provide employment for the youth joining the labour market and women are also disadvantaged in the labour market.

In response to this situation Tanzania is implementing a social protection policy in which the Productive Social Safety Net (PSSN) is a key component.¹¹⁶ The PSSN has three components: conditional cash transfers, public works and livelihood enhancement. The public works component included a variety of subprojects in agriculture and natural resources management including construction of water catchments such as charco dams¹¹⁷ to improve access to water for livestock and small-scale irrigation., road infrastructure, construction and maintenance, waste and sanitation management, social services and social infrastructure.

ILO involvement in PSSN I was in the livelihood enhancement component and provided support and advice for the public works component. A part of EIIP support to PSSN I was participation in the assessment of the technical and social protection effectiveness of the public works component. TASAF's (2017) assessment report¹¹⁸ recognised the benefits of assets created but identified the need for improvements in construction and maintenance of assets based on technical support for improved design and implementation with supervisory support. ILO EIIP involvement in PSSN II has been to provide inputs into its preparation and continuing support to the public works and livelihood enhancement components under Irish Government funding support.¹¹⁹

Tanzania's PSSN is one of the success stories of a social safety net in the SSA region. The annual growth rate in the number of beneficiary households in the PSSN is the highest in the world, even relative to mature cash transfer programs in comparator lower-middle-income countries in Asia. Beegle et al (2018) categorised it as large scale supporting 1.1 million households (9.6% of the population). According to Beegle et al (2018), public works participation supported just over 3% of the population. By the end of PSSN II, the public works component was expected to have reached 837,500 households, an estimated 2.4 times increase on the number of households who benefited from the PSSN I public works component.

One of the distinctive features of the PSSN is that gender mainstreaming is incorporated in the PSSN programme guidelines and their application. Targeting relies on a Community Driven Development (CDD) approach, which involves Community Management Committees (CMC) participating in monitoring, supporting beneficiaries to comply with co-responsibilities and transferring benefits. Women have equal representation in the CMCs and Women's access to cash is a step in attaining empowerment. PSSN II has improved women's control on the cash they receive by introducing an electronic transfer method. This and the Gender Action Plan for PSSN II have enhanced gender sensitive delivery.

The public works component of PSSN stipulates a minimum of 40% of the created employment to be reserved for female beneficiaries. Women's participation is facilitated by flexible working arrangements and availability of lighter tasks for lactating and pregnant as well as disabled and older women. By the end of 2019 in PSSN I, female enrolment reached 84.6 %, and the actual participation rate amongst enrolled households was high at 89 % (World Bank 2020b). Moreover, the actual works are intended to ease women's regular workload and planned with beneficiary input. This has resulted, for instance, in sub-projects facilitating or reducing water fetching (ILO, 2019c).

¹¹⁶ The PSSN was launched in 2012, with financial support from the World Bank and is managed and implemented by the Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF) which was established in 2000 to support communities in enhancing service delivery and respond to community needs. PSSN II was launched in 2020.

¹¹⁷ Small earth dams built by farmers and cattle owners in semi-arid parts of Tanzania.

¹¹⁸ TASAF (2017) *Assessment of TASAF PSSN in Tanzania Using the ISPA-PWP Tool*. Dar es Salaam: TASAF.

¹¹⁹ See below for more information on the Irish Government funding and the TA support under the funding to the Tanzania Rural and Urban Roads Agency (TARURA) in the preparation for the Tanzania Roads to Inclusion and Socioeconomic Opportunities (RISE) Project being funded by the World Bank.

The most recent and continuing EIIP project engagement is technical assistance to the public works component in TASAF's Productive Social Safety Net (PSSN) II under a TA project supported by the Irish Government (Inclusive Growth, Social Protection and Jobs - Tanzania Component).¹²⁰ The overall goal of the Irish programme is to ensure that national governments use appropriate, well-designed and well-managed social protection measures and employment promoting approaches, to deliver public investments in order to promote resilience, access to services and employment opportunities for poor and vulnerable people, contributing to inclusive economic growth. The programme covers five countries.¹²¹ The Tanzania component ILO delivered by EIIP has contributed to enhancing the productivity, effectiveness and sustainability of public works implemented under TASAF through: (a) training, awareness creation, and introduction of feasible and innovative infrastructure technological options, and (b) recommending monitoring and coordination approaches. It has also supported national initiatives in building the capacity of emerging local contractors including those led by youth, women and community groups.

In summary EIIP contributions to TASAF's PSSN II are:

- Inputs into the National Social Protection Policy (2018) on the role of public works in PSSN II.
- Technical assistance in the development and roll-out of the public works component of PSSN II to include:
 - ✓ Capacity building through training of government officials, community leaders and youth to implement PSSN II and initiate ventures.
 - ✓ Technical manual for implementation of public works.
 - ✓ Handbook on strengthening livelihoods interventions through public works.
 - ✓ Technical manual for implementing public works in urban areas.
 - ✓ Training manuals on public works and livelihoods.
 - ✓ Pocket books for local service providers.
- Support to TASAF under PSSN I to undertake an Employment Impact Assessment (EmplIA) of public works and value chains of selected crops.
- Support for the development of inclusive public procurement policy and amendment of the Public Procurement Act (2011) to increase participation of small-scale entrepreneurs, women, youth and other special groups (elderly and persons with disability) in delivery of services.

In addition to the engagement with the PSSN, EIIP TA has contributed to preparation for the World Bank/IDA funded *Tanzania Roads to Inclusion and Socioeconomic Opportunities (RISE) Project*. The aim of the Project¹²² is to improve rural road access and provide employment opportunities for people in rural areas and build capacity in the sustainable management of rural roads. The importance of including an employment intensive local resource based maintenance system for rural roads under asset management principles has already been observed in connection with PMGSY in India and SNRTP in Nepal. For the RISE project the World Bank has proposed a similar approach. EIIP, on invitation from the World Bank and TARURA, has proposed a design for a Community Based Routine Maintenance (CBRM) model to routinely maintain rural roads improved by the project (ILO, 2020i).¹²³

The longer-term development impacts of EIIP TA support to PSSN II have been assessed here. Brief reference is made to the EIIP preparatory contribution to RISE but the ratings of impacts based on support to PSSN only. The impacts of support to PSSN have been incremental both on asset creation (ImpAss) and employment

¹²⁰ ILO (2017) *Ireland ILO Cooperation (Information note)*.

¹²¹ Zambia, Malawi, Mozambique, Vietnam and Tanzania.

¹²² World Bank / IDA (2021) *Tanzania Roads to Inclusion and Socioeconomic Opportunities (RISE) Project: Project Appraisal Document on a proposed credit in the amount of SDR 208.5 million (USD 300 million equivalent) to the United Republic of Tanzania*. Washington DC: World Bank / IDA.

¹²³ ILO (2020ig) Project Proposal 'Improved Rural Accessibility and jobs: Technical Assistance to the Community - based Rural Roads Maintenance Component under the RISE Programme'. ILO. (Improved Rural Accessibility and jobs: Technical Assistance to the Community-based Rural Roads Maintenance Component under the RISE Programme. Geneva: ILO. The project document for the RISE project (World Bank / IDA (2021) states that the TARURA has expressed interest in engaging the ILO to support the rollout of the CBRM. Only the contribution of ILO EIIP to support the design of the CBRM is referred to here.

generation (ImpEmp) operating through capacity development (CD) and policy development and implementation (PDI). Both these inputs include the cross-cutting aspects of gender equity and decent work. The impacts depend on the contributions of the EIIP inputs on improving the performance and longevity of the assets created and the number of women and men benefiting from income from employment and decent work principles. In the case of preparatory support for RISE, the potential impact is dependent on the difference that the ILO contribution to project design will make to the performance and longevity of the road assets and regular and predictable incomes for CBRM group members arising from the maintenance work.

Exhibit 36: Tanzania - Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	No formal evidence from studies on impacts of EIIP TA. Partial informal evidence from reports on impact for PSSN II. Evidence rating: 1/2	Incremental impact of EIIP TA on PSSN II. Strength of impact: 1/2
ImpEmp	Informal evidence from studies on the impact of income from PSSN II but no incremental evidence on EIIP TA impact, though see Inclusion below. Evidence rating: 1/2	Incremental impact of EIIP TA on PSSN II but weak evidence. Strength of impact: 1/2
CD	Informal evidence from reports on capacity development inputs into PSSN II contributing to the potential of continuation and expansion. Evidence on outputs and outcomes on DW and Inclusion. Evidence rating: 1/2	Implementation performance and rapid expansion of PSSN II and of the public works component are informal evidence of the capacity to deliver. Incremental impact of EIIP TA is difficult to assess. Strength of impact rating: 1/2
PDI	Informal evidence of incremental impact on government's PSSN II model and RISE project. External evidence on both. On PSSN II, evidence on employment programmes. Evidence rating: 2	Incremental impact of EIIP TA on PSSN II but weak evidence. Strength of Impact: 2
DW	Formal and informal evidence on adoption of DW principles on PSSN II and more widely on protection of workers and social security in government legislation. EIIP TA impact through training, manuals and handbooks (inputs). Evidence rating: 3	ILO principles and recommendations well aligned with government policy. Middling rating because precise level of EIIP TA impact is difficult to assess from the available evidence. Strength of Impact: 2/3
Inclusion	Formal and informal evidence of inclusion and impact of inclusion of women in PSSN II. Evidence rating: 3	ILO principles and recommendations well aligned with government policy. Middling rating because precise level of EIIP TA impact is difficult to assess from the available evidence. Strength of Imp: 3

4.2.7 Timor-Leste: Comprehensive EIIP impact

Timor-Leste's economy relies heavily on public sector spending, drawing on earnings from the oil and gas sector. About 68% of its population, which totals around 1.3 million people, lives in rural areas. According to the latest available data from the World Bank, almost 42% of the national population had consumption below

the national poverty line in 2014. Poverty incidence for the rural population was just over 47%, indicating that nearly 80% of the country's population below the poverty line in 2014 lived in rural areas. While poverty rates have likely declined since 2014, poverty and its causes remain major concerns. The more recent UN Common Country Assessment (CCA) noted that Timor-Leste has the highest multidimensional poverty rate among Southeast Asian countries, with nearly 46% of the population multidimensionally poor (56% in rural areas compared with 18% in urban areas).

EIIP engagement in Timor-Leste goes back to 2006. Following civil unrest in 2006, the Ministry of Labour and Community Reinsertion (MLCR) was charged with organising the immediate distribution of rice to IDPs (internally displaced persons) and families in need. The ILO proposed cash for work (CfW) activities for distribution of rice. Over time the intervention evolved into more sustainable labour-based rural road works. The "Work for the Nation Project" was designed to address the need to promote peace and stability by providing 180,000 workdays of short-term cash for work opportunities to IDPs and other vulnerable members of the society, particularly unemployed youth living in and outside IDP camps. CfW activities continued under later programmes to address the challenges of instability and poverty.

Alongside the CfW intervention in Timor-Leste, the potential for the EIIP approach making a strategic impact on rural development emerged. In 2006, in a meeting with development partners the Government of Timor-Leste (GoTL) identified promotion of accelerated economic growth as an element in its Combating Poverty as a National Cause Plan, and for making progress towards the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) goals, Eradication of Extreme Poverty and the Development and Implementation of Strategies for Decent and Productive Work. An important challenge to be addressed was to improve the poor livelihoods of the large portions of the rural population dependent on low-productivity primary production (farming, fishing, and forestry).

The TIM-Works Project (2008 to 2011), implemented by EIIP to address the twin challenges of job creation and the need for improving access through investment in rural roads made a start in addressing the rural development challenge. Capital funding support was provided by the European Commission, the Governments of Norway and Ireland. The government of Australia through AusAID and GoTL funded the labour cost component. In effect the TIM-Works project represented a short-term bridge between the emergency humanitarian CfW responses and the longer term development initiatives, the ERA and R4D projects and the Government Strategic Development Plan 2011-2030 during the reference period. The TIM-Works project demonstrated the potential of the labour-based approach for addressing the major constraint imposed by the poor rural road network on improving rural livelihoods and generating employment in doing so.

The key importance of meeting the challenges of rural development and poor access were recognised in the GoTL(2011) National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) 2011-2030. Further, based on EIIP engagement and experience of the TIM-Works project NSDP incorporated use of the labour-based approach for improvement of the rural roads network. The strategy was developed and operationalised to be implemented by the Directorate for Roads, Bridges and Flood Control (DRBFC). The road investment plan developed was referred to as R4D (for roads for development) and Estrada Rural Ba Dezenvolvimentu (ERD) in Tetum. The R4D project, funded by the Government of Australia Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT),¹²⁴ and its successor project, the R4D Support Program (R4D-SP), were implemented by the Timor-Leste government, through the DRBFC in the Ministry of Public Works (MPW), with technical assistance from the ILO. The ERA project, funded by the European Union (EU), and its successor, the ERA Agro-Forestry (ERA-AF), were implemented by ILO EIIP but in coordination with DRBFC.

These projects shared strong synergies and linkages. R4D was focused on supporting DRBFC in implementing the R4D programme and addressing the capacity and institutional challenges the programme faces. ERA and ERA-AF were focused on combining construction of selected roads with development of the capacity of training institutes and development of small-scale contractors. They also complemented R4D in their institutional strengthening efforts to create an enabling environment for contractors.¹²⁵ Exhibit 37 shows the

¹²⁴ Formerly AusAid.

¹²⁵ The rest of the discussion in relation to ERA is focused on the impact of the recently completed ERA-AF project.

multi-dimensional nature of ERA-AF as an EIIP intervention with multiple means of action which encompass: (a) training and rural roads rehabilitation at the operational level; (b) capacity development of the training institutes and the government department and agencies responsible for implementing a large national rural roads programme, and (c) influencing government policy to improve the business environment for contractors in collaboration with the R4D interventions.

Exhibit 37: Timor-Leste - ERA-AF intervention dimensions

The objective of ERA-AF, to implement a capacity building and labour-based programme to rehabilitate and maintain rural roads to improve access in agro-forestry areas, was intended to be addressed by:

- **developing local contractors' capacity to use the labour-based approach for rehabilitation of roads;**
- **rehabilitating and maintaining roads;**
- **developing the capacity to deliver training and mentoring of contractors;**
- **supporting government departments and ministries to foster an enabling business environment for private sector contractors, and**
- **developing training capacities for training contractors and local authority administrative and technical staff required for the government's rural roads programme.**

Source: Vaidya and Dos Santos (2021).

A key contribution of technical assistance to R4D was the support to DRBFC in developing the strategy and implementation plan in 2015 (Rural Roads Master Plan & Investment Strategy or RRMPIS) for upgrading and maintaining the core rural road network.¹²⁶ On ImpAss, by the end of 2022 when the R4D and ERA-AF projects ended, about half of Timor-Leste's network of 1,975 kilometres of core rural roads had been brought in good condition and was under maintenance.¹²⁷ A major constraint on improving rural livelihoods and access to basic services is the poor rural road network. According to the Rural Roads Master Plan & Investment Strategy (RRMPIS)¹²⁸ about 13 % of rural roads were in good condition in 2015. As a result, motorised transport on large parts of the rural road network was restricted and poorly connected rural people spent up to 30 % of their working time in walking to and from markets.

NSDP attempted to address three key areas: (a) social capital; (b) infrastructure development, and (c) economic development. R4D/ERD was planned to contribute to an important area of infrastructure development but was also planned to contribute to the other two key areas as explained below. NSDP specified that the work on rural roads was to be undertaken by locally based contractors using labour-based methods, thereby contributing to local private sector development and rural employment to supplement rural livelihoods. The direction for rural roads improvement specified in the NSDP has been followed by DRBFC with support from DFAT and the ILO¹²⁹ to conduct a detailed survey of the rural roads network and preparation of the RRMPIS in 2015.

The survey revealed that National and Municipal roads between them serve about 40 % of the rural population. The remainder are rural roads. Of these, roads which connect sucos¹³⁰ to National or Municipal roads or to urban centres and serve more than 500 people, categorised as Class D roads¹³¹ defined as the core rural road network, serve 49.3 % of the rural population. Since by 2022, about half the core rural road

¹²⁶ See below for further details.

¹²⁷ The construction and maintenance were undertaken within the framework of the national development strategy and a strategic plan for rural roads which are explained in relation to policy development and implementation (PDI) below.

¹²⁸ GoTL (2015) *Rural Roads Master Plan & Investment Strategy (RRMPIS), 2016-2020*. Dili: GOTL.

¹²⁹ The survey was initiated under Phase 1 of the Roads for Development (R4D) programme (March 2012 to March 2017) co-funded by the Government of Australia Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT) and Government of Timor-Leste (GoTL) with ILO technical assistance. Under Phase II of R4D (April 2017 to March 2021), the R4D is the programme implementing physical works within MPW and the ILO technical assistance program funded by DFAT is referred to as R4D-SP (Support Programme).

¹³⁰ Sucos are villages and aldeias are communities or hamlets within sucos. There are 442 sucos in Timor-Leste.

¹³¹ The remaining rural roads were classified as E1, serving fewer than 500 people and E2 connecting Sucos to Aldeias, Aldeias to Aldeias and Sucos or Aldeias to productive agricultural land.

network had been upgraded, it is estimated that about 25 %¹³² of the rural population would have been provided all-weather access. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that the National and Municipal (if in good condition) and the improved Class D roads between them would serve about 65% of the rural population.

The role of R4D and ERA interventions in improving rural access, through implementation of road construction and technical assistance to develop capacities and improve the policy environment, is evidence of contribution to the national development strategy set out in Timor-Leste's National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) 2011 to 2030. The impact also aligns well with Target 9.1 "to develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure...to support economic development and human wellbeing, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all" under SDG 9.¹³³ Target 9.1 is of particular relevance for Timor-Leste which faces the challenges of poor rural access and related low level of development and high poverty incidence. The interventions also contribute to SDG 1 (End poverty in all its forms everywhere) and SDG 8 (Promote sustainable economic growth and decent work¹³⁴). Direct formal or informal evidence on the intended improvements in livelihoods is not available for R4D and ERA-AF. However, there is indirect and incomplete evidence from ERA-AF¹³⁵ which alongside external evidence has been used to infer longer-term development impacts. Before introducing the evidence the mechanisms through which livelihoods can be improved, introduced earlier in the ToC narrative (Section 2) and the Cambodia case study, are briefly restated. Improvement in access leads to lower transport costs and better access to transport services, more local produce going to market and lower prices of basic commodities for local communities contributing to improved livelihoods. There are also increased opportunities to set up new businesses including in the transport sector and the wider socio-economic benefits from improved access to essential services and interactions.

There is incomplete informal evidence of the development impact of improved roads from the ERA-AF project which collected baseline and endline information on access for the roads completed under the project. This comparison is complemented by evidence from interviews and focus group discussions on the impacts of improved roads which are presented in Uriyo (2022).¹³⁶

Exhibit 38 shows that the investments in roads under ERA-AF¹³⁷ have led to large improvements in access to markets, health services and schools. There were falls in transport costs and between 9 and 10 fold increases in motorised traffic. The evidence¹³⁸ shows that on all 14 roads rehabilitated under ERA-AF, the roads' accessibility ratings increased by over 300% on average. These reflect similar marked improvements in accessibility to markets, health centres and schools. The most marked immediate changes were in the traffic patterns. On all 14 roads there are large falls in the number of walkers with or without loads (a fall of 44% per day) and large growths from negligible or small motorised traffic volumes, from an average of 3.3 motorcycles per day before road rehabilitation to 26 per day after, and from 2.8 small to medium sized motorised vehicles (pickups, microlets, small trucks and angunnas combined)¹³⁹ per day to 27.5 vehicles per day, a nearly nine-fold increase from a small base. These changes are proxy indicators for actual or potential economic benefits¹⁴⁰ through more and higher value added produce being marketed, more inputs and

¹³² In the absence of specific evidence it is assumed that since improving all Class D roads would have provided access to 49.3% of the rural population, improving half the roads would improve access for about half or 25%.

¹³³ The broader SDG 9 is to build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation.

¹³⁴ The decent work element is considered below.

¹³⁵ There is reference in R4D-SP evaluation reports of studies of socio-economic impacts conducted during R4D but it was not possible to access these studies for this assignment.

¹³⁶ The document is a form of "meta-analysis" which brings together qualitative (case study) and quantitative evidence on impacts. It also summarises evidence on capacity development (contractors, local and national government officials and training institutes) and women's participation which are referred to below.

¹³⁷ While the evidence was collected for ERA-AF roads, it can also be taken as external evidence to infer similar impacts for roads constructed under R4D /ERD though the specifics on magnitudes and types will have varied.

¹³⁸ See Uriyo (2022) and Vaidya and de Savio (2022).

¹³⁹ Microlets are minibuses and angunnas are trucks with open-air backs for passengers.

¹⁴⁰ Potential because the development impacts take some time to evolve.

consumer goods being supplied at lower costs and improved livelihoods from farming, business activities and marketing. These results are compatible with external evidence on the impact of improved access when initial accessibility is poor.

On longer-term development impact of employment on the projects (ImpEmp), there are no studies to draw on. Evidence from elsewhere shows that in general single episodes of short-term employment do not have longer-term development impacts for households. However, whether there are longer term impacts of short-term employment depends on the specific context. If the income from project work is substantial enough in comparison with the households' other income and livelihood needs, there is potential for longer term impacts for participants. This is likely to be the case for some households in Timor-Leste where the poorer households largely rely on subsistence production with very limited cash income. While no surveys of impacts of employment on R4D or ERA projects could be found, there is case study evidence of impact collected by ERA-AF project. Exhibit 39 has two case studies, the first one of a farmer who was able to complete building the family home from the income earned from project employment and the second of a person with a disability who accumulated sufficient surplus from the earnings to consider setting up a small kiosk. The other two examples in Exhibit 39 are a contractor and a lady's and household benefiting from an ERA-AF road by making the journey to market to sell produce quicker and easier.

R4D and ERA-AF developed and implemented a community contracting model which in addition to preserving the road assets provided regular and predictable incomes which are likely to have had developmental impacts for the maintenance workers' households as in Nepal for SNRTP workers. For the already improved roads under R4D / ERD and ERA-AF and the roads which are expected to be rehabilitated under the continuing ERD programme, an asset management approach with maintenance undertaken by community contracting would continue the developmental impact for the higher number of maintenance workers that would be required.

R4D and ERA projects during the reference period¹⁴¹ had a strong focus on capacity development (CD) and policy development and implementation (PDI). Capacities to implement and an enabling policy environment for contractors are both needed for sustaining the EIIP approach. More specifics are provided here, first on capacity development (CD) and policy development and implementation (PDI) with a focus on the sustainability of R4D/ERD to continue the programme. There was very limited capacity in the MPW and DRBFC to develop the strategy and plan for the R4D project and implement it when the EIIP support started. The EIIP R4D team had a crucial role of supporting the MPW and DRBFC to develop: (a) the strategy and outline plan¹⁴² for rural road network rehabilitation under R4D; (b) the capacity of staff to manage and monitor the project, and (c) the capacity of small scale contractors. The capacity development encompassed planning, management and technical aspects as well as applying the decent work principles and inclusion.

As noted earlier ILO EIIP contribution to policy development at a high level began before the reference period through contribution to development of the NSDP which included the strategic objective of improving rural roads by labour-based methods based on the experience of ILO implemented CfW and TIM-Works programmes referred to above. Alongside the capacity development, the R4D EIIP team supported the DRBFC in developing the RRMPIS and plans for its implementation with the aim of bringing the core rural road network up to all-weather access standard. When the R4D technical assistance and ERA-AF ended, the construction of the core rural road network as planned in the RRMPIS had not been completed. However, by the end of the interventions: (a) there was a plan to complete the construction of the core road network and continuing maintenance of the improved road network; (b) GoTL commitment and allocation of resources; (c) partially the levels of private sector and public sector capacities, and (d) partially the required enabling policy environment.

¹⁴¹ This refers to R4D and R4D-SP projects with DFAT funding support and ERA and ERA-AF with EU funding support.

¹⁴² The RRMPIS referred to above.

Exhibit 38: Improvement in access on roads constructed under ERA-AF

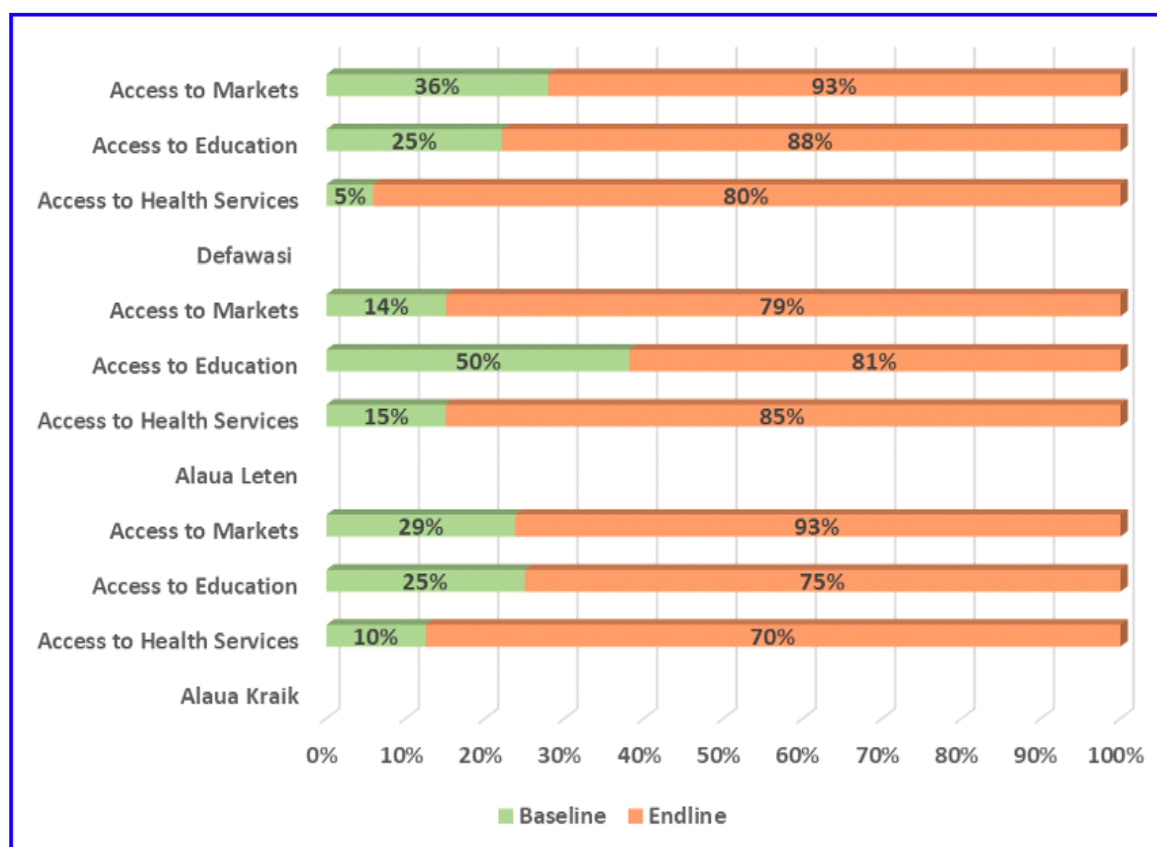


Exhibit 39: Case studies of beneficiaries of the ERA-AF project

I had limited opportunities to get work as I had no education, so farming was the only way to make a living for my family. We are able to send our children to school but I struggled to build a proper home for my family. We lived in a small shelter with bamboo cladding but it was falling apart. I had started constructing a house 10 years ago but had no money for the roof. I would like to thank God because I saw hope again in 2019 when the ERA-Agroforestry project from ILO decided to rehabilitate the road in Soibada. I got work on the project and earned money to support my family better. I was also able to save money to complete my house. (Domingo Soares. (Father of six and farmer, Manatuto Municipality)

I am head of my household and have a physical disability. I was struggling to support my family from farming, growing vegetables and rearing animals. There were no jobs available to improve what I could offer to my family. In September 2018 I heard that a rural road project (ERA-AF road) would be implemented in my village. I was selected to work on the project and earned USD 120 per month. I am very happy to be able to have a regular monthly income for a time and because of it I could fulfil my family needs. I intend to use the surplus from my earnings to open a small business like a kiosk. (Rui Guterres, Baguia Municipality)

I was very new to business when I started to lead my family construction company. But with my involvement in R4D-SP projects I had the opportunity to improve my knowledge and skills not only as an engineer but also as a businessman. Thanks for the support given by ILO through Ministry of Public Works, I am now a confident entrepreneur and engineer. (Contractor, Bobonaro Municipality)

I am very happy with the road. I used to travel several miles just to sell my vegetables and fruit. It was really frustrating as we had to leave early in the morning and return home after dark. Sometimes we didn't sell much and so we couldn't afford to take public transport which was expensive. Our business has now improved. I have already bought a motorbike for my son to help in the business. (Graciana Cardoso, Bobonaro Municipality)

As noted earlier, the role of ERA-AF in capacity development was to complement the work of the R4D EIIP team by strengthening training capacity,¹⁴³ seeking innovative solutions to problems and taking initiatives which would be difficult to do within contexts restricted by government regulations and financial constraints.¹⁴⁴ Examples of innovative solutions and initiative of ERA-AF are: (a) development and application of the ERA-AF Contractors Excellence Scheme (ECES)¹⁴⁵ to recognise well performing contractors and to monitor contractor performance; (b) payment of advances to contractors to pay for equipment or to ease tight cashflow situations, and (c) engagement with the business women's association to achieve a high participation rate of contractor firms owned by women. Nevertheless, some capacity challenges remained with respect to the continued implementation of the ERD project to improve the remainder of the core road network and maintain it to extend the developmental benefits.¹⁴⁶ These challenges are related to the policy context and therefore considered alongside policy development and implementation (PDI) below.

While the MPW and DRBFC have levels of capacities to implement ERD and there is evidence of continued government commitment and resource allocation, a number of challenges remain. At the operational level, there are concerns about the level of resources and capacities available for DRBFC and municipal staff to supervise works. The first aspect is related to policy and its implementation, in particular devoting sufficient resources to operational activities. There is also the need to clarify the roles of national DRBFC and municipal staff. The second aspect is the need for continuing capacity development for improving the capacities of staff and training new staff. This requires sustainability of the training capacity developed by ERA-AF which is also required for the training of contractors and their staff. There was no provision in the MPW and DRBFC priorities to develop a framework for nurturing training capacity.

To address the challenge of contractor capacity development and strengthening contractors, ERA-AF in its policy notes culminating in a White Paper¹⁴⁷ proposed a more active role for the private sector, the Chamber of Commerce and Industry-Timor-Leste (CCI-TL) and the newly formed Associação de Empreiteiros Com Base no Trabalho (AEBT) in engaging with MPW and GoTL. Progress was made towards establishing the role of CCI-TL as a private sector partner for contractor training¹⁴⁸ and advocacy for an improved environment for contractor operation. The funding of training of contractors remained a challenge which relates to policy development and implementation.

¹⁴³ Aspects of strengthening training capacity were support to the Don Bosco Training Centre (DBTC) in developing the technical training capacity of staff, development of the training curricula and materials for DBTC and IADE (Instituto de Apoio ao Desenvolvimento Empresarial or Institute for Business Development Support), involvement of DBTC trainers in supervising and providing technical advice on site for contractors and IADE trainers adapting business training to the requirements of small civil works contractors and providing consultancy advice, financial support for DBTC while it was developing its capacity and support for developing its business plan after the end of ERA-AF.

¹⁴⁴ The contrast here is between ERA-AF fully funded by the EU and the R4D EIIP engagement jointly funded by DFAT and GoTL to support a government project operating within government regulations and financial constraints. The two programmes working together had the advantage of ERA-AF being able to take initiatives and pilot solutions from which recommendations could be made for improving the R4D/ERD project's performance.

¹⁴⁵ Information from project leaders and Vaidya K and Dos Santos N (2021) *Mid-term Evaluation of Project Enhancing Rural Access Agro-Forestry - Improving access to agro-forestry areas (ERA-AF)* and ERA-AF (2019) *ERA-AF Contractor Excellence Scheme (ECES): Guidelines*.

¹⁴⁶ The ToC (Exhibit 3) and the related narrative in section 2 show CD and PDI as complementary activities with the outputs of developed capacity and the policy environment which sustain the EIIP approach to deliver development impacts. The ILO EIIP intervention in Timor-Leste is a case study of development impacts through the CD and PDI activities, though as the following discussion shows by the end of the interventions more needed to be done. The project has provided a blueprint for what needs to be done.

¹⁴⁷ ERA-AF (2022) *A White Paper for strengthening Timorese contractors in the construction industry*. Dili: Enhancing Rural Access Agro-forestry Project. The White Paper also included recommendations specifying institutional reforms for improving the enabling environment for contractors. These are referred to below.

¹⁴⁸ CCI-TL has entered into a MoU with MPW for classification of contractors which could form a basis for registration, development and regulation of contractors.

A key aspect which needed addressing when R4D TA and ERA-AF ended was improving the enabling environment for contractors undertaking work on ERD.¹⁴⁹ There were delays on ERD¹⁵⁰ in procurement and payment and lack of flexibility to provide advances or timely staged payments to enable contractors to manage their finances. The obstacles identified included are lack of consistent and regular annual budget allocations for implementing the ERD programme, delays in the procurement process because each project's procurement has to be approved by ADN (Agência do Desenvolvimento Nacional or National Development Agency), delays of between 6 and 9 months in paying contractors for completed works because of long bureaucratic processes and the ADN auditing process which entailed detailed audits of each project before payment was approved.

ERA-AF and R4D-SP produced a number of policy notes and convened workshops of stakeholders to resolve these issues but it was not possible for the required reforms to be carried out during the lifetime of the projects. A draft White Paper setting out the required policy changes and reforms required for improving the enabling environment was produced for GoTL to take forward. The White Paper recognised the need for reforms which were beyond the scope of MPW and DRBFC and identified ADN (the National Development Agency with oversight of the national development strategy and responsibility for auditing development projects) as a key public sector stakeholder with an important role in progressing the proposals in the White Paper.

There is formal and informal evidence that R4D / ERD incorporated decent work principles while technical assistance was being provided by ILO EIIP.¹⁵¹ These principles encompass adherence to International Labour Standards (ILS), gender equity on non-discrimination on other grounds, paying fair wages and decent working conditions. Effective adoption of decent work principles on ERD and ERA-AF was achieved through a combination of: (a) the socialisation process at the community level; (b) the training of contractors; (c) the "particular conditions" in contracts, and (d) site supervision and inspection. Since the implementation of these principles are incorporated within the ERD standard operating procedures and adoption of decent work principles is included in the Decent Work Country Programme, there is potential of development impact on this dimension of ERD implementation continues effectively.

The means by which inclusion was incorporated in R4D / ERD and ERA-AF were similar to those for decent work principles. About 29% of R4D / ERD workers were women and 6% of R4D / ERD workers were PwDs. On R4D / ERD and ERA-AF, there were targets for minimum per cent of women employed and proactive approaches to achieve the targets. On ERA-AF, the per cent of women among project workers was 25% (below the 30% target) but over 50% of contractor firms were managed by women. As for Inclusion, there is potential of development impact in this dimension if ERD implementation continues effectively with increased participation of women as contractors and workers.

The Timor-Leste case study is included in some depth because of ILO EIIP's actual and potential development impacts through long-term engagement and the challenge of addressing capacity development and institutional reforms for developing and implementing policies. ILO EIIP engagement started with humanitarian support which contributed to peace and stability. This initial engagement provided a basis for supporting GoTL in incorporating the EIIP approach in the national development strategy for addressing one of the most important development challenges for the country. EIIP support has made a significant contribution to the formation and implementation of the rural roads development strategy. However the case study shows that achieving all the features of a fully functioning and effective EIIP programme at the national level requires attention to a sustainable capacity development framework and policy reforms which

¹⁴⁹ This matter also has broader relevance for public sector contractors outside ERD.

¹⁵⁰ ERA-AF, being funded by a donor, did not have the same constraints in developing an enabling environments for contractors as R4D / ERD. It was able to use this freedom to develop and test innovative solutions which could be adopted by ERD.

¹⁵¹ The formal evidence is the incorporation of relevant clauses in the contracts. The informal evidence is inclusion of decent work conditions in the training of contractors and project reports. There is similar evidence for ERA-AF but the focus here is on R4D / ERD since it is a GoTL programme with greater potential of the principles being implemented after ILO EIIP involvement ends. The points made here also apply to Inclusion.

may not be possible to achieve even within a longer term EIIP engagements. The onus then remains on the national government though additional TA support may be required.

The ratings in Exhibit 40 show high levels of confidence in evidence and strength of impact for CD and PDI evidenced by the formation of the rural roads development strategy and the implementation of R4D/ERD. The ratings are not the highest because institutionalising capacity development and reforms required to improve the enabling environment for contractors were works in progress. The high DW and Inclusion ratings are for the inclusion of these principles in the continuing R4D/ERD project. The ImpAss ratings are high to middling because of reliance on partial and informal evidence on impact on livelihoods in the absence of formal evidence. The ImpEmp impact is low to middling because the focus is on asset improvement and evidence on improvement in livelihoods purely from project employment is limited.

Exhibit 40: Timor-Leste – Ratings of evidence and impact

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
ImpAss	There is partial formal evidence (length of roads rehabilitated) and partial informal evidence on the mechanisms of livelihood improvement. This combined with external evidence of the development impact of improved roads where initial access is very poor is a sound evidence base in the absence of rigorous formal evidence. Evidence rating: 3/4	Strong development impact can be inferred from the combination of partial formal, informal and external evidence. Rating is not the highest because of lack of formal evidence of development impacts. Strength of Impact: 4/5
ImpEmp	Informal evidence (case studies) of impact. Evidence rating: 2/3	Employment is short-term so normally limited long-term development impact but evidence of some longer-term impact from limited number of case studies. Strength of Impact: 2
CD	Substantial formal and informal evidence on capacity development. For R4D TA, capacity development within DRBFC to implement R4D and capacity of R4D contractors. For ERA-AF, capacity of training institute, input into contractors' capacity development and support during contracts and a tool for assessing contractor performance. . Evidence rating: 4	From the substantial formal and informal evidence on capacity development sound capacity to continue the R4D/ERD programme rural roads development strategy can be inferred. Rating not the highest because there appears to be less emphasis on capacity development after the end of R4D and ERA-AF. Some contractor capacity may be lost because of capacity and policy deficiencies (see PDI below). Strength of Impact: 3/4
PDI	Substantial formal and informal evidence on policy development starting with development of national strategy and implementation plan and support for implementation. For R4D, within DRBFC to implement R4D. For ERA-AF, work with R4D and GoTL to propose reforms to prioritise training and institutional reforms to create	From the substantial formal and informal evidence on policy development and implementation, continuation of the R4D / ERD programme to extend its development benefits can be inferred. Some concerns remained at the end of R4D and ERA-AF about what remains to be done on policy and implementation to improve the enabling environment for contractors and DRBFC and municipal staff managing and monitoring the programme and sustainability of training as outlined in the White Paper prepared by R4D and

Type of impact	Type and nature of evidence	Summary assessment of impact
	an enabling environment for contractors and DRBFC staff. Evidence rating: 4/5	ERA. Rating lowered because of the concerns raised above. Strength of Impact: 3/4
DW	Formal evidence on adoption and monitoring of decent work principles on R4D/ERD and ERA-AF. Incorporated in training materials and guides. Evidence rating: 3/4	Strong formal evidence on adoption and monitoring of decent work principles on R4D/ERD and ERA-AF. These practices and training materials and guides if they continue to be used on ERD would sustain the application of principles. Strength of Impact: 3/4
Inclusion	Formal evidence from principles and practice for R4D/ERD and ERA-AF of inclusion (women and PwDs) and on promoting women's inclusion as participants in the projects and as contractors. Supported by women's business association. Evidence rating: 4/5	Strong formal evidence from R4D/ERD and ERA-AF of inclusion (women and PwDs) and on promoting women's inclusion as participants in projects and as contractors. Continuation of well established inclusion policy and practice in ERD would sustain and improve inclusion. Strength of Impact: 4.

5 Conclusions and recommendations

5.1 Conclusions

5.1.2 Overview and summary of findings

From his review of previous studies and impacts of projects he reviewed, Keddeman (1998) concluded that longer-term poverty alleviation and development had been more difficult to achieve by employment intensive projects and doubts persisted about the benefits to the poor of the assets created through public works.¹⁵² Keddeman's focus was on the development impacts of the assets created, the ImpAss element in this study while this study has attempted to encompass impacts from the other elements in EIIP interventions. However, Keddeman did recognise the challenges imposed by the inadequacies of the institutions and capacities at the national level and lack of policy framework and resources for the sustainability of the approach outside projects implemented by the ILO and other agencies. Since the Keddeman review, there has been much greater emphasis in the EIIP approach on developing national and local public sector and contractor capacities (the CD element in this report) and supporting policy development and implementation (the PDI element in this report). In addition, there has been greater emphasis in the EIIP approach on the cross-cutting decent work and inclusion dimensions since 1998.

The EU (2010) review of a range of employment intensive projects concluded that they have the potential to alleviate poverty under the following conditions:

- They are part of a continuous programme of employment intensive infrastructure construction /rehabilitation over a period of years.
- They succeed in introducing and sustaining a programme to maintain the assets created using employment intensive methods.
- The assets created are of high quality and support productive activities and sustainable livelihoods of the poor.

¹⁵² Keddeman acknowledged the differences in types of employment intensive programmes and included all types of employment intensive programmes in his study. The typology of employment intensive programmes, revised since the Keddeman review, is explained at the beginning of section 2 (Framing the study) in this report. In the current typology set out in section 2 the term "employment intensive projects" is the umbrella for all types of employment creation oriented projects. Public works programmes are a sub-set with an emphasis on asset creation using appropriate labour-based technologies.

- If necessary, the creation of assets is accompanied by the delivery of complementary inputs (seeds, fertilizer) and services (agricultural extension, business development) that may be needed for the development of sustainable livelihoods.

The conclusions of this assessment of longer term development impacts of EIIP projects are similar in broad terms to EU (2010) if the poverty reduction impact is interpreted as pro-poor development. There is however a qualification to the similarity and two challenges to achieving the conditions. The qualification is that while EU (2010) implies that high quality asset creation focus is a requirement, regular and predictable incomes from employment with less emphasis on high quality asset creation also have pro-poor development impacts through the social protection they offer. The security of income over a period of time enables EIIP Project participants to invest in human and physical assets to improve livelihoods. Inclusion of women and direct payment to them gives them entry into the labour market and empowers them from a degree of financial independence. These impacts are demonstrated in section 3.3.3 which reviews external evidence on the longer-term development impacts of PEPs as employment generation oriented projects and the cases of the PSSN in Tanzania and the RMGs in Nepal¹⁵³ outlined in section 4.

The first challenge is related to the first EU (2010) condition, ensuring a continuous programme over several years. Such continuity is no doubt important. However, it requires either: (a) continuing external support over a number of years eventually leading to capacity development, adoption and implementation of national pro-employment policies and employment intensive projects and initiatives within it and requiring the ability and willingness on the part of the government to commit resources, such as for example In Timor-Leste and Cameroon. or (b) government policy and resources commitments leading to nationally implemented programmes such as the EPWP in South Africa. The second challenge is related to the fourth condition concerning delivery of complementary inputs. In principle such complementarities are highly desirable. However, such coordination and collaborations are difficult to initiate and manage. As noted earlier, PNG is the only country in this study in which the EIIP intervention to improve the rural transport infrastructure complements initiatives in agriculture and fishing.

Two other considerations are the importance of context and how longer-term development impact has been interpreted in this study. The country context has emerged as a significant factor in explaining the nature and evolution of the impact. Both the initial conditions in the country as well as government commitment are important considerations. Timor-Leste is a case which demonstrates significant impact from asset creation and sustainability of the employment intensive approach in improving rural roads. The country was afflicted by the struggle for independence and very limited resources and capacities at the beginning of EIIP engagement well before 2012. EIIP's partnership with the Government of Timor-Leste has generated long-term impacts through infrastructure improvements, capacity development and influencing and supporting government policy and the strategy for improving rural roads.

India and South Africa are examples of countries with sufficient actual or potential capacity which initiated national programmes. EIIP's role has been to support and complement national initiatives. In India the technical assistance had a narrow scope, to develop and implement an employment intensive maintenance strategy and operational system for rural roads constructed under the PMGSY. In South Africa it has been to provide broad scope technical assistance to the national and Limpopo Province EPWP programme. EIIP engagement with the EPWP goes back a number of years before 2012, the beginning of the reference period for this study. In Cameroon, there has been EIIP project engagement since 2013. EIIP has supported the government in establishing a HIMO Unit and mainstreaming the employment intensive approach in government policy in addition to developing capacity at local government level.

In Nepal, the community based roads maintenance strategy with the "maintenance first" principle developed by EIIP for the World Bank financed SNRTP programme, Capacity has been developed at the central and local administration levels to continue the approach. The EIIP component in the STREIT project in Papua New Guinea complements the interventions of other international agencies in developing value chains for cash

¹⁵³ Strictly speaking Rural Maintenance Groups (RMGs) in Nepal are not intended to be a PEP type social protection instrument since the project focus is on the maintenance of road assets but by providing regular and predictable incomes they had effects on the livelihood of participants similar to those for participants of PEPs.

crops. EIIP's intervention in PNG aligns with the fourth EIIP (2010) condition. In Tanzania the focus has been on contribution to social protection in the forms of a PSSN.

As noted in section 2, there is value in economic development for a nation if it improves the livelihoods of its citizens and this improvement reaches the most poor and vulnerable to improve their livelihoods and wellbeing. The poor and vulnerable are constrained in improving their livelihoods and wellbeing by some combination of limited household capabilities and resources, poor environmental conditions (including the infrastructure) and socio-political barriers. The evidence in this study demonstrates that the EIIP approach complemented by decent work principles and inclusion has contributed to the alleviation of all three types of disadvantages¹⁵⁴ but the relative contributions to addressing the disadvantages depend on the specifics of the context and project design.

The considerations identified above (the asset creation vs employment generation orientation of projects, the longevity of the engagement, national government commitment and other aspects of contexts and the nature of development impacts) have led to a more fine grained assessment of development impacts for the countries included in the study. Exhibit 41 and Exhibit 42 provide an overview of the impacts and form a basis for concluding the study. Exhibit 41 provides brief summary descriptions of the interventions, contexts and impacts and overview of the ratings of the evidence base for assessing impact and the levels of impact. For each country the confidence in evidence and impact level ratings have been brought together from the country by country assessments of impacts. As noted earlier¹⁵⁵ the ratings between 1 and 5 are qualitative judgements on the available evidence and the causal inference approach outlined in the methodology section 3.2. In the country level assessments numerous ratings are between digits. For example, the rating for confidence in evidence for PDI for Cameroon is 3 / 4. In Exhibit 41 this is shown as 3.5 to enable showing the confidence in evidence and strength of impact ratings together in the same column.

Exhibit 41 provides an overview and comparison of development impact ratings for the countries in the study with brief descriptions of interventions in the countries. The strongest confidence in evidence and strength of impacts across all the "activities"¹⁵⁶ is in Timor-Leste and Nepal. In Timor-Leste the engagement was much longer term starting well before the reference period and through a number of TA and implementation projects. Its scope was focused on the rural roads sector but within this focus the support was comprehensive. For Nepal while the evidence and impact ratings are comparable with those for Timor-Leste, the scope is much narrower, developing and providing support for a maintenance strategy for rural roads for an externally funded programme. For Cambodia and Kenya also there are high ratings but focused on CD and PDI and during a period well before the reference period. Notably in Cambodia there were studies of the impacts of the improved infrastructure for the communities benefiting from the improvements which have been largely absent or limited for other projects and countries.

The high ratings for CD and PDI for Cameroon are explained by the earlier support for a rural roads programme leading to support for the government in developing the national capacity and mainstreaming the employment intensive approach in government policy and allocation for HIMO projects in the public investment budget. The low rating for ImpAss is for the small recent TA projects in two provincial cities. As noted earlier in India and South Africa the EIIP TA support has been for large national projects with differences in scope and length of engagement. The ratings for confidence in evidence and strength of impacts is middling because of: (a) the difficulty of separating the development impact of EIIP TA from that of the programmes, and (b) insufficient evidence on the impacts.

The projects in Lebanon and Jordan are interventions at the humanitarian – development – peace nexus, where the interventions have been focused on humanitarian support in a distress situation. The assets created in the projects have development impacts and there is potential of social protection impact if there is transformation to a PEP approach. The ratings for Lebanon are somewhat higher than for Jordan because there appears to be a greater possibility of such a transformation in Lebanon than in Jordan because in

¹⁵⁴ See Exhibit 2 and related discussion in section 2.

¹⁵⁵ See section 4.1.1 for explanation of the basis for the ratings approach and descriptions of rating levels.

¹⁵⁶ EIIP project activities are the operations and management processes which convert the inputs into the outputs which lead to the achievement of outcomes (see section 2).

Lebanon there is: (a) government policy level engagement through the adoption of the EIIP approach as a social protection instrument; (b) involvement of more government departments, agencies and NGOs in the EIIP project; (c) a wider range of activities including restoration of mountain trails, improving farm infrastructure and forestry works in Lebanon, and (d) the economic crisis in Lebanon makes the need for the PEP approach more acute. There was also more asset creation under EIIP Lebanon than under EIIP Jordan. The ratings for Greece are high for ImpEmp, CD and PDI but the size and scope of the project to which TA was provided was small.

The ratings for the remainder of the countries are middling to low either because there is insufficient evidence, limited size of projects and interventions or significant potential impact yet to be realised. Exhibit 42 complements Exhibit 41 by providing a comparison between countries of the modes and scope of EIIP interventions. It also provides an overview of the most common types and combinations of interventions and impacts. The two tables and related discussion form a basis for some of the recommendations. Exhibit 42 helps to identify the modes and scope of EIIP interventions in the countries included in the study. *Comprehensive sector focused support* has been for the rural roads sector in 4 countries (Timor-Leste and Cameroon in the reference period and Cambodia and Kenya pre-reference period). The comprehensive support could be implementation or technical support for implementation, capacity development, institutional strengthening, policy / strategy formulation and implementation. By implication the comprehensive sector support mode overlaps with *TA support to national projects and/or policies*. Examples are TL and Cameroon during the reference period and Cambodia and Kenya pre-reference period.

The *Road maintenance model development* mode addresses an issue of key importance for the road sector by implementing a sustainability oriented asset management approach combining it with offering employment for women and men which offers them opportunities to improve their livelihoods, a development impact at the household level. The examples in the reference period are India, Nepal and PNG. Tanzania is included as potential (PO) under this mode since EIIP has provided advice to TARURA during the preparatory stages and possibility of further involvement. There is large potential for adoption of this model in other countries since the evidence shows that there is concern about investment in roads wasting away in the absence of effective maintenance.¹⁵⁷

The *Social protection orientation* mode is focused on development impact through EmpImp. The developmental impact is for households benefiting from regular and predictable incomes as social protection to support and improve livelihoods of participants. The examples during the reference period are Tanzania and Greece in different contexts and on different scales. As explained earlier,¹⁵⁸ Lebanon and Jordan are included under this mode but marked as potential rather than actual. In Mauritania, activities are on a much smaller scale than in Jordan and Lebanon but there is potential and need for a PEP approach. South Africa is included here but marked partial (PA) because while the employment generation is on a large scale (though small in relation to the level of unemployment) there is insufficient evidence to determine whether the length of employment and repeated access provide sufficient support to some households to improved livelihoods in a sustained way. One of the aspects often associated with PEPs is graduation and exit through skill development or gaining sufficient financial security to develop other livelihood support sources. In practice the rate of exit from PEPs depends on the availability of employment opportunities requiring the skills developed and opportunities for improving livelihoods through other activities.

The STREIT project in PNG is the only clear example of the *Contribution to integrated development* mode included in the study. The mode has the capability to deliver higher development impacts because the components complement each other. The improved access from better roads reduces the costs for transporting inputs and products and provides easier access for extension services providers thereby enhancing the value chains of the cash crops.¹⁵⁹ The impact ratings for the STREIT project are low because

¹⁵⁷ This issue is highlighted in the India and Nepal case studies and referred to under recommendations.

¹⁵⁸ See the discussion of the country case studies and earlier reference to the countries in this section.

¹⁵⁹ The ERA-AF project in Timor-Leste was the rural roads component which was intended to have a degree of integration with the agro-forestry development component implemented by another agency. While there was some coordination between the components and ERA-AF, improved access for some of the communities supported by the

the project is currently being implemented and therefore evidence of development impact is partial. The impact ratings are based on the potential of impact. Madagascar and Timor-Leste are included as partial (PA) under this mode because of the more limited integration with complementary initiatives. Given the potential development impacts of well coordinated integrated projects, there is a case for EIIP taking the initiative to seek out and participate in integrated development projects.¹⁶⁰ The nature and levels of development impacts depend on complementary conditions which explains why the context is important for the impact. Integrated projects are a special case where there are complementary initiatives intended to amplify the impacts. The difficulties in implementing integrated projects arise out of differences in the priorities and constraints of the parties collaborating.

TA support to national projects and/or policies mode In Exhibit 42 shows that this type of support is a part of projects in all but three countries (Jordan, Mauritania and Philippines). This wide inclusion is demonstration of support of national policies and development of capacities for sustainability of the employment intensive approach being integral to the EIIP mission and mode of operation and therefore there is a need to explain the exclusions. Jordan is excluded from this mode with respect to longer-term development impact in the exhibit because the EIIP engagement with the government is primarily concerned with policies and operations of the project and not the potential for sustaining the approach. Mauritania is excluded because of the small scales of locally based projects with no evidence found of engagement at national policy level. Philippines is excluded because of the small scales of locally based water supply projects with no evidence found of engagement in the sector at national policy level.¹⁶¹

The countries in this column marked √* indicate focused or substantial national level engagement but with differences. In India and South Africa it is technical assistance to national projects for capacity development. In Greece it is TA support for a government programme. In Cameroon, Mozambique and Timor-Leste the focus has been on supporting policy development for mainstreaming the employment intensive approach. In Cameroon and Timor-Leste, this role evolved out of project level TA or implementation. In the remaining countries included in this column this element was part of project level TA or implementation.

In the two countries (Madagascar and Mauritania) in the *Partial, limited scale support* mode column, as noted earlier, activities are on limited scales in specific areas, schools infrastructure in Madagascar and youth and displaced persons employment and skills development in Mauritania. While there are development impacts in Mauritania they are on modest scales but with potential for expansion. In Madagascar, the EIIP input during the reference period has been focused on improving the schools infrastructure through a sequence of projects.

The *Developing local resilience* mode is an aspect of the higher order impact “contribution to peaceful, inclusive and well provided society”. Cambodia and Timor-Leste are included in this column for the EIIP engagement which started in a period of crisis and instability and delivering impacts through a range of activities and contributing to the higher order impact. Philippines included under this mode is in a different category. There was a sequence of water supply projects and climate resilient innovations in farming, for example land conservation projects, in response to typhoons as natural calamities to develop preparedness and resilience at local levels.¹⁶² Cameroon, Jordan, Lebanon and Mauritania are included and marked PO for “potential” impact if the interventions continue and are expanded if necessary. Cameroon has been included as “potential” because although there was a project in two provincial cities in response to tensions related to youth unemployment and presence of displaced persons, the projects are short-term with no certainty of longer-term impact. The same applies in Mauritania. In Jordan and Lebanon there is evidence of short-term contribution to peace and stability and local resilience but no certainty of the impact being long-term.

afro-forestry component, proper integration was not achieved because of differences in priorities and constraints of the components.

¹⁶⁰ Participation in integrated projects aligns with the fourth EU (2010) condition for impact.

¹⁶¹ Note that exclusion from this column does not imply a deliberate decision on the part of EIIP not to include. Either there was evidence which was not found or that the

¹⁶² Philippines appears under this mode only in Exhibit 42 because of the narrow focus of the interventions.

Exhibit 41: Overview of impact ratings of countries

Countries	Ratings: Confidence in evidence / Strength of impact (1)						Brief description of the intervention, context and impact
	ImpAss	ImpEmp	CD	PDI	DW	Inclusion	
Cambodia	4 / 4	-	4 / 4	5 / 4	-	-	Started with emergency support in a national distress and weak institutions and capacities context. Pre-reference period substantial impact from assets created, capacity improved and policy developed.
Cameroon	2/2	-	4/4	3.5 / 3	-	-	Started from low capacity employment intensive rural roads programme. Later support to government to mainstream the EIIP approach in government policy.
Greece	-	4/3	4/3	5/3	2/2	-	TA to a targeted PEP model to address long-term unemployment with potential for replication.
India	3/2.5	3/3	3/3	3/3	2/2	3/3	TA to support maintenance capacity and system development for a national rural roads programme.
Jordan	1/1	3/1	2/2.5	2/2	3/3	3/3	Addressing the labour market and socio-economic distress caused by the influx of displaced persons. Employment generation oriented. Limited development impact of single episodes of employment.
Kenya	-	-	4/4	3.5/3.5	-	-	Pre-reference period impact through TA leading to strong capacity development and a national rural roads strategy. External financial support and national rural roads programme.
Lebanon	2.5/2.5	3/1	2.5/2.5	2/2	3/3	3.5/3	Addressing the labour market and socio-economic distress caused by the influx of displaced persons. Later exacerbated by the national economic crisis. Balanced employment generation / asset creation orientation. Low development impact of single episodes of employment. Potential of a PEP approach.
Madagascar	3.5/3	-	3/2.5	2/2.5	-	-	TA to support construction and maintenance of school buildings.
Mauritania	1/2	1/2	1/2	1/1	1/2	2/2	TA to provide skills and employment for youth and displaced persons.
Mozambique	2/2	1/2	1/3	3/3.5	2/2	2/1.5	Complementary policy development and implementation support. Designing and implementing pro-employment policies and employment-intensive projects. Stimulation of green Jobs through SME development and productive employment for women and female-headed households.
Nepal	3.5/3	4/4	4/4	2.5/2	3.5/3.5	3.5/3.5	TA to develop a rural roads maintenance strategy to complement a donor supported investment programme. Development of national and local capacities to implement the maintenance strategy and environmental and social safeguards.
PNG	1/2.5	1.5/1.5	1.5/2	1.5/2	2/2	2.5/1.5	Partner in an integrated development project. Transport infrastructure investment and maintenance for developing value chains for cash crops.
Philippines	2/2	1/2	1/2	2/2.5	1/1.5	2/2	TA support through multiple projects for developing resilience to natural calamities and water supply at local levels.
South Africa	-	-	3.5/3.5	3/2.5	3/3	3/3	TA to a national employment programme addressing the challenge of persistent high unemployment. Supporting the programme through capacity development and policy making and implementation.
Tanzania	1.5/1.5	1.5/1.5	1.5/1.5	2/2	3/2.5	3/3	TA to support development and implementation of a PSSN as part of the social protection strategy. Support for development of rural roads maintenance strategy.
Timor-Leste	3.5/4.5	2.5/2	4/3.5	4.5/3.5	3.5/3.5	4.5/4	Starting with emergency support from low-capacity and national distress situation. EIIP engagement through a sequence of TA and implementation projects. Comprehensive support for the development and implementation of a national rural roads development strategy.

Note: (1) The ratings between 1 and 5 are inserted here for all the countries from the earlier country by country assessments. Where the country level assessment is between digits, the rating is shown as the mid-point. For example, a 3 / 4 rating is shown as 3.5.

Exhibit 42: Modes and scope of EIIP interventions by country

Countries	Modes and scope of EIIP interventions by country (1)						
	Comprehensive sector focused support	Road maintenance model development	PEP: Social protection orientation	Contribution to integrated development	TA support to national projects and/or policies (2)	Partial, limited scale support	Developing local resilience
Cambodia	√				√		√
Cameroon	√				√*		√(PO)
Greece			√		√*		
India		√			√*		
Jordan			√ (PO)				√(PO)
Kenya	√	√			√		
Lebanon			√ (PO)		√		√(PO)
Madagascar				√(PA)	√	√	
Mauritania			√ (PO)			√	√(PO)
Mozambique					√*		
Nepal		√			√		
PNG		√		√	√		
Philippines							√
South Africa			√ (PA)		√*		
Tanzania		√ (PO)	√		√		
Timor-Leste	√	√		√(PA)	√*		√

Notes:

(1) (PA) in some cells indicates partial and P(O) indicates potential for the mode but not actual implementation.

(2) All but 4 countries are excluded from this mode and two are marked with *s. See explanation in the text for the exclusions and *s.

Following on from the two main strands: (a) infrastructure improvement and maintenance, and (b) social protection and their blend in EIIP interventions, and the modes of interventions identified in Exhibit 42, some specific types of interventions emerge as having potential for expansion because of their development impacts:

- Construction and rehabilitation of rural roads, trails and related structures.
- Maintenance of rural roads, trails and related structures.
- Construction and maintenance of irrigation works.
- Construction and/or maintenance of public buildings including markets, schools, health clinics, housing and shelter.
- Green works – reforestation and works to improve resilience to climate change (e.g. landscaping, barriers and water conservation).
- Social protection oriented.

There is strong representation of the rural roads sector in EIIP projects during the reference period. This is entirely understandable because of:¹⁶³ (a) the identified need for improving access to address poverty and vulnerability through development impacts, especially where initial access conditions are very poor; (b) evidence on the benefits and development impacts of improved access; (c) suitability of the LB / LRB approach for improving and maintaining rural roads, and (d) ILO EIIP expertise and experience in this sector accumulated over 40 years.¹⁶⁴

Keddeman (1998) ended his review by stating that the feasibility and preference for the LB approach had been demonstrated and therefore it should be the default approach to roads construction and rehabilitation and that the questions for policy makers should be why the EB approach should be considered for rural roads and other infrastructure. The Keddeman position relied heavily on evidence on LB vs EB cost comparison and other economic and operational advantages of LB in the rural context.

Since the Keddeman review, the emphasis of EIIP intervention has shifted from demonstrating the suitability and feasibility of the LB approach to its adoption by countries and preferably mainstreaming it. The EIIP mode of operation has also shifted to implementing through contractors. These changes have led to different challenges related to national policies and strategies for rural roads, reforming the institutions, developing national and local government and contractor capacities. Where there are larger established contractors, their preference for using conventional EB methods is a barrier. For rural roads, a different model based on local labour-based contractors has been developed by the EIIP. In addition, for lower level roads such as village access roads and maintenance of rural roads the alternative of community contracting with greater benefit for local communities has been developed.

As noted in section 3.3.1, the focus of this review is on contribution of EIIP to pro-poor development of which poverty alleviation is an aspect. Related to this emphasis is the highlighting of the need to direct more resources to alleviate the rural infrastructure deficit as an aspect of pro-poor development. This case is not based just on its pro-poor effects but also on the return on investment in improving access where the initial access is poor, as the evidence in section 3.3.2 shows. Further, EIIP has gone beyond making the case for more resources by developing approaches to put the resources to good use in implementing them in a range of projects addressing the challenges in different contexts as demonstrated by the examples of projects in section 4.

The issue of whether it is the employment intensive investment or just investment which is the key element for longer-term development impact was raised by Keddeman (1998) and is important to address. If the impact is solely from the investment and not its employment intensive nature, the rationale for the EIIP approach would be based on the cost advantage of the approach as demonstrated by Keddeman, and

¹⁶³ See section 3.3.2 for external evidence. Evidence from assessment of impacts in section 4 for some countries (for example Cambodia, India and Nepal) are also external evidence for assessment of impacts in other countries. y

¹⁶⁴ To put the development and evolution of EIIP in the historical context, see McCord A, Lieuw-Kie-Song M, Tsukamoto M, Tessem T and Donnges C (2021) *100 Years of Public Works in the ILO*. Geneva: ILO.

possible operational advantages of the LB over the EB approach in rural contexts for projects which are small and dispersed.

The wholistic case for the EIIP approach includes the cost and operational conditions considerations but is wider. It starts from the premise of the need to prioritise support for the poor and vulnerable in the development process and proposing and implementing infrastructure improvement and preservation strategies which seek to optimise the benefits for the poor and vulnerable. The wholistic case encompasses participation of the target population in decision making and implementing, using local resources and developing local capacities including those of contractors and communities. For social protection oriented EIIP projects if the works are chosen for their suitability for more labour intensive implementation, comparison with the EB approach is less relevant. Arguably the EIIP mission and approach have contributed to shifting priorities and resources towards pro-poor development and social protection.

The limitation of this study referred to in section 3.2 are related to the causal inference based approach, and availability of evidence for assessing development impact for the countries included in the study. Further some excluded countries (e.g. Tunisia and Sudan) could have been included if sufficient evidence had been found. Because of these limitations this document should be treated as a living document at least for the time being to be amended and expanded based on responses from the key stakeholders.

A contribution of this document is to identify areas in which there have been demonstrated development impacts during the reference period and areas where there is potential of development impact, including interventions in the EIIP portfolios which are under-represented (e.g. green jobs and response to climate change). The areas of demonstrated and potential impacts offer a guide for direction of the EIIP going forward which are proposed in the recommendations in section 5.2. Before moving on to the recommendations, the alignment of the EIIP mission and impacts with elements of the global development agenda are summarised in section 5.1.2.

5.1.2 EIIP development alignment with the ILO and global development agenda

In this section the alignment of EIIP objectives, projects and longer-term development impacts with selected global development agendas are outlined. EIIP objectives and projects align with the ILO's development agenda in its Strategic Plan,¹⁶⁵ the UN SDGs and the Paris Agreement. The EIIP longer-term impacts align well with the first three of the four pillars in the ILO Strategic Plan for 2022–25¹⁶⁶ in the aftermath of the pandemic as demonstrated in Exhibit 43.

¹⁶⁵ ILO (2020g) *The ILO's Strategic Plan for 2022–25*, GB.340/PFA/1(Rev.1). Geneva: ILO (https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_norm/---relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_757564.pdf).

¹⁶⁶ These are the pillars of the social and economic policy response identified post-pandemic advocated by the ILO in this document. While they are a response to the pandemic they have general applicability as guidance for development.

Exhibit 43: Alignment of the longer-term impacts of EIIP with the four pillars in the ILO Strategic Plan, 2022-25

Pillar	EIIP alignment with the pillar
Stimulating the economy and employment	EIIP contributes to pro-poor stimulation of the economy and employment. The stimulation is through the impacts of the improved infrastructure and through the construction and maintenance activities (direct, indirect and induced).
Supporting enterprises, jobs and incomes	Supporting jobs and incomes with pro-poor emphasis aligns with the contribution to Pillar 1. EIIP contributes to supporting enterprises directly in the construction sector, principally focused on local SME contractors and suppliers of LRB materials, and indirectly by stimulating the economy.
Protecting workers in the workplace	Adherence to and promotion of Decent work and Inclusion conditions by the EIIP contribute to this pillar.
Relying on social dialogue for solutions	This pillar is not considered in this report but it is a fundamental ILO principle and mode of engagement which the EIIP adheres to.

The EIIP approach stimulates the economy and employment through implementing and supporting investment and maintenance of infrastructure to stimulate economic development with the focus on disadvantaged sections of the population. The employment generated in EIIP works also favours the disadvantaged. Supporting enterprises (second pillar) is through development of private sector capacity, contractors on EIIP projects, and improving business prospects through supporting longer term improvement of the business environment (policy and institutional context). The jobs and incomes elements in Pillar II and protecting workers (Pillar III) are addressed by the pro-employment and pro-poor and inclusive decent work opportunities offered. Social dialogue, engagement with the government and workers' organisations as social partners are important for developing solutions for sustaining the EIIP approach. ILO's Decent Work agenda is at the core of its mission to advance the economic and working conditions of all workers. The EIIP focus on addressing the challenges faced by disadvantaged communities and individuals contributed to this.

The contribution of EIIP to the UN SDGs was referred to in section 2 (Framing the study) and in relation to the Timor-Leste case study. In summary, EIIP aligns well with Target 9.1 "to develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure...to support economic development and human wellbeing, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all" under SDG 9, SDG 1 (End poverty in all its forms everywhere) and SDG 8 (Promote sustainable economic growth and decent work). Given the large rural infrastructure deficit (about 1 billion people lacking access to an all-season road and the challenge of maintaining rural infrastructure), 26% of the global population living below the World Bank lower middle-income countries (LMICs) poverty line of USD 3.65 per day and the added challenges of climate change and forcibly displaced persons, the EIIP approach has a potential to continue to make developmental impacts through improving livelihood prospects and providing social protection if deployed in the PEP mode.

An important dimension of SDG 1 is resilience of the poorer sections of the population. The contribution to resilience is encapsulated well in Ministry of Public Works (Cameroon) and ILO (2019).¹⁶⁷

"In rural areas, where jobs in other sectors are relatively scarce, the EI approaches provides an alternative, and thus strengthens the resilience of rural households to a variety of shocks. Very often, Employment Intensive Investment approaches provide income support to the poor after natural disasters and during the off-peak period of employment in seasonal agriculture (lean period). As a result, they significantly improve the resilience of poor people and reduce their exposure to agricultural risks and economic hazards such as speculation, falling prices and others (SDG Target 1.5)."

¹⁶⁷Ministry of Public Works (Cameroon) and ILO (2019) *Contribution of employment intensive investment approaches to the achievement of sustainable development goals in Cameroon: The case of ILO technical assistance to the Ministry of Public Works as part of the Kumba-Mamfe road development project*. Yaounde: Ministry of Public Works.

Reference was made earlier to the EIIP programme's green jobs offering contributing to SDG 13.¹⁶⁸ Relatively few projects in the countries included in the study were specifically and wholly targeted at combating climate change (SDG 13). Examples of projects which had this focus are the Government of Norway funded *Job creation for Syrian refugees and Jordanian host communities through green works in agriculture and forestry* project in Jordan and several projects in the Philippines to improve resilience of local communities to climate change. However, all recent projects have been sensitive to climate change and have adapted design and implementation to protect the assets created or maintained from the effects of climate change. However, at present there are no indicators or measures for assessing the performance of the measures against climate change.

While a detailed assessment of this aspect is beyond the scope of this study, a brief overview of the types of responses to climate change and the nature of their impacts is provided here. The Inter-American Development Bank (IADB) (2019) offers some definitions of responses to climate change and high level guidance on the metrics for assessing the robustness of climate resilience measures in projects which financiers could develop and apply to align their financing decisions with the climate resilience goals of the Paris Agreement on coordinated actions against climate change in 2015.¹⁶⁹ While IADB's definitions are intended for financiers, suitably adapted they are relevant for investments in infrastructure and other EIIP interventions.

IADB defines "climate change adaptation" as "the process of human and natural systems adjusting to the actual or expected impacts or effects of climate change" including measures to adapt to more extreme short-term weather events as effects of climate change and longer term trends. "Climate resilience" is defined as the capacity to cope with or recover from shocks as effects of climate change. Sound climate adaptation is at the base of climate change resilience.

For EIIP projects, an aspect of climate change adaptation is to incorporate resistance to extreme weather events as effects of climate change into the design and building of assets and make provision for maintenance (routine and emergency works) to protect the assets through routine maintenance and restore parts of assets which are damaged by extreme events through emergency works. There are other mechanisms through which EIIP projects contribute to SDG 13. The review of evidence on the projects included in this study indicated that EIIP projects' climate change responses can be categorised as: (a) adaptations of works and approaches to preserving constructed assets; (b) developing resilience to events caused by climate change; (c) protecting natural and other assets (e.g. through flood and erosion control), and (d) mitigating the effects of climate change (e.g. through use of local resource based (LRB) approaches and extending forested areas).

Exhibit 44 shows the climate change and environmental sustainability elements in a selection of countries included in the study and the categories of climate change responses they fall in.¹⁷⁰ In Nepal, Timor-Leste and PNG, the responses were to adapt investment and maintenance activities to improve their resilience to climate change (category (a)) and as a result the development impact is through the increased durability of the assets created. Category (b) developing resilience to effects of climate change (e.g. in the Philippines, and on smaller scales in Mauritania and Tanzania) includes elements of adaptation of investment but is more specifically targeting the resilience of communities against the effects of climate change. Projects in the Philippines also include coastal resource management, sustainable agriculture methods and water resources management which fall in the protecting natural and other assets category (c).

Categories (a), (b) and (c) are protective or defensive responses to the challenges posed by climate change but with differences in their roles and contexts as described in the previous paragraph. Category (d), mitigating the effects of climate change, contributes to slowing down climate change progression, albeit in

¹⁶⁸ In setting the context to framing the study in section 2 and the narrative relating to the Theory of Change.

¹⁶⁹ See UN (2015) *Paris Agreement* and <https://unfccc.int/process-and-meetings/the-paris-agreement>. The Paris Agreement, also referred to as the Paris Climate Accords, is an international treaty on climate change. It was adopted in 2015 at the UN Climate Change Conference (COP21) and covers commitments and actions by members of the UN to slow down climate change and develop defences against the effects of climate change. There is reference later to another Paris Agreement in 2005 on aid effectiveness.

¹⁷⁰ The selection of countries in Exhibit 44 is influenced by the reference in the project documents to elements related to environmental sustainability or climate change.

small ways. Examples of category (d) in Exhibit 44 are projects in Jordan and Lebanon through increase in forest cover and in Mozambique and South Africa using LRB approaches. The LRB approach reduces the need to transport inputs and reduces the carbon footprint of investments and forested areas are acknowledged to be carbon sinks. While the LRB approach is shown as a climate change mitigating element in only a few cases in Exhibit 44, it is a more widely applied approach in the EIIP programme. The categories of climate change responses referred to above supplemented by technical information on the effects of responses could form a basis for inclusion of climate change strategies in the design of projects and criteria for evaluating performance in combating climate change.

Inter-American Development Bank (2019) also refers to “maladaptation” which is defined as increased risk of adverse climate-related outcomes. The adverse climate change effects of increased economic activities and related increased motorised traffic are a “maladaptation”. Kaiser and Barstow (2022) look at climate change implications in the wider context of rural livelihoods and how their improvement is linked with SDGs. Based on a review of the literature they conclude that improved rural roads contribute to the achievement of about half of the SDGs.¹⁷¹ On SDG 13 they conclude that climate change will lead to a deterioration of the rural road network and reduction in traffic, with serious adverse effects for rural people. They make a strong case for increasing resources for investing in and maintaining the rural access infrastructure. The authors recognise the adverse climate change effects of increased traffic on improved roads. However, there are trade-offs between the adverse climate change impacts of increased rural traffic and all the benefits of improved access for rural people and its contribution to achieving the other SDGs. In comparison with the climate change effects of national traffic volumes the adverse effects increased rural transport are likely to be small. Kaiser and Barstow (2022) conclude that national level policies to reduce reliance on carbon emitting vehicles which would apply to vehicles for rural transport and increased use of intermediate and non-motorised transport vehicles would mitigate the adverse effects.

Exhibit 44: Climate change related elements in EIIP projects in selected countries

COUNTRY	Climate change related elements in projects	Types of climate change related contributions
Jordan	The Government of Norway funded project focused on water conservation and tree planting to recover forest areas. Under EIIP Jordan Phase II, forestry nursery, water cisterns and hydroponic cultivation units.	Mitigating the effects of climate change (water conservation and recovering forest areas).
Lebanon	Agricultural roads construction (30 km). 2 km retaining walls construction. Road maintenance (90 km). Irrigation network in Deir el Ahmar (25 km). Storm water drains (3 km). Forestry – tree planting.	Adaptation of works and approaches to preserving constructed assets. Developing resilience to events caused by climate change. Protecting natural and other assets (e.g. flood and erosion control). Mitigating the effects of climate change.
Mauritania	Under PECOBAT use of local materials and techniques to construct buildings suitable for extreme climatic conditions.	Developing resilience to effects of climate change. Mitigating the effects of climate change.
Mozambique	Stimulation of green jobs through SMEs supported to produce local substitutes for construction materials. A technical and	Mitigating the effects of climate change.

¹⁷¹ SDG 1 (ending poverty), SDG 2 (zero hunger), SDG 3 (ensuring healthy lives), SDG 4 (quality education), SDG 5 (gender equality), SDG 6 (access to water and sanitation, SDG 8 (economic growth) and SDG 9 (building resilient and sustainable infrastructure, which specifically includes rural transport and mobility based metrics within the goal). Kaiser and Barstow also include SDG13 (combating climate change) which is considered in more detail below.

COUNTRY	Climate change related elements in projects	Types of climate change related contributions
	vocational educational training (TVET) centre rehabilitated using climate-resilient alternative construction materials.	
Nepal	Maintenance of roads constructed under SNRTP. Roadside tree planting and bioengineering works were introduced as part of the routine maintenance works. On hill slopes and landslide-prone areas, grass planting, brush layering, palisades, live check dams, fascines and tree planting.	Adaptation of works and approaches to preserving constructed assets.
Papua New Guinea	Construction of rural roads, airstrips and jetties. Climate change and environmental considerations in project design and implementation.	Adaptation of works and approaches to preserving constructed assets.
Philippines	Initial response to natural disasters (typhoons) transitioned to support for resilience (disaster preparedness) through building local capacities and community engagement approach (green works and strategies such as coastal resource management, sustainable agricultural practices and water resources management).	Developing resilience to events caused by climate change. Protecting natural and other assets (e.g. flood and erosion control).
South Africa	In Phase 4 of EPWP (2019-24) addressing climate change has been prioritised. Initiatives include research and development on the use of local resource based technologies and energy neutral housing.	Mitigating the effects of climate change.
Tanzania	The public works component of the PSSN includes natural resources management including construction of water catchments such as charco dams to improve access to water for livestock and small-scale irrigation.	Developing resilience to events caused by climate change.
Timor-Leste	Construction and maintenance of rural roads.	Adaptation of works and approaches to preserving constructed assets.

The EIIP approach aligns well with the Paris Declaration on aid effectiveness (OECD, 2005) which sets out five principles for improving the quality of aid and its impacts on development and specific measures for implementation and performance indicators to assess progress. Exhibit 45 shows a strong alignment between the Paris Declaration conditions for donors and recipients and EIIP principles and operational procedures as a provider of TA or implementer of development projects.

Exhibit 45: EIIP alignment with the Paris Declaration on aid effectiveness

Principle	Explanation EIIP's alignment with them (1)
1. Ownership	Developing countries set their own development strategies, improve their institutions and tackle corruption. <i>One of the central principles of EIIP is to support national governments to develop strategies, capacities and institutions for adopting and sustaining the employment intensive approach to develop (also see Alignment below).</i>
2. Alignment	Donor countries and organisations bring their support in line with these strategies and use local systems. <i>EIIP interventions align support and proposed reforms with national strategies. Use of local systems is essential for developing sustained employment intensive strategies and capacities.</i>
3. Harmonisation	Donor countries and organisations co-ordinate their actions, simplify procedures and share information to avoid duplication. <i>EIIP has a strong track record of working with multilateral and unilateral</i>

Principle	Explanation EIIP's alignment with them (1)
	<i>donors and effectively coordinating with them.</i>
4. Managing for results	Developing countries and donors focus on producing and measuring results. <i>In line with the overall ILO approach, EIIP projects support developing countries and donors by producing and measuring results. EIIP adopts a results based management (RBM) approach which is referred to in section 2 as a basis for framing this study. This normally involves setting out the underlying theory of change and / or specifying a LogFrame or results matrix to set out the outputs, outcomes and impacts. Monitoring of results is incorporated in the project management and monitoring processes.</i>
5. Mutual accountability	Donors and developing countries are accountable for development results. <i>Mutual accountability of donors and developing countries and accountability of EIIP implementation and TA projects are achieved by the processes for managing results outlined above and being accountable for them.</i>

Note: (1) The bold text in the *Explanation of alignment with EIIP* column is the explanation from the Paris Declaration. The text in italics shows the alignment.

5.2 Recommendations

The recommendations follow on from the conclusions in section 5.1 and fall into two categories: (a) related to collection and presentation of evidence for assessing the longer-term development impacts of EIIP projects, and (b) arising from the appraisal of impacts.

Recommendations on evidence collection and presentation

The purposes of conducting development impact assessments are to: (a) improve the design of future projects; (b) inform actual and potential development partners (national stakeholders, providers of finance and collaborating agencies), and (c) strengthen the case for more EIIP initiatives. It is evident from the assessment of development impacts undertaken in this study that while there is informal and partial evidence of significant actual or potential development impacts, because of the challenges and limitations in assessing them, there is a shortage of systematic studies of impacts. As noted earlier, the challenges are the multiple means by which more than one development impacts arise and the time over which they evolve, some after projects end. While the LogFrames or results matrices of EIIP projects identify impacts and the final evaluation of larger projects make assessments of the likelihood of the impact objectives being met, evidence for assessing impact is not always available and the impacts may not be evident when the final evaluations are conducted.

Recommendation 1: Make provision for assessing impacts independently of projects, either through a dedicated unit or personnel or by arrangement with ILO EVAL, if such an arrangement is possible, to enable a more rounded assessment of impacts to encompass those which evolve after projects end. An added advantage of such follow ups would be to identify issues which may be preventing the full impacts of projects to be realised, to advise stakeholders of what is needed to rectify the situation and make the case for further interventions if required.¹⁷² This recommendation aligns with Keddeman's (1998) suggestion of a separate budget or a fixed proportion of the total budget allocation for assessment of impacts (see section 3.3.1).

Recommendation 2: Develop theories of change for projects and use them as a basis for identifying the impacts and develop an impact assessment plan differentiating between data collection and assessments to

¹⁷² A sequence of studies of irrigation projects in Nepal, the latest being EIIP (2021) referred to in section 3.3.1 .

be undertaken during the project and after. The theory based approach for drawing causal inferences where the ToC outlines the mechanisms through which the causes and effects are related is recommended. The approach would lead to specifying a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection and analysis recognising varying levels of confidence in the evidence on impact. Whether the plan could incorporate assessment of impacts after the end of projects would depend on whether Recommendation 1 is adopted.

Recommendation 3: Related to Recommendation 2, incorporating data collection plans and their implementation while the project is in progress is recommended. This would require specifying the data requirements and setting up baseline and endline data collection for more formal assessments and case study and qualitative evidence (also see Recommendation 4 below). Project LogFrames or results matrices could be adapted to incorporate these.

Recommendation 4: Develop reports giving accounts of actual and potential development impacts while projects are being implemented. The reports could be living documents during the projects reporting on the baseline, mid-line and endline surveys and other formal and informal evidence. It could include multi-media elements through links to videos of interviews and other evidence on project impacts and to external evidence. If recommendations 2 and 3 are accepted, the required evidence for such reports would be available. The ERA-AF meta-analysis document (Uriyo, 2022) has a number of elements of such a document.

Some EIIP projects communicate progress and achievements including publication of reports of studies, evidence on progress and milestones and individual and community stories. Two examples of project which do this in different ways are EIIP Lebanon which has a dedicated website which provides this information and ERA-AF in Timor-Leste which produced the monthly newsletter Hametin and a meta-analysis document providing a narrative of the outputs and outcomes and progress towards impact which is referred to above. The ERA-AF meta-analysis document included comparison of baseline and later surveys on selected indicators such as change in access, performance of contractors and stories of individual beneficiaries from work on the project and improved roads.

Recommendations arising from the assessment of impacts

Recommendation 5: There is much greater need in other countries for the rural roads maintenance strategy and implementation model developed and adopted in India and Nepal. There are demonstrated development impacts arising from the maintenance model, extending the life of rural roads and livelihood improvement for maintenance workers. Partnerships with the World Bank which financed the projects in India and Nepal was central for the engagement of EIIP. It is recommended that the potential for partnerships with the World Bank and other agencies financing investment in rural roads are explored. The exploration would involve data collection to identify projects, screening to narrow down target countries and projects and proposing business cases for EIIP involvement at the programme and country levels.

Recommendation 6: There is need for investment in rural roads based on the evidence on the proportion of rural people with inadequate access and demonstrated development impacts of improved roads. As for maintenance projects, partnerships with agencies which finance rural road projects is important for increasing activities in this area. As for recommendation 5, there is need for identifying potential target countries and projects and proposing business cases. A difference from recommendation 5 is the need to start at an earlier stage in the project development cycle to propose the labour-based approach for road construction and rehabilitation.

Recommendation 7: ILO EIIP is engaged in a number of projects at the humanitarian – development – peace nexus, some on large scales such as in Lebanon and Jordan, others of more recent origin and on smaller scales. Given the limited livelihood improvement impact of one off or episodic EIIP employment opportunities collaboration with governments and development partners for scoping transition to PEP / Productive safety net models is recommended. National resources are unlikely to be sufficient in most countries and in some countries the need is more acute because of the presence of internationally displaced persons. These circumstances justify international financial support. Tanzania is an example of a country (see section 4.2.6) which has set up a PSSN with external financing support.

Recommendation 8: EIIP participation in integrated development projects was rare during the reference period among the countries and projects chosen for inclusion in the study. The most striking example is the STREIT project in PNG.¹⁷³ Collaboration with governments and development partners for identifying integrated project opportunities with a view to developing initiatives is recommended.

Recommendation 9: There is a sound rationale for the product offering of EIIP interventions and complementary knowledge development and prospecting for project opportunities. All recent projects during the reference period have been sensitive to the challenge climate change and have adapted design and implementation to be resilient to the effects of climate change. While a number of projects included elements of adaptation to climate change, there was not a strong representation of some of the areas of new knowledge development and emerging needs related to combating climate change, notably green jobs, nature based solutions, promoting local technologies, combatting desertification and managing water resources. Given the seriousness of the challenge of climate change and its effects for the disadvantaged people, the need and potential are large. Collaboration with governments and development partners for identifying project opportunities with a view to developing initiatives in these areas is recommended.

Recommendation 10: The limitations of this document related to the methodology and evidence have been referred to in section 3.2 and earlier in this section. To mitigate the limitations for future studies, inputs are required from internal key stakeholders (the JCPI team members and EIIP regional experts and project staff) and external experts on: (a) interpretation of development impacts and the ratings, and (b) filling in any gaps in the evidence required to make assessments of development impacts of EIIP interventions more robust.

Recommendations 5 to 9 are ambitious and it may be necessary to prioritise between them and geographically and initiate them through scoping exercises and policy papers potentially leading to projects.

¹⁷³ The other two are the classrooms construction project in Madagascar in which UNICEF provided educational materials (see section 4.1.7) and the ERA-AF project in Timor-Leste in which the intended integration was partial (see section 4.2.7).

List of references and website links

- Abebe, G., Franklin, S., Imbert, C. and Mejia-Mantilla, C. (2021) *Urban Public Works in Spatial Equilibrium: Experimental Evidence from Ethiopia*. [online] papers.ssrn.com. Available at: <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3960295>
- ADB (1995) *The President's Report and recommendation to the Board of Directors on a proposed loan and technical assistance to the Kingdom of Cambodia for the Rural Infrastructure Improvement Project*, Manila.
- Aggarwal, S. (2018). "Do rural roads create pathways out of poverty? Evidence from India." *Journal of Development Economics*, 133: 375-395.
- Ahmed, S. and K.M. Nahiduzzaman (2016). "Impacts of rural accessibility on women empowerment: The case of south west Bangladesh." *Transport and Communications Bulletin for Asia and the Pacific*, 86: 41-57.
- Asher A and Novosad P (2016) *Market access and structural transformation: Evidence from rural roads in India* (Unpublished).
- Asher, Sam and Paul Novosad (2020) "Rural Roads and Local Economic Development." *American Economic Review*, 110 (3): 797-823.
- ASIST-AP (2004) *Annual Progress Report May 2003 to April 2004*. Bangkok: ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific.
- Babu V and Sudhakar G (2014) "MGNREGA: Making Way for Social Change in Women's: A Case Study of Musunuru Mandal in Andhra Pradesh." *International Journal of engineering and Management Research*, 4: 1-5.
- Banerjee, R. and A. Sachdeva (2015). "Pathways to Preventive Health, Evidence from India's Rural Road Program." *USC-INET Research Paper* (15-19).
- Banjo G, Gordon H and Riverson J (2012) *Rural Transport: Improving its contribution to growth and poverty reduction in Sub-Saharan Africa*, SSATP, World Bank.
- Barrett, C B and Swallow, B M (2006) "Fractal poverty traps." *World Development* 34(1): 1-15.
- Barroeta F and Suarez S (2016) *Étude diagnostique sur la formation et l'insertion professionnelle dans l'entretien routier en Mauritanie*. ILO.
- Battistin F and Leape V (2017) *Towards the right to work: A guidebook for designing innovative public employment programmes*. Beirut: ILO ROAS.
- Beazley R and Vaidya K (2015) *Social Protection through Work: Supporting the rural working poor in lower income countries*. Oxford Policy Management Working Paper. Available at: <http://www.opml.co.uk/publications/social-protection-through-work>
- Beegle K, Coudouel A and Monsalve E (2018) *realizing the full potential of social safety nets in Africa*. Africa Development Forum. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Bell C and van Dillen S (2012) *How does India's rural roads program affect the grassroots? Findings from a survey in Orissa*. Policy Research Working Paper 6167. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Bell, C. and S. Van Dillen (2014). "How does India's rural roads program affect the grassroots? Findings from a survey in upland Orissa." *Land Economics*, 90(2): 372-394.
- Bell, C. and S. van Dillen (2018). "On the way to good health? Rural roads and morbidity in Upland Orissa." *Journal of Transport & Health*, 10: 369-380.
- Berg, C.N., B. Blankespoor and H. Selod (2018). "Roads and Rural Development in Sub- Saharan Africa." *The Journal of Development Studies*, 54(5): 856-874.
- Bijl J, Dingen R and dos Santos N (2021) *Conducting a joint contractor tracer study of the ERA-AF and R4D-SP projects in Timor-Leste: 2012-2020*. Dili: ILO.

- Burningham S and Stankevich N (2005) *Why road maintenance is important and how to get it done: Operational guidance*. Transport Notes No 33925. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Charlery, L.C., M. Qaim and C. Smith-Hall (2016). "Impact of infrastructure on rural household income and inequality in Nepal." *Journal of Development Effectiveness*, 8(2): 266-286.
- Christensen Z (2023) *Economic poverty trends: Global, regional and national: Factsheet*. Development Initiatives.
- Connell, J G (2018) *Job creation for Syrian refugees and Jordanian host communities through green works in agriculture and forestry (JOR/16/10/NOR): Final Independent Evaluation*.
- Consultation & Research Institute (2021) *Final Report Employment Intensive Infrastructure Programme in Lebanon workers survey and perception survey on infrastructure projects: Final report*.
- Consultation & Research Institute (2022) *Economic Impact Study for Three EIIP projects: Final Report*.
- Corbafo Z and Morrissey T (2021) *Roads for Development – Support Program (R4D-SP) Final Evaluation*, Morrissey Consulting International (MCI).
- Damania, R., J. Russ, D. Wheeler and A.F. Barra (2018). "The road to growth: Measuring the trade-offs between economic growth and ecological destruction." *World Development*, 101: 351-376.
- Dappe M H, Muneeza Mehmood Alam M M, and Luis Andres L (2021) *The Road to Opportunities in Rural India: The Economic and Social Impacts of PMGSY*. Mobility and Transport Connectivity Series, Washington DC: World Bank Group.
- Dasgupta P and Sudarshan R (2011) *Issues in labour market inequality and women's participation in India's National Rural Employment Guarantee Programme*. Geneva: ILO.
- de Mattos F B and Dasgupta S (2017) *MGNREGA, paid work and women's empowerment*. Employment Working Paper No. 230, Employment and Labour Market Policies Branch, ILO Employment Policy Department. Geneva: ILO.
- Del Ninno, C., K. Subbarao, and A. M. Milazzo (2009) *How to Make Public Works Work: A Review of the Experiences*. Social Protection Discussion Paper 0905. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Del Ninno, C. and Bradford M. (eds.) (2015) *Safety Nets in Africa: Effective mechanism to reach the poor and most vulnerable*. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Department of Public Works and Infrastructure (DPWI) (2020) *EPWP infrastructure led growth: Enhancing labour intensity of infrastructure projects to enhance employment opportunities – Briefing Note*. Pretoria: Government of South Africa.
- Dercon S and Hoddinott J (2005) *Livelihoods, Growth, and Links to Market Towns in 15 Ethiopian Villages*. FCND Discussion Paper 194.
- Dercon S, Gilligan D, Hoddinott J and Woldehanna T (2008) *The Impact of Agricultural Extension and Roads on Poverty and Consumption Growth in Fifteen Ethiopian Villages*. IFPRI Discussion Paper 00840.
- Desulie B S and Abebe B A (2017) "A critical review of small scale irrigation in Ethiopia: prospects and challenges." *International Journal of Current Research*, 9 (11): 60916-60920.
- de Veen J (1984) *The Rural Access Roads Programme: Appropriate technology in Kenya*. Geneva: ILO.
- DoLIDAR (2016) *Road Maintenance Group Guidelines*. Government of Nepal.
- DoLIDAR (2017) *Occupational safety and health guidelines*. Government of Nepal.
- Donnges C, Edmonds G and Johannessen B (2007) *Rural road maintenance – Sustaining the benefits of improved access*. Geneva: ILO EIIP.
- Dorosh P, Wang H, You L and Schmidt E (2010) *Crop production and road connectivity in Sub-Saharan Africa: A spatial analysis*. Policy Research Working Paper 5385, World Bank, Washington DC.

DPWI (2020) *EPWP infrastructure led growth: Enhancing labour intensity of infrastructure projects to enhance employment opportunities – Briefing Note*. Pretoria: Government of South Africa.

EIIP (n.d.) *Public Employment Programmes (PEPs): Creating decent jobs through national investments*. ILO.

EIIP NEPAL (n.d.) *Nepal: Road maintenance as a vehicle for social inclusion and decent work for women*. ILO.

EIIP (2017) *Getting back to work: A study of the social impacts of Kinofelis*. Geneva: ILO and ILO (2021) *The right to work now: Lessons from Kinofelis, the Greek public employment programme*. Geneva: ILO.

EIIP (2021) *Guidance for operation and maintenance (O&M) of irrigation systems: maximizing local resources and community participation, Nepal and the Philippines*. Geneva: ILO.

ERA-AF (2019) *ERA-AF Contractor Excellence Scheme (ECES): Guidelines*. Dili: ERA-AF.

ERA-AF (2022) *A White Paper for strengthening Timorese contractors in the construction industry*. Dili: ERA-AF.

Escobal J and Ponce C (2002) *The benefits of rural roads: enhancing income opportunities for the rural poor*, GRADE Working Paper 40. Grupo de Análisis para el Desarrollo (GRADE), Lima, Peru.

EU (2010) *Study on Employment-Intensive Methods in Infrastructure and other Non-Social Sector Programmes: Final Report*. Brussels: European Union.

EU-STREIT (2022) *Annual Progress Report January-December 2021(Draft)*. EU STREIT PNG.

Excel Consulting (2022) *Workers Survey: Phase V of the project Employment through Labour Intensive Infrastructure (EIIP) in Jordan*.

Fan S and Chan-Kang C (2004) *Road Development, Economic Growth, and Poverty Reduction in China*. Development Strategy and Governance Division Discussion Paper No. 12, IFPRI.

Fan S Zhang X and Rao N (2004) *Public expenditure, growth and poverty reduction in rural Uganda*, DSGD Discussion Paper No. 4, Development Strategy and Governance Division (DSGD), International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI).

Field E, Pande R, Rigol N, Schaner S and Troyer Moore C (2021) "On her own account: How strengthening women's financial control impacts labour supply and gender norms." *American Economic Review*, 111(7): 2342–2375.

Gachassin M, Najman B and Raballand G (2010) *The impact of roads on poverty reduction: A case study of Cameroon*. Policy Research Working Paper 5209, World Bank, Washington.

Gamoo L and Johannesen B (2011) *Study on enhancing the labour intensity in the Expanded Public Works Programme road infrastructure projects, South Africa*. Pretoria: Department of Public Works (DPW).

Goss Gilroy Inc. and Orbicon (2010) *Impact evaluation of DANIDA support to rural transport infrastructure in Nicaragua*. Copenhagen: Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Denmark.

Government of Timor-Leste (GoTL) (2015) *Rural Roads Master Plan & Investment Strategy (RRMPIS), 2016-2020*. Dili: GoTL.

Government of Rwanda (2013) *Economic development and poverty reduction, 2013-18*, Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, Kigali.

Government of South Africa (2019) *Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) Phase IV Business Plan, 2019 – 2024*, Department of Public Works & Infrastructure, Republic of South Africa.

Government of South Africa and ILO (2019) *Memorandum of Agreement between the Government of South Africa and the International Labour Office regarding the implementation of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) of the Republic of South Africa, SAF/04/01/SAF – Amendment 8*.

Government of Timor-Leste (GoTL) (2015) *Rural Roads Master Plan & Investment Strategy (RRMPIS), 2016-2020*. Dili: Government of Timor-Leste.

- Grey R (2017) "Who owns the intellectual fruits of job guarantee labor?" *The job guarantee and modern money theory* [online] pp.207–223. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-46442-8_9.
- Grey R (2020) *Equality, not equal pay: distributional justice beyond money*. [online] Available at: <https://rohangrey.net/files/equalpay.pdf>
- Gronbach L, Seekings J and Megannon V (2022) *Social Protection in the COVID-19 pandemic: Lessons from South Africa*. CGD Policy Paper 252. Washington DC: Centre for Global Development.
- Gupta M C and Gupta S (2022) *Strengthening community-led development of adaptive pathways to rural resilient infrastructure in Asia and the Pacific*. Sustainable and Resilient Infrastructure, pp.1–10. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1080/23789689.2022.2134644>.
- Harral C and Faiz A (1988) *Road deterioration in developing countries: Causes and remedies*. World Bank Policy Study. Washington DC: World Bank.
- Hettige H (2006) *When do rural roads benefit the poor and how? An in-depth analysis based on case studies*. Manila: Asian Development Bank.
- Hine J, Sasidharan M, Eskandari Torbaghan M, Burrow M P N and Usman K (2019) *Evidence on impact of rural roads on poverty and economic development*. K4D Helpdesk Report. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.
- Hine J, Abedin M, Stevens RJ, Airey T, Anderson T (2015) *Does the extension of the rural road network have a positive impact on poverty reduction and resilience for the rural areas served? If so how, and if not why not? A systematic review*. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, UCL Institute of Education, University College London.
- Hlatshwayo M S (2017) "The Expanded Public Works Programme: Perspectives of direct beneficiaries." *The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa* 13(1).
- Howe J and Richards P (eds) (1984) *Rural roads and poverty alleviation*. London: Intermediate Technology Publications.
- Hussam R N, Kelley E M, Lane, G V and Zahra F T (2021) *The Psychosocial Value of Employment*. [online] National Bureau of Economic Research. Available at: <http://www.nber.org/papers/w28924>
- Inter-American Development Bank (2019) *A framework and principles for climate resilience metrics in financing operations*. Washington: IADB.
- ILO (2011) *Applying Results-Based Management in the International Labour Organization: A Guidebook, Version 2*.
- ILO (2012) *Towards the Right to Work: A guidebook for designing innovative Public Employment Programmes*. Geneva: ILO.
- ILO (2013) *Impacts of Public Employment Programmes: Guidance note* (unpublished draft).
- ILO & NRRDA (2015) *Managing maintenance of rural roads in India*. New Delhi: NRRDA.
- ILO (2014a) *A practical guide for post calamity response: The Philippine experience*. Manila: ILO.
- ILO (2014b) *Typhoon Bopha - Sloping agricultural land technology: A post-calamity intervention on sustainable farming in Cateel and Boston, Davao Oriental*. Manila: ILO.
- ILO (2015) *Vanuatu Employment Project – Increasing the quantity and quality of employment in recovery and reconstruction after cyclone PAM*. [online] www.ilo.org. Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/projects/WCMS_377583/lang-en/index.htm.
- ILO (2018) *Employment Intensive Investment Programme: Creating jobs through public investment*, ILO, Geneva.
- ILO (2019a) *The ILO Transport Infrastructure Proposal for EU Support to Rural Entrepreneurship, Investment and Trade in Papua New Guinea (EU STREIT), Draft*. Bangkok: ILO ROAP.

- ILO (2019b) *Concept note for technical support for Ildpwri in the implementation of epwp for the period, January 2020 to December 2024 (Annex 1: Up-scaling employment creation through the Expanded Public Works Programme)*. Pretoria: ILO Office.
- ILO (2019c) *Tanzania: Gender responsive public works as a key building block of social protection for all*. EIIP Policy Brief, Employment Intensive Investment Programme. Geneva: ILO.
- ILO ROAS (2019) *Water cisterns impact assessment analysis report: Job creation for Syrian Refugees and Jordanian host communities through Green Works in agriculture and forestry* (Employment Intensive Investment Program funded by the Government of Norway). Beirut: ILO ROAS.
- ILO (2020a) *Decent Work for Sustainable and Inclusive Economic Transformation in Mozambique (MozTrabalha) Project Document*.
- ILO (2020b) *Knowledge Brief: Strengthening the National Rural Transport Program (SNRTP) NEPAL: Decent employment through maintenance first approach for better road connectivity*. ILO.
- ILO (2020c) *Promoting a model for sustainable livelihoods and social cohesion in the moughataa of Bassikounou through on-site construction training (MRT/19/03/USA): Report covering the period, 1 October 2020 to 31 December 2020*.
- ILO (2020d) *Guide for monitoring employment and conducting employment impact assessments (EmplImpAss) of infrastructure investments*.
- ILO (2020e) *ILO Brief: ILO-Japan Water and Sanitation Project: Water for jobs, peace and schooling (Philippines)*.
- ILO (2020f) *Supervision mission report: HIMO projects in Madagascar and Comoros, 24-29 February 2020 (Madagascar), 01-07 March 2020 (Comoros), March*.
- ILO (2020g) *The ILO's Strategic Plan for 2022–25, GB.340/PFA/1(Rev.1)*. Geneva: ILO.
- ILO (2020h) *Technical assistance to the Strengthening the National Rural Transport Programme*. Geneva: ILO.
- ILO (2020i) *Project Proposal 'Improved Rural Accessibility and jobs: Technical Assistance to the Community-based Rural Roads Maintenance Component under the RISE Programme'*. Geneva: ILO.
- ILO (2021a) *Promoting a model for sustainable livelihoods and social cohesion in the moughataa of Bassikounou through on-site construction training (MRT/19/03/USA): Report covering the period 1 January 2021 to 31 March 2021*.
- ILO (2021b) *PECOBAT- Appui à la dynamisation du développement économique local dans les zones défavorisées (MRT/18/01/FRA) et Amélioration de l'employabilité des jeunes et des capacités des PME par le développement du sous-secteur du BTP (MRT/16/01/EUR ; T05-EUTF-SAH-MR-01-01): Rapport d'avancement: 01/11/2019 au 31/10/2020*.
- ILO (2021c) *ILO Brief: Strengthening the National Rural Transport Program (SNRTP) NEPAL: Decent employment through maintenance first approach for better road connectivity*.
- ILO (2021d) *Employment and decent work in the humanitarian-development-peace nexus*, Geneva: ILO.
- ILO (2022a) *Employment intensive investments (Employment intensive investment)*. [online] [www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/lang-en/index.htm). Available at: <https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/lang-en/index.htm>.
- ILO (2022b) *STREIT PNG Programme Fact Sheet*. Geneva: ILO.
- ILO (n.d.) *The Right to Work Now: Lessons from Kinofelis - The Greek public employment programme*. Geneva: ILO.
- ILO EIIP Lebanon, MoSA, MoL (2020) *Employment intensive projects in Lebanon: Guidelines*. Beirut: ILO EIIP Lebanon.
- Imbert C and Papp J (2015) "Labor Market Effects of Social Programs: Evidence from India's Employment Guarantee." *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 7(2), pp.233–263.

- Jacoby H G and Minten B (2008) *On measuring the benefits of lower transport costs*. Policy Research Working Paper 4484, Development Research Group, Sustainable Rural and Urban Development Team. World Bank, Washington DC: World Bank.
- Jha S K (2021) *Paving the road to financial inclusion for rural workers in Nepal*. ILO. https://www.ilo.org/empent/areas/social-finance/news/WCMS_839334/lang--en/index.htm
- Kassie A (2001) *Evaluation of farm level impact of Barai irrigation system*. Centre for Advanced Study, Phnom Penh for the ILO Labour-based Infrastructure Works Programme “Upstream Project” CMB/97/M02/SID.
- Kaiser N and Barstow C K (2022) “Rural transportation infrastructure in low- and middle-income countries: A review of impacts, implications and interventions.” *Sustainability*, 14: 2149.
- Kaushal S L and Singh B (2016) “A study of Women participation in MGNREGA in Himachal Pradesh.” *Productivity*, 56: 382-391.
- Keddemman W (1998) *Of nets and assets: Effects and impacts of employment-intensive programmes - A review of ILO experience*. Geneva: ILO.
- Khandker S R and Koolwal G B (2011) *Estimating the long-term impacts of rural roads: a dynamic panel approach*. Policy Research Working Paper 5867, World Bank, Washington DC, USA.
- Khera R and Nayak N (2009) *Women workers perceptions of the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act, Economic and Political Weekly*, 44(43), pp. 49–57.
- Knox J, Daccache A and Hess T (2013) *Systematic review: What is the impact of infrastructural investments in roads, electricity and irrigation on agricultural productivity?* Collaboration for Environmental Evidence, Bangor, UK.
- Lakshmanan T R (2011) “The broader economic consequences of transport infrastructure investments”, *Journal of Transport Geography*, 19 (2011) 1–12.
- Lal R, Miller S, Lieu-Kie-Song M and Kostzer D (2010) *Public works and employment programmes: Towards a long-term development approach*. International Policy Centre for Inclusive Growth, Working Paper No 66.
- Lewis W Arthur (1963) “Is economic growth desirable?” in *The Theory of Economic Growth*, London: Allen & Unwin.
- Lieuw-Kie-Song M and Philip K (2010) *Mitigating a Jobs Crisis: Innovations in Public Employment Programmes (IPEP)*. Employment Sector: Employment Report No. 6. Geneva: ILO.
- Limpopo Provincial Government (2020) *Limpopo Province EPWP Phase IV Business Plan, 2019/20 to 2023/24*, Limpopo Department of Public Works.
- Limi A, Lancelot E R, Manelici I and Ogita S (2015). Social and economic impacts of rural road improvements in the state of Tocantins, Brazil, The World Bank.
- Lokshin M and Yemtsov R (2005) “Has rural infrastructure rehabilitation in Georgia helped the poor?” *World Bank Economic Review*, 19(2).
- McCord A and Farrington J (2008) *Digging Holes and Filling Them in Again? How Far do Public Works Enhance Livelihoods?* Natural Resource Perspectives 120. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- McCord, A. and R. Slater (2009) *Overview of Public Works Programmes in Sub-Saharan Africa: Report Prepared for the World Bank*. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- McCord, A. (2012) *The politics of social protection: why are public works programmes so popular with governments and donors?* London: Overseas Development Institute.
- McCord A, Lieu-Kie-Song M, Tsukamoto M, Tessem T and Donnges C (2021) *100 Years of public works in the ILO*. Geneva: ILO. Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/publications/WCMS_823622/lang--en/index.htm
- Ministry of Public Works and ILO (2019) *Contribution of employment intensive investment approaches to the achievement of sustainable development goals in Cameroon: The case of ILO technical assistance to the*

Ministry of Public Works as part of the Kumba-Mamfe road development project. Yaounde: Ministry of Public Works.

Ministry of Roads and Public Works (2006) *Roads 2000: Road maintenance strategy strategic plan, July 2005 to June 2010*. Nairobi: Government of Kenya.

Ministry of Rural Development (2015) *Impact Assessment Study of Improved Rural Road Maintenance System under PMGSY*. New Delhi: Ministry of Rural Development Government of India. Modise T (2021) *Government's EPWPs need a new focus*. (<https://www.southafricanlabourbulletin.org.za/governments-epwps-need-a-new-focus/>).

Morrissey T and Zabala K (2022) *Improvement of water supply equipment management capacity for the establishment of peace in Mindanao: Independent Final Evaluation*. Bangkok: ILO Regional Office.

Mu R and van de Walle D (2011) "Rural roads and local market development in Vietnam." *Journal of Development Studies*, 47(5): 709-734.

Muralidharan K, Niehaus P and Sukhtankar S (2017) *General equilibrium effects of (improving) public employment programs: Experimental evidence from India*. [online] Available at: <https://econweb.ucsd.edu/~pniehaus/papers/SmartcardsGE.pdf>.

Mupaso N, Makombe G, and Mugandani R (2023) "Smallholder irrigation and poverty reduction in developing countries: a review." *Heliyon*, 9(2). doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2023.e13341>.

National Planning Commission (2013) *National Development Plan 2030: Our future, make it work*. Pretoria: Government of South Africa.

Nguyen C V, Phung T D, Ta V K and Tran D T (2017). "The impact of rural roads and irrigation on household welfare: evidence from Vietnam." *International Review of Applied Economics*, 31(6): 734-753.

Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs and UNICEF (2019) *Addendum Number 3 to the Standard Administrative Arrangement Mag-14/0004 for the Education for All Joint Programme in Madagascar, 2015-2019, using Pass Through Fund Management*.

OECD (2005) *The Paris Declaration on aid effectiveness: Five principles for smart aid*. Paris: OECD.

OECD Economic and Development Review Committee (2020) *OECD Economic Surveys Greece* [online] Available at: <https://www.oecd.org/economy/surveys/Greece-2020-OECD-economic-survey-Overview.pdf>.

OXFAM (2019) *The humanitarian-development-peace nexus: What does it mean for multi-mandated organizations?* Oxfam Discussion Paper.

Pawson R, Greenhalgh T, Harvey G and Walshe K (2005) "Realist review – a new method of systematic review designed for complex policy interventions." *Journal of Health Services Research Policy*, 10 (1)

Pfaff A S, Robalino J, Reis E J, Walker R, Perz S, Laurance W, Bohrer C, Aldrich S, Arima E and Caldas M (2018) "Roads & SDGs, tradeoffs and synergies: learning from Brazil's Amazon in distinguishing frontiers." *Economics: The Open-Access, Open-Assessment E-Journal* 12(2018-11): 1-26.

Philip K, Lieuw-Kie-Song M, Tsukamoto M and Overbeck A (2020) *The Value of Work and Its Rules between Innovation and Tradition: 'Labour Is Not a Commodity' Today - Cambridge Scholars Publishing*. [online] www.cambridgescholars.com. Available at: <https://www.cambridgescholars.com/product/978-1-5275-6027-7>

PSNP (2010) *Productive Safety Net Programme: Project Implementation Manual*. Ministry of Agriculture, Addis Ababa: Government of Ethiopia.

Puerto S, Curcio C, Bausch J, Stöterau J and Weber M (2022) *The impact of active labour market programmes on youth*. Geneva: ILO.

Ravi S and Engler M (2015) "Workfare as an effective way to fight poverty: The case of India's MNREGA." *World Development*, 67: 57–71.

- Sakko, C J (1999) *Access, Transport, and Local Economic Development: The socio-economic impact of Labour-based rural infrastructure rehabilitation and maintenance in Siem Reap province (Project UNDP/UNOPS/ILO 'CARERE' CMB/95/011)*. Phnom Penh: ILO.
- SANRAL (South African National Road Agency Ltd) (2004) *Annual Report 2004: Sustainability Report*. Pretoria, South Africa.
- Scognamillo A, Mastrorillo M and Ignaciuk A (2022) *Reducing vulnerability to weather shock through social protection – Evidence from the implementation of Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) in Ethiopia*. FAO Agricultural Development Economics Working Paper 22–02. Rome, FAO. <https://doi.org/10.4060/cc0824en>
- Sen A (1999) *Development as Freedom*, New York: Knopf.
- Shai, L. (2021) *Public Employment Programmes in the Care Economy - The Case of South Africa*. [online] www.ilo.org. Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/publications/working-papers/WCMS_785238/lang-en/index.htm
- Shamdasani Y (2021) Rural Road Infrastructure & agriculture production: Evidence from India. *Journal of Developmental Economics*, 152. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdeveco.2021.102686>.
- Shobha K (2015) “Inclusion of Female Labour Force in MGNREGA: A Micro Level Study”. *Socialomics*, 4: 1-5.
- Shone M (2001) *From destruction to reconstruction: The Cambodian experience (1992/1997) - Using employment-intensive technology*, ILO Recovery and Reconstruction Department, Geneva: ILO.
- Starkey P and Hine J (2014) *Poverty and sustainable transport: How transport affects poor people, with policy implications for poverty reduction: A literature review*. ODI, UNHABITAT, DFID, Partnership on Sustainable Low Carbon Transport (SLoCaT).
- Stave S E, Nashwan A, Al-Khateeb H, Alakhras A (2022) *Conducting workers survey for Phase V of the project: Employment through Labour Intensive Infrastructure (EILP) in Jordan*.
- Stern E, Stame N, Mayne J, Forss K, Davies R and Befani B (2012) *Broadening the range of designs and methods for impact evaluations: Report of a study commissioned by the Department for International Development*, DFID Working Paper 38.
- Stern E (2015) *Impact Evaluation: A guide for commissioners and managers* (For the Big Lottery Fund, Bond, Comic Relief and the Department for International Development).
- Strengthen 2 project team (2021) *Employment Impact Assessment Report 2020 – A First Portfolio Assessment of EU Blending Operations*. Strengthen 2: Employment impact assessment to maximise job creation in Africa, February. (Note: The Strengthen 2 project team is housed within the DEVINVEST branch of the ILO's Employment Policy Department. The project team was led by Ralf Krüger (krueger@ilo.org) and included Xiao Jiang, David Kucera and Maikel Lieuw-Kie-Song)
- Strengthening the National Rural Transport Program (SNRTP) (2021) *NEPAL: Decent employment through maintenance first approach for better road connectivity*. Geneva: ILO.
- Sudarshan R (2014) *Enabling women's work*. ILO Asia Pacific Working Paper Series. Bangkok: ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific.
- Sy M (2019) *Programme HIMO Bâtiments à Madagascar (MAG/15/03/CEF): Rapport d'évaluation finale de projet*.
- TASAF (2017) *Assessment of TASAF PSSN in Tanzania Using the ISPA-PWP Tool*. Dar es Salaam: TASAF.
- Todaro M P and Smith S C (2020) *Economic development*, 13th edition. New York: Pearson.
- UN (2015) Paris Agreement and <https://unfccc.int/process-and-meetings/the-paris-agreement>
- UNDP (2022) *Human Development Report 2021/22, Uncertain times, unsettled lives: shaping our future in a transforming world*. New York: UNDP.
- UNESCO & ILO (2019) *Support to livelihoods through cultural heritage development: Annex I Description of the action*, 4/7/2019.
- Uriyo A (2022) *Report on meta-analysis of results & impact of ERA_AF interventions*. Dili: ERA-AF.

- Vaidya K (2010) *Appropriate wage rate and estimate of labour availability for a public works based safety net in Cambodia*. ILO ASIST-AP.
- Vaidya K (2013) *Towards acceptable wages for Public Employment Programmes: A guide for conducting studies for wage setting and estimating labour supply response*. Employment Working Paper No 150. Employment Sector. Geneva: International Labour Organization.
- Vaidya K (2021) *An appraisal of EIIP's employment creation impacts in 2020 for the Jobs Creation through Public Investment (JCPI) Unit, DEVINVEST, ILO*.
- Vaidya K (supported by A Al-Tamemi and J Aoun) (2022) *Cluster Evaluation of Employment Intensive Infrastructure Programmes (EIIPs) in Jordan and Lebanon*.
- Vaidya K and Dos Santos, N (2021) *Mid-term Evaluation of Project 'Enhancing Rural Access Agro-Forestry - Improving access to agro-forestry areas (ERA-AF)'*.
- Vaidya K and Savio E (2022) *Independent final evaluation of Project 'Enhancing Rural Access Agro-Forestry - Improving access to agro-forestry areas (ERA-AF)'*. Geneva: ILO.
- Vijay Kumar S (2019) *Rural Roads and the SDGs*. TERI Discussion Paper. New Delhi: The Energy and Resources Institute.
- Von Braun J (ed) (1995) *Employment for Poverty Reduction and Food Security*. IFPRI (International Food Policy Research Institute) Occasional Papers, Washington.
- Wagale M, Singh A P and Sarkar A K (2019) *Impact of rural road construction on the local livelihood diversification: evidence from Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojana in Jhunjhunu district, India*. Geo Journal.
- Watanabe T (2020) *Survey results: Labour-based training institutes in Africa, Discussion paper*. Geneva: EIIP ILO.
- White, H and Raitzer D A (2017) *Impact evaluation of development interventions: A practical guide*, Manila: ADB.
- World Bank (2016) *Measuring Rural Access: Using New Technologies*. Washington DC: Transport and ICT Department, World Bank. Washington DC: World Bank.
- World Bank (2018) *The State of Social Safety Nets 2018*. Washington: World Bank.
- World Bank (2020) *The Report on Analysis of cost of SNRTP 2014-2019 ILO*. (Implementation Completion and Results Report on a grant in the amount of SDR46.9 Million (USDUSD72 Million) and credit in the amount of SDR18.3 Million (USDUSD28 Million) to Nepal for a project for Strengthening the National Rural Transport Program (SNRTP), Washington DC: World Bank.
- World Bank / IDA (2021) *Tanzania Roads to Inclusion and Socioeconomic Opportunities (Rise) Project: Project Appraisal Document on a proposed credit in the amount of SDR 208.5 million (USD 300 million equivalent) to the United Republic of Tanzania*. Washington DC: World Bank / IDA.
- World Bank (2022) *Implementation Completion and Results Report (Loan Number 7995-In) for Additional Finance for PMGSY-III*. Washington DC: World Bank.

Web pages accessed and consulted:

- <https://www.eiiplebanon.com/> for EIIP Lebanon's own page with dashboard.
- https://www.ilo.org/beirut/projects/WCMS_751206/lang--en/index.htm for EIIP's EIIP Lebanon project page.
- https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_543588/lang--en/index.htm for EIIP's Lebanon country page.
- https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_326960/lang--en/index.htm for EIIP's Burkina Faso country page.
- www.ilo.org. (2014b) *Congo*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_326963/lang--en/index.htm .

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_329308/lang--en/index.htm). (2014c) *Indonesia*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_329308/lang--en/index.htm.

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327109/lang--en/index.htm). (2014d) *Iraq*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327109/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327087/lang--en/index.htm). (2014e) *Madagascar*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327087/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327095/lang--en/index.htm). (2014f) *Sierra Leone*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327095/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_324792/lang--en/index.htm). (2014g) *the Philippines*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_324792/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327104/lang--en/index.htm). (2014h) *Uganda*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327104/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327079/lang--en/index.htm). (2015a) *Liberia*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327079/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_329083/lang--en/index.htm). (2015b) *Timor-Leste*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_329083/lang--en/index.htm.

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_326962/lang--en/index.htm). (2017a) *Cameroon*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_326962/lang--en/index.htm.

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/asia/WCMS_546855/lang--en/index.htm). (2017b) *EIIP activities in Cambodia*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/asia/WCMS_546855/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327060/lang--en/index.htm). (2017c) *Ethiopia*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327060/lang--en/index.htm.

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_330299/lang--en/index.htm). (2017d) *India*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_330299/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_543582/lang--en/index.htm). (2017e) *Jordan*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_543582/lang--en/index.htm.

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327065/lang--en/index.htm). (2017f) *Kenya*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327065/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_543749/lang--en/index.htm). (2017g) *Mauritania*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_543749/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327091/lang--en/index.htm). (2017h) *Mozambique*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327091/lang--en/index.htm.

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_329081/lang--en/index.htm). (2017i) *Nepal*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_329081/lang--en/index.htm.

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_329073/lang--en/index.htm). (2017j) *Paraguay*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_329073/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327098/lang--en/index.htm). (2017k) *Somalia*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327098/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327100/lang--en/index.htm). (2017l) *South Africa*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327100/lang--en/index.htm.

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_329075/lang--en/index.htm). (2017m) *Sudan*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_329075/lang--en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327101/lang--en/index.htm). (2017n) *Tanzania*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_327101/lang--en/index.htm.

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/WCMS_735832/lang-en/index.htm). (2020a) *The Gambia: ILO's EIIP project participants obtain a contract from the Government*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/WCMS_735832/lang-en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_743475/lang-en/index.htm). (2020b) *Tunisia*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/countries/WCMS_743475/lang-en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/beirut/media-centre/news/WCMS_832593/lang-en/index.htm). (2021) *UN Secretary-General visits ILO employment creation project in northern Lebanon*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/beirut/media-centre/news/WCMS_832593/lang-en/index.htm .

[www.ilo.org](https://remplatestst.ilo.org/beirut/projects/WCMS_848793/lang-en/index.htm). (2022a) *Employment Intensive Investment Program (EIIP) and decent employment for women in Yemen*. [online] Available at: https://remplatestst.ilo.org/beirut/projects/WCMS_848793/lang-en/index.htm

[www.ilo.org](https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/news/WCMS_851941/lang-en/index.htm). (2022b) *Ground-breaking ceremony labour-based road works in PNG*. [online] Available at: https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/news/WCMS_851941/lang-en/index.htm

Appendix I: Terms of reference for the assignment

Terms of Reference

An assessment of the longer-term development impacts of the Employment Intensive Investment Programme

Purpose

The purpose of this assignment is to improve our understanding of how the activities of the Employment Intensive Investment Programme (EIIP) generate a longer-term development impact.

These longer-term development impacts will be assessed for all activities of the EIIP related to project implementation, technical assistance, policy development, knowledge development and dissemination and training and capacity building.

The consultancy will try to assess, validate and describe these longer-term development aspects of EIIP. It will complement an earlier study that estimated and evaluated the immediate employment creation impacts of the Programme.

When identifying the longer-term EIIP development impacts the consultant will link these to international development frameworks and objectives such as the SDGs, Paris Agreement (others?) and various ILO global policies and recommendations (to be identified).

Background

EIIP supports ILO member States in the design, formulation, implementation and evaluation of policies, programmes and projects aiming to address unemployment and underemployment through public investment, typically in infrastructure development. EIIP reinforces and builds institutional and operational capacity to provide productive and decent work that has an economic, environmental and social impact.

EIIP is part of the ILO's Employment Policy Department and has evolved over the past 40 years to a comprehensive and integrated package of interventions which contributes to both the provision of improved infrastructure, and the creation of decent jobs. EIIP seeks to influence public investments to become more employment-oriented through knowledge development, capacity building and technical advisory services at policy, institutional and operational levels.

The Jobs Creation through Public Investment (JCPI) Unit in DEVINVEST in the ILO's Employment Department coordinates the global EIIP activities. EIIP's Global Team consists of international and national experts implementing different global, regional and country activities. They include five people at HQ in Geneva, seven specialists based in the different Regions and over a hundred technical staff working on projects.

The EIIP has worked in more than 60 countries, mostly low- and middle-income countries in Africa, the Arab States, Asia and Latin America. In many of these countries, the programme has remained active over prolonged periods of time, often progressing from emergency response to sustainable development. At the closing of 2020, the programme was "active" in about 35 countries and implementing about USD190 million worth of development cooperation projects, mostly in Africa, Arab States and Asia.

The programme now requires an assessment of its longer-term development impacts. Based on this, the consultant is also asked to draw some general conclusions about its relevance in relation to international development agendas and possibly suggestions for increasing its impact.

Objective and Output

A consultant will prepare and submit a comprehensive final report on the activities below including findings and recommendations.

The consultancy will be carried out through home-based desk work by a specialist familiar with the EIIP programme. The assignment will be coordinated by JCPI (DEVINVEST) in Geneva.

Activities

1. Systematically review the EIIP documents including evaluation reports to gain familiarity with the Programme.
2. Organize a brainstorming session with the EIIP team to initially identify and map the development impact of EIIP work. Agree on the topics to be explored in this consultancy. Agree on relevant development frameworks to be considered. Given the multitude of objectives, impacts and impacts of the EIIP it is necessary to agree and be specific about the objectives and scope of the exercise, types of EIIP interventions and the potential areas of impacts (impacts) before the actual analysis starts.
3. Review relevant global development frameworks including relevant ILO policies and frameworks and determine how EIIP work contributes to these frameworks through its development impacts.
4. Collection of information and data through interviews with the EIIP team at HQ, the EIIP specialists in the regional DWTs and technical cooperation staff (and possibly national partners) working on projects. Review of relevant documents, websites, project reports and evaluations.
5. Draft the report identifying and describing development impacts and contributions to the global development agenda (relevant frameworks). Illustrate as much as possible with ILO EIIP project (evaluation) examples.
6. Present and discuss the draft report with the EIIP team in Geneva.
7. Finalize report based on comments received.
8. Prepare a draft brief brochure (6 or 8 pages with photographs, graphs, text boxes with examples etc)) summarizing the impacts of EIIP work (including the immediate employment impacts as researched last year) that can be used as promotional material.
9. Share the draft brochure with EIIP team.
10. Finalize the brochure based on comments received.

	Activities
1	Systematically review the EIIP documents including evaluation reports to gain familiarity with the Programme.
2	Organize a brainstorming session with the EIIP team to initially identify and map the development impact of EIIP work. Agree on the topics to be explored in this consultancy. Agree on relevant development frameworks to be considered. Given the multitude of objectives and impacts of the EIIP it is necessary to agree and be specific about the objectives and scope of the exercise, types of EIIP interventions and the potential areas of impacts (impacts) before the actual analysis starts.
3	Review relevant global development frameworks including relevant ILO policies and frameworks and determine how EIIP work contributes to these frameworks through its development impacts.
4	Collection of information and data through interviews with the EIIP team at HQ, the EIIP specialists in the regional DWTs and technical cooperation staff (and possibly national partners) working on projects. Review of relevant documents, websites, project reports and evaluations.
5	Draft the report identifying and describing development impacts and contributions to the global development agenda (relevant frameworks). Illustrate as much as possible with ILO EIIP project (evaluation) examples.
6	Present and discuss the draft report with the EIIP team in Geneva.
7	Finalize report based on comments received.

	Activities
8	Prepare a draft brief brochure (6 or 8 pages with photographs, graphs, text boxes with examples etc)) summarizing the impacts of EIIP work (including the immediate employment impacts as researched last year) that can be used as promotional material.
9	Share the draft brochure with EIIP team.
10	Finalize the brochure based on comments received.

Appendix II: List of countries and – EIIP engagement 2012 – 22

Country	IRIS Project No.	Project Code	Title	Year of start
Afghanistan		AFG/21/01/UND	Promoting Employment and Decent Work in Afghanistan through the Humanitarian-Development-Peace nexus -North Livelihoods & Econ Activity (MPTF (Multi-partner Trust Fund) Afghanistan)	2022
Cambodia	108144	KHM/21/02/NZL	COVID-19 socio-economic recovery for returning migrants and host communities in North West Cambodia	2021
Cameroon	101419	CMR/08/01/CMR	Assistance a la mise en oeuvre du programme national de rehabilitation et de construction des routes rurales au Cameroun (PN2R) <i>Assistance (technical) for the implementation of the National Programme for the Rehabilitation and Construction of Rural Roads (PN2R)</i>	2013
Cameroon	103027	CMR/10/02/CMR	Assistance a la mise en oeuvre du programme national de rehabilitation et de construction des routes rurales au Cameroun (PN2R) extension <i>Assistance (technical) for the implementation of the National Programme for the Rehabilitation and Construction of Rural Roads (PN2R) extension</i>	2013
Cameroon	104438	CMR/12/02/BAD	Assistance technique au projet d'aménagement routier Kumba-Mamfe (AfDB) <i>Technical assistance to the Kumba-Mamfe Road development project (AfDB)</i>	2014
Cameroon	105139	CMR/14/01/CMR	Projet d'appui a la vulgarisation des approches et techniques HIMO dans la realisation des infrastructures en milieu urbain au Cameroun <i>Project to support the promotion of HIMO approaches and techniques for infrastructures works in urban areas in Cameroon</i>	2015
Cameroon	105396	CMR/15/02/CMR	Projet d'assistance technique du BIT à la consolidation du Programme national de réhabilitation et de construction des routes rurales – Composante HIMO (PN2R-Complémentaire) clôturé <i>ILO technical assistance project for the consolidation of the National Programme for the Rehabilitation and Construction of Rural Roads – HIMO Component (PN2R-Complementary) closed</i>	2015

Country	IRIS Project No.	Project Code	Title	Year of start
Cameroon	108022	CMR/20/01/CMR	Projet d'aménagement des infrastructures urbaines et de création d'emplois décents pour les jeunes dans les villes de Maroua et de Bamenda <i>Urban infrastructure development and decent jobs creation project for youth in the cities of Maroua and Bamenda</i>	2020
Cameroon	108492	CMR/20/02/BAD	Projet de réalisation des activités d'appui à l'employabilité des jeunes par l'approche HIMO et de création des emplois pour les jeunes dans le cadre du Programme d'Appui au Secteur des Transports <i>Project to support the employability of young people through the HIMO approach and to create jobs for young people within the framework of the Transport Sector Support Programme</i>	2022
Comoros	106393	COM/16/01/RBSA	Strengthening the political and institutional environment for employment creation	2017
Congo (Democratic Republic)	108275	COD/21/01/IDA	Projet de Développement Multisectoriel et de Résilience Urbaine de la Ville de Kinshasa <i>Multisectoral Development and Urban Resilience Project for Kinshasa city</i>	2021
El Salvador	103635	ELS/12/02/UND	Consolidación de la estrategia de atención a la pobreza en El Salvador <i>Consolidation of the strategy for addressing poverty in El Salvador</i>	2012
Ethiopia	107266	ETH/19/50/NLD	EIIP component under PROSPECTS ¹⁷⁴ - Inclusive jobs and education for refugees and host communities in Ethiopia (Dutch funds for Ethiopia)	2019
Ethiopia	108147	ETH/20/04/JPN	Enhancing disaster resilience through employment-intensive water works in Kebribeyah and Jijiga	2021
Gambia	106580	GMB/18/01/JPN	Employment creation for building sustainable peace in The Gambia	2018
Greece	105862	GRC/16/01/EUR	Support to a National Employment Programme in Greece: A New Generation of Public Works Schemes	2016
India	103641	IND/12/01/IBR	Pradhan Mantri Grameen Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) Rural Roads project	2012
India	105982	IND/16/01/IBR	Pradhan Mantri Grameen Sadak Yojana (PMGSY) Rural Roads project	2016
Indonesia	101872	INS/09/02/IDA	Nias Islands Access Capacity Building Project (Nias-RACBP) add contribution and extension (ended in 2012)	2012

¹⁷⁴ PROSPECTS partnerships are initiatives in a number of countries funded by the Government of Netherlands for inclusive jobs and education for forcibly displaced persons and host communities.

Country	IRIS Project No.	Project Code	Title	Year of start
Indonesia	103133	INS/11/50/IDA	RACBP Partner Agency Costs (for the Supervision and Administration of Contribution for INS/09/02/IDA - RACBP)	2012
Indonesia	103583	INS/12/07/UND	Green Livelihood Access for Central Kalimantan's Inclusive Environmental Response to Climate Change (GLACIER)	2012
Iraq	108445	IRQ/21/05/UND	Enhance socio-economic participation of vulnerable population in Iraq through EIIP Approaches	2021
Jordan	105803	JOR/16/01/MUL	Phase I-Employment through Labour Intensive Infrastructure in Jordan (German Min for Econ Coop and Dev)	2016
Jordan	106012	JOR/16/10/NOR	Phase I-Job creation for Syrian refugees and Jordanian host communities through green works in agriculture and forestry	2016
Jordan	105803	JOR/16/01/MUL(DEU)	Phase II - Employment through Labour Intensive Infrastructure in Jordan (German Min for Econ Coop and Dev)	2017
Jordan	106433	JOR/17/09/NOR	Phase II - Job creation for Syrian refugees and Jordanian host communities through green works in agriculture and forestry	2017
Jordan	106577	JOR/17/02/IBR	Employment through labour intensive infrastructure in Jordan	2017
Jordan	106766	JOR/17/08/DEU	Phase III - Employment through Labour Intensive Infrastructure in Jordan	2018
Jordan	106919	JOR/18/05/DEU	Phase IV - Employment through Labour Intensive Infrastructure in Jordan	2018
Jordan	107190	JOR/19/03/DEU	Phase V. Employment through labour intensive infrastructure in Jordan (Donor: Germany/KfW)	2019
Jordan	107796	JOR/19/04/UNE	Decent jobs for cultural heritage	2020
Jordan	107636	JOR/19/09/ITA	EIIP component: Towards a More inclusive Economy Through immediate Job Generation and Enterprise Development for Vulnerable Refugee and Host Communities in Jordan	2020
Jordan		JOR/KFW	ILO Jordan, Employment Intensive Investment Program EIIP Jordan, Phase VI	2022
Jordan	106577	JOR/17/02/IBR	Additional approval for Employment through labour intensive infrastructure in Jordan	2022
Kenya	103287	KEN/12/01/JPN	Youth employment for sustainable development	2012
Kenya	104565	KEN/14/50/JPN	Youth employment for sustainable development	2014
Kenya	107269	KEN/19/51/NLD	EIIP component under PROSPECTS - Inclusive jobs and education for refugees and host communities in Kenya (Dutch funds for Kenya)	2019

Country	IRIS Project No.	Project Code	Title	Year of start
Lebanon	106023	LBN/16/03/DEU	Creating Decent Work Opportunities for Syrian Refugees and Host Communities Through Infrastructure Improvement in Lebanon	2016
Lebanon	106898	LBN/18/01/DEU	Employment Intensive Infrastructure Programme in Lebanon: Phase III	2018
Lebanon	107921	LBN/20/03/DEU	Employment Intensive Infrastructure Programme in Lebanon: Phase IV	2020
Liberia	101759	LIR/09/01/LIR	Labour-based public works	2013
Liberia	105115	LIR/14/01/HSF	Human Security Initiative in the Most Neglected Communities with the Integration of Efforts by the UN Country Team in Liberia.	2015
Madagascar	103165	MAG/12/02/CEF	Construction of Primary Schools in Madagascar using local resource-based approach	2012
Madagascar		MAG/13/02/BAD	Réhabilitation de la piste Tsianisiha à Andoharano (16 km) Construction de quatre salles de classes équipées du CEG Mangily dans la Région du Sud Ouest de Madagascar (AfDB project) <i>Rehabilitation of the Tsianisiha track in Andoharano (16 km) Construction of four classrooms equipped for CEG Mangily in the South West Region of Madagascar (AfDB project)</i>	2013
Madagascar	104573	MAG/14/01/MAG	Construction d'écoles primaires à Madagascar, basée sur l'utilisation de ressources locales <i>Construction of primary schools in Madagascar, based on the use of local resources</i>	2014
Madagascar	107135	MDG/19/04/IFA	Formation en Approche HIMO (haute intensité de main d'oeuvre). Structure des Entreprises et Bureaux d'études et réalisation des chantiers écoles <i>Training in the labour intensive approach. Business structure, training rooms and practical training sites.</i>	2019
Madagascar		MDG/22/02/NOR	Projet de réhabilitation d'écoles primaires dans la réponse aux cyclones à Madagascar <i>Project for the rehabilitation of primary schools in response to cyclones in Madagascar</i>	2022
Mauritania	104991	MAU/13/01/EEC	Chantier école d'entretien routier en Mauritanie <i>Road maintenance school site in Mauritania</i>	2014

Country	IRIS Project No.	Project Code	Title	Year of start
Mauritania	105840	MRT/16/01/EUR	PECOBAT: Amélioration de l'employabilité des jeunes et des capacités des PME par le développement du sous-secteur du BTP <i>Improving the employability of young people and the capacities of SMEs through the development of the construction sub-sector</i>	2016
Mauritania		MRT/18/02/USA	Promoting a model for sustainable livelihoods and social cohesion in Bassikounou Moughata through on-site construction training	2018
Mauritania		MRT/18/05/HCR	Improve youth employability and market opportunities in the construction sector to enhance self-reliance of refugees and host communities	2018
Mauritania	106759	MRT/18/01/FRA	PECOBAT II dans les zones défavorisées (<i>in disadvantaged zones</i>)	2018
Mauritania	107262	MRT/19/03/USA	Promoting a model for sustainable livelihoods and social cohesion in Bassikounou Moughataa through on-site construction training	2019
Mauritania	107263	MRT/19/01/JPN	Promoting youth employment opportunities for refugees and host community with employment-intensive construction works in Mauritania	2019
Mauritania	107480	MRT/20/01/HRC	Phase II projet ILO-UNHCR Bassikounou	2020
Mauritania	108318	MRT/21/01/USA	Promoting economic inclusion and social cohesion through market-based livelihood and employment interventions for refugees and host communities in the Moughataa of Bassikounou	2021
Mauritania	108716	MRT/22/01/USA	Promoting economic inclusion and social cohesion through market-based livelihood and employment interventions for refugees and host communities in the Moughataa of Bassikounou	2022
Mozambique	107497	MOZ/20/01/JPN	Rural Roads Accessibility and jobs Mozambique (RAJ-MOZ). Approved 4/2020	2020
Mozambique		MOZ/SID	EIIP component of "Decent work for sustainable and inclusive economic transformation in Mozambique" (MozTrabalha)	2020
Mozambique		MOZ/21/04/HAB	Value Chain Improvement and Employment Creation Component of the project "Multidimensional resilient recovery of the Ibo and Buzi Districts"	2022
Mozambique		MOZ/21/03/IFA	EIIP COMPONENT: Decent Work for Youth in Mozambique (DW4YM) - Skills Development and Employment Opportunities for Vulnerable Youth in Northern Mozambique	2022

Country	IRIS Project No.	Project Code	Title	Year of start
Myanmar	105117	MMR/14/01/EEC	Shan State: peace, reconciliation and development through community empowerment	2015
Myanmar	107824	MMR/20/02/NZL	Improved ability of remittance-dependent communities in the conflict-affected areas to cope with the impact of COVID-19 on their livelihoods	2020
Nepal	105386	NEP/15/03/IDA	Strengthening the national rural transport program (SNRTP).Nepal	2015
Nepal	107527	NPL/20/51/UND	COVID-Fund: Immediate UN Response for coherent safeguarding the livelihoods of people made most vulnerable by COVID-19 in Nepal	2020
Palestine	108504	PSE/22/01/RBS	EIIP COMPONENT: RBSA allocation approval 2022-23 Occupied Palestinian Territory – PSE126: Enhanced national employment policy in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT)	2022
Papua New Guinea	107327	PNG/19/01/EU	ILO EU Support to Rural Entrepreneurship, Investment and Trade in Papua New Guinea	2019
Paraguay	102106	PAR/10/01/IBR	Proyecto Piloto: Plan de Implementación de Microempresas de Mantenimiento de Caminos	2013
Philippines	103250	PHI/12/01/AUS	Community-based Emergency Employment (Cash-for-Work) and Reconstruction Project	2012
Philippines	103955	PHL/13/50/JPN	Developing a Social Safety Net: Capacity Building for Income Support and Livelihood Recovery for Poor and Vulnerable Families affected by Typhoon Pablo through Labour-based Rural Road Repair and Maintenance	2013
Philippines	103997	PHI/12/08/AUS	Post Typhoon Bopha Job Creation and Livelihood Improvement	2013
Philippines	104001	PHI/13/03/AUS	Typhoon Bopha: Joint Response for Post Calamity Interventions, Local Resource Based Employment Generation and Livelihood Recovery Interventions in Affected Areas	2013
Philippines	104388	PHI/13/05/NOR	Generating Emergency Employment and Recovering Sustainable Livelihoods in the Philippines: Norway's contribution to the livelihoods recovery programme after Typhoon Haiyan	2013
Philippines	104411	PHI/13/06/IME	International Maritime Employers' Council contribution to ILO's Typhoon Haiyan response	2014
Philippines	104532	PHI/14/01M/UKM	Restoring income generation and food self-sufficiency of small-scale coconut farmers severely affected by Typhoon Haiyan - ILO Component	2014
Philippines	104558	PHI/14/02/JPN	Provide employment support to approximately 6,740 poor and vulnerable workers affected by Typhoon Haiyan	2014

Country	IRIS Project No.	Project Code	Title	Year of start
Philippines	105068	PHI/14/05/IMEC	Post-Haiyan ILO livelihoods recovery project	2014
Philippines		PHI/14/07/UND	Joint Programme: Increasing public confidence and participation in support of implementation of the Bangsamoro Peace Agreement (Peacebuilding Fund)	2014
Philippines	107068	PHL/18/04/JPN	Improvement of Water Supply Equipment Management Capacity for the Establishment of Peace in Mindanao (approval minute 4/2019)	2019
Sierra Leone	103305	SIL/12/01/JCA	Capacity Development for Comprehensive District Development	2012
Sierra Leone	102276	SIL/10/01/OUF	Quick Impact Job Creation for Youth through Labour Based Public Works	2012
Sierra Leone	108292	SLE/21/01/EUR	EIIP COMPONENT: Opportunity Salone Programme – Jobs and Growth programme in Sierra Leone	2021
Somalia	102759	SOM/11/03/UND	Joint programme on local governance and service delivery - SIDA contribution 2011-2012 (Note five approvals in 2010: DFID, Sida, DFIDx3)	2012
Somalia	103957	SOM/83/857/A11	Promoting community security through engagement with youth at risk	2013
Somalia	104153	SOM/13/03/UND	Joint Programme on local governance and service Delivery Phase II MPTF Office	2013
Somalia	104559	SOM/14/50/JPN	Durable Solutions for Somali refugee returnees through Repatriation, Assistance and Promoting Sustainable Livelihood	2014
Somalia	104614	SOM/14/01/UND	UN Joint Programme on local governance and decentralized service delivery Phase II - NORWAY. Plus add approval 01/2014	2014
Somalia	104673	SOM/89/926/34	Youth for change initiative, Phase II - support to improvement of security and the reduction of violence	2014
Somalia	104978	SOM/14/02/UND	Somalia Joint Programme on Local governance (MDTF contribution)	2014
Somalia	104978	SOM/14/02/UND	Somalia Joint Programme on Local governance (MDTF contribution)	2015
Somalia	107353	SOM/19/01/DEU	Sustainable return and reintegration through Employment-Intensive Infrastructure works. Approved Jan 2020	2020
South Africa	100079	SAF/04/54/SAF	National public works programme (extension with extra funds in 2008)	2012
South Africa	100010	SAF/04/53/SAF	Implementation of the EPWP in Limpopo Province, South Africa (Project extension 2015-17)	2013
South Africa	100079	SAF/04/54/SAF	National public works programme (Project extension 2015-17)	2014

Country	IRIS Project No.	Project Code	Title	Year of start
South Africa	100010	SAF/04/53/SAF	Implementation of the EPWP in Limpopo Province, South Africa (additional approval 9/12/10)	2014
South Africa		SAF/04/54/SAF	South Africa-EPWP National	2019
South Africa		SAF/04/53/SAF	South Africa-EPWP Limpopo	2019
Sudan		SAHEL/RBSA	EIIP component	2019
Sudan	107265	SDN/19/50/NLD	EIIP COMPONENT UNDER PROSPECTS - Inclusive jobs and education for refugees and host communities in Sudan (Dutch funds for Sudan)	2019
Sudan	108073	SDN/20/03/JPN	Building community resilience with young people in Mayo Suburb of Khartoum through improved access to water	2021
Tanzania	106028	TZA/16/51/IRL	Inclusive Growth, Social Protection and Jobs (Inception phase) (IGSPJ Irish Aid/ILO) -Tanzania Component IGSPJI	2016
Tanzania	106028	TZA/16/51/IRL	Inclusive Growth, Social Protection and Jobs. Additional approval	2020
Timor-Leste	103179	TIM/12/01/AUS	R4D - Roads for Development	2012
Timor-Leste	102919	TIM/11/01/EEC	ERA: Fourth Rural Development (RDP IV). Component II: Rural Roads Rehabilitation and Maintenance (RRRM)	2013
Timor-Leste	106092	TLS/16/03/AUS	Roads for Development (R4D) Phase II	2017
Timor-Leste	106139	TLS/16/04/EUR	Enhancing Rural Access Agro-Forestry (ERA Agro-Forestry): Improving access for agro-forestry areas	2017
Timor-Leste	107673	TLS/20/01/RBSA	More employment generated by rural infrastructure investment programmes	2020
Timor-Leste	108216	TLS/21/01/AUS	Roads for Development Support Programme (R4D-SP) Bridging Phase (Aud7,050,000 Agreement)	2021
Tunisia	103264	TUN/11/02/EEC	Programme d'appui au développement des zones défavorisées - Composante 1: création d'emplois et accompagnement à la réinsertion en complétant les dispositifs de l'Etat <i>Support program for the development of disadvantaged areas - Component 1: job creation and support for reintegration by supplementing State mechanisms</i>	2012
Tunisia	107088	TUN/17/01/MUL	Initiative pilote de développement local intégré <i>Integrated local development pilot initiative</i>	2017
Tunisia		TUN/21/02/CHE-SDC contr	Initiative pilote de développement local intégré (additional funds) <i>Integrated local development pilot initiative (additional funds)</i>	2021

Country	IRIS Project No.	Project Code	Title	Year of start
Tunisia		TUN/21/02/CHE-EU <u>contr</u>	Initiative pilote de développement local intégré (additional funds EU) <i>Integrated local development pilot initiative (additional funds EU)</i>	2021
Uganda	107272	UGA/19/51/NLD	EIIP COMPONENT UNDER PROSPECTS - Inclusive jobs and education for refugees and host communities in Uganda (Dutch funds for Uganda)	2019
Vanuatu	105190	VAN/15/50/JPN	Vanuatu Employment Project – Increasing the quantity and quality of employment in recovery and reconstruction after cyclone PAM.	2015
Yemen	108278	YEM/21/01/RBS	Employment Intensive Investment Programme (EIIP) and Decent Employment for Women in Yemen.	2021

Appendix III: List of persons consulted and providing information and documents

Persons consulted for this assignment

JCPI Team, ILO Headquarters, Geneva

Chris Donnges, Coordinator, JCPI Team

Claude Yao Kouame, Senior Specialist, JCPI Team

Maikel Lieuw-Kie Song, Senior Technical Specialist, EIIP, JCPI

Maria Gutierrez, Technical Specialist, EIIP, JCPI

Tomoki Watanabe, Professional Officer, EIIP, JCPI

ILO DWT Support Team, ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok

Bjorn Johannesen, EIIP Specialist, DWT Support Team

ILO Office for India and South Asia

Tomas Stenstrom, Senior Specialist on Employment Intensive Investments (EIIP) & Former CTA, EIIP Lebanon

Cyrano Lebogso Ombolo, CTA, Urban infrastructure development and decent jobs creation project, Cameroon

Shailendra Kumar Jha, CTA, EIIP in Jordan and former CTA, SNRTP EIIP Component, Nepal and STREIT EIIP Component, PNG

Simon Done, former CTA, EIIP Jordan

Persons who provided relevant information and insights in earlier meetings in connection with the employment impact study

Maha Kattaa, Regional Resilience, Crisis Response & EIIP ILO ROAS

Asfaw Kidanu, Senior Specialist, EIIP, ILO Pretoria Office

James Agingu, EIIP Regional Specialist ILO - PROSPECTS Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia and Sudan

Abdullah Allahham, Technical Officer, ILO Technical Assistance to MSSRP, Jordan (Jordan - World Bank)

Jad Boubaker, CTA, Initiative Pilote pour un Développement Local Intégré (IPDLI) (Tunisia-EU)

Yousra Cherif, M&E Officer, ILO, Mauritania

Henry Danso, Technical Advisor, ILO EIIP PROSPECTS Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia and Sudan

Bashar Elsamarneh, Technical Officer, ILO EIIP, Projects in Iraq

Maha Kattaa, Iraq Country Coordinator- Regional Resilience, Crisis Response & EIIP Specialist, ILO

David Marcos, Technical Officer, ILO EIIP (Mozambique and Mauritania)

Stelio Marerua, Communications and Reporting Specialist, ILO (Mazimbique - Sida and Mozambique - Japan)

Stephen Muthua, CTA, Creating decent work opportunities for Somali IDPs, Returnees and Host Communities through employment-intensive infrastructure improvement (Somalia - KfW)

Dampu Ndenzako, CTA, Inclusive Growth, Social Protection and Jobs Programme (Tanzania - Ireland)

Holiarivony Ramiarintsoa, CTA, Projet HIMO Batiment, Madagascar (Madagascar - Norway)

Sergio Suarez Sanchez, Spécialiste Construction et Emploi PROJET PECOBAT, ILO EIIP (Mauritania - EU & France (PECOBAT)

Gama Sibanda, CTA, Technical Assistance to South Africa EPWP - Phase IV (South Africa - National Government)

Dinga Tsabalala, CTA, Technical Assistance to Limpopo EPWP - Phase IV (South Africa - National Government)

Albert Uriyo, Project Manager, Enhancing Rural Access Agro-Forestry - Improving access to agro-forestry areas (ERA-AF) (Timor-Leste)

Maxime Zabrodin, National Project Officer, ILO (Mozambique - Sida)