Employment, Livelihoods and Social Protection

GUIDE FOR RECOVERY IMPLEMENTATION
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Abbreviations

BBB Build Back Better
CBEE Community-Based Emergency Employment
CBO Community-Based Organizations
CCA Climate Change Adaptation
CfW Cash-for-Work
DRF Disaster Recovery Framework
DRR Disaster Risk Reduction
EBMO Employer and Business Membership Organizations
EES Emergency Employment Service
EIIP Employment Intensive Investment Programme of the International Labour Organization
ELSP Employment, Livelihoods and Social Protection
EU European Union
EWE Extreme Weather Events
EWEAS Early Warning Early Action Systems
FAO Food and Agriculture Organization
FbF Forecast-based Financing
FPRW Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work
GFDRR Global Facility for Disaster Risk Reduction
ILO International Labour Organization
<table>
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>LRB</td>
<td>Local Resource-Based</td>
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<tr>
<td>M&amp;E</td>
<td>Monitoring and Evaluation</td>
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<td>MSME</td>
<td>Micro, Small and Medium Enterprise</td>
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<td>NWoW</td>
<td>New Way of Working</td>
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<td>OSH</td>
<td>Occupational Safety and Health</td>
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<td>PDNA</td>
<td>Post-Disaster Needs Assessment</td>
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<td>SDG</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
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<td>SPF</td>
<td>Social Protection Floor</td>
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<tr>
<td>TVET</td>
<td>Technical, Vocational Education and Training</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNDRR</td>
<td>United Nations Disaster Risk Reduction</td>
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<td>UNEP</td>
<td>United Nations Environment Programme</td>
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1.1 Purpose of the Guide

Storms, droughts, floods, landslides and other extreme weather events (EWE) as well as geological hazards such as volcanic activities, earthquakes and tsunamis adversely impact peoples’ lives and livelihoods, seriously jeopardizing their coping capacities. The detrimental blow of such disasters is especially felt by the poor who rely on a single source of income or social assistance. Consequently, any markets-driven approach to chart out a post-disaster course of action may not benefit them. These catastrophes need a well-synchronized international and local effort volleying around a common government-led post-disaster needs assessment (PDNA) to evaluate damages and losses, and accordingly identify recovery priorities. A necessary framework for such unified action was laid out by the Post-Disaster Needs Assessment (Volume A) Guidelines (PDNA Guidelines)¹ published in 2013 and the Guide to Developing Disaster Recovery Frameworks (DRF Guide) released in 2015.² Since then, both guidelines have been applied to address different types of disasters across countries and sectors. Based on good practices drawn from experiences worldwide, they are designed to avoid duplications, streamline processes and provide an evidence base for resource mobilization. In line with the disaster response mechanisms articulated in the two 2014 framework documents, this Employment, Livelihood and Social Protection (ELSP) Recovery Guide (“ELSP Recovery Guide” or “Guide”) is a more focused and succinct doers’ manual in its domain.

Multi-sector programmes towards economic reactivation and generation of employment for livelihood recovery are the focus for any PDNA and DRF exercise—charting out a disaster recovery roadmap and future disaster risk reduction (DRR). The ELSP Recovery Guide is meant to be used after undertaking a PDNA exercise. It aligns with


the PDNA Guidelines (Volume B)\(^3\) for the estimated effects and impacts of a disaster on the cross-cutting ELSP sector, factoring in the assessed damage and loss to infrastructure, productive and social sectors. This short, action-oriented Guide aims to assist senior advisers and officials from the national, provincial and local governments, intergovernmental organizations and implementing partners in designing and executing effective responsive cross-cutting programmes.

As the go-to document for ELSP recovery, the Guide builds upon the assessment and multi-sector strategies offered by the PDNA Guidelines and DRF Guide for a specific disaster. It encourages a programme-wise approach to defining sector-specific recovery actions based on identified recovery priorities. Most significantly, it helps identify viable and feasible projects and assists grouping the interventions across infrastructure, productive and social sectors by the short-, medium- and long-term employment and livelihood recovery they support and the associated social protection\(^4\) programmes.

### 1.2 Organization of this Guide

The remainder of Section 1 defines livelihood assets, effects and impacts of disaster on ELSP and underscores the centrality of the ELSP sector in the overall recovery process. The following sections are aligned to the four dimensions of analysis adopted in the PDNA methodology for employment and livelihoods recovery guidance. These are—Section 2: Resilient reconstruction of infrastructure and physical assets; Section 3: Restoring the production of and access to goods and services; Section 4: Governance and policy for ELSP recovery; and Section 5: Partnerships and inter-institutional coordination for ELSP recovery. Section 6 focuses on making the ELSP sector-recovery implementation more effective and efficient.

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\(^4\) These protections are defined in the ILO’s Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102). See https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO:12100:P12100_INSTRUMENT_ID:312247:NO
1.3 Livelihood Assets

A Livelihood Framework in Poverty Reduction proposed by Department for International Development (DFID) identifies five different assets or capital endowments necessary to make a living. These are: i) Human capital: skills, knowledge, the ability to work and good health to withstand possible post-disease outbreak; ii) Social capital: social resources—such as relationships with more powerful people (vertical connections), others like themselves (horizontal connections) or membership of groups and organizations—people draw upon to create economic opportunities; iii) Natural capital: natural resource stocks including land, forests, water (inland and

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marine), air, minerals, etc.; iv) Physical capital: (a) transport, communication, shelter, water, sanitation, energy, etc. (basic infrastructure needed by people) and (b) tools, equipment, machinery, livestock, etc. (producer goods used to make a living); and v) Financial capital: income from wage employment, business or pensions, savings (in whichever form), credit and debt (formal and informal), access to financial services, trade and remittances. A household’s vulnerability in the face of a disaster is inversely proportional to its ownership of these five capitals (or assets), that is, more assets—less vulnerable and vice-versa.

However, the ever increasing number of linkages that these assets have with a progressively integrated wider (global) economy influences what people can achieve with the capitals accessible to them. Post disaster, the leverage that these assets will have is a function of reactivation of the local economy, national and global economic growth factors, responses of markets during recovery, etc. Livelihood outcomes from capitals and economic linkages are also influenced by other prevailing factors such as governance (higher level than “capitals”), institutional support (credit, procurement, trade, facilitation, etc.), and accessibility and inclusiveness (women, vulnerable groups, etc.) across stages of recovery.

A disaster also diminishes the capacities of local governments, local offices of central government agencies, chambers of commerce, employers’ and workers’ organizations, civil society organizations, small and medium
enterprises, and other such public and private institutions. Destruction or damage to offices, death or incapacitation of key staff, lack of electricity, lack of connectivity, destruction of equipment, etc., could completely incapacitate institutions—often low on abilities even without a disaster—critical to a recovery roadmap. Alongside identifying livelihood dependencies on capitals, linkages and governance, a capacity assessment to take stock of national capacity deficits is a key priority in the immediate aftermath of a disaster. Appraising government capacity to lead and manage employment and livelihoods recovery efforts and the identification of crucial gaps in capacity (either pre-disaster or disaster–induced) are necessary for a seamless recovery plan.

1.4 Disaster Effects and Impacts on ELSP

Disasters caused by EWE and geological hazards, often triggered or worsened by climate change, are progressively more frequent and intense. They damage and destroy public and private assets; cripple infrastructure and production systems; and disrupt production cycles, market access and trade flows—leading to a major setback to labour force incomes and job losses. In case of death or disability of the income earner, the surviving members of the affected family experience an abrupt, deep and prolonged reversal in their socioeconomic circumstances. This impact on employment and livelihood of the poorest in the least developed as well as developing countries significantly erodes the economic and social gains made by the affected communities in previous years.

Disaster-impacted communities and economies need to cope with three sets of damages:

a. temporary or permanent impact on ELSP from reduction in the capability or size of the labour force due to disability or death;

b. temporary or permanent direct damage (partial or total) to assets such as irrigation and power infrastructure, workshops, factories, market stalls, tools, machinery, livestock and other production assets on which the labour force depends for ELSP; and

c. temporary income-flow reduction due to interruption in economic activity or job loss from demand reduction (although, demand for construction, etc., increases) or disruptions in supply chain and indirect inputs (power supply, etc.), even if assets and lives are not damaged or lost.

Women, children, young persons, persons belonging to minorities, indigenous and tribal peoples, persons with disabilities, migrants, refugees, internally displaced persons and other persons forcibly displaced across borders experience a disproportionately large economic shock from disasters. They often tend to get pushed into a poverty trap. In geographies with

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higher risk of catastrophes, the poor are evidently more vulnerable than the non-poor with higher losses to incomes, assets and lives. Sustained low incomes, lack of savings, weaker social networks, low asset bases and heavy reliance on climate-sensitive livelihoods renders all these groups with limited capacity to cope with natural disasters.

Alongside agriculture and construction, micro, small and medium enterprises (MSMEs) play a significant role in ELSP for the poorest and most vulnerable. However, disaster-risk literature has rarely studied MSMEs for direct or indirect consequences of the disaster or socio-economic recovery. Of the few published, one by UNDP\textsuperscript{11} underscores the lack of access to a broader set of coping strategies for MSMEs compared to bigger firms. Vulnerabilities that expose MSMEs to greater risk of disaster impact are: (a) limited financial and technical wherewithal to reduce risk or cope with it; and (b) negative impact of disasters on communities with whom MSMEs share the context and partner for operations.\textsuperscript{12}


Disaster impact is usually analysed according to short-, medium- and long-term implications. Disasters not only induce unemployment and loss of income for households but also push them towards a series of undesirable actions and impoverishment traps. Household members often seek jobs in trades that require low skills to offset the short-term impact. This, in turn, creates a low-skill labour force glut in the local market, potentially driving remuneration down. These are ideal conditions to compound pre-existing decent-work related issues such as informality, violations of workers’ rights, forced labour and exploitation. Children of affected households, in particular, may get sucked into the low-skills labour market—a breeding ground for child labour and the worst forms of exploitation. While disasters, in the short-term, constrain access to decent work, the medium- and long-term recovery efforts can generate opportunities for decent jobs for the affected households in construction and other such sectors.

In general, the recovery goal of restoring previous levels of production, consumption and welfare drives rehabilitation and reconstruction actions. Employment and livelihood recovery is completely intertwined with the recovery performance of infrastructure (transport, water, energy and telecom), productive sectors (agriculture, forestry) and allied sectors (industry, trade and services, tourism and others) and social sectors (particularly, health and education). All recovery actions across these sectors also need to be environmentally sustainable, gender-balanced and socially inclusive. In a typical PDNA, the formal sector teams collect disaster impact data on infrastructure, productive and social sectors. To this information, the cross-cutting ELSP team adds the changes in flows sustained by the informal sector.

1.5 Importance of the ELSP Sector

The ELSP sector reflects all the sectors from a household perspective, as the means of income and livelihood. It encompasses issues cutting across social, productive and infrastructure sectors in an economy or society. Since disaster impacts on ELSP are interlinked with those on other sectors covered by the PDNA, it is evaluated on the basis of effects on the economic sectors that employ people.

While immediately after a disaster, emergency relief helps households to survive, re-engaging people in decent jobs for gainful employment that may help rebuild livelihoods to promote comprehensive socioeconomic recovery remains the main goal. In addition, the reactivation of disaster-stricken economies (or societies) facilitates the transition from relief to recovery. Restoration of human dignity by fostering just transitions, rights, solidarity and social dialogue allows affected communities to rebuild and reorganize into more peaceful and resilient societies. Disaster-recovery actions, guided by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) framework, can help build resilient infrastructure as well as productive assets, reducing future exposure and vulnerability of the poor to disasters. Specific recovery actions that create an ecosystem for Decent Work and Economic Growth (SDG 8), develop Sustainable Cities and Communities (SDG 11) and plan responsive Climate Action (SDG 13) can help achieve the SDGs while implementing a disaster-recovery plan.

A human-centred approach recommended by ILO provides a normative framework for the labour ecosystem to deal with fragile and crisis-ridden situations arising from conflict and disaster. This

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approach enables recovery and building resilience through job creation and promotion of decent work. The ILO recognizes decent work as the foundation of sustainable poverty reduction that paves the way to achieve equitable, inclusive and sustainable development, particularly in geographies affected by conflict, disaster and other emergencies that call for humanitarian action.

14 Decent work: “Work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.” See https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/decent-work/lang--en/index.htm.

One of the most frequent and visible effects of disasters is the full or partial destruction of transportation and communication links, infrastructure (such as assets for managing water resources), enterprise assets, public buildings, shops and market places usually located in villages and towns. The economic reactivation process could begin by: (a) reconstructing these assets through employment-intensive investment approaches; (b) supporting MSMEs, including cooperative enterprises; and (c) skilling of the affected workforce on- and off-the-job while enabling them to participate in the reconstruction activities. These initial responses, and the reconstruction activities for each of them, are summarized in Table 1 and discussed thereafter.

Table 1: Responses for Reconstruction Activities

<table>
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<th>Responses</th>
<th>Reconstruction Activities</th>
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| Employment-intensive investment approaches | • Assessment of debris quantum, removal, recycling, and reuse, where some initiatives entail changes in policy and/or regulations.  
• Community infrastructure re-construction  
• Restoring access to and reconstruction of production units  
• Re-establishing business sourcing, access to markets, and support services  
• Expanding ‘green work’ opportunities that link climate-change adaptation measures with employment, income security and asset creation for the benefit of local communities |
| Support to MSMEs (including cooperatives) | • Provide capital grants or credit assistance to refurbish/replace machinery of same technology or more advanced technology (for example, environmentally sustainable technology, digitalization) and associated equipment |
| Skill development                   | • Short-term training of workers in the skills demanded by the reconstruction process  
• On- and off-the-job training as part of the reconstruction works  
• Skills certification and further upskilling after the reconstruction works |
| Emergency employment services       | • Career guidance and counselling  
• Job matching                                                                                                                                          |

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2.1 Employment-intensive Investment Approaches

Debris management: This is not only an immediate and critical response to a disaster, but also part of longer-term post-disaster recovery measures. Disaster debris poses significant challenges to relief and recovery operations. It needs to be removed from roads, homes and public facilities before survivors can begin rebuilding normal lives. Debris management is an integral part of an early recovery strategy as it: (a) facilitates the commencement of providing humanitarian assistance; (b) becomes a key intervention for the catalytic revival of local economies (economic revitalization) impacted by the disaster;¹⁷ (c) generates livelihoods during the recovery phase; and (d) helps to initiate the movement of goods and services. Efficient post-disaster debris management is also a crucial first step for the workforce in the affected areas to return to the labour market following search and rescue operations.

The labour-intensive process of debris removal leads to the creation of temporary job opportunities for the low- and semi-skilled workforce, which typically hails from the affected populace. The emergency social

protection schemes can be utilized to fund their wages. The post-disaster working conditions remain dangerous and therefore special attention must be paid to the occupational safety and health of the workers who are likely to start operating in an unorganized and ad hoc manner. An additional concern is poor awareness around issues related to child labour, the incidence of which invariably increases in disaster situations. Besides the risk of going hungry and/or being put to work, children are also at particular risk from different forms of abuse and exploitation in such settings leading to acute psychosocial trauma. Therefore, efforts must be made to (i) to ensure income opportunities or social protection for families so that the children can be removed from labour; and (ii) to resume schooling, getting children back to school as a safe space, at the earliest possible.

Debris management in post-disaster situations needs to ensure link and coherence between short-, medium-, and long-term recovery. The principles of disaster debris management are based on: (a) returning usable resources to productive purposes; and (b) disposing unusable resources in a manner that is environmentally sound. On the one hand, disaster debris can be used in reconstruction and, on the other, if not disposed of properly or effectively recycled, it can cause future hardship for the disaster-affected population.

On livelihood aspects, debris management begins with livelihoods stabilization and then transitions into local economic recovery. During medium- to long-term recovery, debris management focuses on socioeconomic development through recycling and reuse of debris in infrastructure rehabilitation, followed by the development of enterprises across the waste management value chain; formulation of supporting policy on techno-legal aspects of debris disposal; reuse and recycling; and building skills and capacity in the workforce and the institutions involved in regulation and implementation.19

Community infrastructure reconstruction: In the aftermath of disasters, more often than not, damaged community infrastructure (such as clinics, schools, embankments, water-treatment plants, granaries and others) is reconstructed on an individual basis, separate from other recovery efforts that may be going on. The functions of these physical structures typically fall into distinct and separate humanitarian sectors (such as healthcare, education, water and sanitation, agriculture and others) which inhibit taking a common inter-institutional approach to post-disaster planning and reconstruction.20 However, communities do not function according to humanitarian sectors, and there is a need for convergence planning and coordinated cross-sector implementation.

Government-led infrastructure reconstruction works are often structured as work-contract packages and allocated through public competitive bidding. For such reconstruction works to contribute to local economic recovery, local firms should undertake these reconstruction work packages and engage workforce from local communities for execution. However, in

disaster-affected zones, only a few enterprises may be organized enough to compete in these bids. Thus, it might require the adaptation of public bidding rules to enable more local firms to participate, either alone or in partnership with larger firms.\textsuperscript{21}

Civil society, international and/or non-governmental bodies that specialize in post-disaster community infrastructure reconstruction can simultaneously start implementing such programmes in collaboration with local authorities that usually allow for engaging local consultants and contractors along with utilizing local materials and expertise. Keeping in mind the scale and complexity of the disaster, non-governmental bodies and government agencies should adopt an inclusive approach highlighting the commonalities and overlaps between community programmes and public reconstruction works, which will ensure that the quality of community infrastructure reconstruction follows national building codes, in-country regulations and policies.\textsuperscript{21}

**Restoring access, reconstruction in production units:** Many self-employed and wage workers in MSMEs may not be able to return to their jobs unless the enterprises themselves recover from the disaster. Thus, livelihood recovery depends on: (a) the pace of clearing debris and repairing roads to re-establish transport links, thereby enabling workers to reach their production units and undertake repairs and reconstruction within the premises of these units; (b) the provision of electrical power, water and gas supplies, and telecom services (even if they are through temporary networks) to restart the production units; and (c) reconstruction of market vending zones, rehabilitation of storage facilities, and the physical assets of enterprises (such as buildings and sheds) housing equipment, plant and machinery.\textsuperscript{22}

**Re-establishing business sourcing, access to markets and support services:** Rebuilding of transportation links enables restoration of key business partnerships, replenishment of inventories and re-establishment of access to functioning markets. It also helps in re-establishing access to support services (physical and digital) for reactivation of the production units, communicating with suppliers and customers.\textsuperscript{23}

**Green Works:** Such works refer to strategies to create decent employment in infrastructure and related sectors (such as agriculture and environment) to build infrastructure and community assets that have direct environmental benefits or are in response to a specific climate-change hazard.\textsuperscript{23} This approach, which adopts employment-intensive investment techniques, links climate change adaptation measures (for example, to build back better beyond the early stage of recovery, there is a need to access renewable energy such as solar, wind, mini-hydro and bio-energy sources) and link them with the generation of employment, the creation of income security and assets. These measures would benefit local communities that are the most vulnerable in the face of natural hazards and the recipients of most of the damage.


\textsuperscript{22} As MSMEs may have 1–2 key suppliers and not an extended supply chain that is disrupted, the term ‘business sourcing’ has been used.

\textsuperscript{23} For more information on the ILO’s Green Works initiative, see https://www.iilo.org/global/topics/employment-intensive-investment/themes/green-works/lang--en/index.htm.
When Climate Change Adaptation (CCA) is part of disaster relief, in addition to providing immediate income and employment for the affected communities, it also improves their access to future employment opportunities and livelihoods and creates infrastructure solutions and assets that strengthen resilience to future shocks.24 Key areas of CCA through Green Works include:25

- irrigation, and water and land resource management in rural areas to address the variability and intensity of water supply and improve the quality of existing land;
- building flood control, drainage and water conservation structures both in rural and urban areas to deal with the variability and frequency of water availability; and
- rural transport improvement and maintenance to ensure that transport networks can withstand the increased level of rainfall and flooding.

24 UNDRR defines resilience as “the ability of a system, community or society exposed to hazards to resist, absorb, accommodate, adapt to, transform and recover from the effects of a hazard in a timely and efficient manner, including through the preservation and restoration of its essential basic structures and functions through risk management.” See www.undrr.org/terminology/resilience.

2.2 Support to MSMEs

An analysis of planning and relief efforts across developing countries highlights the neglect of MSMEs, most of which do not receive adequate support from the government or other stakeholders and remain vulnerable during and after disasters. A PDNA exercise may not always separately assess the damage and loss to MSME producers, traders and services enterprises (both formal and informal). But providing support to these entities in the recovery phase is extremely important since they constitute the backbone of the economy and provide the majority of jobs in most developing countries. The MSMEs are more dependent on the local economy than large enterprises, having a much smaller resource base, limited access to finance and alternative sources of funds, and a tougher revival challenge if customers stop spending. The longer it takes for MSMEs to resume operations, the greater the losses they incur, often resulting in downsizing or closure.

Thus, it becomes imperative for governments to immediately begin providing small capital grants or opening a window for MSMEs to avail collateral-free credit on easier terms for refurbishment or replacement of machinery, either of the same technology or of more advanced technology (for example, green) and associated equipment. Many countries set up public-funded industrial areas, parks and special economic zones to host and support MSMEs of different types including cooperative enterprises. In such cases, increasing the resilience of industrial estate infrastructure also becomes important to help MSMEs recover faster and strengthen their own resilience.

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2.3 Skills Development and Labour Market Integration

Reconstruction activities may need to be supported by the ramping up the skill-delivery system to train the required workforce. Short-term training courses could address skill needs for immediate recovery, such as reconstruction of dwellings, repairing and paving of roads; civil works associated with repairs of embankment breaches and irrigation systems; and restoration of power distribution and telecom systems. These works can be implemented through local resource-based projects to generate jobs in an employment-intensive way, reconstruct essential infrastructure, and improve environmental assets. On- and off-the-job training as part of these works is both cost-effective and efficient, and can be implemented in partnership with public, private or non-governmental skills development providers. Skills certification and further upskilling in line with local skills demand are measures to increase employability of beneficiaries after the works are completed. Longer term upskilling could address new technologies being adopted in line with DRR and Build Back Better (BBB) reconstruction measures. Training courses for local agencies (both public and private sector) can be organized to mainstream the creation of local resource-based employment-intensive methodologies in DRR and disaster response.

2.4 Emergency Employment Services

Operationalizing emergency employment services (EES), either public or private, is a pivotal element in reactivating post-disaster labour markets. It builds bridges between job seekers and employment opportunities when changes in labour supply and demand occur rapidly and needs are pressing, particularly from the job seekers’ viewpoint. Such employment services can be proactive in providing career guidance and counselling services to affected workers and meeting the needs of special groups of job seekers (such as the displaced, the elderly, people with disabilities, youth and women).

The EES can be a useful mechanism to provide visible and result-oriented job-matching support to the workforce in disaster-affected areas. They can be set up to operate in a flexible manner through partnerships with national authorities, employers’ and workers’ organizations, civil society organizations, private employment service providers and international agencies.

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27 DRR is a systematic approach to identifying, assessing and reducing the risks of disaster.

28 BBB reconstruction measures aim to prevent or reduce future disaster risk, strengthen resilience by integrating DRR measures into the restoration of physical infrastructure, livelihood assets and societal systems, and into the revitalization of livelihoods, economies and the environment. It may be noted that the BBB principle does not imply adopting a reconstruction strategy to fundamentally change the pre-existing economic and social development level of the affected area, nor does it require addressing all development deficits there.

29 The physical assets that support Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and skill development depend on the national and provincial government’s allocation business among its departments and may not always be accounted for in mainstream education. Hence, the reconstruction of these physical assets may be required to be accounted for in ELSP sector recovery planning.

3 Restoring the Production of and Access to Goods and Services

Damage to physical capital and the consequent disruption of supply chains result in the loss of industrial production, destruction of standing crops, loss of inputs, stocks and inventory. Such economic disruptions adversely impact production as well as supply chains of goods and services. Damage to enterprises and infrastructure directly impacts productivity and earnings. However, disruptions for some producers may also be indirectly impacted, due to issues such as reallocation of government resources or transport. The cost of recovery depends upon the extent of damage or loss of production assets as well as livelihood assets. It is a function of the gap between damaged assets and the fully functional level of assets required to sustain previous levels of employment and well-being.

When production of goods and services is resumed, livelihoods are restarted through the reactivation of employment and other income-generation activities. Measures include immediate responses that not only yield quick dividends for affected communities, but also span over the medium to longer term for more sustainable results. A summary of responses and associated actions for restoration of production of goods and services is provided in Table 2. Thereafter, the short- and medium-term responses are discussed in more detail in this section. The discussions on longer term measures have been covered in sections 4, 5 and 6.

Table 2: Responses and Actions for Restoration of Production of Goods and Services\(^{31}\)

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<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Actions for Restoration of Production of Goods and Services</th>
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<td>Short-term Emergency and early recovery</td>
<td>Creating temporary jobs and injecting cash into the affected community</td>
<td>• Emergency employment services</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• Food for work</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• On- and off-the-job and short-cycle skills training</td>
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<td>• Community contracting</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>• Social protection; new or scaled-up cash transfer programmes, including emergency cash linked to existing national social protection systems</td>
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### Timeline Responses Actions for Restoration of Production of Goods and Services

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Medium-term</strong>&lt;br&gt;Resilient reconstruction, resilience in businesses and livelihoods</td>
<td>Building sustainable self-employment and micro- and small-enterprise development</td>
<td>• Access to finance; financial assets preservation&lt;br&gt;• Business development services, reviving MSMEs&lt;br&gt;• Entrepreneurial skills, and cooperative development skills&lt;br&gt;• Women’s entrepreneurship development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Promoting individual and communal economic recovery</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Engaging new investors, multinational enterprises&lt;br&gt;• Emergency employment services&lt;br&gt;• Vocational/skills training&lt;br&gt;• Local economic recovery and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Long-term Policy framework/structural changes, sustain economic recovery</strong></td>
<td>Upstream response for decent work recovery, preparedness and resilience building Continuation of longer-term economic recovery actions initiated in the medium-term</td>
<td>• National and sector-level labour and employment policy and implementation actions for recovery and development&lt;br&gt;• Private sector development policies and their implementation&lt;br&gt;• Continue social dialogue, implementation of labour standards and labour administration&lt;br&gt;• Enhance social protection, insurance coverage&lt;br&gt;• Occupational safety and health measures&lt;br&gt;• Policies, programmes and system strengthening for skills development&lt;br&gt;• Embed decent work measures in the reconstruction strategies&lt;br&gt;• Pre-disaster recovery planning for hot-spots</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1 **Short-term Measures**

Rapid reactivation of production supports enterprises, jobs and incomes, which, in turn, helps to lift people out of dependency as soon as possible, increasing their self-reliance and allowing them to contribute to the reconstruction of their communities. For instance, community-based organizations (CBOs) can take up minor construction works. Community contracting would benefit the affected population by allowing them to participate in reconstruction works best suited their needs, earn wages and assume responsibility for the project.\(^\text{32}\)

Besides this, local enterprises can be assisted by training their management and staff through short skills training courses, enabling them to participate in bidding for public-funded emergency relief and rehabilitation works, which includes employment-intensive works such as removing debris, repairing dwellings and roads, and staffing makeshift kitchens. Immediate job creation then happens through these local enterprises, which recruit participants from among those in the local workforce who are out of work (due to the disaster) but capable of participating in operations. Though many of these jobs are temporary in nature, they can provide much-needed, immediate income-generating opportunities as well as skills to both female and male workers.

\(^{32}\) Ibid. p. 30.
At the early recovery phase, the cost of production of goods and services almost always increases while restarting the affected economy. These costs continue to be high till volumes in production units pick up, agriculture produce and harvests come in, access to markets and inputs improve, and value chains stabilize. In this transition period, most enterprises generate lower revenues, incur higher operational costs, and remain vulnerable to even minor supply-chain shocks. Facilitating subsidized and government-guaranteed credit schemes for this period, especially to the MSMEs, in addition to their pre-existing limits without collateral (as the underlying asset may have been damaged) can provide a much-needed source of cheaper credit to affected, smaller enterprises to meet their working capital needs to source inputs and replenish loss of inventory. Such measures can help these enterprises stabilize operations and remain competitive during the early recovery phase, thereby ensuring continued regeneration of jobs.

The EES, set up during the reconstruction phase, can be continued in the early phase of recovery as well. They can continue to deliver employment services to members of the affected population who are willing and available to work, helping them to integrate swiftly into the labour market, often on a short-term basis, and to reinforce their resilience while contributing to the recovery process.

Within the social sector, the short-term recovery strategy in education typically seeks to prioritize reopening of general education and vocational training...
schools by repairing or demolishing and rebuilding the school structures that have become unsafe as a consequence of the disaster, keeping in mind the concept of safe schools, BBB and DRR norms.

Social protection schemes can also make critical contributions to a broader disaster recovery effort in the short-term. For example, any instant cash transfer (either through top-up to beneficiaries who are pre-enrolled in an existing safety net programme or through a conditional or unconditional cash transfer programme) to the affected population helps households to continue purchasing basic household items essential to resuming economic activities.

3.2 Medium-term Measures

Recovering employment starts with provisioning of short-term employment during the relief phase, and then enhances to facilitate recovery of jobs and markets in the medium- to long-term. Employment-intensive investments can create direct jobs in the short-term while committing to provide long-term support through all stages of the crisis response process, starting during the emergency phase, continuing through the recovery phase and thereafter transforming the support into regular development assistance or national funding.

Income-generation gets an impetus through reconstruction of livelihood assets and rehabilitation of enterprises. Providing access to finance for working capital needs, business development services for reviving MSMEs—including cooperatives, and entrepreneurship development (with special focus on women’s entrepreneurship)—creates the required enabling environment leading to the resumption of production systems (both goods and services) thereby accelerating the economic recovery process.

3.2.1 Increasing Business Resilience of MSMEs

Prompt restoration of production and access to goods and services has the potential to speed up the ELSP recovery process, boosting results in terms of creating jobs and building resilience. If the business resilience of MSMEs were to increase, they could be rapidly reactivated which, in turn, could increase the resilience of their workforce. Thus, this needs to be a priority area, as MSMEs account for the vast majority of businesses in most countries and are responsible for more than two-thirds of employment.

The MSMEs are highly vulnerable to disasters and disaster risk at all scales. A majority, however, are not aware of ways to build long-term resilience and have limited capacity to manage disaster risks: mainly owing to financial, human resource and technical limitations. Some interventions that could be considered to be taken forward for building long-term resilience in MSMEs are:

- Redefining business resilience: Businesses not only need to strengthen their resilience when disasters occur but also measure how their investment decisions are modifying the levels of disaster risk they face, thereby moving the discourse from ‘bounce-back’ to ‘bounce-forward’ and from ‘survive’ to ‘thrive.’

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• **Business continuity management:** The development of contingency plans protects both workers and businesses from the consequences of sudden disasters all along the supply chain.

• **MSME entry points:** MSMEs are not a homogenous group; there cannot be a single entry point for such a diverse group that comprises own-account enterprises, family-owned businesses, partnerships, cooperative enterprises, private limited company, and other legal forms and business registrations that may exist in the country. Sector-specific solutions suited to the local context are needed for each typology and enterprise structure.

• **Financing:** With most instruments aiming to provide access to capital, MSMEs end up with limited options to finance risk. In the aftermath of a disaster, early action and speedy recovery are further impeded by delay in pay-outs, notwithstanding insurance cost that could be quite steep for MSMEs. Expanding small-scale, flexible, risk-financing options is a felt need for these enterprises that could enable speedier recovery from a disaster. Better preparedness and prevention actions that help MSMEs withstand shocks due to disasters,

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and consequently reduce insurance costs, may also be bundled within the risk financing suite.

- **Knowledge and tools**: Easy access to knowledge and tools, as well as benchmarking resilience standards and certification, facilitate planning of incentives such as tax benefits and interest subvention on debt service. Nimble administrative processes ensure that the cost of resilience does not exceed the benefits.

- **Use of digital technology**: Digital technologies are being rapidly adopted in the production processes of goods and services, as well as to access markets and finance. Typically, many MSMEs may have been late adopters of new technologies. However, in today’s world of expanding e-commerce, adopting digital technologies in the early recovery stage can provide MSMEs with rapid access to markets to either procure or sell even if traditional markets take time to re-open. Also, with financial systems in most countries increasingly becoming digital, MSMEs can avail credit by transacting with banks and others on their digital platforms.

- **Insurance**: Providing insurance cover can be a good tool for building resilience and aiding recovery, as it helps in business continuity by providing immediate compensation. ILO’s Social Finance works to help micro and small businesses recover faster through appropriate insurance covers. Agriculture-focused MSMEs can also be provided with micro-insurance, specific information about expected impacts of climate on their agricultural production and knowledge about adaptation options—all of which can help them increase their savings, incomes and become more climate-resilient.38

- **Collaboration**: Disaster resilience has to be built through systemic risk reduction efforts. Therefore, in their disaster response, businesses—especially MSMEs—need to be guided more by cooperative survival and revival than by competition. Improved regulatory framework and operating ecosystem are a must.

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37 For more details, see [www.impactinsurance.org/publications/mp43](http://www.impactinsurance.org/publications/mp43).
for speedier disaster recovery of businesses, for which governments must strive. The business environment needs to foster wider and deeper collaboration between private enterprises and other organizations engaged in extension services such as science and technology research, economic research and media. Employers’ organizations can play a proactive role in building resilience of smaller businesses through policy advocacy (seeking favourable conditions) for MSMEs and their capacity development for business continuity planning.

3.2.2 Adopting the Social Protection Floor Approach

Post-disaster social protection measures may need to be aligned to the Social Protection Floor (SPF) approach which, in its essence, could cover the minimum existing basic needs and provide higher levels of social protection. Adopting the SPF approach would thus fill coverage gaps and overcome current deficiencies in programme design and implementation. Well-designed social protection measures also build resilience in households and societies. An expansion of social protection schemes maybe considered by (a) adding eligible people in highly exposed disaster-prone areas, and (b) expanding definitions of ‘who’ is eligible, based on vulnerabilities such as inclusion of women, minorities, those at risk of child labour, forced labour, trafficking for exploitation, and other vulnerabilities linked to Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (FPRW). An integrated package of support to vulnerable households through safe housing, supplementary income source, and expanded social protection schemes may improve disaster resilience among them.

3.2.3 Expanding Climate Insurance Coverage

Climate Insurance also helps reduce vulnerability and strengthen resilience. Quick insurance pay-outs support post-disaster reconstruction actions. Better insurance ecosystem that covers for climate-linked disasters may help governments protect their national budget. Insurance pay-outs can spur quick recovery, restoring livelihoods for people and helping economies to rebound. Besides policies held by governments (sovereign insurances), individuals also should have the ability to seek cover against climate-linked disasters. The Global Index Insurance Facility of the World Bank Group is one example that offers index-based disaster risk transfer solutions to farmers with smallholdings, micro-entrepreneurs, and microfinance institutions (MFI) in developing countries. The ILO’s Impact Insurance Facility has also similarly worked

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39 The ILO strategy on the extension of social protection is a two-dimensional approach aimed at: (a) the rapid implementation of national social protection floors containing basic social security guarantees that ensure universal access to essential healthcare and income security at least at a nationally defined minimum level (horizontal dimension), in line with the Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202); and (b) the progressive achievement of higher levels of protection (vertical dimension) within comprehensive social security systems, according to the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No. 102). Details available at www.ilo.org/secsoc/areas-of-work/policy-development-and-applied-research/social-protection-floor/lang--en/index.htm.

40 The Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29), the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105), the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87), the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98), the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100), the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111), the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138), and the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182).

41 In September 2017, just two weeks after two major hurricanes swept through the Caribbean, 10 Caribbean countries received over $55 million in insurance pay-outs through the Caribbean Catastrophe Risk Insurance Facility to help with emergency response and begin the recovery process. See www.worldbank.org/en/results/2017/12/01/climate-insurance.
in various geographies to develop, support and provide capacity building. In the Caribbean, ILO as well as the Munich Climate Insurance Initiative offer capacity enhancement for insurers and providers and also support awareness creation among consumers for weather index-based parametric insurance products.42

3.2.4 Re-skilling of Workforce
There is a need to extend and adapt training and retraining programmes to meet the needs of all persons whose employment has been interrupted, with special attention to the training and economic empowerment of affected women and men, including those in the rural areas and the informal economy. Education, vocational training and guidance programmes need to focus on young persons, be inclusive, respond to emerging skills needs for recovery

42 This project was a part of the International Climate Initiative. It developed parametric weather-index based risk insurance products aimed at low-income, vulnerable individuals and lending institutions exposed to extreme weather events in the Caribbean. The ILO’s Impact Insurance Facility and the Munich Climate Insurance Initiative collaborated on the second phase of the Climate Risk Insurance and Adaptation. See www.impactinsurance.org/partner/mci. For further examples from the Caribbean, see CCRIF at www.ccrif.org/ and for examples from Africa, see https://www.africanriskcapacity.org/.
and reconstruction, and promote DRR awareness and management for recovery, reconstruction and resilience. Vocational training could include fully hands-on practical training at sites progressing in tandem with livelihood recovery such as reconstruction works or supporting MSMEs, through apprenticeships and other forms of work-based learning. Post-completion assessment and certification (linked to in-country national qualification systems of the country) at the end of the training has the potential to enhance the individual’s employability in the labour market.

Disasters not only damage infrastructure and physical assets and weaken productive sectors, leading to income and livelihood loss, but also disrupt institutional and social processes, further complicating recovery. Effects on governance and decision-making regarding ELSP are usually quite easily identifiable at the local level. For example, a disaster may hinder the local provision of employment information and placement services (if any existed) or delay payments of pensions and social benefits if public institutions are damaged and their functioning disrupted. Also, disruptions to schooling and health lead to increasing care-giving responsibilities, reducing the ability of certain segments (such as women) to go out for work. In light of these and other potential negative consequences, it is of the utmost importance for governments to prevent, mitigate and prepare for disaster by: (a) identifying risks and evaluating threats and vulnerabilities at all levels; (b) managing risks, including through contingency planning, early warning, risk reduction and emergency response preparedness; and (c) preventing and mitigating adverse effects, including through business continuity management in the public sector. Similarly, there is a need for employers, workers and their representative organizations to be involved in these processes and to manage risks that enterprises and workers are placed under.44

Recovery interventions should be implemented transparently, ensuring consultation and encouraging active participation of employers’ and workers’ organizations in planning, implementing and monitoring.45 Affected communities should be able to receive updates on implementation progress at any point in time from information sources in the public domain that are easy to access and comprehend. Frequent monitoring and third-party audits may be conducted to provide quality assurance to works undertaken by the government and private parties during the recovery process.

4.1 **Governance Facilitators**

The recovery phase also provides an opportunity to improve governance and decision-making processes, especially in the cross-cutting ELSP sector. This could include effecting policy reforms and expediting decision-making to make recovery programmes become more efficient in pooling resources and achieving convergence in delivering intended benefits to target beneficiaries within stipulated timelines. Possible governance facilitators for recovery planning and implementation are provided in Table 3.

**Table 3: Governance Facilitators for Recovery Planning and Implementation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Governance Aspects</th>
<th>Facilitators for Recovery Planning and Implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Legal, policy, and the institutional system**<sup>47</sup> | • Review, establish, re-establish or reinforce labour legislation, if necessary, including provisions on labour protection and occupational safety and health at work, and ensure that it supports the generation of productive, freely chosen employment and decent work opportunities.  
• Establish, re-establish or reinforce, as necessary, the system of labour administration and systems for the collection and analysis of labour market information.  
• Establish or restore and strengthen public employment services, including emergency employment services.  
• Facilitate effective social dialogue involving government and the most representative employers’ and workers’ organizations on the development and implementation of recovery policies.  
• Promote synergies among all labour market actors to enable local populations to obtain the maximum benefit from employment opportunities generated by investments related to the recovery.  
• Create an enabling environment for the establishment, restoration or strengthening of employers’ and workers’ organizations, and encourage, where appropriate, close cooperation with civil society organizations.  
• Ensure consultation and encourage active participation of employers’ and workers’ organizations in recovery planning, implementing and monitoring.  
• Develop climate and risk-informed sector-specific strategies.  
• Prepare and plan for disaster recovery by identifying existing vulnerabilities and capacities, taking preventive, mitigation, adaptation and preparedness actions, formulating the framework for post-disaster planning.  
• Enhance information systems, such as statistical baselines, livelihood profiles, vulnerability and risk analysis and their links to policy-making on livelihood creation/restoration.  
• Improve early warning systems and communication related to natural hazards.  
• Reduce unsustainable or inequitable exploitation of natural resources.  
• Modify tax and credit policies to encourage a more diverse and disaster-resilient system. |

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<tr>
<th>Governance Aspects</th>
<th>Facilitators for Recovery Planning and Implementation</th>
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| Knowledge, skills, resources, accountability and reporting systems⁴⁸ | • Reinforce disaster recovery capacities of actors and strengthen the institutional environment.  
  • Strengthen the capacity of line ministries to deliver national legislation, DRR policies and strategies, and climate change adaptation through technical advice, human resources and expertise, training, practical tools and services.  
  • Strengthen the local government’s capacity to lead and implement inclusive recovery interventions.  
  • Strengthen capacities of social partners to participate in recovery operations.  
  • Establish transparent rules for budget allocation (national and local level) and beneficiary selection, use secure payment systems, and follow clear procurement procedures to ensure that implementation is smooth and that transparency and accountability are met, in support of recovery goals. This includes:  
    * organizing administrative systems before disbursing public funds for purchases, contracts, subsidies, and other purposes;  
    * establishing accountability standards and regular reporting using agreed formats; and  
    * establishing a system to track the distribution of recovery assistance to households.  
  • Establish a system for addressing grievances.  
| Inclusion and participation                       | • Ensure participation of local government, social partners, communities and the most vulnerable groups in recovery policy, strategy, plans and programmes for ownership and sustainability of recovery intervention (reflecting beneficiaries’ priority needs and indigenous knowledge).  
  • Promote social dialogue among tripartite stakeholders, with the inclusion of key worker organizations and business associations.  
  • Respect national laws and policies and use local knowledge, capacity and resources.⁴⁹ |
| Partnerships                                      | • Promote partnerships and synergies with academic institutions, international agencies, civil society and the private sector to improve communication, social cohesion and knowledge sharing.                                                                                                    |
| Coordination                                      | • Reinforce inter-institutional coordination within the sector and across tiers of government: ministries, departments, directorates at national, provincial and local levels.  
  • Strengthen cross-sector coordination amongst government bodies, businesses and employers’ organizations; traders and processors; science and technology; and workers and trade union; at local level, among local authorities, farmers, youth, indigenous people, women’s groups and educational institutions.⁵⁰  
  • Plan for coordination of external actors’ interventions.                                                                                                           |

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<tr>
<th>Governance Aspects</th>
<th>Facilitators for Recovery Planning and Implementation</th>
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</table>
| **Communication and outreach** | • Find appropriate ways and methods of communication to support the recovery process.  
• Implement high quality and effective modes of communication that are inclusive and support sustainable recovery.  
• Ensure clear and timely flow of information to and from affected communities, especially when they involve socially, economically or politically marginalized groups. |
| **Conflict sensitivity (scarcity of resources can lead to conflict over access to assets and natural resources, livelihood opportunities or basic services)** | • Plan initiatives taking into account three elements that may fuel conflict: lack of opportunity, lack of contact and existence of grievances.  
• Address these by providing inclusive employment opportunities, strengthening economic relationships and constructive contact among potentially conflicting groups, and promoting dialogue and rights.  
• Ensure that recovery interventions do not create new tensions or reinforce pre-existing tensions; recovery interventions should strengthen social cohesion through inclusiveness, regular and open communication and information exchange. |

### 4.2 Social Dialogue

Restoring governance and social processes related to ELSP is an important initial step to rapid recovery. Social dialogue, based on respect for freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining, is a key instrument of sound governance of complex situations.\(^{52}\) It promotes democratic participation of the main stakeholders in the world of work, and consensus building on economic and social policies, strategies and interventions. Such participation is all the more important in times of crisis. The quality of policy design and strategies for crisis response and recovery can be enhanced through consultations with the social partners. Social dialogue builds ownership and commitment to these policies, easing the way for their rapid and more effective implementation. It also helps create the trust that is needed to overcome differences and enhance social cohesion and resilience.\(^{53}\) Due to its convening power, social dialogue institutions can not only play a significant role in the recovery phase, but also in disaster-preparedness and relief, providing the government comes forward with strategic advice on policies, laws and actions appropriate to local conditions.

### 4.3 Labour Administration

Labour administration, including labour inspection, is an aspect that risks being overlooked in emergency situations. In some cases, the suspension or the lack of
of enforcement of the labour law may allow those who profit from disaster to act with impunity, especially in such matters as forced labour, child labour, trafficking of children or workers, and exposure to hazardous working conditions. This may have long-term effects on the observation of International Labour Standards in the country.\textsuperscript{54}

In these contexts, one of the necessary actions in the recovery phase is to ensure that labour legislation is reviewed, established, re-established or reinforced, in order to reinforce the right to full and productive employment and decent work and ensure protection for workers and a fair playing field for employers. Moreover, the process of recovery may offer an opportunity to review and update the existing labour law so that it corresponds better to a new and developing situation. For example, measures can be taken to promote institutions that enhance employability, social protection and other aspects of labour administration to support affected communities.

\textsuperscript{54} International labour standards are legal instruments part of public international law. They are drawn up by the ILO's constituents (governments, employers and workers), setting out basic principles and rights at work. They are either Conventions (or Protocols), which are legally binding international treaties that may be ratified by member states, or Recommendations, which serve as non-binding guidelines. See \url{www.ilo.org/global/standards/introduction-to-international-labour-standards/conventions-and-recommendations/lang--en/index.htm}.
in recovering from the disaster and enhancing their resilience to future shocks. Furthermore, an enabling environment should be created for the establishment, restoration or strengthening of employers’ and workers’ organizations, therefore contributing to the observation of International Labour Standards, including FPRW (discussed later in this section).

As mentioned above, in addition to destroying jobs, disasters can seriously affect or impair the institutions of employment services. The capacity of ministries of labour and employment, as well as other government institutions, can be severely weakened to the extent that service provision at the time when it is most needed may be virtually non-existent, with major consequences for workers and groups in situations of vulnerability. The situation can be even worse in cases where the capacities of public employment services were already weak prior to the disaster. However, a society’s resilience to fragile and crisis situations depends upon institutions that can quickly provide livelihood opportunities through the enhancement of individuals’ capacities to earn sustainable incomes, including provision of decent and productive paid and self-employed jobs.

The EES are known to play this vital role, matching jobs and jobseekers and identifying training opportunities to improve jobseekers’ employability. The EES, especially when delivered by public institutions, need to be part of the overall disaster response plan and operate within such framework. Their immediate task is to identify training opportunities as well as canvass for and mobilize job vacancies from employers in the public and private sectors, NGOs and international organizations for matching with jobseekers.

### 4.4 Promoting Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work

The FPRW refer to the four categories that are expressed and developed in eight ‘core’ ILO Conventions: freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; the elimination of forced or compulsory labour; the abolition of child labour; and the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation. As a way to ensure social justice and human rights, it is important that these rights are fully considered in crisis contexts, where workers and affected populations are more vulnerable than usual. Post-disaster situations can witness the worst forms of child labour, gender abuse, forms of modern slavery inclusive of forced and bonded labour and trafficking, discrimination, and exploitation of workers. Though it is the government’s imperative to protect workers (including migrants, refugees and asylum seekers who are permitted to work), persons with disabilities, children and women

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57 When delivered by public institutions, including in collaboration with other providers, EES are the equivalent of Public Employment Services and are referred to as Emergency Public Employment Services (EPES).

from work abuse and discrimination at all times, adherence to FPRW and compliance to labour law are to be especially monitored during the rehabilitation and reconstruction phases.

The realization of FPRW in fragile situations is therefore a necessity and a matter of re-establishing good governance and avoidance of conflict. It is also essential to be aware of underlying issues with regard to application of FPRW, and about labour rights and human rights in general, such as discrimination, and FPRW efforts should not only look to restore the status quo, but also to ‘build back better’ and advance rights where and if possible. Promoting freedom of association, collective bargaining rights and social dialogue will facilitate effective interchange and contribute to participative democratic recovery processes,\(^{59}\) providing opportunities to strengthen protection and remedies for workers or children vulnerable to abuses and violations of their rights.

It is expected that the disaster-affected areas would see a higher level of reconstruction activities in the short- to medium-term. While the infrastructure build-back would be driven mainly through public spending, private expenditure on reconstruction is also expected to go up. Reconstruction activities would require a workforce with multiple skills, and most of such works would be contracted out. Construction enterprises from other regions of the country or even internationally could also seek these contracts and send their workforce for reconstruction projects. As and when construction activity momentum picks up, key issues may be expected to emerge around

occupational safety and health (OSH), working conditions, wages, insurance, equal pay between women and men for work of equal value, as well as issues with migrant workers. The government would need to exercise additional vigil to ensure that employers meet their obligations to provide safe working conditions and institute appropriate OSH measures at the reconstruction sites.

4.5 Social Protection

A well-functioning and scalable social protection system can reduce people’s vulnerability to disaster and enhance their capacities to manage risks. Contingency preparedness of social security systems is a major factor in disaster prevention. In order to prevent the loss of social protection rights in the event of displacement, it is essential to ensure the portability of rights such as unemployment and health insurance, either between different schemes within the same country or between different countries under multilateral or bilateral agreements.

In terms of prevention, it is essential that the laws governing social protection enable, in the event of a disaster, extended coverage either by increasing the duration or size of the benefits provided, or by broadening the conditions of eligibility and including new beneficiaries, taking into account extraordinary circumstances as well as the resilience of such schemes, especially in the case of contributory mechanisms. In terms of preparedness, it is also essential to prepare national social protection systems for the eventuality of disasters and conflicts by integrating social protection policies and actors into disaster preparedness mechanisms. This contingency planning must include the protection of the system itself, the continuity of its operations and its capacity to expand (in particular, by linking it with humanitarian cash-assistance programmes), the sustainability of its financing, and the adequacy of the risks covered in the event of a major crisis. Table 4 presents social protection measures and their functions that can play a key role in supporting recovery from disaster.

Table 4: Social Protection Measures and Their Functions during Recovery

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Protection Measures</th>
<th>Functions that Support Recovery</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prevention</td>
<td>These measures serve the functions that mitigate risk and provide ex-ante security against disasters. They could be implemented through insurances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection</td>
<td>Protection measures are meant to mitigate risk and provide ex-post protection against natural disasters. They could be implemented through cash assistances, grants and top-ups. To the extent possible, cash assistance programmes should be linked to the national social protection system in place and enable its extension and strengthening, in the long run.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion</td>
<td>Functions to reduce risk and support long-term adaptation through promotion of alternate livelihood and income diversification programmes, especially in agriculture, horticulture, livestock, fisheries, forestry and their allied sectors are served through promotion measures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformation</td>
<td>Adaptation and transformation measures address structural causes underlying vulnerability through sector-specific mitigation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Catastrophic events highlight the need for strengthening social protection systems including floors. Affected populations can rely on them when they do not have jobs or livelihoods, and can benefit from cash transfer programmes, facilitated access to healthcare services, school feeding programmes and child grant programmes, which not only help to stabilize livelihoods and income but also combat child labour. Many of these benefits have a long-lasting impact on human capital development and the prevention of poverty and social exclusion.61

Thus, increasing the coverage and quality of social protection in general, and including populations affected by disasters, is essential to ensuring inclusive recovery, strengthening resilience to future shocks, and supporting growth and productivity in normal times. Comprehensive social protection systems, including social protection floors, can be designed as part of national disaster preparedness strategies.62 In some countries, nationally-defined social protection floors can be adapted and used in times of crisis to scale-up access to essential healthcare and basic services.

61 For instance, universal access to health care prevents the spread of epidemics, while basic income security for those who are in need for facilitation to access to nutrition, education and care, and contribute to the development of a future productive workforce.

62 ILO estimates show that a nationally defined social protection floor, consisting of a set of benefits addressing lifecycle risks, is affordable in many middle-income and even in low-income countries, based on domestic resources for the recurrent costs of social transfers and services. The average cost of the full set of benefits for 57 low-income and lower middle-income countries are around 4.2 percent of GDP. Countries should therefore start by building their national social protection floors. Disasters and crises may generate additional needs for social protection (for instance to larger groups of population than in a non-crisis context) requiring additional financing that could be mobilized partially from the international community.
income security across the life cycle (children, people of working age and older persons).

Forecast-based Financing (FbF), is another innovative modality from the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent, based on scientific weather prediction models that can be used to provide humanitarian assistance in advance to the population in a zone that is anticipated to be impacted by an imminent disaster. For example, with increasing accuracy of cyclone-prediction models, specific forecasts can be made on the settlements which are likely to fall in the path of an approaching cyclone. In such a situation, the FbF mechanism could be triggered to release financial resources for the implementation of early actions such as disbursing additional cash or other emergency assistance to the people likely to be affected. The roles and responsibilities of actors to be involved in implementing FbF actions are defined in the Early Action Protocol.\(^\text{63}\)

4.6 Adopting an Overarching DRR Policy

As good governance practices, the DRR and Climate Change Adaptation (CCA) policy frameworks need to be adopted for guiding the recovery strategy.\(^\text{64}\)

The DRR and CCA policy canvasses can then set the context to introduce more effective DRR and CCA systems, wherever possible. The policy implementation targets could include: (a) improving institutional arrangements to lead and manage DRR and CCA in a multi-sectoral, multi-stakeholder context; (b) improving policy and regulatory capacity for prevention, mitigation, adaptation and preparedness approaches; (c) increasing technical capacities of the concerned government institutions and agencies through training, education and brain-gain; (d) developing technical tools for mainstreaming DRR and CCA into development planning; (e) implementing local DRR and CCA programmes to reduce vulnerabilities and increase resilience; and (f) ensuring effective monitoring of risks, DRR and CCA programmes.\(^\text{65}\)

\(^{63}\) For more information, see [www.forecast-based-financing.org/](http://www.forecast-based-financing.org/).

\(^{64}\) This is in line with the “Target E Coherence initiative” (linked to Target E of the Sendai Framework 2015–2030), which aims to strengthen synergies between DRR and CCA to ultimately accelerate climate and disaster risk-informed development to ensure sustainability of development gains.

The active participation of key economic and labour market stakeholders in the recovery-planning process is essential for developing a well-targeted and inclusive ELSP recovery framework. Besides involving national and local government functionaries and public and non-governmental institutions, efforts should be made to facilitate the participation of representatives of the affected population as well as other civil society organizations that may be active at the local level. These stakeholders should be consulted in planning the recovery, identifying and prioritizing interventions, area-specific programme preparation, and thereafter kept in the loop throughout the implementation stages in disaster-affected zones. Adopting such broad-based, consultative approaches enhances information exchange, permits negotiation and advocacy, leading to inclusive decision-making.

Small-scale business owners, vendors and aspiring entrepreneurs learn the basic principles of business development through the Community-Based Enterprise Development after typhoon Haiyan or Yolanda hit Philippines in 2011.
Joint actions taken by employers’ and workers’ organizations often help in mitigating some of the worst consequences of disasters, and also help in speeding up recovery. Moreover, such joint actions by businesses and workers organizations can also be initiated for improving disaster-preparedness. While businesses have an interest in being well prepared to ensure minimal post-disaster disruptions, the workers’ organizations can mobilize their members to act swiftly and effectively when assistance is required and seek regulatory changes in favour of the workforce wherever deemed necessary.

Implementing resilient livelihood recovery interventions requires contextual knowledge, inclusive planning and cross-sector coordination and collaboration. Recovery interventions encompass a wide range of activities under the aegis of multiple government agencies and public institutions. While these agencies and institutions are major actors in the ELSP recovery process, social partners (employers’ and workers’ organizations), the private sector, and civil society also need to be fully involved in decision-making, with clearly defined rules of participation and engagement.

Partnerships and inter-institutional coordination mechanisms need to be set up in ways that allow a continuous exchange of information on ELSP issues. All the relevant actors for employment and livelihood-recovery need to be represented in all the areas of intervention (locality, district or province), for example, through participation in steering or coordination committees and thematic working groups. In this context, multi-stakeholder collaborative frameworks help build consensus to achieve convergence on views and priorities put forward by a large set of participating actors.
Any recovery strategy needs to aim at improving the quality of recovery, emphasizing social inclusion, and promoting resilience across sectors. It ought to be effective, transparent, recognize the differential impact of the disaster on the vulnerable population, and prioritize their needs accordingly. The envisioned strategy should be risk-informed, consultatively developed by pooling resources, using the expertise of the government, civil society, development partners and the private sector, and the envisioned strategy agreed to within the sector team under the leadership of the government. It is expected that the recovery strategy would be in keeping with the government’s own vision for development.66

Effectiveness and efficiency in ELSP recovery can be increased by adopting a multi-pronged approach that integrates interventions for direct job creation through employment-intensive investment; skills development for adapting to changing labour-market needs and enhancing employability; emergency employment services to bridge labour supply and demand; and enterprise and cooperative support to sustain employment generation through private-sector development. As seen above, considering that weak governance, lack of dialogue and rights violations can emerge or be exacerbated in crisis contexts and slow down or even impede the recovery process, this approach needs to be complemented by institution-building, social dialogue and protection and promotion of FPRW.67

Key principles and priorities68 of recovery implementation and monitoring and evaluation (M&E) of recovery programmes are discussed below.

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66 Example: The Indian state of Kerala was devastated by once-in-a-century floods and landslides in 2018. The Government of Kerala stated building “Green Kerala” would be their recovery strategy. The recovery policy framework for building a “Green Kerala” committed to: (i) the Chief Minister’s vision of a Nava Keralam (New Kerala), and (ii) the concept of ‘build back better and faster’. The employment and livelihoods recovery strategy envisioned BBB rooted in environmental sustainability, cost-effective technologies, green job creation, skill development, climate-resilient livelihoods via decentralized planning, and social-cum-gender inclusion.


6.1 Principles

The adoption and application of the following core principles ensures that recovery interventions are efficient and effective:

- **Mainstream DRR** to prevent new risks, reduce existing disaster risk and manage residual risk. Simultaneously, **mainstream CCA** to adjust, moderate and avoid harm from climate effects. Seize any beneficial opportunities. Mainstreaming DRR and CCA contributes to protecting development gains and strengthening resilience.

- **Adopt a resilience perspective** built on decent work to reduce the cost of response and recovery from recurring disasters. This lays a solid foundation for sustainable development.

- **Adopt BBB practices**, wherever feasible. BBB reconstruction measures aim to prevent or reduce future disaster risk and strengthen resilience to the extent possible, by improving upon the pre-disaster situation. Such measures include integrating DRR measures into the restoration of physical infrastructure, livelihood assets and societal systems, and into the revitalization of livelihoods, economies and the environment. Though BBB reconstruction measures seek to address some of the most evident pre-disaster shortcomings by proposing improvements that are compatible with (and sustainable) under the existing level of development, in a broader sense they also include interventions aimed at improving specific ELSP areas. The key areas where adopting BBB principles can make a
difference include promoting social dialogues, strengthening the labour law, reinforcing employment services, ensuring the respect of FPRW, and expanding social protection coverage, which contributes to improving governance and increasing the resilience of the sector.

- **Promote the creation of jobs, including environmentally sustainable jobs:** Usually the post-disaster recovery phase witnesses a temporary boost in construction activities. One of the aims of post-disaster reconstruction adopting BBB principles could be to generate more decent jobs, and in particular, green jobs to the extent feasible.69 In disaster-prone areas, steps may be taken to be better prepared next time, such as building shelters; improving early warning systems; instituting emergency social assistance measures; enterprise preparedness to participate in public reconstruction works; and enhancing rehabilitation workers’ skills. All jobs in these reconstruction activities could be ‘greened’ in line with BBB principles.

- **Recognize recovery to be a continuum:** The humanitarian cluster approach lays the foundation for recovery institutions to continue the work to rebuild affected communities. Humanitarian response and early recovery activities are the first two phases of the recovery continuum. Transcending the humanitarian-development divide, the New Way of Working (NWoW) places the notion of ‘collective outcomes’ at the centre of the Commitment to Action.70 The NWoW frames development work and humanitarian actors, along with national and local counterparts, in support of collective outcomes that reduce risk and vulnerability and serve as instalments towards the achievement of the SDGs. This approach is highly context-specific and offers a concrete, doable and measurable path forward.

- **Support a culture of prevention** by promoting disaster-risk education and reduction, awareness and management for recovery, reconstruction and resilience; enhancing preparedness and mitigating potential impacts; and structuring these initiatives around employment creation, income-generation, protection of vulnerable livelihoods, and promotion of sustainable local development.

- **Ensure interventions are integrated and inter-disciplinary:** In most cases, multiple cross-sector livelihood-recovery strategies need to be implemented for rehabilitation of disaster-affected populations. Prioritization will depend on a number of factors including seasonality, livelihood portfolios and hazard types. It is therefore essential to understand these strategies and programmes to maximize recovery potential by combining technologies and practices (such as in natural resource

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69 ILO defines ‘green jobs’ as those jobs which “help reduce negative environmental impact ultimately leading to environmentally, economically and socially sustainable enterprises and economies. More precisely, green jobs are decent jobs that 1) reduce consumption of energy and raw materials – limit greenhouse gas emissions; 2) minimize waste and pollution; and 3) protect and restore ecosystems.” See [www.ilo.org/beijing/what-we-do/projects/WCMS_182418/lang--en/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/beijing/what-we-do/projects/WCMS_182418/lang--en/index.htm).

70 It was signed by the Secretary-General and 8 UN Principals at the World Humanitarian Summit (2016), and endorsed by the World Bank and IOM.
management) to adopt a coherent approach to building resilience across the livelihoods of small-holder farmers and informal enterprises.

- **Take an ecosystem perspective to recovery planning** by integrating management of land, water and other key resources to promote their conservation and sustainable use in an equitable way, which strengthens environmental resilience and reduces disaster risks.

- **Develop conflict-sensitive initiatives** that address three elements which may negatively impact social cohesion and recovery: lack of opportunity, lack of contact and existence of grievances. Providing equitable access to employment and decent work opportunities; strengthening economic relationships and constructive contact among potentially conflicting groups; and promoting dialogue and rights are central to ensuring that recovery interventions strengthen social cohesion and peaceful coexistence rather than reinforcing pre-existing tensions or creating new ones.

- **Adopt an inclusive approach**, do no harm, leave no-one behind, and acknowledge accountability to the affected population. Pay special attention to population groups that have been made particularly

The emergency employment programme enabled Raquel De Leon, 38, a single mother from Coron, Palawan to provide for her three children after super typhoon Haiyan or Yolanda hit Philippines in 2013.
vulnerable by the disaster and are at the risk of being left behind. Identify and reach them and ensure their inclusion into the recovery process. These may include, but not be limited to, children, young persons, persons belonging to minorities, indigenous and tribal peoples, persons with disabilities, internally displaced persons, migrants, refugees and other persons forcibly displaced across borders. MSMEs, especially informal ones, are particularly vulnerable during crises and hence need to be included.

• **Promote gender-equality in restoration works:** The livelihood recovery interventions in all sectors, from agriculture to industry, commerce and tourism, and the informal sector, should be based on the principle of gender equality with a specific orientation towards investing in women’s capacities to contribute to the recovery process. This could include their skills upgrade, promoting access of women to jobs in non-traditional sectors (for example, construction), enabling access to finance as well as participation in decision-making processes that leads to recovery.

• **Respect, promote and realize the fundamental principles and rights at work:** Post-disaster recovery is not only a matter of re-establishing good governance, but also ensuring respect for all human rights and the rule of law, including respect for FPRW and international labour standards. Awareness of context-sensitive underlying issues while applying FPRW during the recovery process should look to ‘building back better’ and advance the fundamentals wherever possible.

• **Listen to business and workers’ interests:** Employers’ and workers’ organizations give voice to their constituencies. Their joint action can help to mitigate some of the worst consequences of natural and human-made disasters, speeding up recovery and strengthening resilience to cope with future crises. Businesses have a vested interest in being well prepared for crisis situations, while unions have a huge mobilization potential through their members, either to lobby for legislative and constitutional changes in favour of the workforce or to act swiftly and effectively when assistance is required.

• **Promote measures to strengthen livelihood resilience** and cope with environmental changes by diversifying household incomes in natural-hazard prone areas by building multiple skills and providing occupational diversification. This would be a major DRR instrument.

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71 The ILO’s experiences of Employment Intensive Infrastructure Programmes (EIIP) provide important lessons in terms of women’s involvement. Stereotypes and assumptions that infrastructure work is inappropriate for women, can and have been successfully overcome, as demonstrated by examples in Peru and Jordan. In the case of Peru, women’s participation in infrastructure works increased from a marginal 3.5 percent in 2001 to almost 30 percent in 2018. Even in cultural contexts where women’s employment options outside of the domestic sphere are very limited and where road works have been an exclusively male domain, change is possible. In the case of Jordan, women’s participation rates have reached 16 percent. When women do participate in infrastructure construction works (traditionally, it has been very limited), it not only provides them with access to employment and social protection, but also inculcates a sense of empowerment in them, often for the first time. See www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/documents/publication/wcms_675166.pdf.
6.2 Priorities

Although governments, social partners, and the local community are likely to recognize that in the aftermath of a disaster, livelihoods need to be restored as soon as possible, there is still a need to advocate the strong role that employment, livelihoods and social protection play in the overall post-disaster recovery and reconstruction process. In this context, the following measures need to be prioritized.72

- **Putting livelihoods at the centre**, which entails prioritizing programming, fund-raising and policy development for enabling recovery, boosting reconstruction and building resilience through employment and decent work.

- **Stabilizing livelihoods and income through immediate social protection and employment measures**, such as according the highest priority to emergency cash and food transfers in the aftermath of a crisis. Social protection measures, including social assistance and social insurance, speed-up recovery, increase resilience and act as a buffer against shocks. For example, FbF, as an early action, can be considered for some types of predictable disasters.

- **Promoting local economic recovery** for employment and decent work opportunities, a just transition towards an environmentally sustainable economy, and the achievement of sustainable development. ‘Green works’ could be one of the ways to create jobs locally while contributing to environmentally sensitive recovery.

- **Developing holistic response packages that include employment-generation programmes** which (a) address stabilization needs, socio-economic reintegration, and the demand and supply side issues of job creation; and (b) promote the creation of an enabling environment for sustainable enterprises (in particular, small and medium-sized enterprises), transition from the informal to the formal economy, and equitable access to public services.

- **Ensuring job quality**: Addressing quality of jobs being created (and not merely the number of

Making ELSP Recovery Implementation More Effective and Efficient

jobs or workdays) through adherence to FPRW, maintaining working conditions and standards in compliance with FPRW and OSH normative instruments, and including social protection and promotion of social dialogue, in line with the BBB principle.

- **Developing or strengthening institutional capacities** for increased national awareness and enhanced decision-making, policy formulation and governance of recovery through decent work in the ELSP sector.

- **Utilizing ILO’s tripartite constituency and the mechanism of social dialogue** to ensure involvement, consultation and active participation of government, social partners, relevant institutions and civil society organizations in employment, social protection and livelihood recovery programming. Social dialogue contributes to informed decision-making, locally appropriate solutions and increased local ownership and transparency.

### 6.3 The Digital Divide

The implementation of ELSP recovery measures can be made more effective and efficient by leveraging digital technologies wherever possible. While digital technologies are critical tools, and are increasingly expected to play important roles in enterprises, public-service delivery, and the world of work in general, it is not accessible to everyone in the same way. Apart from the lack of access to the internet, poor households may also not be able to afford the internet packs provided by telecom operators. In most developing or less developed countries, internet packs that allow access to digital services are priced higher than the United Nations target of affordable internet, viz. 2 percent of monthly income for one gigabyte of data, the amount which is deemed to allow basic internet access to the user.

Besides affordability, many who are not connected to the internet also lack the ability to use digital devices, communication applications and networks to access and manage information. ‘Not knowing how’ to use the internet continues to be a significant barrier to digital inclusion. Approximately 23 percent of adults internationally are not digitally literate (with women four times more likely than men to be digitally illiterate), which means that even if internet is affordable, many won’t be able to benefit from it. Moreover, there remains a significant digital gender divide. Across 10 countries in Africa, Asia and South America, women were found 30 percent–50 percent less likely than men to use the internet to participate in public life. Globally, women are 23 percent less likely than men to use mobile internet.\(^{73}\)

Thus, at the minimum, to make post-disaster ELSP recovery more efficient and effective by leveraging digital technologies, large-scale digital literacy programmes should be undertaken for the vulnerable population groups, and thereafter it should be ensured that critical public services that would be needed by the beneficiaries in the early recovery stages are being accessed by them through affordable digital channels in normal times as a preparedness measure.

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6.4 Monitoring and Evaluation

The key question—does our intervention make a difference and why—needs to be introspectively asked by planners to keep their focus on: (a) if, how and why the recovery interventions can sustainably improve livelihood resilience for the targeted beneficiaries, thereby leading to (b) preparation of result-oriented recovery intervention programmes, and (c) embedding an M&E framework into the overall recovery programme.

The M&E framework should identify a few critical indicators at outcome and impact levels that emphasize the effectiveness of interventions towards their stated objectives. Streamlining these indicators into the data-collection strategies allows for more efficient and collaborative measuring and monitoring of results pertaining to the sector. The M&E plan should establish the timing and frequency of M&E activities to ensure that data arrives at critical moments for decision-makers to make informed decisions about implementation. Results-oriented approaches to M&E should consider both the quality of the intervention (answering the questions, ‘Are we on track to achieve stated objectives? Are “do no harm” principles applied?’) as well as the operational effectiveness and efficiency (answering the question, ‘Will we achieve the stated objectives within the timeframe and resources allocated?’).
Post disaster, it is imperative to quickly identify financing sources—across range of domestic and international sources—and their mechanisms which can be mobilized to support the recovery process. Key aspects of each such mechanism would need to be explored while searching for financial assistance:

(a) In what form will assistance be delivered?

(b) Are there any conditions attached to the assistance? If yes, how can compliance with these conditions be assured?

(c) How will physical and financial progress be recorded, reported and audited?

Examples of potential sources are provided in Table 5 and financing of actual recovery programmes have been discussed in country examples (Section 8).

**Table 5: Examples of Potential Sources of Recovery Funding**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domestic Sources</th>
<th>International Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public Funding</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Government operational and capital budgets</td>
<td>• International agencies supporting recovery are European Union, World Bank, multilateral development banks and UN agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Disaster-risk financing insurance (in collaboration with the private sector)</td>
<td>• International financial institution loans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Levying tax or surcharge for recovery(^74)</td>
<td>• Bilateral donor assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Government disaster-contingency funds</td>
<td>• Multi-donor trust funds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Contingency financing arrangements</td>
<td>• Regional funding sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Sovereign reconstruction or development bonds</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

\(^74\) For example, the Indian state of Kerala levied a flood-cess to raise funds for reconstruction of the state in the aftermath of the devastating floods of August 2018. The cess was made effective from 01 August 2019 for a period of two years @1 percent on the value of intra-state supply of goods or services or both.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domestic Sources</th>
<th>International Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Introducing financial incentives through policy for the private sector, such as subsidies and grants</td>
<td>• International private cash and in-kind contributions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Private company cash and in-kind contributions</td>
<td>• International NGO funding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• National NGO funding</td>
<td>• Disaster-risk financing insurance (in collaboration with the government)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Insurance proceeds (private assets)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Household savings and borrowing</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Remittances and gifts</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Large private sector entities may provide human, logistical, managerial and financial resources to specific activities in various ways, e.g. know-how, expert services, in-kind donations or funds. Partnership with a range of civil society actors, from large international and national NGOs to grassroots organizations, can leverage a wide variety of contacts and resources, human and financial, which may be quite effective.

The wider business community has an inherent interest in stability—as articulated by Employer and Business Membership Organizations (EBMOs). Stability is required to conduct business and maintain income flows. In a post-disaster context, EBMOs have a critical opportunity to exercise their representative strength and apply collective pressure on governments to adopt constructive policies that support businesses so they can continue operations, provide jobs, and contribute to local economic development. Though EBMOs are uniquely positioned to positively contribute, their positions are often under-utilized.\(^75\)

The EMBOs can support MSMEs to (a) maintain post-disaster commercial operations by facilitating public-private partnerships and agreements between key service providers to enable a ‘ready-to-go’ response; (b) arrange lending of working capital to affected MSMEs in the supply chains of larger enterprises to enable them to secure and maintain employment and keep paying staff in the immediate post-disaster period; and (c) advocate for clean loans with low interest rates, deferred loan repayment schemes and tax exemption and reduction measures, which can help them get back on their feet soon.

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Selected examples of recovery interventions based on actual programmes in the Philippines, Fiji Haiti, and Sudan have been discussed below. These examples highlight some of the aspects covered in this guide, including lessons learnt from past interventions.

Case Study 1: The Philippines

The Philippines was hit by three major typhoons through 2011–2013 that cumulatively impacted 14.2 million citizens, of which, 5.9 million (2.6 million vulnerable even before the disaster) lost their primary source of income.\(^\text{76}\) In 2011, the strong winds and heavy rains over a three-day period (16–18 December) brought in by the tropical storm Washi (Sendong, for Filipinos) caused massive flash floods and landslides across the Mindanao region. A year later, Bopha,\(^\text{77}\) a Category 5 super typhoon, lashed Baganga and Mindanao after ravaging Davao Oriental and Compostela Valley provinces. The 2012 storm uprooted power lines and triggered landslides as it swept the southern and central regions of Mindanao. Then the 2013 typhoon Haiyan (Yolanda)\(^\text{78}\) made landfall in Guiuan—Eastern Samar of the Philippines, affecting 13 million people. As one of the most powerful tropical cyclones ever, it turned out to be the deadliest on record to hit the East Asian islands, killing over 6,300 people in the Philippines alone.

Restoring livelihoods and helping people to start rebuilding their lives after the disaster was the most challenging work in many parts of the Philippines. Effective crisis response was dependent on a number of resource- and capacity-related issues—essentially related to the ability of local communities to deal with the detrimental effects resulting from a crisis situation and recover lost livelihoods. The UN humanitarian agencies and their


partners in the Philippines prioritized projects on shelter and livelihoods, while supporting the most vulnerable people with assistance and protection services.

With the total agricultural loss estimated at US$724 million, agriculture and fisheries sectors suffered the maximum damage due to the storms. The Philippines Department of Agriculture reported a loss of 1.1 million tonnes of crops and damage to 600,000 hectares of farmland. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) provided rice production packages to 44,000 affected families (75 percent of the government-requested seed support) to ensure that the affected farmers could plant rice in time for the December 2013–January 2014 season. The initiative resulted in a March–April 2014 harvest that was sufficient to feed more than 800,000 people for over a year. With approximately $5 million put into FAO’s emergency response, the expected rice yield worth around $84 million, promised to provide donors real value for their money.79

With the support of the ILO’s Employment Intensive Investment Programme (EIIP), which works with governments, employers’ and workers’ organizations, non-government actors and the private sector in gearing infrastructure investments toward the direct creation of decent jobs involving locally available skills, knowledge, resources, and technology, the country developed a response programme and carried out a series of projects funded by different donors to rebuild the devastated areas.80 The EIIP programme supported such a transition in post-disaster work in 2012–2014 by implementing employment creation

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80 EIIP Projects in the Philippines:
- (Since 2013; Donor: Norway) Generating emergency employment and recovering sustainable livelihoods in the Philippines (Total budget: $3,200,000)
- (Since 2014; Donor: United Kingdom) Restoring income-generation and food self-sufficiency of small-scale coconut farmers severely affected by typhoon Haiyan (Total budget: $1,652,219)
- (Since 2014; Donor: Japan) Integrated livelihood recovery for typhoon Haiyan (Total budget: $3,000,000)
- (Since 2013; Donor: IMEC) Immediate income-generation through emergency employment (Total budget: $150,000)
- (Since 2013, Donor: Japan) Support to the ILO response framework: Philippines super typhoon Haiyan: Rebuilding sustainable livelihoods (Total budget: $100,000)
Examples of ELSP Recovery Implementation

Projects and building capacity for local resource-based (LRB) works in crisis-affected areas. Tools and guidelines were developed for infrastructure works that were proven to be highly relevant to crisis response works in the Philippines. The EIIP also contributed to a regional initiative to develop a training course for local agencies (both public and private sector) to mainstream employment creation in DRR and disaster response. A first edition of this course was run in disaster-affected areas in Mindanao in late 2013.

81 Local resource-based (LRB): A tested and viable way to implement post-calamity response is through the application of the EIIP LRB approach. In essence, this approach prioritizes the use of locally available resources, as opposed to importing from outside the affected areas. It applies a cost-effective utilization of local skills, labour, materials, knowledge and technologies in various projects, such as emergency employment through infrastructure repair and rehabilitation, disaster preparedness, livelihood recovery and environmental protection. The LRB aims to maximize the social and economic impact of investments by ensuring that more jobs are created and resources are being directed to stimulate the local economy. This has been demonstrated in several calamity-stricken areas of the country where the approach helped post-disaster recovery in the area. This approach can be utilized by local government units, government agencies, non-government organizations, socio-civic and community groups, and other development actors. The LRB approach is used when the key objectives are generating immediate and longer-term incomes and in spurring local development. In post-calamity response efforts, the LRB approach is used when there is a need for emergency employment, infrastructure repair and rehabilitation, or the creation and development of alternative and sustainable livelihoods. It can also be used in other development initiatives, such as disaster-preparedness and risk reduction through environmental protection, including erosion control, reforestation, irrigation and drainage system improvement.


As a part of the LRB programme, the labour-based technologies, cash-for-work\textsuperscript{84} (CfW) and community-based works\textsuperscript{85} approaches were key to providing employment and restoring livelihoods in the short- as well as in the long-run. ILO’s application of the CfW approach went well beyond the mere exchange of labour for income. It promoted awareness about minimum wage and created demand for social protection, health and accident insurance, among community members. It also promoted the use of personal protective equipment (PPE) and the adoption of basic OSH principles, which were often lacking in other programmes. The intervention also ensured that only one identified individual over the legal minimum age for work would be engaged in the job instead of alternative family members being sent in, a common practice that often leads to child labour under such schemes.\textsuperscript{86} This particular approach also helped the government improve their programme implementation and way of working.

The CfW emergency employment activities generated 39,950 workdays for internally displaced persons and provided immediate income for 2,006 affected households. The total amount injected into the local economy reached $332,903 in this phase of the project. In another phase of the project which targeted fisherfolk, the livelihood recovery phase generated 30,388 workdays for 1,080 workers and injected about $359,865 to the local economy.\textsuperscript{87}

In the Philippines, the DOLE (Department of Labor and Employment) Integrated Livelihood and Emergency Employment Programs (DILEEP)\textsuperscript{88}—originally conceived of in the wake of the 2008 financial crisis—was implemented with ILO’s support when typhoon Haiyan struck the archipelago in 2013. These programmes offered decent work opportunities to the informal sector (especially rural) workers combining immediate cash assistance with longer-term protections for participants. The DILEEP ensured decent public works, while simultaneously providing 30 days’ salary equivalent to affected persons. As a precondition to programme participation, it also enrolled beneficiaries to insurance schemes covering health and employment injury. Under the DILEEP

\textsuperscript{84} Cash-for-work (Labour-based technology): Emergency employment or cash-for-work (CfW) as applied in post-calamity situations is a labour-intensive venture that provides immediate income over a short period, does not require special skills, needs only the use of small hand tools, promotes gender equality and social protection, and can be a platform towards other development options without exposing the workers to additional risks and threats. CfW projects in emergency situations are designed to involve the maximum number of affected households in rebuilding damaged communities. CfW projects also serve as an entry point to the creation of medium- to longer-term employment and sustainable livelihoods for affected households. CfW provides opportunities for residents to be organized and acquire practical skills for the repair, reconstruction and rehabilitation of damaged community facilities and assets.

\textsuperscript{85} Community-based works: The projects also adopted the ILO’s community contracting approach which allows community associations to take the lead in subproject implementation. They can be people’s organizations, community-based organizations, NGOs or cooperatives that are registered with the appropriate government agency. Community contracting initiatives are not only effective in developing job skills of the local workforce but also in enhancing capacities of community organizations in the management of development projects, especially small construction contracts.

\textsuperscript{86} It is to be noted that only one identified individual from a household (above the legal minimum age for work) was given work instead of alternating family members. These steps were taken to ensure no instances of child labour were reported.


\textsuperscript{88} For more details, see https://socialprotection.org/discover/programmes/integrated-livelihood-and-emergency-employment-program-dileep.
umbrella, almost 80,000 informal sector workers subscribed to the national insurance schemes while benefitting from immediate relief from the aftermath of Haiyan.

Soon after the 2013 typhoon, 42,168 Filipinos (~35 percent of them, women) secured temporary jobs in the Visayas, with assistance from the UNDP’s early recovery programme. For the Santo Nino dumpsite in Tacloban city, the multilateral agency offered technical and financial support to improve its operations. This helped minimize environmental damage accentuated by emergency disposal due to the typhoon. The UNDP also helped the Ormoc City municipality to improve its landfill operations.89

Case Study 2: Fiji

In February 2016, Fiji was struck by an extremely destructive Category 5 tropical cyclone (TC) Winston—one of the strongest southern Pacific storms ever; second only to Haiyan in impact. The regressive effects of Winston on infrastructure, lives and livelihoods were valued at US$0.9 billion—$0.6 billion in damages and $0.3 billion in

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89 UNDP heralds progress from emergency to recovery six months following Typhoon Haiyan, see www.ph.undp.org/content/philippines/en/home/presscenter/pressreleases/2014/05/07/undp-heralds-progress-from-emergency-to-recovery-six-months-following-typhoon-haiyan-.html.
losses.\textsuperscript{90, 91} The TC affected employment, livelihoods, social networks and infrastructure for approximately 540,400 Fijians (~62 percent of population). An estimated 14,450,129 work days and around Fijian Dollar (FJD) 351.45 million in personal income were lost due to Winston.\textsuperscript{92} The cost of ELSP recovery across the social and productive sectors of the economy from the aftermath of Winston was assessed at US$ 14.0 million (approximately).\textsuperscript{93}

To overcome the ill-effects of TC Winston the ILO’s technical assistance fostered the adoption of a national employment policy embodying effective and responsive on-ground strategies. This initiative translated to three key interventions for recovery that were implemented (summarized below).\textsuperscript{94}

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\textsuperscript{93} Post-Disaster Needs Assessment, Fiji. See https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Post%20Disaster%20Needs%20Assessments%20CYCLONE%20WINSTON%20Fiji%202016%20%28Online%20Version%29.pdf.

Community Based Emergency Employment (CBEE) offered a bouquet of programmes, such as, CfW to clear debris, awareness for prevention of child labour and OSH training, providing tools for clearing and farming, seedlings and tops for planting, registration for overseas seasonal work and linkages to social security. It was piloted in the Tailevu province villages of Nabulini, Manu and Naibita with the National Employment Centre recruiting human resources from among unemployed Fijians across these affected villages and ILO providing for tools, seedlings and allowances as technical assistance. The OSH training on the safe and proper use (and storage) of equipment and child labour prevention awareness sessions were conducted by the employment ministry. The CBEE aimed to support food security and hedge against loss of income in the main, through a social protection lens.

Resilient Employment and Livelihoods through Enterprise and Skills Development was an ILO–UNDP–Fijian Government joint programme. It supported cyclone-affected informal micro enterprises and promoted skills development for reconstruction activities.

A key disaster response component during recovery from the TC Winston’s aftermath was the Fijian Government’s additional assistance through an existing social protection system that provided cash and food vouchers to vulnerable families. By 18 March 2016, merely four weeks into the disaster, the system efficiently disbursed $9.4 million—directly injecting the much needed cash into the economy through (i) Poverty Benefit Scheme, (ii) Social Pension Scheme and (iii) Care and Protection Scheme. Food vouchers worth $2.1 million for the recipients of social assistance soon followed in the months of May–June 2016. On 9 April 2016, the Government announced the roll-out of a $32.6 million ‘Help for Homes’ housing programme, to assist families rebuild their homes damaged or destroyed in the TC. In the first two months after Winston, the Fiji National Provident Fund disbursed close to $116.4 million to its members. The Government’s various social protection programmes following Winston made an aggregate cumulative financial contribution of $160 million to the Fijian economy.

Time-critical interventions to train and support local populations from four villages of Koro in the management of debris and solid waste were also designed and supported by UNDP. This ensured efficient and safe removal and recycling of debris, rehabilitation of basic community infrastructure and opening up of paths that allowed affected communities access essential services. Additionally, UNDP reprogrammed $50,000 to conduct a labour-intensive emergency employment scheme, targeting the youth in Koro. Under this scheme, Fijian youth cleared debris to restore normal life and received cash to manage their immediate financial needs, thus facilitating quick recovery.

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Case 3: Haiti

In January 2010, a devastating earthquake measuring 7.0 on the Richter scale shook Haiti, affecting more than 3 million people. About 200,000 people lost their lives. The earthquake destroyed parts of the Haitian capital Port-au-Prince and surrounding areas. Thousands of people were rendered homeless and unemployed, and the disaster led to an estimated economic loss of $7.9 billion, exacerbating an already feeble national economy.

Haiti’s two million households had 10 million citizens in 2010. About 64 percent belonged to the working age-group of 15–64 years, of which, 35 percent were unemployed before the earthquake. Haiti’s 2.9 million working population included a large number of poor workers. The PDNA estimated the loss of working days across the four affected regions at just over 11 million and loss of income at $53 million.

Four UN agencies (the ILO, UNDP, UNOPS and UN-Habitat) joined forces to implement the neighbourhood rehabilitation debris-management project funded by a multi-donor trust fund, the Haiti Reconstruction Fund (HRF), and the Canadian International Development Agency. Working in close collaboration with the Haitian Government and its Ministry of Public Works, Transportation and Communications, the National

Promoting skills development not only provides livelihood opportunities to the disaster-affected people, but also facilitates implementation of activities to restore basic services in disaster-hit neighbourhoods (Rehabilitation and reconstruction programs in Haiti after the 2010 earthquake)

Institute of Professional Training and numerous municipalities, the project helped those left homeless in and around Port-au-Prince to return to their homes. It also contributed towards revitalizing the economy by encouraging the setting up of businesses that could recycle and transform the rubble into non-structural building materials for the reconstruction of the capital city. The ILO was responsible for three components of these projects:

1. **Supporting local entrepreneurs:** The ILO developed training programmes for entrepreneurs, encouraging them to harness their potential and seize the opportunities provided by the recovery and reconstruction phase. Microfinance initiatives supported the establishment of small and micro-construction enterprises.

2. **Promoting skills development:** The ILO provided training to potential entrepreneurs on debris recycling and transformation, and to workers on OSH and resilient construction practices.

3. **Rehabilitating the neighbourhoods by recycling rubble:** The ILO and its partners used products made by entrepreneurs in the reconstruction process, thus forming a cycle that promoted employment, contributed to clearing the rubble, accelerated the rehabilitation of infrastructure and boosted the local economy. In addition, the ILO developed and launched a specific training programme to enable construction actors to participate in the reconstruction process, while respecting the norms and standards set by the government for earthquake- and cyclone-resistant structures and buildings.

The project resulted in a wide range of actions and brought about lasting social and economic effects in Haiti. In all, 522 entrepreneurs and 33 trainers took part in the entrepreneurship training programme. With access to microfinance, 53 new businesses were established in the construction sector. Under the project, 718 construction workers were trained in anti-seismic and anti-cyclonic construction techniques and received certificates recognized by the State. Also, 766 microenterprises were created which focused on debris recycling and processing. These enterprises were responsible for demolishing over 7,000 damaged buildings and removing more than 800,000 m³ of the debris, which produced over 207,000 building blocks for reconstruction and generated 102,060 hours of work. Public infrastructure, such as squares, corridors and stairs, was strengthened in the affected neighbourhoods of Port-au-Prince.

Apart from this, within a year of the disaster, CfW and labour-intensive initiatives by the UNDP had employed over 240,000 Haitians, 40 percent of them women. These jobs not only provided livelihood opportunities to the disaster-affected people, but also facilitated debris removal and management as the local workers cleared rubble, cleaned water evacuation channels and collected garbage from earthquake-hit neighbourhoods. UN agencies, with the assistance of the local communities and NGOs, ran 230 temporary job programmes that provided the local economy with the essential cash inflow. The intervention benefitted almost 1.2 million people.

By upgrading its early recovery work and rendering it more sustainable and transformative the long-term BBB plan for Haiti was also developed by the UNDP. By encouraging small enterprises and through area-based recovery programmes the agency boosted the prospects for longer-term employment opportunities. It revived disaster preparedness and DRR system of Haiti. UNDP also strengthened the judiciary and
enforcement in affected areas to effectively implement the law. It bolstered the central and local governance structures as well as the electoral process—crucial for the government’s decentralization process.

Case 4: Sudan

In 2012, South Darfur in Sudan experienced a harsh drought as well as intense conflict, with severe consequences for livelihoods. An apiculture livelihood assistance project of the UNDP benefitted the affected population in and around Kubum. The intervention expanded the geography of honey production from 8 villages in 2010 to 60 villages in 2012 and established market linkages to four key trading markets (Kubum, Um Lubassa, Markundi and Flundugaikh).

The recorded average price of one pound of honey, which was in the range Sudanese Pounds (£SD) 9–12 at Kubum markets in 2010, rose to £SD 15–22.5 in 2012. The price increase was attributed to better quality honey made available from the project in the local markets, increased local consumption, as well as to general inflation in Sudan. Honey was traded domestically at prices higher than the international fair-trade rates. The honey produced was valued at about $1 million which was the gross income for beneficiaries in Kubum, an almost ninefold increase from pre-disaster levels.

The intervention resulted in a significant increase in the number of livelihood beneficiaries: from 52 in May 2011 to 1,267 in June 2012, which benefitted 7,600 family members. There was a tangible increase in household incomes of the families. About 23 percent of the beekeepers generated an average household income of between $1,000 and $3,000 from local sales of honey. The remaining 77 percent of beekeepers had an average income of between $100 and $900. This intervention was helpful in building resilience and fitted well within the overall recovery strategy.

Ensuring participation of women as beekeepers was one of the focus areas of the intervention which made the programme gender inclusive. At project closure in June 2012, women beekeepers constituted 11 percent of the total beekeepers. Moreover, 43 internally displaced person households were supported through this programme.
Tools and Resources

International agreements and normative instruments


Policy briefs, technical notes, manuals and guidelines


Reports

- Managing Conflicts and Disasters: Exploring Collaboration between Employers’ and Workers’ Organizations

- Needs Assessment for the Private Sector in the Philippines: Disaster, preparedness, response and recovery

Websites and platforms

- The Sustainable and Resilient Enterprises Platform
  https://conflictdisaster.org/

- Decent Work: From fragility to resilience
  https://fragilestates.itcilo.org/

Above all, hope and fortitude in full display at Tacloban city (after typhoon Haiyan hit Philippines in 2013).
This Employment, Livelihood and Social Protection Guide for Recovery Implementation (“ELSP Recovery Guide”) is a focused and succinct doers’ manual in the ELSP domain. Multi-sector programmes towards economic reactivation and generation of employment for livelihood recovery are the focus for any Post-Disaster Needs Assessment (PDNA) and Disaster Recovery Framework (DRF) exercise, charting out a disaster recovery and disaster risk reduction (DRR) roadmap. The ELSP Recovery Guide is meant to be used after undertaking a PDNA exercise. It aligns with the PDNA Guidelines (Volume B) for the estimated effects and impacts of a disaster on the cross-cutting ELSP sector, factoring in the assessed damage and loss to infrastructure, productive and social sectors.