MODULE 5: LIVELIHOOD RESTORATION AND IMPROVEMENT

I. THE IMPORTANCE OF LIVELIHOOD RESTORATION AND IMPROVEMENT

A. IFC Requirement

312. Livelihood restoration is the most challenging aspect of any resettlement program. The many reasons for this are important to consider during the design of livelihood-restoration programs:

- **Livelihoods are complex.** They are shaped by social norms, customs, access to resources, local knowledge of natural or urban environments, as well as the larger systems of government, economics, and politics.

- **Livelihood systems are dynamic.** Activities frequently must change and adapt in response to an individual’s or household’s changing access to labor, access to resources, fluctuations in rainfall patterns, natural disasters, setbacks, and failures.

- **Livelihood systems are subject to exogenous systems and shocks.** These are outside the influence and control of a project or displaced people and include, for example, changing market conditions, high inflation or recession, government changes in fiscal settings or policy, local conflicts, or war.

- **Individuals and households have differing capacities to take advantage of livelihood opportunities and adapt to changes.** Some seize the opportunities offered by a resettlement program and significantly improve their circumstances. Others take longer to adjust, but eventually reestablish. Still others, who are often poor and vulnerable, may be left worse off if they do not receive targeted assistance.

- **Displaced individuals and households are often conservative and resistant to livelihood change.** Subsistence farmers, in particular, tend to eschew innovation in favor of traditional methods, because the consequences of taking risks can mean hunger and extreme hardship.

- **Sustainable livelihood restoration takes time and requires ongoing adaptive management.** Provision must be made for adequate personnel, budget, and resources for the duration of livelihood programs. This support often must extend beyond the project construction period. Budgets and schedule should include some contingency for setbacks.

313. Where a project causes economic displacement, IFC PS 5 requires that the project sponsor describe livelihood-restoration measures in either a RAP (for projects that involve physical and economic displacement) or an LRP (for projects involving economic displacement only). The RAP or LRP becomes the key document that guides the resettlement and livelihood-restoration program and is subject to monitoring. Project sponsors must be able to track the progress of displaced individuals and households in restoring or improving their livelihoods and income levels until the livelihood program is deemed complete (see module 7, “Monitoring and Evaluation,” particularly sections III.B., “Impact Monitoring” and III.E., “Completion Audit”).

314. Where a project triggers PS5, livelihood restoration is mandatory. It cannot be treated as a discretionary social investment like some other community investment programs, which are implemented to help build goodwill and maintain social license to operate.

315. Much has been learned in the past 10 years regarding livelihood restoration, not all of them related to resettlement. This module provides guidance and examples of current good practice. Those undertaking livelihood-restoration programs should refer to the online resources provided
in the handbook’s "Resources" section to stay current on the latest developments in this evolving field.

B. Defining Livelihoods

316. IFC PS5 defines the term *livelihood* as follows:

The term *livelihood* refers to the full range of means that individuals, families, and communities utilize to make a living, such as wage-based income, agriculture, fishing, foraging, other natural resource-based livelihoods, petty trade, and bartering (footnote 1).

317. Under this definition, livelihood encompasses subsistence (self-consumed) production, natural resource utilization, non-cash-based transactions such as bartering, as well as cash-based and wage income. The unit of production can be an individual, a household, an enterprise, or a community.

318. Livelihood restoration applies to both temporary and permanent economic displacement. Projects that may involve temporary displacement include pipelines, transmission lines, construction camps, laydown areas and the like. For temporary displacement, livelihood measures commensurate with the duration, magnitude, and complexity of impact should be planned and implemented.

C. Defining Livelihood Restoration and Improvement

**Box 5.1. The Characteristics of Livelihood Restoration and Improvement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Livelihood restoration and improvement are characterized by combinations of the following:</th>
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<tr>
<td>Restored or improved income levels</td>
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<td>Restored or improved household food security</td>
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<td>Restoration or improvements in standard of housing</td>
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<td>Restored or improved security of tenure</td>
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<td>Restored or improved household health and nutrition</td>
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<td>Restored or diversified income sources</td>
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<td>Improved access to infrastructure and services</td>
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<td>Restored or improved access to markets</td>
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<td>Restored or increased yields</td>
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<td>Restored or improved consumption and diet</td>
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<td>Fewer households living below the poverty level</td>
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<td>Restored or improved resilience to natural or economic shocks</td>
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319. Key performance Indicators for measuring progress with livelihood restoration should be selected early in the resettlement planning process and carried into the baseline surveys (see module 4, sections VII, “Livelihood Baseline Surveys” and VIII, “Common Property and Natural Resource Use”). These need to be tailored to the specific livelihood circumstances of those displaced. It is preferable to have a small number of indicators that can be reliably measured, rather than a large number that are captured only intermittently.
D. The Importance of Livelihood Improvement—Not Just Restoration

Livelihood improvement, rather than just restoration, is important to offset the opportunity costs borne by displaced household as a result of undergoing a resettlement process.

320. Research demonstrates that the process of resettlement often decapitalizes households, leaving them with less land and reduced livelihood resources. Many factors can contribute to this decapitalization:

- Compensation paid at below replacement cost
- Protracted delays in the process, including in payment leading to devaluation of compensation
- Replacement property price escalation
- Deductions from compensation to pay debtors
- Lack of replacement land of adequate potential
- Dissipation of compensation to meet living costs during the move
- The opportunity cost imposed in the period after a cut-off date is announced, when an affected household is deprived of opportunities for improvement of their living standards, relative to their unaffected neighbors, particularly when this period of personal and economic uncertainty is longer than expected, which is often the case in complex projects

321. A period of improved livelihood and income is necessary for a resettled household to recoup its losses and opportunity costs and to catch up with the living standards of those who are not affected.

322. In addition, where affected persons live in poverty or in poor conditions before resettlement (for example, vulnerable people, slum dwellers, and people affected by chronic food insecurity), it is not sufficient for livelihood activities to focus on restoration only: there is no point in restoring affected persons into poverty. In such situations, livelihood activities must clearly target improvement such that the resettlement project provides a development opportunity out of poverty.

E. Key Challenges of Livelihood Restoration and Improvement

323. Some of the key challenges that need to be addressed in designing and implementing a livelihood-restoration program include the following:

- **Defining success.** What constitutes sustainable livelihood restoration? When can livelihood restoration be deemed complete?
- **Collecting adequate livelihood baseline data.** This is needed so that the full suite of activities that contribute to household livelihoods and income streams can be understood.
- **Accounting for nonmonetary livelihood activities.** These may be from subsistence production, natural resource use, and goods exchanged through barter.
- **Finding suitable replacement agricultural land.**
- **Overcoming resistance to change.** Rigid adherence to traditional practices may make it difficult to achieve livelihood improvements.
• **Achieving sustainable access to agricultural inputs.** These may include improved seeds, higher yielding cultivars, fertilizer, herbicides, pesticides, veterinary services, and improved postharvest technologies.

• **Improving food security.** This is true especially in contexts where, prior to resettlement, few households enjoyed year-round food sufficiency.

• **Managing expectations.** This is especially important concerning demands for employment.

• **Overcoming low educational skills.** These may include low grade attainment and poor literacy and numeracy skills and will require equipping displaced people for wage employment.

• **Offsetting increased household expenditures postresettlement.** There may be a need to cover costs of cooking fuel, water, or transport, which were often free or cheap prior to resettlement.

• **Unbundling project procurement tenders.** This can provide opportunities manageable for local enterprises.

• **Building capacity of local businesses.** They may need assistance to meet project standards and needs.

• **Managing urban livelihoods.** This entails recognizing locational dependencies.

• **Managing failure.** This can include, for example, crop and livestock setbacks, employment rejections, and the like.

• **Supporting livelihood programs for a sufficient duration.** The goal is to make them sustainable.

II. **KEY PRINCIPLES OF LIVELIHOOD RESTORATION AND IMPROVEMENT**

324. Following are some key learnings from resettlement livelihood programs. Some of these may seem self-evident, but they are nonetheless often overlooked.

A. **Planning**

• Take a holistic view of livelihood systems that encompass not only the main economic streams but also those that may appear secondary or are critical only to small groups of affected persons.

• Pay attention to gender dimensions: livelihood activities of females and males are often different, as are their formal educational levels and their expectations and aspirations.

• Use multidisciplinary input, knowing that experienced specialists familiar with local conditions should be retained to undertake livelihood baseline studies, assess impacts, and recommend appropriate activities. Appropriate expertise will lead to better targeted and more cost-effective livelihood programs and more rapid livelihood restoration.

• Project developers should focus on their core business and assign livelihood-restoration program implementation to delivery partners skilled and experienced in this area (for example, development NGOs, research institutes, university and specialist agencies, community development consultants, or government departments, where capacity exists).
Draft Good Practice Handbook: Land Acquisition and Resettlement—Module 5

- Assess the relevance of livelihood programs through market analysis. Ensure that there are sustainable and accessible markets for the skills imparted to workers as well as for the produce and goods that result from livelihood programs.
- Examine the value chains of locally produced goods and look at opportunities for secondary processing and ways to improve handling, storage, transport, and marketing to add value.
- Offer multiple and multifaceted livelihood programs. Recognize one size does not fit all and that some programs will flourish, some will work for phases of livelihood restoration, and others will fail.
- Engage with in-country bilateral and multilateral donors and development NGOs. Look for funding and synergies whereby effective donor livelihood programs and initiatives can be extended into the project area of influence.
- Train affected persons in skills that relate to real opportunities (for example, don’t train people as motorcycle mechanics when they live in a village that has no motorcycles).
- Look beyond construction employment. It is a transitional support measure, not a sustainable livelihood activity. However, classroom and on-the-job training that delivers nationally certified trade qualifications can equip affected persons to compete more effectively in the job market beyond the temporary construction jobs provided by the project.
- Consider integrating livelihood restoration of affected persons into broader development initiatives that target the wider area where the project is taking place.
- Coordinate closely with local and higher levels of government. Many aspects of livelihood restoration overlap with responsibilities of government, and interaction with government is key.
- Obtain records of local livelihood activities and statistics of production levels.
- Consult local and higher-level government officers (for example, in agriculture, fisheries, and forestry) in the design of livelihood programs and their monitoring.
- Find and facilitate access to replacement agricultural land.
- Align project livelihood programs with government socioeconomic policies and initiatives, including implementation of local and regional development plans.
- Register unemployed workers and facilitate job placement.

B. Implementation

- Use experienced delivery partners to design and deliver livelihood-restoration programs that are based on proven in-country and local experience.
- Use multiple delivery partners on relatively short duration contracts (12–18 months), so that the best performers receive repeat work, and poorer performers are replaced (that is, promote healthy competition).
- Where possible, leverage delivery partners to augment project-funded programs with matching funds or in-kind contributions.
- Consider bringing in access to capital, for example, rural banks or microfinance institutions that can fund the establishment of SMEs once training is done.
• Leverage key project construction contractors and suppliers to provide training, skills development, work experience, and employment opportunities, with first preference being extended to project-affected persons.

• Unbundle project procurement and supply contracts to provide opportunities for local businesses. Establish a local content champion to facilitate making opportunities for local businesses.

• Explore opportunities for government capacity building (for example, involving local government officers in relevant trainings or seeking government commitment to recruit or second an agricultural extension officer).

• Provide continuity of agricultural extension and livelihood support once project responsibilities have been fulfilled.

C. Monitoring and Evaluation

• Conduct independent, mid-term, and completion reviews of each livelihood program. These are critical to allow for adaptive changes to be made to improve program effectiveness and identify which programs should be continued and which should be discontinued.

• Design all programs with a logical framework analysis, including defined goals, inputs, outputs, and monitorable outcomes.

III. STEPS TO UNDERTAKE LIVELIHOOD RESTORATION

A. Step 1: Livelihood Baseline Studies

• Carry out baseline studies and engagement activities as described in module 4, particularly in section VII, “Livelihood Baseline Surveys”, and define KPIs from the baseline stage for measuring the progress of livelihood restoration and improvement.

• Identify all livelihood streams, including those that may seem relatively marginal and do not appear in usual household and asset surveys, particularly those linked to the use of communal resources and seasonal ones.

• Identify poverty and vulnerability issues and specific livelihood and coping strategies of the poorest and vulnerable.

• Develop a register of displaced people of working age with information about their educational attainment, skills, prior work experience, and any preferences for future employment or small business.

• Assess options for replacement agricultural land.

• Assess the capacity of national agencies, local government, and other potential livelihood delivery partners (including development NGOs, microfinance institutions, and banks) to support project livelihood initiatives.

• In urban settings, understand the dependency of livelihoods on the predisplacement location (for example, presence of a market, access to certain types of jobs or suitable locations for certain types of enterprises.).

• Ratify findings with displaced communities (and their hosts, where applicable) using participatory consultation techniques such as focus groups.
B. Step 2: Livelihood Impact Assessment

325. Assess livelihood resource losses after relocation and define impacts to the following:

- **Different types of land use.** Agricultural, forestry, and grazing land, among others on which local livelihoods are based, may change after resettlement. This is obviously about size, but qualitative analysis is also necessary for each category of land use, as soil and land capability characteristics will change between the pre- and postresettlement situations, making certain types of crops on which prereshetlement livelihoods were based impossible in the postresettlement setting. Inputs from an experienced soil scientist, agronomist, livestock specialist, forester, or land use planner may be necessary as appropriate.

- **Natural resources.** These are obviously important to certain livelihood streams and include arable land, pasture, forest, water bodies, access to fishing or hunting grounds, NTFP, and the like.

- **Enterprises.** Clients face potential losses following relocation, including difficulty in retaining employees after relocation and the subsequent transition.

- **Livelihood streams.** Again, it is important to note that marginal or hardly visible streams in the overall economic picture (gathering, fishing, grazing, and the like) could be critical to certain categories of affected persons, including vulnerable or marginalized groups such as women, fisherpeople, informal settlers and squatters, and indigenous people.

- **Access to opportunity and services.** In urban settings especially, impacts to livelihoods are usually related to access to employment, markets for enterprises and artisans, and public transport. See box 5.2.

**Box 5.2. Urban Livelihoods and Resettlement Site Selection**

**Urban Highway Project, Côte d'Ivoire**

An urban highway project affected about 1,000 slum dwellers who had erected nonpermanent houses on unused state land within a wealthy area of the city. When investigating their livelihoods, it was apparent that most of the affected persons were employed as housekeepers, gardeners, and watchmen in the nearby villas. Those employed as security guards were often working on night shifts. In line with their policy for slum relocation, the authorities initially proposed a site that was located about 15 kilometers away from the original location in the city's northern fringes, with poor or nonexistent public transport services. Relocating to this site would have jeopardized affected persons' livelihoods, and the location of the proposed resettlement site was reviewed. Another, much closer site was eventually selected, allowing people to keep their jobs.

C. Step 3: Livelihood Strategy Formulation

- Closely involve displaced people and key stakeholders in developing a vision, defining objectives, considering options, and determining preferences for livelihood restoration. Seek broad participation as well as the views of subgroups (women, youth, elderly, vulnerable people, and ethnic minorities), whose views may differ from the majority. (See box 5.3 for more.)

- Systematically consider livelihood opportunities, constraints, and risks, asking questions such as the following:
  - Are displaced people experiencing full or partial livelihood loss?
Will it be possible for rural households to continue their livelihood activities postrelocation (for example, agriculture, animal husbandry, fisheries, and foraging)?

Will urban households be able to continue their existing occupations?

Is suitable replacement land available to achieve full or only partial land-for-land replacement? Is the quality of such land adequate for crops that were farmed predisplacement?

How many displaced people will be able to continue their existing occupations, and how many will need to be trained and assisted to develop alternative livelihoods?

What are existing skills and aptitudes of displaced people?

Are some groups of displaced people better equipped to adapt to new livelihoods than others? Which groups are particularly vulnerable to changes in livelihood?

What types of training and vocational skills do displaced people need, and what resources are available to provide it?

What livelihood or wage-earning opportunities could be provided through the project, its contractors, or its suppliers?

Taking into account opportunities, constraints, and risks, determine what mix of the following will need to be provided:

- Land-based livelihood strategies (see section IV., “Addressing Land-Based Livelihoods” of this module)
- Non-land-based livelihood strategies (see section V., “Effective Non-Land-Based Livelihood Improvement Strategies” of this module), including employment (see section V.A., ”Access to Project Employment”) and enterprise development (see section V.C., “Enterprise-Based Livelihoods”)
- Supporting activities such as agricultural training, vocational skills development, access to credit, and business management training

Determine the project approach to procuring the services needed to deliver training and livelihood-restoration programs. Determine what will be provided in-house, from NGOs, or through government programs, projects or agencies.

Determine the project organization for livelihood programs delivery: organizational structure and reporting lines, personnel, resources, budget, and schedule.

Develop recruiting, training, and employment management plans for inclusion of community members in construction contract bid documents. Establish employment for project-displaced workers and host communities as the first priority.

Initiate replacement sites selection, with the participation and involvement of the displaced population; select preferred sites and ratify them with communities (see also module 2.VII.A., “Resettlement Site Selection”).
Box 5.3. Elements of a Livelihood Improvement Strategy

Defining a livelihood improvement strategy should consider a number of key questions:

Is livelihood loss full or partial? Are certain livelihood streams lost while others can be maintained?

Can land be replaced in full with land of similar or better potential? What is the extent of the loss of land?

What agricultural extension services are available locally from government or NGOs? Are there agricultural research institutions nearby that can support the agricultural improvement effort? Is there room for the project to support and enhance extension or research?

Are there quick-win improvements available to local agriculture and animal husbandry at limited cost and within a short time: for example, short-cycle crop varieties to handle droughts better, small-scale irrigation for production of dry season vegetables or fruits, animal health improvement, or better access to water to mobilize new grazing resources?

Are there longer term improvements to the agricultural systems that the project can help kick-start: for example, shifting from slash-and-burn and fallow systems to more intensive land use, or introducing mechanization, fertilization, artificial insemination, or greenhouses?

What are the main market-related bottlenecks to agricultural development: for example, postharvest losses, poor vehicular access, overproduction during some periods and shortages at others, monopolistic behaviors of buyers with manipulation of prices to the detriment of producers, or detrimental subsidies? Which bottlenecks can reasonably be influenced? Can farm-to-buyer or farm-to-market linkages be improved and how? Are farmer cooperatives or similar groupings an option to improve market access and access to inputs?

Is credit readily available at reasonable terms for agricultural improvements? If not, are there banks or microfinance institutions that might be willing to offer such services?

What project-based opportunities are open to affected persons: for example, unskilled or semi-skilled employment or procurement of services such as security, catering, cleaning, vehicles rental, or accommodation?

What training institutions are available in the project area of influence to help prepare project-affected persons to take advantage of these opportunities?

Are there income-generating activities that could be introduced with reasonable chances of success once support stops?

Are there institutions (governmental or not) to support enterprise development with training and management assistance during the first years of enterprise establishment?

Is credit readily available at reasonable terms for the establishment and development of small and medium enterprises? If not, are there banks or microfinance institutions that might be willing to open such services?

Will women be able to take advantage of the above opportunities? Should specific activities be developed for them?

Will vulnerable people be able to take advantage of the above opportunities? Should specific activities be developed for them?

Are there longer term educational activities that should be put in place for children and youth?
D. Step 4: Procurement and Livelihood Program Design for Delivery Partners

- Based on consultations with displaced people, define the livelihood programs that need to be delivered; prepare terms of reference that outline program needs.
- Call for expressions of interest from suitably experienced potential delivery partners (for example, development NGOs, consultants, and institutions). Make sure that there is room in bidding requests for candidates to suggest improvements in methodologies and delivery approaches.
- Tender, evaluate, and award livelihood program contracts (livelihood program bidders should put forward detailed program designs as part of their proposals).
- Define KPIs, self-monitoring, and reporting requirements applicable to implementation partners.

E. Step 5: Livelihood Program Execution

- Mobilize the resettlement implementation field team, including a livelihood manager and sector leads as needed: for example, for agriculture, animal husbandry, fisheries, and non-land-based livelihood initiatives.
- Mobilize livelihood-restoration delivery partners; carry out site and health, safety, and environment inductions.
- Coordinate delivery of livelihood-restoration partner contracts—monitor progress, schedule and budgets.
- Prepare progress reports for management.
- Maintain the GM.

F. Step 6: Monitoring and Evaluation

- Define and implement a monitoring and reporting framework (see module 7, “Monitoring and Evaluation”) based on livelihood indicators identified during the baseline stage with some supplemental indicators if required:
  - Develop indicators for internal monitoring (by project and resettlement team), and indicators for external monitoring (by independent third parties).
  - Make provision for specialist mid-term and final evaluation of livelihood programs; then initiate changes to programs to improve effectiveness as warranted.
  - Prepare and disclose regular monitoring reports to keep affected communities and interested stakeholders informed about livelihood-restoration progress.
  - Engage independent specialists to conduct a resettlement completion audit with an assessment of livelihood-restoration outcomes as an important component.

IV. Addressing Land-Based Livelihoods

A. Land for Land

326. IFC PS5 prescribes as follows:

For persons whose livelihoods are land-based, replacement land that has a combination of productive potential, locational advantages, and other factors at least equivalent to that being lost should be offered as a matter of priority.
327. Where there is abundant, vacant, and suitable agricultural land, the most straightforward livelihood strategy is full land-for-land replacement. Unfortunately, in many parts of the world, unused agricultural land is increasingly rare. Very often, a project must accept land that is smaller in area than what is required for full replacement, or that has a less convenient location, or that needs improvement to achieve replacement productivity. In such cases, resettlement planners will need to assess alternative strategies:

328. The project could screen out households that do not need land-for-land replacement. These would be households whose incomes are not land-based, those who have aptitude to be trained for wage employment, or those that can demonstrate sustainable access to land or other livelihoods (such as fishing or an artisanal activity) outside of the project area, so that they need less or no replacement land. The project could provide agricultural training to help households improve productivity to offset the challenge of cultivating a smaller area (this is addressed in further detail in section IV.C., “Agricultural Intensification” of this module). The project could provide sustained agricultural training and support to effect changes in agricultural practice—such as converting swidden farmers to fixed agriculture—or provide training as well as inputs and equipment to dryland farmers to enable use of irrigation systems.

329. Land-for-land replacement can be achieved:
   o by individual households securing their own replacement land, with the project and local authorities in a facilitating role rather than intervening directly; or
   o by the project securing replacement agricultural land sites or individual plots, which are then allocated to displaced households.

330. The first of these two options have the advantage of less disruption to usual land markets and/or land allocation mechanisms, particularly where these are based on customary processes and administered by traditional land chiefs. It may be slower in attaining the desired outcome, and more attention will need to be paid to the most vulnerable, who may be left behind in the process.

331. Typical steps for selecting suitable replacement agricultural area are listed in box 6.4. The site selection must involve agricultural specialists to assess the suitability of the land for replacement agricultural purposes and specify any site preparation requirements (such as clearing, deep ploughing, or initial fertilization). As far as possible, replacement sites should be unoccupied. If there are existing dwellings and uses, it is important that they can be readily integrated into the resettlement and replacement land-use plan. Displaced and host communities should be closely consulted and participate fully throughout the site selection process, especially during the following steps:
   - Determining site selection criteria
   - Evaluating and visiting alternative sites and expressing preferences
   - Selecting the preferred site or sites

332. Host communities and/or host landowners should be consulted about their willingness to accept resettlers and be kept informed about site-selection progress.

333. The final site selection is inevitably a trade-off among multiple factors. Sometimes, displaced communities may be unable to reach agreement on a single site. One group committed to agriculture may prefer a relatively remote site that offers better agricultural potential, while another prefers a site close to the project with the potential for jobs, enterprise development, or
letting of houses to project workers. In such cases, it may be preferable to select two sites rather than push for a consensus on one or the other. In any event, it is critical that displaced communities be given reasonable time to reach a consensus on the preferred site or sites and that their final decision be captured in an MoU with the project or in the final RAP.

**Box 5.4. Steps in Identifying Replacement Agricultural Land**

Consider the following when determining how much and what kind of replacement agricultural area is required:

- Number of households to be displaced
- The agricultural and/or grazing area required for food sufficiency for an average household in an average year, using conservative assumptions about agricultural practices—make provision for fallow, if this part of normal agricultural practices
- Add any needed common or natural resource areas: pasture and grazing, foraging and gathering firewood, access to fishing or hunting area, housing or settlement sites, and so forth

Define site selection criteria with affected communities, and work with local government to develop a long list of potentially suitable sites. Assess the strengths and weaknesses of each site and develop a short list of three to four preferred sites.

Consult with any host communities and ascertain their willingness to accept displaced people. Present the short-listed options to the affected community or households and discuss the strengths and weaknesses of each site; conduct site visits; agree on a preferred site. Finally, carry out detailed site investigations (land tenure investigations and title searches, soil sampling, and mapping, water supply investigations) to confirm the suitability of the preferred site(s).

334. The project might be exposed to land speculative activity during the replacement land selection process. Often it is necessary to be circumspect during potential site inspections and to move rapidly to secure rights to replacement sites once a decision on a preferred site or sites has been reached. Depending on the scale of a project and the prevailing land tenure regime, it may be possible to do one of the following:

- Enter into an option-to-purchase agreement with the owner(s) of the preferred site to reserve the site while detailed site investigations are undertaken or to cover the period until a project decision to proceed is reached
- Request the government to put in place a moratorium on land transactions, rezoning, and development approvals ahead of major project execution
- Declare a specific cut-off date for replacement land and undertake a census and asset inventory of the replacement area
- Incorporate replacement agricultural areas in the areas covered by cut-off date announcements (rarely possible, however, due to timing issues)

**B. Reestablishing Subsistence Production and Food Security**

335. For households reliant on subsistence production, the initial focus of livelihood programs should be on reestablishing food security using proven, low-risk production systems and crops that are familiar to the displaced population. The limiting factor in improving farm livelihoods may be
the capacity of farmers to accept change in their agricultural practices, which may be driven by the minimization of risk rather than the maximization of production.

336. Assumptions about yields that can be achieved should remain conservative. No new sophisticated techniques should be sought (for example, no irrigation where this would be new, no hybrid varieties, no new mechanization, no use of sophisticated pest control techniques, and so forth). Advisable technical improvements will usually be limited in scope (but effects may be critical) and should avoid innovations that may be difficult to introduce and integrate with traditional production systems. They typically include the following:

- Better integration of agriculture and animal husbandry to mobilize organic fertilization, including, for example, introducing a few zero-grazing animals and better animal sheds to recover organic matter generated by animals
- Improved local plant varieties (no hybrids), usually with slightly shorter cycles to improve drought resilience and reduce water needs, a better grain-to-straw ratio, or better resilience to diseases and pests
- Possible introduction of animal traction where labor is mostly manual and traction animals are available
- Introduction of conservation agriculture techniques: Conservation agriculture is a widely adopted concept in developed and developing countries. It is particularly suited to traditional farmers with limited capacity to mechanize soil preparation. It is a set of soil management practices that minimize the disruption of the soil’s structure, composition, and natural biodiversity. Despite high variability in the types of crops grown and specific management regimes, all forms of conservation agriculture share core principles that include the following:
  - Maintenance of permanent or semipermanent soil cover, using either a previous crop residue or purposely growing a cover crop, such as nitrogen-fixing tree species
  - Minimum soil disturbance through tillage (just enough to get the seed into the ground) and avoidance of ploughing
  - Regular crop rotations to help combat the various biotic constraints
  - Utilization of green manures, avoidance of burning of crop residues, integrated disease and pest management, and limited mechanical traffic over agricultural soils where possible
  - Reduction in fossil fuel use with associated economic and environmental benefits, which is a major advantage

337. Once basic food production systems are reestablished and self-subsistence is achieved on the replacement land, the project can look at augmenting household production with components that diversify household production and introduce cash income.

C. Agricultural Intensification

338. If there is insufficient land for full land-for-land replacement, the project sponsor will need to look at methods of intensifying agricultural production on a reduced land area. Agricultural intensification may involve some or all of the following:

- Shift to sedentary agriculture from shifting or swidden methods
• Introduction of mechanization
• Consolidation of plots to facilitate mechanization and economies of scale
• Greater use of agricultural inputs—fertilizers, herbicides, and pesticides
• Shift from rainfed to irrigated agriculture
• Introduction of greenhouses
• Introduction of hydroponic growing methods
• Introduction or intensification of animal husbandry, for example, use of artificial insemination, improved livestock breeds, and/or supplementary feeding

339. Agricultural intensification should not be undertaken lightly. It will involve much longer and more intensive training and assistance for displaced farmers and also has much higher risks of setbacks or failures. There are always reasons why agricultural systems are extensive and changing to more intensive ones is a long and difficult path (box 5.5).

Box 5.5. Why are Agricultural Systems Often Extensive and Why Is It Difficult to Intensify Agriculture?

Farmers the world over are risk averse. Traditional agricultural systems have been based, sometimes for centuries, on minimizing risks rather than maximizing production. For example, in some relatively dry areas of West Africa where most agricultural work is done manually, farmers will sow more land than they are able to weed (weeding being the most labor-intensive operation and the key bottleneck as a result). It seems to make little sense at first, but it allows the farmers to see the areas of their fields where the young plants have grown best and weed those only. Similarly, slash-and-burn systems with fallow periods of up to 20 years made sense where land availability was virtually infinite because of low population densities. In the current demographic pressure, however, these systems are unsustainable in most of the areas where they are practiced. However, the dramatic demographic changes that imply that less land is available and make slash-and-burn unsustainable are relatively recent, and agricultural systems have not yet adapted. This is particularly true in many areas of West Africa, where other factors that have prevented intensification include lack of investment in the agricultural sector, unavailability of credit, poor organization of and limited access to agricultural inputs, supplies, and markets for produce, and lack of proper extension and training services.

Risk aversion makes intensification difficult. Farmers know that by intensifying they will be more exposed should a drought occur before the crop is mature. They have spent more in agricultural inputs and sometimes in labor and are therefore more vulnerable to economic hardship if drought or pest attacks occur and the crop fails than they are in an extensive system in which their farming cash expenses were nil and the only thing they would lose is their own labor.

Other factors that make intensification difficult include the following:

1. Low educational levels that make it difficult for farmers to conceptualize the advantages of new agricultural techniques
2. Poorly understood economic or social indirect effects of intensification: for example slash-and-burn systems in West Africa typically allow herders to use fallow land or regrow grass after fire
3. Poorly understood agronomic effects of intensification: for example, introducing ploughing into systems that were based on direct sowing may accelerate soil erosion and mineralization of organic matter
4. Various traditional beliefs or cultural values associated with certain agricultural practices or certain crops, which are important to understand before engaging into intensification activities.

5. A “my-grandfather-and-my-father-did-that-and-there-is-no-reason-I-should-change” attitude. 

This is why attempts to intensify must be carefully studied, with qualified and experienced agronomists and social scientists looking into all technical, economic, social, and cultural implications of the changes. Pilots are also useful to refine techniques and provide a basis for training.

\(^a\) Rice and various tubers such as yam and taro are typical of crops that are believed to have a “soul” in some cultures. Sometimes certain crops are associated with a particular gender and cannot be cultivated by the other. Similarly, sacrifices or other rituals may be associated with certain cropping activities such as sowing, weeding, harvesting, threshing, or pounding. It is important to understand whether these underlying cultural values may affect willingness to accept or resist change.

340. This handbook is not intended to provide detailed technical guidance on these approaches. Guidance should be obtained from such sources as the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and local agronomic research institutes. It is important that such advice is obtained in-country (or at least regionally), as it needs to be locally specific. In the context of resettlement, failure is not an option, and project schedules do not allow for specific research and lengthy trials. Only proven techniques and practices should be used, with the involvement of experienced specialists and organizations. Where possible, pilot trials over one to three years are highly advisable before crops or techniques are scaled up for the affected population. There are no miracles in agriculture: a slash-and-burn farmer or a transhumant herder will not instantly turn into a high-tech drip-irrigation farmer simply because the technology works elsewhere.

**D. Small-Scale Gardening**

341. Small-scale gardening is often an effective way to diversify and improve food sources, provide an alternative to seasonal out-migration during the dry season when the main crops are already harvested, and improve livelihoods and cash incomes. This is often particularly beneficial to groups such as women and youth.

342. Key factors to consider prior to promoting small-scale gardening are presented in table 5.1.
### Table 5.1. Factors to Consider in Small-Scale Gardening

| Land                                                                 | Is land with the right potential available (soils and land capability, security)? Is it accessible? Can it be protected from animal intrusion and theft? Does it need to be fenced? Is it free from other uses or will it require secondary displacement? Does it need to be acquired and compensated?  
|                                                                     | Is water available at the site during the whole period when gardening will be conducted? If not, can it be made available (drilled or hand-dug wells, pumping) at a reasonable and sustainable cost of investment and operation? Can ongoing maintenance costs be sustainably covered? |
| Technical considerations                                             | Does the soil need improvement? How will watering or small-scale irrigation be conducted? What crops should be selected considering factors such as the agricultural calendar; nutritional benefits; availability of seeds, seedlings, fertilizer, pesticides, irrigation equipment, and other inputs; technical and social acceptability; and availability of a market if the harvest is to be sold?  
|                                                                     | What cultivation techniques will be employed: for example, soil preparation, fertilization, nurseries and transplanting, weeding, and so forth? Is there potential for integration with animal husbandry to provide organic fertilization? What calendar will be followed, considering both farming and marketing opportunities and constraints? |
| Organization                                                        | Who is going to benefit: individuals, whole communities, groups of certain categories of residents? Are people willing and able to organize collective tasks such as clearing, fencing, and providing for the cost of collective infrastructure and pumping (if applicable)? Are they willing to farm some plots in common to accommodate collective expenses, or do they prefer to contribute in cash?  
|                                                                     | Is there sufficient management capacity? Does it need to be strengthened? Should the organization of producers be registered? If so, under what status? Is there potential for linking with project workforce catering? Are there specific quality, quantity, and sanitary requirements applicable to food used for project catering? Will local producers be able to meet these in reasonable conditions? If not, can some of the standards be lowered to allow for more local procurement without jeopardizing food safety or overall food procurement? What happens when construction is finished and workers are demobilized? |
E. Addressing Postharvest Losses Through Improved Handling and Storage

i) Loss prevention

343. In most developing and emerging economies, postharvest losses are in the range of 10–20 percent and may account for up to 40 percent. Losses are mainly caused by insects, rodents, mold, and other microorganisms, and technological deficiencies when separating grain from husks. Vegetables and fruit are particularly sensitive, but significant losses can affect grain and tubers too.

344. The minimization of postharvest losses should be considered as an aspect of improving agricultural productivity. Improvements to drying are usually quite straightforward and effective (although losses—caused by birds and rodents particularly—can occur during the drying process itself). Improving storage is usually more complex, as a number of factors come into play. Small-scale elevated storage facilities and the use of bags typically have good potential, but possibilities of improvement will always be context specific and, again, this should be studied by experienced specialists. Costly or unproven technologies should be avoided.

ii) Value chain

345. Where fruit and vegetables are introduced, the whole value chain should be considered, as these items are usually mainly intended for sales. Areas to examine include storage, transport and marketing, and associated organizational and technical constraints.

F. Animal Husbandry

346. Similar to gardening, small-scale animal husbandry has good potential to support the diversification of livelihood and income streams. Poultry for egg or meat production is usually a preferred option, as it entails limited investment and can build on existing practices. In Asia, schemes that combine duck raising with aquaculture have also been successful. Goat and cattle fattening for dairy or meat and putting aside a small number of animals in a zero-grazing system are also popular for the same reasons and have been reasonably successful in countries where they are part of national rural development policies (for example, Rwanda). Zero-grazing allows easy collection of organic matter, which can improve agriculture, particularly where market gardening is concurrently introduced. However, certain precautions and factors must be considered (see table 6.2). Also see IFC Good Practice Note on Improving Animal Welfare in Livestock Operations.14

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Table 5.2. Factors to Consider in Poultry, Goat, and Cattle Fattening and Zero-Grazing</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Choice of species and breeds</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Animal housing</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Animal feed</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diseases</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organization</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Marketing

Is there a market for the produce? Is it accessible to local producers?
What is the competition? Are there acceptable slaughterhouses?
Is a specific form of organization required or desirable to be able to access the market?

Implementation

Are there implementation partners with successful experience in organizing and implementing livestock production systems?
What is the desirable duration of support? Can local trainers be identified and trained?
What is the exit strategy when support stops? Is there a government agency with the ability to assume responsibility of some support and monitoring?

G. Agricultural Insurance

347. Agriculture is an inherently risky venture, and significant crop losses are always possible, even in mature agricultural landscapes. In many parts of the world, the onset of climate change is exacerbating the risk of unseasonal or extreme weather that can adversely affect farmer yields or livestock production. Resettled farmers who are establishing agriculture in new areas or using new or improved varieties are particularly at risk.

348. Where resettlement livelihood schemes promote credit assistance for the use of higher value inputs (for example, improved seed, fertilizer, and chemicals), project-affected farmers should be encouraged to buy crop, livestock, or fisheries insurance, where this is available. Where a farmer is reliant on credit or making an unfamiliar investment in livestock, improved seed, or fertilizer, they can be left irrevocably worse off if they experience crop or livestock losses. Some governments and agricultural credit providers offer subsidized insurance programs.

Table 5.3. Examples of Agricultural Insurance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Insurance type</th>
<th>Typical coverage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crop</td>
<td>Period from seeding until harvest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock</td>
<td>Death from disease, accidental drowning, strangulation, or snakebite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poultry</td>
<td>Catastrophic loss due to disease or epidemic (subject to birds having been vaccinated or inoculated)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisheries</td>
<td>Period from stocking up to harvest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Food and Fertilizer Technology Center for Asian and Pacific Region website (http://ap.fftc.agnet.org).
V. EFFECTIVE NON-LAND-BASED LIVELIHOOD IMPROVEMENT STRATEGIES

349. Livelihood-improvement strategies that are not based on land and agriculture can involve access to project and other employment, nonagricultural income-generating activities, and support for the establishment and operation of small businesses associated with project procurement.

A. Access to Project Employment

i) Challenges

350. Project sponsors and contractors must anticipate the challenges associated with employing project-affected persons who may have limited exposure to wage-based employment and no exposure to large construction projects, particularly in terms of occupational health and safety. Even for those who gain employment and work well, there are challenges. For example, for most projects, employment opportunities are numerous during the construction phase and fewer (or even nonexistent) in operations. The transition from construction to operations is difficult and may result in social tensions. Other challenges include the following:

- Mismanaged expectations (“everybody will get a job!”), fueled by poor project communication or employment procedures, which result in frustration and anger when affected persons realize that their expectations will not be met
- Poor communications around and understanding of the screening and recruitment procedures, which can result in frustration for those screened out
- Misunderstanding the required job skills: for example, persons with a driving license may mistakenly think they can drive a 150-ton mine dumper
- Unfamiliarity with work discipline and regular hours, lower productivity than seasoned construction workers, and lack of familiarity with administrative aspects such as wage slips, allowances, and employer tax deductions
- Failing employment screening tests: Large contractors will typically undertake preemployment screening to test hearing, eyesight, presence of infectious diseases (for example, tuberculosis), and drug and alcohol status. Many job applicants may fail such screenings, which can make it difficult to recruit significant numbers of project-affected persons.\textsuperscript{15} It is important that failed job candidates be provided with access to treatment (for example, opportunity to buy glasses or obtain medication for TB) or be sensitized about substance abuse issues and, once treated, be given the opportunity to reapply.

ii) Benefits

351. If properly managed, employment has the potential to be the first benefit of a project to neighboring communities and the one that is most expected by stakeholders in countries where poverty and unemployment are widespread and job opportunities scarce. Employment achieves the following benefits:

\textsuperscript{15} In a project in West Africa, a large number of young applicants failed the cannabis test. However, testing positive does not necessarily denote frequent and recent consumption (which these youth could not afford), because the active substance in cannabis (THC) is detectable for a long time after consumption. Significant frustration occurred (resulting in site blockages) when young people that denied frequent consumption realized that they had failed the test and would not be employed.
• Provides a regular source of cash income
• Integrates workers in the cash economy
• Allows workers to benefit from social security systems or pensions
• Provides opportunities for training and skill enhancement
• Creates a sense of common objectives between the project and affected communities

**iii) Employment preparation**

352. For direct and indirect project employment approaches to be successful, it is essential to provide for training, mentoring, and support. Where affected communities have low educational attainment, the project sponsor should help affected persons improve their chances of being employed by creating early awareness on the following topics:

- Project organizational arrangements (who is who among sponsors and contractors) and project workforce needs, including the duration of the different phases
- Manage expectations and be clear that not everyone will be employed: the project has certain needs and will put in place selection processes
- Literacy, numeracy, and language training
- Workplace rules and disciplinary procedures: working hours, hierarchy, assessments, violations, and so on
- Awareness of recruitment procedures: including processing of applications, health, drug and alcohol screening, and the like
- Essentials of health and safety
- Skills required for the project: including the fact that some or many skills needed may not be available in the communities
- GMs available to communities and workers
- Rules of conduct, such as zero tolerance for harassment, including sexual harassment and bullying

353. Awareness can be achieved through community meetings, workshops, and focus groups with community representatives, including youth and women.

**iv) Identification of key employment needs**

354. As part of the ESIA or RAP baseline surveys, the project should identify the skills among affected persons as well as key employment categories where affected persons may be able to find jobs (see module 4.VII., “Livelihood Baseline Surveys”). Assessing the skills base requires that some questions about degrees, professional qualifications, experience, artisanal and vocational training, and so forth be asked of affected household heads. These pertain to the qualifications of all working-age household members at the time of the socioeconomic or livelihood baseline surveys (see module 4 sections VI.B., “Quantitative Surveys” and VII.F., “Skills Base”).

355. The project should assess the jobs needed during construction and operations. The project should understand how the project workforce needs will be filled. For the construction phase, project sponsors need to encourage contractors to develop precise breakdowns and establish
accurate estimates of the number of unskilled and semi-skilled jobs that can be offered to affected persons. A gender breakdown of jobs and gender targets should also be established.

v) Development of recruitment procedures

356. Recruitment procedures can lead to confusion and community discontent. There is no universal approach, and procedures will be highly context specific. Projects are often insufficiently prepared and procedures may not be effectively implemented. Procedures for recruitment of affected persons into project employment should comply with requirements of IFC’s PS2 and address the following questions:

- How can people apply and where can they apply (project employment centers, national employment agency, community liaison personnel, or other option)?
- What screening tests will be used, and how can people be helped to cope with rejection (see section V.A.i, "Challenges," of this module)?
- How does the project identify beneficiaries (for project related benefits such as employment) and eligibility criteria?
- Are all affected persons eligible, or just one individual per affected household? In the latter case, will elderly households be able to allocate their employment entitlement to another extended family member?
- How does the project address unaffected persons in affected communities?
- How will residency in a given community be verified: project census or other criteria, including verification by local chiefs?
- Is eligibility to a job permanent or for a given duration?
- How are jobs distributed among different communities: quota by communities or other method?
- How are jobs distributed within each community: lottery or other method?

B. Education, Training and Scholarships

357. Allocating scholarships to students from affected households in primary, secondary, higher, or vocational training provides effective and relatively inexpensive benefits to communities, individuals as well as the project:

- From a livelihood-restoration perspective, it enhances the employability of those receiving training.
- It generates a sense of pride and enhances community goodwill toward the project and its sponsors.
- It can help with the training of future employees.

358. The number and type of scholarships should be adapted to the context. Scholarships should cover a significant part (but not necessarily all) of the education expenses incurred, including tuition and accommodation, where applicable. Criteria for eligibility and award of scholarships should be transparent and fair. Authorities and communities should be consulted about how scholarships will be awarded and about monitoring measures to avoid misuse. Part of the scholarship might be paid directly to the educational institution. See box 5.6 for an example of a scholarship program.
Box 5.6. Vishnugad-Pipalkoti Hydropower Project, Uttar-Akhand, India: Long-Term Investment in General and Vocational Education and Scholarships

The Vishnugad-Pipalkoti hydropower scheme is being built by public power company, THDC India Limited, on the Alaknanda river in the Himalayan state of Uttarakhand, India, with support from the World Bank. Although the project is a run-of-river scheme, about 558 households were affected by construction sites (acquisition of private land) and potential impacts during construction and 155 are being relocated.

Within its livelihood restoration efforts, the project embarked various training programs that included:

- Scholarships for primary and secondary education, with three target groups: affected households, meritorious students, and children with a vulnerable background; about 1150 children benefitted;

- Vocational training in electricity, plumbing, masonry, operation of heavy equipment, and so on, in existing training and educational institutions, with about 60 young people from affected households benefitting;

- Specific training activities for affected women, including training in producing clothes (knitting and tailoring), dairy promotion, back yard poultry, agriculture activities, with about 250 women benefitting.

Also noteworthy in this particular case is the fact that the project is located on a very popular pilgrimage route, and affected persons are being encouraged to utilize their R&R grants for pilgrim hospitality in providing clean and safe accommodation and management of this activity.

Photo B5.6.1: Young People from the Affected Area Being Trained as Electricians

Photo B5.6.2: Young Man from an Affected Household Being Trained as an Excavator Operator
C. Enterprise-Based Livelihoods

i) Project opportunities

359. Projects typically provide numerous opportunities for local procurement in which project-affected persons can benefit, as long as the right conditions are in place and there is an aggressive policy to establish and enhance links between local enterprises and project procurement (see table 5.4).

ii) Nonproject opportunities: Income-generating activities

360. Income-generating activities have been given considerable attention by various development organizations in most developing and emerging countries (see box 5.7). They can allow people to develop nonagricultural income as a complement to their main activity, particularly agriculture. Many governmental agencies and NGOs supported by donors have developed proven methodologies to develop income-generating activities, sometimes with specific targets for women, youth, and vulnerable people. These methodologies are usually based on the following sequence of actions:

- Identification of activities combining economic potential, environmental sustainability, and social acceptability, based on information typically available from local development agencies, NGOs, and donors
- Consultation with economically displaced people on these activities and selection of a few preferred, viable, and sustainable activities
- Provision of functional literacy and numeracy courses
- Provision of technical courses on each of the selected activities
- Establishment of support to groups implementing, monitoring, and evaluating these activities.
### Table 5.4. Factors to Consider in Project Procurement from Local Enterprises

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identifying local content areas</th>
<th><strong>Existing businesses</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Identify areas within the project company that have potential for local procurement involving PAPs, including for example, catering, cleaning of offices and accommodations, building maintenance, small construction works, IT services, transportation, security, landscaping, waste management, and community liaison.</td>
<td><strong>Provide preliminary awareness of project procurement needs and requirements.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work with contractors (and their subcontractors, if needed) to identify areas where there is potential for local procurement.</td>
<td><strong>Provide management, technical, and administrative training, particularly in areas needed to meet project requirements.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Define quantitative objectives (in terms of value of local procurement per year) based on the PAPS' skills base collected at the baseline stage.</td>
<td><strong>Provide support in establishing commercial, technical, and financial offers to the project or its contractors.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have these objectives sanctioned by project senior management and ensure that associated instructions are given to the procurement department within the project or company.</td>
<td><strong>Establish links with larger contractors hired by the project.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strengthening existing local businesses and supporting the emergence of new businesses</strong></td>
<td><strong>Facilitate links with existing national or regional business support agencies and business organizations such as chambers of commerce.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Provide preliminary awareness of project procurement needs and requirements.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Facilitate links with NGOs and donors working in the area of SME support.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Provide management, technical, and administrative training, particularly in areas needed to meet project requirements.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Facilitate links with financial institutions, such as commercial banks and microfinance lenders.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Provide support in establishing commercial, technical, and financial offers to the project or its contractors.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Encourage the recruitment of PAPs, possibly through a positive discrimination system, such as a partly subsidized position, if it is legally permissible in the jurisdiction.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Establish links with larger contractors hired by the project.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Use project leverage where such exists, via banks, national government agencies, and contractors.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Strengthening existing local businesses and supporting the emergence of new businesses | **New businesses**  
Where business needs may be satisfied by a PAP business, identify individuals or groups willing to embark on business creation.  
Provide guidance and training on business establishment (legal form, registration, legal documentation, business planning, equipment, recruitment, and so on) until the business is established.  
Monitor business activity for any issues and provide regular refreshment training.  
Implement points listed under “existing businesses.” |
|---|---|
| Making sure local procurement benefits PAPs | **Consider prioritizing enterprises managed by PAPs or employing PAPs in project procurement: give specific support in the bidding and contract implementation processes.**  
Consider gender aspects of hiring: quota, priority or specific support to enterprises managed by women, and so on. |
| Establishing project standards and terms of purchase | **Consider unbundling large contracts into smaller ones to allow local enterprises to compete.**  
Simplify bidding procedures to accommodate the lower administrative and financial capacity of local enterprises.  
Where needed, adapt health and safety standards to avoid unnecessary hurdles to small, local enterprises while meeting the objectives of IFC’s PS2 and PS4.  
Establish reasonable payment terms with an initial down payment without bond or other guarantee.  
Provide training and capacity building to local enterprises on subjects such as tender and proposal preparation; health, safety, and environment requirements; and administrative, technical, and financial procurement requirements.  
When faced with administrative issues raised by procurement departments, don’t take no for an answer, and seek a reasonable compromise. |
Box 5.7. Examples of Income-Generating Activities for Developing Countries

- Garment production, including knitting, weaving, dyeing, and tailoring
- Breeding of small animals (poultry, rabbits, and so forth)
- Production of mushrooms or hydroponic vegetables or fruit
- Food processing, packaging and marketing, including production of butter and cheese, production of flour or semolina from grain or tubers, drying or canning of fruit, and production of oil
- Beekeeping and production of honey
- Soap and cosmetic production
- Handicrafts, including embroidery, basketwork, and jewelry
- Fish farming, production of mollusks or shrimps, drying, smoking, salting, and packaging
- Production of salt

D. Fisheries

361. The creation of reservoirs in hydropower developments provides opportunities for the enhancement of fishery activities, through the creation of better and safer landing sites and enhancement of marketing and the cold chain. The transition from river fishing to lake fishing may be necessary. In Africa, it has been observed in several HPPs with large reservoirs that fishing in the reservoir tended to benefit migrants better equipped for this transition, while for lack of training and support, local fisherpeople could not benefit. This is a potential obstacle that must be assessed based on experience of other projects in neighboring areas and managed in cooperation with local communities, fisherpeople representatives, and local authorities.

362. An example of activities meant to enhance fisherpeople’s livelihoods is presented in box 5.8.
Box 5.8. Compensating Fisheries and Enhancing Livelihoods in Turkey

BTC Pipeline project, Turkey

Ceyhan Marine Terminal is the end point of the Baku Tbilisi Ceyhan crude oil pipeline. It comprises two sets of facilities:
- 7 crude oil storage tanks, associated receiving and process facilities, loading lines, administration and control buildings;
- 2.5 km jetty capable of berthing two tankers simultaneously.

Photo B5.8.1: Jetty at the Ceyhan Marine Terminal

Photo B5.8.2: Overview of the Terminal with Tank Farm and Jetty

In a context of depleting fish stocks and catches and high community expectations, the extension of the restriction areas associated with vessel maneuvering led to conflict with local fishermen. Local Turkish legislation was not descriptive on compensation and livelihood restoration for fishermen. With advice from IFC, the project sponsor embarked into the preparation of a Livelihood Restoration Plan specifically targeting affected fishermen. This included the following activities:

- Verification of the geographical extent of the impact and individuals actually affected (Household questionnaires, mapping exercise, “On-the-water” survey of fishing grounds with fishermen, consultation with other regional stakeholders (Coast guard, port authority, fish traders, village leaders, and so on), control group survey.

- Clarification of eligibility criteria for fishermen (holding a fishing license and residing in Gölovası Village, active participation in fishing activities as full-time crew member; and not being involved full-time in any other activity than fishing), and declaration of cut-off date.

- Baseline survey to determine household and fishing income of each affected individual (literature review, consultation with stakeholders and experts, household income surveys (74 questions to 48 fishermen and 26 control group, registration of fish catches at different periods)).
Calculating the impact on fishing income, using a Net Present Value formula over the 20 years average life of a fishing boat, and excluding other income streams;

- Identification of sustainable livelihood compensation packages, including: a social security package, health insurance, property (purchase of structures), purchase of vehicles and tractors, debt repayment, support to business establishment;

- Compensation and implementation of livelihood enhancement activities as well as community development activities at community level (training, support to tourism development, and so forth).

Complaints were numerous, particularly from individuals deemed not eligible, but a robust grievance management system helped to avoid escalation.

VI. URBAN LIVELIHOODS CONSIDERATIONS

363. There is growing recognition that resettlement programs based on moving inner-city households to peri-urban locations often have a detrimental impact on household livelihoods. Such programs have proven problematic for informal dwellers. There is an emerging preference for resettlement based on rehousing people and businesses, and helping them maintain or reestablish existing livelihoods, within inner-city areas. Inner-city resettlement is likely to increase project acceptability to displaced families and offers more sustainable livelihood opportunities.

A. Characteristics

364. Developing and implementing livelihood programs in an urban setting is usually far more complex than in a rural context. Contributing factors include the following:

- Urban areas tend to be administered by multiple government and municipal agencies that need to be involved in planning, approving, and implementing resettlement and livelihood programs. This can make it challenging to achieve alignment and obtain approvals, and it can also offer resources and technical support.

- Urban residents are often much more knowledgeable, resourceful, and assertive than their rural counterparts. This can be an asset when channeled through constructive participation or a liability when there is conflict or litigation.
• Urban livelihoods tend to be far more diverse than in rural contexts. Livelihood restoration and enhancement measures need to be tailored to meet the needs and locational requirements or dependencies of multiple groups: salary and wage earners, business owners, retailers, informal stallholders, formal and informal service providers, artisans, home businesses, and so on.

• Urban projects can involve displacement of significant numbers of informal dwellers whose livelihoods often rely on very localized demands for services (for example, street stallholders, pedi-cab drivers, domestic workers, and casual labor) or access to resources (for example, waste for recycling).

• Land for reestablishing businesses and livelihoods is more often than not scarce, expensive, and occupied.

• Urban environments are dynamic, with multiple projects occurring simultaneously and involving complex vested interests. This can lead to opportunities and synergies for livelihood development or challenges if there is an absence of forward-looking urban planning.

B. Organization

• Establish early in the resettlement process steering and working groups with substantial PAP representation to ensure effective coordination, alignment, and information transfer among all key stakeholders, including the relevant government and municipal agencies.

• Design livelihood working groups to represent the full range of livelihood interests displaced by the project: wage and salary earners, different types of businesses, informal service providers, informal and formal stallholders, artisans, transport workers, and women and youth representatives.

• Where feasible, work with existing business organizations, artisan groups, and associations that have established networks and bring detailed knowledge about their sectors and members.

• Consider utilizing suitably experienced urban-focused civil society organizations to broaden the reach of engagement, mobilize displaced communities and businesses, and coordinate participation.

C. Factors to Consider

365. Critical success factors for managing urban livelihoods include the following:

• Establish a strong steering group to oversee urban livelihoods program delivery. The group should meet regularly, be informed by independent mid- and final livelihood program evaluations, and be prepared to adapt programs in response to arising opportunities and constraints—adaptive management is critical.

• Use qualitative and quantitative baseline studies with broad engagement to gain an in-depth understanding of the formal and informal social and economic networks and resources that displaced households and businesses rely on for livelihood purposes. Understand the various locational dependencies and requirements of affected households and businesses.

• Use skilled and experienced implementing partners (development NGOs and municipal or other government teams) to mobilize displaced households and businesses so that they can express preferences and participate fully in all decisions about livelihood opportunities.
• Where they exist, assist displaced people so they can take advantage of vocational training and livelihood programs offered by the government or other local or regional institutions. Ideally, these should result in nationally recognized qualifications or skills certification.

• Integrate urban resettlement and livelihood programs with wider municipal planning and economic strategies. For example, if a municipality is planning to develop a new market, examine ways for project displaced formal and informal stallholders to be accommodated within those plans.

• Where impacts are geographically extensive or occur over a protracted period, break the resettlement process, including livelihood programs, into defined stages. This results in more focused and effective use of resettlement personnel and resources and limits the period of disruption on displaced households and business.

• Pay particular attention to meeting the needs and facilitating participation of vulnerable households, including informal dwellers.

• Recognize that government agency and municipal budgets are typically established annually. If these bodies are to form part of project livelihood initiatives, they need time to provide a budget and resources.

• Maintain a GM that is accessible, transparent, and provides timely redress.

VII. TRANSITIONAL SUPPORT

366. Transitional support should be provided as necessary to all economically displaced persons, based on a reasonable estimate of the time required to restore their income-earning capacity, production levels, and standards of living. As the name implies, transitional support is typically provided to cover the period from the time a displaced households’ original livelihood is dismantled (when they physically relocate or when their land and assets are relinquished to the project) until their new incomes start flowing or sustainable harvests are achieved from replacement agricultural lands (for example, upon completion of the first successful crop cycle). In the case of urban resettlement, transitional support may take the form of allowances to cover additional costs of food and transport when a displaced worker is required to commute.

367. Transitional support may be provided in the form of a cash allowance, vouchers, in-kind support, or through payment for work. For households, cash or in-kind allowances should be calculated on a per-household-member basis to account for the differing subsistence needs of large or small households. Some examples of different kinds of transitional support are summarized in table 5.5. In each case, the type of support has been designed in response to the nature of the livelihood that has been impacted and the period required to restore or reestablish replacement income or production.
Table 5.5. Examples of Project Transitional Support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project</th>
<th>Type of support</th>
<th>Duration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A gas pipeline project passing through household gardens in the Papua New Guinea Highlands</td>
<td>Monthly delivery of a food package designed to meet household nutritional needs</td>
<td>Six months: the period it would take a reasonably diligent household to clear forest, cultivate beds, and plant and harvest a crop of sweet potato sufficient to meet household needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal stallholder displaced for trenching works in Ghana’s capital, Accra</td>
<td>Flat-rate cash allowance meant to offset the disturbance created by the trenching work (digging, laying the water pipeline, and closing the trench)</td>
<td>Three months, paid in one installment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A small roadside enterprise in Azerbaijan demolished for laying of gas pipelines before construction of replacement premises could be completed</td>
<td>The enterprise owner was paid rent for his land and premises until the replacement building was completed. The rental payment covered the owner’s lost profit. Enterprise employees were employed as temporary cleaners by the project construction contractor.</td>
<td>More than 12 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A petrochemical project requiring rural-to-urban resettlement in the People’s Republic of China</td>
<td>Monthly cash allowance calculated for each household member, equivalent to the urban minimum wage</td>
<td>Twenty-four months; the estimated period for household members of working age to register as urban unemployed, complete skills training, apply for and obtain city jobs; or establish small businesses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VIII. OTHER AVENUES FOR LIVELIHOOD RESTORATION AND IMPROVEMENT

A. Benefit Sharing

368. Benefit sharing seeks to distribute a share of project benefits back to project-affected persons, communities, or local governments: that is, to those that lose land and assets or otherwise bear the social and environmental costs of a project. Benefits may be monetary, such as through sharing equity, royalties, or project revenues, or nonmonetary, such as through improved infrastructure or long-term business opportunities.

369. Benefit sharing does not replace the need for compensation for lost individual assets and livelihood restoration, but it can be used as a means to compensate for loss of access to natural
resources, with a focus on supporting sustainable, long-term livelihood improvement. Benefit sharing can contribute to a life-of-project revenue stream that can be used for ongoing improvements in the standard of living and livelihood. It can also foster trust and mutual interests between the project developer and local communities: that is, it can strengthen a community’s sense of ownership in a project and the project’s social license to operate.

370. Benefit sharing is sometimes a requirement of national law, or it may be negotiated with the project developer as part of a benefits package. Dependent on the prevailing legislative regime or project agreements, monetary benefits received by a community might be retained for community development or distributed to individuals or households.

371. Benefit-sharing mechanisms include the following:

- **Long-term lease of land.** Land for a project is leased from communal or individual owners (rather than purchased) and owners receive ongoing lease payments for the life of the project.
- **Equity share.** Project-affected individuals or communities are granted equity in the project.
- **Direct transfers of a fraction of revenues as royalties.** Communities are granted a percentage of the revenues or royalties generated by the project.
- **Contribution to a development fund or funds.** The project contributes to a trust or development fund that can be drawn on by local government, affected communities or individuals for prescribed purposes.
- **Levying of property taxes by local government.**

372. Benefits may also be nonmonetary, such as the following:

- Sponsor commitment to establish a community development fund that can be accessed by communities for socioeconomic development purposes
- Allocation of fishing rights to resettlers in a newly created reservoir or aquaculture rights within a project marine exclusion area
- Access to improved infrastructure, enabling affected persons to utilize project roads, access health care, or receive water for domestic use or irrigation
- Preferential electricity rates or reduced water-related fees
- Preferential hiring of affected persons during project construction or operations
- Preferential opportunities for affected persons to supply services

373. Where benefit sharing is voluntary, it is good practice for project sponsors to negotiate a community agreement with affected communities. A negotiated benefits agreement has advantages in that communities have some ownership over the process and can seek benefits that are best aligned to their interests.

**B. Facilitating Retirement and Pensions**

374. Older workers affected by displacement may experience greater difficulty than others in developing replacement livelihoods. This may be due to their inability to undertake the hard labor necessary to break in new land for agriculture, or because they are considered too old for
placement in wage-based employment. Older workers are also less likely to be able to take advantage of construction-based employment or training programs.

375. The preference is always that capable people of working age be given opportunities for productive employment, but under some circumstances the option for pensions or early retirement might be offered. In the People’s Republic of China, for example, it is not uncommon for resettlement plans to make provision for men over 55 years and women over 45 to be granted retirement pensions as part of livelihood compensation. In such cases, programs should meet the following criteria:

- Pensions plus compensation for loss of productive assets should be adequate for the individuals or households to maintain their previous living standard.
- Pensions must be sustainable, that is, guaranteed by the project sponsor or government implementing agency.
- The pension program should be equitable and accessible regardless of gender or ethnic background.
- Ideally, pensioners should have access to supplementary livelihood opportunities through access to land or part-time employment.

C. House Rental

376. Several completion audits of resettlement programs have shown that resettled people find it profitable and easy to rent out part of their resettlement house to project workers, as their new houses are often of a better standard than what is otherwise locally available. This is a simple and relatively cheap way to provide a livelihood-restoration avenue. Houses simply need to be designed to provide one or two rental rooms on top of the resettled household’s own needs. However, issues concerning the presence of outside workers in the community, such as a possible increase in social ills (for example, prostitution, alcohol, and drug abuse), and the loss or reduction of rental revenue upon completion of project construction, need to be discussed and addressed with affected households, community leaders, and representatives. Also, in areas with potential for tourism, renting rooms to tourists or pilgrims can provide a useful income complement (see box 5.6).

IX. PLANNING AN EXIT STRATEGY

377. Project support to re-establish livelihoods will necessarily have an end. A common challenge of livelihood-restoration programs is the significant preparation required to discontinue support. It is advisable to prepare the exit strategy at the design stage of the program, so that all activities are planned and all communication with PAPs includes the perspective of the eventual exit. This is not as straightforward as it seems, in part because implementation partners are not necessarily keen on preparing for their own discontinuation with the project. Exit strategy considerations are presented in table 5.6.

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16 The issue of how to assess completion, and particularly whether livelihood restoration programs have been successful, is addressed in module 7, “Monitoring and Evaluation” (section III.E.iii), “Defining ‘completion’”
Table 5.6. Factors to Consider in the Livelihood-restoration Exit Strategy

| Sustainability of activities | Have the activities been designed to be technically and economically sustainable: business planning, contingency plans, adequate technologies that can be maintained locally at affordable cost, and so on? Do local communities have the technical, financial, and organizational capability to maintain any facility created by the livelihood-restoration program? If not, have adequate training provisions been put in place, or could local NGOs provide ongoing support as part of their programs? What happens if there is an incident: for example, an epidemic that affects livestock provided under the program, or an unanticipated technical breakdown? What is the contingency plan for managing such unforeseen events? |
| Training, extension, and monitoring | Is there a government agency with the capacity to continue training and extension work initiated or enhanced by the project? Should the project enhance the capacity of this agency: technical abilities, human and material resources, vehicles, and IT? Will this agency also be able to carry out monitoring tasks and provide ad hoc advice where and when needed? If government is not present, are there NGOs with such ability? Under what budgetary conditions could they include PAPs in their normal activities? |
| Communication and engagement | Has it been clearly communicated to PAPs and stakeholders that the program would have an end, and that support was only a temporary measure to be discontinued after a defined period? Has the target end-date been communicated and emphasized to PAPs and stakeholders? Have the objectives of self-reliance and long-term sustainability been consistently communicated to PAPs from inception through all activities? |

X. GENDER CONSIDERATIONS

378. Resettlement can result in significant changes between genders in the livelihood burden, with women remaining responsible for certain expenses (for example, tuition fees and clothes for their children). This is the case where the livelihood streams that allowed them to care for these needs have been eliminated by the relocation, such as where those streams are associated with natural resources that are no longer accessible—salt extraction or NTFP gathering, for example (see box 5.9).
Box 5.9. Gender-Specific Priorities for Livelihood Restoration: An Example from Northern Russia

In an extractive project in northern Russia, when asked what should drive the selection of a resettlement site, women above 60 years almost unanimously mentioned access to forests for berry picking and mushroom gathering as their key criterion, while men were interested in proximity to project employment opportunities. This is because in this area women above 60 years tend to be widows with limited pensions and must complement their pensions with some additional cash income, which gathering, preparing and canning berries and mushrooms can provide. This livelihood stream was critical to women.

379. Relocation can put an additional burden on women’s livelihoods by affecting their work calendar and daily timetable, which often results in unavoidable stress. Strains can result from settling the new household, establishing new routines, breaking in new fields, and gathering fuelwood or water in unfamiliar settings. Women will possibly lose social networks for child minding or will “lose” a partner employed by the project or engaged in a time-consuming new livelihood.

380. The livelihood-restoration activities that are proposed for women must take these kinds of constraints into consideration. Experience indicates that, in many cultures, women’s groups can be cohesive around a common objective and are effective in implementing activities that require collective management. Women tend to manage collective property better than men, and risks of embezzlement are often lower. Women’s microsavings and microcredit groups often work well, as collective discipline and compliance with rules is often better than in men’s groups. When presenting income-generating activities, scholarship availability, employability enhancement, or small business support, women’s groups success stories can be a useful catalyst for the whole community, including men. There are several examples of men applying to join successful women’s groups.

XI. IMPLEMENTING LIVELIHOOD RESTORATION AND IMPROVEMENT

A. Procurement of Delivery Partners

381. In private-sector projects, livelihood-restoration activities are often delivered through experienced in-country developmental NGOs, sometimes in combination with government agencies or under their supervision. This is a proven formula, and many experienced developmental NGOs have experience with similar arrangements: for example, working for a private-sector company, typically under the banner of corporate social responsibility activities. When procuring such a partner, the following factors should be considered:

- Its presence in country and its track record with similar developmental activities in the same area or under similar conditions elsewhere
- Acceptability to all stakeholders, especially the affected persons and the government
- Availability of experienced field and management staff to effect implementation
- Adequacy of suggestions about activities that can work, including implementation models
- Adherence to project policies, including the relevant PSs (particularly PS2, PS4, PS5, and PS7, if applicable).
- Cost and implementation schedule
382. Bidding documents should allow for some flexibility in the responses, so that partners can suggest approaches, activities, and implementation models that they are comfortable with and have used successfully. It is also possible to call for ideas or design a competition approach, whereby in a first stage partners are invited to submit their views and suggestions for the livelihood-restoration program (with possibly a reward to all competitors to offset their proposal and design cost), including the technical description of activities, a detailed costing, and an implementation model and schedule.

B. Working with Government

383. Project livelihood programs often overlap with the responsibilities of local, regional or national levels of government in areas such as land-use planning, education, vocational training, labor and employment, agriculture, fisheries, forestry, and natural resource use. Engagement with government about its programs and capacity to assist with livelihood restoration should happen early in planning. Sometimes, it may be desirable to enter into an agreement with the government to provide clarity of roles and distribute responsibilities at the stages of planning, implementation, and monitoring.

384. Depending on the scale of a project’s livelihood activities and the governance systems in the local jurisdiction, the government potentially has a role in the following:

- Providing statistical information about local livelihood activities, production levels, and statutory compensation rates
- Assisting with finding and facilitating access to replacement agricultural land
- Supporting the project in managing encroachment and squatters
- Registering unemployed workers and facilitating job placement
- Extending government training, employment, and livelihood programs to project-displaced people
- Providing guidance to the sponsor to ensure that livelihood schemes are complementary and aligned with government policy and programs
- Providing planning and construction approvals
- Providing continuity of agricultural or other assistance and livelihood support once project responsibilities have been fulfilled—this forms part of the project exit strategy, see section VIII.C., “House Rental” of this module).

385. Where local government capacity needs to be strengthened, sponsors should consider inviting relevant government officers to observe or participate in key training activities and progress evaluations. A recent NGO innovation has been to second an agricultural manager from a project livelihood program to a funded two-year posting with local government once the livelihood program is complete. In return, the local government commits to create an agricultural position and fund extension of the role once the two years are over. This provides an exit strategy, maintains a reduced level of service to the livelihood program beneficiaries, and increases the local government’s agricultural capacity.

C. Involving Other Stakeholders

386. Depending on the context, other stakeholders may need to be involved, including the following:
Local CBOs, self-help groups, local initiative groups, and youth or women’s organizations

Bilateral or multilateral donors, which may be able to leverage some activities to the benefit of affected persons, but also and more generally have experience in some of the areas that livelihood restoration involves

United Nations agencies such as FAO, the UN Environmental Program, the UN Industrial Development Organization, and the International Fund for Agricultural Development

Development NGOs, including those not selected as implementation partners

Business organizations such as local and national chambers of commerce or employers’ unions in relevant sector

D. Duration of Livelihood Support

i) Duration of transitional support

387. As detailed in section IX., “Planning an Exit Strategy” of this module, it must also be clear upfront to all stakeholders, including the affected persons, that livelihood support will have an end.

388. The duration of transitional support must be assessed on a case-by-case basis (see also section VII., “Transitional Support” of this module). For wage-based employees in urban resettlement, in some cases, it may be sufficient to cover a few days or weeks of downtime during the moving period. Support may need to be extended to cover initial difficulties with transport from the resettlement site to places of employment. For rural farmers, one or two crop cycles may need to be covered.

ii) Duration of livelihood programs

389. This is again very context specific. Often, livelihood-restoration programs need to be extended, as objectives are not met within the anticipated period. For land-based programs, three years should be regarded as a minimum implementation period, and more time may be needed where changes in practices (intensification, irrigation) are required.

iii) Follow-up support for those needing additional time

390. Some people may take more time to adapt. Completion audits often find that a sizable proportion of households have not reestablished their livelihoods within the anticipated period. However, when this is identified only at completion audit, it is often already too late, implementation partners have been demobilized, and the cost of supporting these households becomes higher. Regular monitoring (see section module 7.III.B., “Impact Monitoring”) well ahead of the completion audit (see module 7.III.E., “Completion Audit”) should help identify households that struggle, and timely supplemental support should be provided.
XII. CONCLUSION: DO’S AND DON’TS

Table 5.7. The Do’s and Don’ts of Livelihood Restoration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do’s</th>
<th>Don’ts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Create links with government and nongovernmental initiatives targeting the same groups, the same area, and similar activities</td>
<td>Work in isolation from other, similar initiatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create links with the project procurement needs</td>
<td>Use unproven techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create links with the project community development strategy</td>
<td>Expect traditional subsistence farmers to quickly embrace new techniques or completely change their activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adopt an individualized approach to livelihood restoration, particularly where numbers of affected persons are small</td>
<td>Expect results over a short period of time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop a sound exit strategy during the planning stage and communicate up front that the transition support will have an end</td>
<td>Miss the increase in risks entailed by more intensive activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start early, possibly even before the displacement takes place, to test methods and win goodwill</td>
<td>Miss gender-specific livelihood streams and provide only for the training and support needs of male affected persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Define completion objectives clearly per the RAP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Look at gender implications of proposed livelihood-restoration activities</td>
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</tbody>
</table>