GENDER ANALYSIS AND IMPACT ASSESSMENT:

CANADIAN AND INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCES

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Gender analysis is increasingly used in a range of policy and project assessment settings and is an established tool in international development assistance. While there is a range of gender analysis tools in use, common qualities and approaches are evident. Gender analysis seeks to determine the differential impacts of policies, programmes, and development options on people, based on their gender identity and other intersecting factors. Gender analysis considers the intersection of gender and other identity factors that can contribute to the social and economic situations within which people live. It helps identify and mitigate the potential impacts of development on different groups of people, such as women, men, gender-diverse individuals, and (other) marginalized groups.

This review describes gender analysis, its origins and development, frameworks, and methods for the practice of gender analysis in impact assessment (IA). Concepts are drawn from both the Canadian national and international contexts, with an emphasis on natural resources development. Case studies are outlined to illustrate applicability. The review highlights implementation approaches and challenges.

There is increasing interest in applying gender analysis in impact assessment. In Canada, new federal IA legislation includes a requirement to consider impacts on diverse groups of people, as well as the intersection of gender with other identity factors (Canada 2018). Through use of gender analysis tools both alongside and integrated into the IA process, the impacts of development on diverse groups can be identified and mitigated, while also empowering marginalized groups through better and more inclusive participation, and involvement in decision-making.

There are seven key lessons for impact assessment practice:

1. Impacts related to the intersection of gender and other identity factors will be present in some form for almost all projects.

2. Seeing and thinking about gender and other identity factors should occur early in the project process.

3. Gender analysis begins with data collection. This creates an understanding of the social and economic setting, and helps practitioners to begin to understand the impacts of the project on different groups of people.

4. Gender analysis may best be implemented through the lens of social/economic impact assessment, where established tools and approaches can be adapted to integrate gendered perspectives and gender issues into the impact assessment process.

5. Gender analysis will be most effective and beneficial if it is integrated into all stages of the impact assessment process.

6. Considering gender in project planning and development can provide an opportunity to improve project benefits and develop innovative approaches to employment, community engagement, and timely project implementation and operation.

7. A gender analysis can supports risk management by providing knowledge about project impacts, understanding mitigation needs, and opportunities for enhancing project benefits.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASM	Artisanal Small-Scale Mining
EA	Environmental Assessment
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
FEWO	Standing Committee on the Status of Women (Canada)
GA	Gender Analysis
GAC	Global Affairs Canada
GAD	Gender and Development
GBA	Gender-Based Analysis
GBA+	Gender-Based Analysis Plus
GIA	Gender Impact Assessment
IA	Impact Assessment
ILO	International Labour Organization
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PCO	Privy Council Office
SIA	Social Impact Assessment
SLA	Sustainable Livelihoods Approach
SRA	Social Relations Approach
SWC	Status of Women Canada
TBS	Treasury Board of Canada Secretariat
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNSD	United Nations Statistics Division
WID	Women in Development

1. INTRODUCTION

This review describes gender analysis (GA), its origins and development, frameworks, and methods for advancing the practice of gender analysis in impact assessment (IA). Concepts are drawn from both the Canadian national and international contexts, with an emphasis on sharing and highlighting experiences gained from recent Canadian efforts to integrate gender analysis into impact assessment, and ongoing work to connect it to other policy settings.

The implementation of GA in international development assistance is well-established, while its role in IA is advancing. Case studies are used to illustrate applicability and provide an illustration of how GA can be implemented. While the focus is on thinking about GA within an IA setting, there is also an emphasis on natural resources development and related projects. However, many of the points illustrated can be applied at a strategic level to the assessment of policies, plans, and programmes.

For consistency, we use the term *gender analysis* in this review (GA). When other terms are used, this indicates the term used in a specific framework, process, or by another author. In the IA context, the term *development* refers to activities that involve physical projects.

What is gender analysis?

Knowledge about what gender inequality is and how it is perpetuated is key to tackling gender inequalities. Inequity can be reinforced by and also impact development policies, programmes, and projects. **Gender analysis** or **gender-based analysis** is an analytical process that generates such an understanding, and helps inform development and planning decisions. Gender analysis supports decision-making by providing specific information and knowledge about the context, impacts, and potential costs and benefits of development for diverse groups.

Global Affairs Canada describes GA as:

> *...the variety of methods used to understand the relationships between men and women, their access to resources, their activities, and the constraints they face relative to each other (GAC 2017b, par. 1).*

Gender analysis can be used to help advance sustainability goals by enhancing an understanding of how gender equality can be better promoted in development (GAC 2017b). Policies, programmes, and projects may be gender-specific or gender-integrated. Gender–specific refers to initiatives that promote affirmative action or equal opportunity regardless of gender, while gender-integrated refers to initiatives that promote gender equality (Canada 2013).

Gender Equity and Gender Equality

Gender Equity refers to the fair treatment of women, men, and other gender identities. Fairness ensures that all individuals have the opportunity to function as equals. This could be achieved by compensating for social, economic, and historical disadvantages that prevent equal opportunity.

Gender Equality is the end goal, while gender equity is a means of achieving it. Gender equality means that women and men hold the same status and have equal access to opportunities, resources, and rights, as well as the potential to contribute to social, cultural, and economic development and benefit equally from the results.

Source: GAC 2017a

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There are different methods and tools for conducting GA. For example, in Canada, the federal agency Status of Women Canada (SWC) has been active in advancing the concept. SWC uses the term gender-based analysis plus (GBA+), which is defined as:

> *...an analytical tool used to assess how diverse groups of women, men and gender-diverse people may experience policies, programs and initiatives (SWC 2016, par. 2).*

The GBA+ approach seeks to move beyond gender and sex. The "plus" in GBA+ emphasizes the consideration of intersectionality and includes identity factors such as age, education, ethnicity, race, religion, income, culture, and other characteristics (SWC 2017a). This means that the experiences of individuals are influenced by an interaction of identities and characteristics (FemNorthNet 2016). An understanding of interactions and intersections is needed to best identify the differential impacts affecting different groups of people. GBA+ is one of several recognized tools used to achieve gender mainstreaming. Gender mainstreaming is an internationally used term defined by the United Nations as:

> *... a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality (UN 1997, 2).*

Source: http://www.cihr-irsc.gc.ca
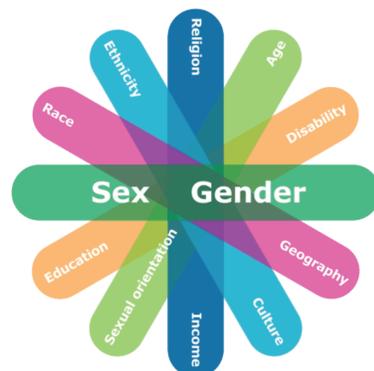
Sex and Gender

Sex refers to specific biological attributes, both physical and physiological, of all individuals and is usually classified as male or female.

Gender is socially constructed and refers to the cultural characteristics, social behaviours, expressions, and identities of all individuals. Gender is often categorized as woman or man, but other gender identities also exist.

Adapted from SWC 2017a.

Intersectionality

The concept of intersectionality comes from Kimberlé Crenshaw in her 1989 paper titled "Demarginalizing the intersection of race and sex: A black feminist critique of antidiscrimination doctrine, feminist theory and antiracist politics". In the context of gender-based policy, the concept was suggested in the wording of the 1995 *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action*, stating a need to "*Intensify efforts to ensure equal enjoyment of all human rights and fundamental freedoms for all women and girls who face multiple barriers to their empowerment and advancement because of such factors as their race, age, language, ethnicity, culture, religion, or disability, or because they are indigenous people*" (UN 1995, par.32).

Intersectionality is the consideration of various characteristics and identity factors, including gender, that are interwoven and acting together rather than unconnected and in isolation. The concept emphasizes that people are often disadvantaged by multiple factors.

For planning, assessment, and policy, it can help in practice to see intersectionality as a frame for seeing a person, a group, or a socio-economic issue as being shaped by an array of biases or discriminations. Intersectionality takes into account the intersecting and multiple characteristics and experiences that people may face. It also helps us understand the social and economic challenges people may face. We can then plan projects and assess impacts with these factors in mind.

Gender analysis tools and frameworks are often used to achieve gender mainstreaming and promote gender equality. Gender analysis tools are most often applied before and ongoing throughout the policy, programme or project, from development to evaluation (SWC 2016). They can also be applied post implementation to identity and assess the gendered impacts that were overlooked, and benefit future projects moving forward (Sauer 2013).

Gender analysis further challenges the notion that policies, programmes, and projects impact all individuals the same way. Using such an approach can help define and advance policies and initiatives that are inclusive to all individuals and promote gender equality.

Method and approach for this review

This review was completed using a literature review. Documents were identified and accessed through the UBC Library search engine, which draws on a wide variety of indexing services and databases. Other non-library databases, such as Google Scholar, were also used.

A preliminary keyword search was completed for articles related to both "impact assessment" and "gender analysis" or variations thereof, including "environmental assessment", "environmental impact assessment", "project assessment", "gender mainstreaming", "gender impact assessment", "gender based analysis". After reviewing the articles identified in this search, we expanded the review using a *snowball technique* to identify additional sources on concepts around gender and gender equality, and for describing the early gender analysis frameworks.

Government and other non-academic Internet accessible sources were included from the Government of Canada, Global Affairs Canada, Status of Women Canada, the International Labour Organization, the World Bank, the European Institute for Gender Equality, and other organizations.

The report was sent to four colleagues in government and civil society organizations for peer review. Their comments and critiques were integrated into the final version.

2. CANADIAN AND INTERNATIONAL ORIGINS

The concept of equal rights for women and men was first recognized internationally in the United Nations (UN) Charter of 1945 and then highlighted in the 1948 UN Declaration of Human Rights. However, it was not until the late 1960s and 1970s that frameworks and approaches regarding gendered impacts began to emerge in a development context calling for social justice and the integration of women in development planning and practice (Miller and Razavi 1995). This movement is referred to as Women in Development (WID), a title coined by a prominent group of female development professionals in Washington (Tinker 1990).

In the 1980s, there began to be a shift in focus from *women* to *gender* bringing attention to socially constructed gender roles and challenging the way of viewing women in isolation to men (Moser 1993; Bacchi 2003). The shift led to the Gender and Development (GAD) approach to development practice (Miller and Razavi 1995). Both the WID and GAD approaches led to early gender analysis frameworks, which are discussed in section 4.

In the context of policy, the concept of gender analysis first appeared internationally at the 1995 United Nation's Fourth World Conference on Women, where a general lack of consideration and implementation of gender perspective in policy and development was highlighted. Participating nations developed and adopted the *Beijing Declaration* and *Platform for Action* outlining clear objectives and actions to better assess and mitigate gender inequalities and promote gender mainstreaming (UN 1995).

Implementing gender analysis in Canada

Canada responded to the *Beijing Declaration* and *Platform for Action* through the development and adoption of the *Federal Plan for Gender Equality* (1995) with a key objective to "implement gender-based analysis throughout federal departments and agencies" (Canada 1995). The *Federal Plan* built on Canada's prior international commitments related to human rights and gender equality through the adoption of the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948); *The United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)* (1979); Canada's *Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women* (1981); and *The United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women* (1993) (Canada 2013).

In Canada, the parliamentary Standing Committee on the Status of Women (referred to with the acronym FEWO) was established in 2004 to study and evaluate all work related to status of women undertaken by departments and agencies (House of Commons, 2015). FEWO prepared a report titled *Gender-based Analysis: Building blocks for success* (2005) that highlighted the importance of Gender-based analysis (GBA) as well as challenges regarding implementation in government departments and agencies (Neville & Standing Committee on the Status of Women 2005).

In 2009, Canada's Auditor General published a report on GBA practices across departments and agencies. By 2011, SWC had adopted the "plus" in GBA+ to move beyond gender and emphasize the consideration of other identity factors (SWC 2017a). A second review by the Auditor General was released in 2016 titled *Implementing Gender-based Analysis.* Both audits determined that despite efforts made by SWC, GBA was not being adequately implemented in various government departments and agencies (Auditor General of Canada 2016).

The Auditor General's final report concluded with three main recommendations highlighting the need for SWC, the Privy Council Office (PCO), and the Treasury Board of Canada Secretariat (TBS) to work alongside departments and agencies to: help identify barriers to implementation of GBA+; periodically assess and report on the progress of implementation; and assess needed resources for achieving the GBA+ mandate (Auditor General of Canada 2016).

In April 2016, SWC, PCO, and TBS responded to the Auditor General's report with the development of the *Action Plan on Gender-based Analysis: 2016-2020.* The plan outlined specific responses, activities, and targets to address each of the three recommendations brought forward by the Auditor General. The activities focus on:

- the identification of barriers to implementation through consultation;
- GBA capacity building through improved and accessible online resources; and
- improved monitoring, accountability, and reporting on GBA outcomes across government departments and agencies (SWC, PCO, & TBS 2016).

Since the *Action Plan,* SWC have launched the updated online GBA+ reference materials and training course (SWC 2016; SWC 2017a).

In 2019 the federal government passed a new IA act that included a requirement that decisions about approving projects consider impacts on diverse groups of people, as well as the intersection of gender with other identity factors.

3.   GENDER ANALYSIS AND IMPACT ASSESSMENT

Impact assessment (IA) is a process used to identify the potential consequences of a proposed or ongoing action (IAIA 2009). Hanna (2016) notes that environmental assessment (EA) is a process that:

1.   Defines a proposed activity (often called a project or development activity), the stages (construction, operation, refurbishment, decommissioning) and the actions these entail.

2.   Identifies the environmental context (biophysical, social and economic) where the activity will happen.

3.   Identifies possible impacts or effects of all stages of the activity on the environment.

4.   Proposes measures to mitigate or eliminate adverse effects, while providing and enhancing benefits.

5.   Provides a sense of the remaining impacts and their significance.

6.   Provides a plan for follow-up and monitoring of the effectiveness of mitigation, compliance with approval requirements, and the positive and adverse impacts of the project (Hanna 2016, 2).

IA is a planning and decision-making support tool. Ideally, it provides the best available information about environmental, health, and social-economic impacts. It helps inform decision-making. In project development, EA can be used to help determine whether or not a specific development, such as a mine, should proceed based on identified impacts, mitigation options, and the project's benefits.

Assessment Terms and Types

Environmental assessment (EA) is also referred to as environmental impact assessment (EIA) or impact assessment (IA). A shift from environmental assessment (EA) to impact assessment (IA) would indicate a process that evaluates not just the impacts of a project on the bio-physical environment, but also positive and negative social, health, economic, and cultural impacts (Canada, 2017). Some EA processes have adopted a holistic definition of the environment that also includes the human, economic, and social dimensions of places.

Impact assessment may focus on the effects of a project, such as a mine, road, hydro dam, or port. The term can also include broader approaches such as strategic assessment where policies, programmes and plans are assessed; regional assessments where a collection of activities within a region are reviewed and the approach is planning focused; class assessments, where a group of similar projects or activities are assessed together; or cumulative effects assessment, which focuses on the impacts of a project relative to other past, present and foreseeable projects or actions.

In some cases, gender is simply mainstreamed into the planning or assessment framework, but in certain cases it is a specific GA as part of the evaluation of a project. Gender can also be used as an analytical framework for monitoring and evaluation of project outcomes and impacts. This has become common in development assistance projects, beyond just in the planning phases, where funders see monitoring and evaluation as important for knowing what impacts a program or project has had.

The implementation of gender analysis may be difficult in some contexts in part because there is no single methodology, and the practice application in IA is not yet widespread.

Both IA and GA are well-established models, but it is relatively recent that efforts have been made to integrate GA approaches into the practices of IA. The most effective approach may be to integrate GA techniques and concepts into social impact assessment, which has a long practice history in IA, and an established set of methodologies, standard tools and approaches. This can provide a platform for effective implementation of GA into IA, and helps ensure that the issues and qualities that GA works to reveal are integrated into assessments of projects, policies and plans.

Social impact assessment (SIA) is defined as:

> *...the process of analyzing (predicting, evaluating and reflecting) and managing the intended and unintended consequences on the human environment of planned interventions (policies, programs, plans, projects) and any social change processes invoked by those interventions so as to bring about a more sustainable and equitable biophysical and human environment (Vanclay 2002, 388).*

Methods in SIA follow both technical and political approaches. The identification and technical analysis of indicators such as population changes and relocations, changes to community and institutional organizations, as well as community infrastructure needs, is central to SIA (Parkins and Mitchell 2016). Burdge (2004) provides a comprehensive list of social indicators for use in assessment. Alongside technical approaches, political approaches to SIA tend to focus on historical and cultural contexts, as well as inclusive participation opportunities and decision-making processes (Parkins and Mitchell 2016).

SIA is conceptually guided by frameworks such as the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach, which is a comprehensive framework for understanding poverty and poverty reduction (Department for International Development 1999; Murray and Ferguson 2001). SIA can also integrate concepts of community vulnerability and resilience (Parkins and Mitchell 2016). In IA, GA frameworks may often adopt aspects of the methodologies recognized in SIA while adding and integrating a gendered perspective.

The challenge in implementing GA through social impact assessment is the risk that it may become just one criteria among many in SIA, rather than a distinctive tool that helps ensure gender issues and objectives are integrated into, or woven throughout, the assessment process.

In Canada, the role of gender in IA has been relatively unexplored in the literature, although the scholarship is emerging. Manning et al., (2018) outline the impotance of conducting GBA+ to strengthen IA for Indigenous women. While the importance of gender considerations is well-understood, further research highlights a lack of guidance on the integration of gender analysis into IA. For example, Kennedy Dalseg et al. (2018) undertook a thematic analysis of EA cases for three resource-extraction projects in the Canadian North. It was highlighted that the EA processes scarcely included gender-considerations and lacked meaningful participation of Indigenous women (Kennedy Dalseg et al. 2018). This observation supports an earlier analysis undertaken by the research consortium the Feminist Northern Network (FemNorthNet), who determined that there is little integration of IA and GBA in Canadian jurisdictions (FemNorthNet 2016). Similarly, Canada's Expert Panel for the review of EA processes' final report in April 2017 highlighted the lack of guidance and methodology regarding the application of GBA in EA (Environment Assessment Process Expert Review Panel 2017).

The federal government responded to the expert panel's review with a discussion paper released in June 2017 recommending a requirement of use of GBA+ in the IA process (Canada 2017). The proposed legislation seeks to overhaul the EA system and introduce a new impact assessment (IA) act. The proposed legislation also includes a requirement to consider impacts on diverse groups of people, as well as ***the intersection of gender with other identity factors*** (Canada 2018). This would be achieved through the use of gender analysis tools woven into the IA process.

When a project is subject to the federal IA process, gender considerations will be required of the proponent. The aim is to provide "a more holistic picture of a project's impacts on communities to better inform decision-making" (Canada 2018, 4). This holistic approach will require a broader perspective on how communities are understood, and a more expansive definition and collection of baseline data to include social and identity factors that may not be commonly accounted for in IA.

Common impacts of development include environmental (air quality, water quality, sea-ice extent, vegetation, terrestrial/marine wildlife, etc.), health (safety, disease, health services, etc.), and socio-economic (employment, infrastructure development/strain, training, economic development, traditional/cultural areas of significance, etc.) impacts. Manning et al. (2018) note the specific impacts of resource development activities on Indigenous women, but their list is relevant to other contexts and groups:

- Employment and Business Opportunities
- Education and Training
- Socio-Economic Status
- Housing
- Childcare
- Social Services and Infrastructure
- Health
- Substance Use and Abuse
- Sex Work
- Violence, Crime, and Safety
- Food and Water Security
- Culture, Traditions, Rights, and Sovereignty

The list suggests needs, risks, and negative impacts. However, some points also highlight opportunities for positive benefits from projects. For example, employment and training may be needs, but they also convey opportunity. Similarly, housing, childcare, social services, and infrastructure may be impacts or needs identified through the IA process, but they can also become benefits that extend beyond the lifetime of a project.

Potential negative impacts would require the identification of mitigation strategies, the determination of which groups were at greatest risk, and how these impacts can be reduced or eliminated. The role of the project in exacerbating existing adverse conditions would also be assessed, and opportunities for improvement and mitigation can be built into project implementation. These can also shift throughout the project's lifetime. Some negative impacts may be more substantial during initial stages, but diminish during later ones. For example, housing shortages in a particular area might be acute during the construction of a dam, but demand may decline notably once the project is in operation and fewer workers are needed. This shift may also be observed for other impacts.

Vernooy (2006) highlights that an understanding of gender and other intersecting factors is integral to an analysis of social relations and development, notably in the natural resource sector. Since the IA process is often triggered by resource development projects, the integration of gender analysis in the process could ensure that there is an improved understanding of the gender relations governing the access, use, and control of the resources. The integration of gender analysis can also provide opportunities for marginalized individuals and groups not only to have greater access and control over resources, but also realize more benefits from the projects (Vernooy 2006). In addition, the consideration of gender and other intersecting factors in natural resources development aligns with sustainability and sustainable development objectives, which can and should include gender equality (UN 2015).

Gender analysis could also be used in IA to help identify impacts and their effects on all individuals or groups. This knowledge can then be used to mitigate the negative impacts and promote opportunities and benefits for men, women, and gender-diverse people. Gender analysis can identify positive impacts of project developments, where the initiatives would be supported as well as promote best practices for future developments.

Examples of gender analysis in impact assessment

The following examples illustrate situations where gender analysis has been and can be used in impact assessment. Information for best practices is highlighted for each example.

1. A gender analysis may be used to survey the impacts on worker's families that result from a fly-in/fly-out schedule for a remote mining project, and then help and to develop solutions. For example, a single-parent may bear substantial negative impacts when compared to other groups of workers. This negative impact was highlighted in Baker Lake, Nunavut, where interviews with community members identified barriers to being able to work on the nearby Meadowbank mine, including the inability to work with a "two-weeks-on/two-weeks-off" schedule due to childcare needs, and the lack of access to childcare services in the community (Bernauer 2011)*.*

Potential solutions include the allocation of resources towards improved childcare infrastructure and capacity in the community, as well as the implementation of flexible schedules to accommodate diverse workers.

2. A gender based consultation project was carried out in Happy-Valley-Goose-Bay, Labrador with over 100 local women to determine their perspectives and insights regarding the Muskrat Falls Hydroelectric development on the Churchill River. This consultation project was separate from the main EA and only consulted with women. This was because consultations with women were not done during the EA, and the need emerged as a gap. Through a community-based participatory action research initiative, it was determined that the local women have a significant connection to the river which they used for hunting, trapping, and foraging, as well as an important meeting place for families and friends (Baikie and Dean 2015).

By identifying community concerns, the proponent can develop relevant strategies for all community members, such as employment opportunities for women who use the river, as well as the identification and protection of areas for their continued use by seeing these locales as significant places.

3. A gender analysis can be used in the assessment of energy or mining projects to evaluate the range of employment needs, determine opportunities for different groups, and then outline the education or training provisions needed to support a diverse workforce. For example, a mining company in Pakistan identified capacity constraints in the health sector and decided to undertake an initiative to train female health workers to later work on the mine and offer further health and hygiene services to fellow workers. This initiative built capacity and promoted empowerment (Yasmeen 2015; Hill, Madden, and Collins 2017).

After the mine was decommissioned, the women were able to use their training and gain employment elsewhere in the economy. This contributes to advancing gender responsive outcomes, and supports broader sustainability objectives by supporting skill and capacity development that outlasts the project's lifetime (Hill, Madden, and Collins 2017).

4. Gender analyses can play a key role in establishing a company plan for creating a welcoming and supportive workplace environment for all workers, notably those who may face marginalization or discrimination in similar work settings. For example, a study of Inuit women's experiences at the Meadowbank mine in Nunavut revealed that the primary reasons why women left their employment positions at the mine included sexual harassment and assault, gender discrimination, and lack of child-care (Nightingale et al. 2017).

A gender analysis can identify these issues and help the company to formulate strategies, plans, and policies to address the concerns and create a safe and inclusive workplace experience, support worker retention, and reduce the impacts/costs of worker replacement.

4. FRAMEWORKS

There is no universal gender analysis framework. However, many tools and processes have been developed for use in policy, programme, and project evaluation. It is also important to note that frameworks are developed based on varied definitions of gender, different assumptions regarding gender relevance, and different aims (March et al., 1999). No single framework is applicable to all types of project or contexts.

It helps to understand the basic outlines of a range of frameworks. This can support practitioners as they seek to determine which approach is most appropriate to their context and surroundings.

In this section, we provide an overview of important early frameworks. These approaches helped build and strengthen the conceptual foundations of gender analysis. This is followed by an overview of selected recent frameworks, as well as two case studies that illustrate the different ways in which recent frameworks are being implemented in practice. A summary comparison of the advantages and limitations of frameworks is provided in Table 1. This summary comparison is based on criteria derived from a review of the literature.

Initial frameworks

Gender analysis frameworks have been widely used since the 1970s, with a particular focus on development contexts (Warren 2007). The Oxfam publication *A guide to gender-analysis frameworks* by March, Smyth, and Maitrayee (1999) provides an overview of early gender analysis frameworks including the Harvard Analytical Framework, Moser's Gender Planning Framework, Gender Analysis Matrix, Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis, Women's Empowerment Framework, and Social Relations Approach. Other early frameworks include the Rural Appraisal, Rapid Rural Appraisal, and the FAO's Gender Analysis Framework, among many others developed for specific sectors and areas (Warren 2007).

It is important to note that some early frameworks are largely conceptual and that there may be few documented examples of implementation and practice. It is helpful to consider and assess tools and frameworks against a set of criteria, such as usability, accessibility, policy or planning integration potential. However, the lack of case studies can limit such an evaluation. Here, we describe each framework and outline advantages and limitations based on criteria and discussions identified in the literature.

The Harvard Analytical Framework, also referred to as the Gender Roles Framework, was developed in 1985 by the Harvard institute for International Development, in collaboration with the Women in Development (WID) affiliation of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) (March et al. 1999). It is considered one of the earliest and most widely used gender analysis frameworks (International Labour Organization 1998; GAC 2017b).

The aim of the framework is to improve the productivity and efficiency of projects through the allocation of resources to both men and women. This is achieved through a matrix mapping system where work and resources are evaluated based on their distribution and applicability to men/boys and women/girls. The framework includes the use of four tools: an activity profile matrix, an access and control profile matrix, an influencing factors matrix, and a checklist for project-cycle analysis (see Overholt et al. 1985 for detailed information regarding the framework).

Advantages of the Harvard Analytical Framework include its practicality and ability to be applied and adapted to a variety of projects. Limitations have been identified including: the requirement of a wide range of baseline data which may be difficult to access; the narrow basis of the framework on increasing project efficiency, thus offering gender-neutral or gender-specific results rather than gender-integrated results; and the lack of consideration of intersectionality and other inequality factors (ILO/SEAPAT 1998). Furthermore, as the framework is based on the consideration of gender-roles rather than gender-relations, challenges may arise when such relations are overlooked.

For example, a gender analysis based on the Harvard framework was used to improve a fish-processing project in Guinea. The analysis identified the division of labour where men caught the fish and women smoked and sold the fish. As a result, new stoves were given to groups of women to improve the efficiency of the work. However, as the framework does not consider gender relations, the fact that the women purchased the fish through established mutually-advantageous relationships with the fishermen was overlooked. This oversight resulted in the fishermen increasing the price of fish because they assumed the women were benefiting from external funds. The women were unable to afford fish at the increased price. Therefore, not only did the implementation fail, but it also disrupted an established social-economic system in the community (Kabeer 1994; March et al, 1999).

The Moser Gender Planning Framework is similar to the Harvard Framework in that it is based on the consideration of gender-roles, and can be used alongside the Harvard Framework for a more rigorous analysis regarding the planning of projects and policies (International Labour Organization 1998b).

The framework was developed in the 1980s by Caroline Moser at the Development Planning Unit of the University of London (March et al. 1999). It was intended to function as a planning tool, similar to transport planning, with the primary goal being "the emancipation of women from their subordination, and their achievements of equality, equity, and empowerment" (Moser 1993, 1). The framework aimed to achieve this through the use of six tools throughout the analysis: gender-roles identification, similar to the activity profile matrix of the Harvard Framework, with a distinction between reproductive, productive, and community work; a gender needs assessment based on practical needs such as water, health care, and food, as well as on strategic needs including leadership skills and ownership; a questioning of the control of resources and division of labour; consideration of linked-planning for balancing of gender-roles; a policy matrix to examine the potential impacts of various policy approaches based on welfare, equity, anti-poverty, efficiency, and empowerment; and the involvement of women and other relevant stakeholders in the planning process (March et al. 1999) (see Moser 1993 for detailed information regarding the framework).

Identified strengths of the Moser Framework include: the recognition of political considerations in planning, rather than solely technical considerations; the value and recognition of all types of work through distinguishing between types and asserting that women often occupy the "triple-role," meaning reproductive, productive, and community work roles; and the categorization of policy approaches (ILO/SEAPAT 1998). Potential limitations of the framework mirror those identified for the Harvard Framework, most notably the emphasis on gender-roles causing gender-relations to be potentially overlooked (ILO/SEAPAT 1998). Kabeer (1994) further critiques the triple-role concept for not acknowledging the difference between activities and outcomes.

Other gender analysis frameworks based on gender-roles include the *People Oriented Planning Framework* (March et al. 1999). As demonstrated in the above example of the fish-smoking community, challenges arise in the analysis when gender-relations are not considered. The following gender-analysis frameworks include the consideration of gender-relations both alongside and in absence of gender-roles.

The *Gender Analysis Matrix* was developed in 1993 by Rani Parker. The framework is most often used for programme evaluation, with an aim to identify the impacts from various interventions on men and women (UNDP 2001). The framework consists of an established matrix to be completed by the practitioner through community consultations. The matrix analyzes the levels of women, men, households, and community on the impact areas of labour, time, resources, and culture (See Parker 1993 for detailed overview of the framework).

Advantages of the Gender Analysis Matrix include its simplicity, bottom-up approach, and level of engagement, although limitations have been noted, including the lack of temporal evaluation and the disregard of intersecting factors with gender (UNDP 2001).

The ***Women's Empowerment Framework***, developed by Sara Hlupekile Longwe, aims to assess how a development/intervention supports women's empowerment. Women's empowerment is defined by Longwe as:

> *…enabling women to take an equal place with men, and to participate equally in the development process in order to achieve control over the factors of production on an equal basis with men (March et al. 1999, 92).*

The framework consists of two primary tools. The first tool is an assessment of the level of equality based on an equality hierarchy scale (Welfare, Access, Conscientisation, Participation, Control), where each level on the scale is assessed based on the identified impacts of the development/ intervention. The second tool assesses the levels of recognition of women's issues as either negative, neutral, or positive. Together, these two tools can be used in a matrix where each level of equality is assessed based on the three levels of recognition (See Longwe 1991 for a detailed overview of the framework).

The advantages of the Women's Empowerment Framework include its view of strategic gender needs as a progression from practical needs, which moves beyond the mutually exclusive distinctions present in the Moser Framework (March et al. 1999; ILO/SEAPAT 1998). Limitations of the framework include its view of equality as a hierarchy, which can lead to the assumption of empowerment as a solely linear process, as well as the neglect of the importance of relativity.

March et al., (1999) offer the example where the control of certain resources, such as simple agricultural tools, may be seen as more valuable (based on the hierarchy) relative to access to certain resources such as land. Further limitations include the examination of gender-relations from solely the perspective of equality, rather than the inclusion of relationships regarding rights and/or responsibilities (ILO/SEAPAT 1998).

The ***Social Relations Approach*** (SRA) was developed in the early 1990s by Naila Kabeer. The three primary aims of the framework are: the identification and analysis of gender inequalities regarding the distribution and control of resources, responsibilities, and power relationships; the analysis of gender-relations between people as well as their relationships with resources and activities; and the emphasis of human well-being as the end goal of the framework (Kabeer 1994). Rather than using tools throughout the framework, the Approach uses five primary concepts: Development as increasing human well-being; Social relations; Institutional analysis; Institutional gender policies; Immediate, underlying, and structural causes (March et al. 1999).

The SRA further highlights specific institutional sites for analysis including state, market, community, and family, as well as five dimensions of institutional relationships including rules, activities, resources, people, and power (ILO/SEAPAT 1998). Furthermore, gender policies are classified as either gender-blind or gender-aware, where the latter is further broken-down as gender-neutral, gender-specific, or gender-redistributive (ILO/SEAPAT 1998) (See Kabeer 1994 for detailed information regarding the framework).

The strengths and advantages of the SRA include the analysis of intersecting identity factors alongside gender, the linking of various levels of factors including both micro (household, community) to macro (state, market), as well as the emphasis on institutional analysis and inter-relations (March et al. 1999; ILO/SEAPAT 1998). The identified limitations include the complexity and level of detail needed to adequately complete the analysis, as well as the difficulty in defining what constitutes as an institution (March et al. 1999).

Table 1: Summary of advantages and limitations of primary gender analysis frameworks

Framework	Advantages	Limitations
The Harvard Analytical Framework (1985)	• Adaptable for use in multiple settings • Distinguishes between access and control of resources • Considers access to and control of resources	• Requires a wide range of data • Emphasizes efficiency rather than equity • Lack of gender-integrated results (focus on gender-neutral, gender-specific) • Does not consider intersectionality • Overlooks gender-relations
The Moser Gender Planning Framework (1980s)	• Adaptable for use in multiple settings • Considerations beyond technical concerns • Challenges inequality • Acknowledges reproductive, productive, and community work roles • Considers access to and control of resources • Considers strategic gender-needs (rather than solely practical needs)	• Requires a wide range of data • Does not consider intersectionality • Overlooks gender-relations • Does not capture power imbalances
Gender Analysis Matrix (1993)	• Simplicity • Bottom-up approach • Greater level of engagement • Considers gender-relations • Considers access to and control of resources • Simplicity (does not require an extensive amount of data, time, or resources) • Considers gender-relations (not solely gender-roles) • Considers strategic gender-needs (rather than solely practical needs)	• Lack of temporal evaluation • Does not consider intersectionality • Gender-expert facilitator required • Excludes macro and institutional analysis
Women's Empowerment Framework (1991)	• Considers intersectionality • Considers progression from practical to strategic gender needs • Emphasizes empowerment and change • Considers access to and control of resources • Considers gender-relations (not solely gender-roles) • Considers strategic gender-needs (rather than solely practical needs)	• Does not consider gender-relations • Views equality as a linear hierarchy • Strongly ideological
Social Relations Approach (1990s)	• Considers intersectionality • Considers inter-relations • Includes micro and macro analyses • Considers access to and control of resources • Considers gender-relations (not solely gender-roles) • Considers strategic gender-needs (rather than solely practical needs) • Considers change over time	• Complex • Requires high degree of detail • Gender can be watered-down by other considerations • Difficult to engage communities

Based on information in March et al. 1999 and ILO/SEAPAT 1998

Recent Frameworks

There are recently developed frameworks that are specific to project development, and may be better tailored for use in IA. These include GBA+, the FemNorthNet Framework, the EIGE's GIA, the Oxfam GIA frameworks, and the World Bank's Rapid Assessment toolkit, including a Gender and Artisanal Small-Scale Mining (ASM) Framework.

In Canada, the **GBA+ framework** is a seven-step process outlined by SWC (2017b):

1. Identify the issue and surrounding social, cultural, and economic contexts

2. Challenge assumptions related to gender norms

3. Gather facts through research and consultation

4. Develop options and make recommendations based on research and consultations

5. Monitor and evaluate the initiative

6. Communicate findings and recommendations

7. Document the analysis

Steps 6 and 7 can be taken throughout the GBA+ process, alongside steps 1-5. SWC provides a set of guiding key questions to inform the analysis for each process step (see SWC 2017b for guiding questions and information).

A example of how the GBA+ framework might be used is provided in module 3 of the SWC GBA+ online training course (see SWC 2017a). This illustration uses a hypothetical scenario based on the forestry sector in Canada.

Source: https://cfc-swc.gc.ca/

Case Study 1: GBA+ and Forestry

(Adapted from SWC 2017a)

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Canada's forest industry has experienced significant change in recent decades. Consumers are seeking environmentally sustainable practices and products. Communities dependent on the forestry industry are facing challenges such as declining employment, decreasing timber supplies, trade uncertainties, and greater international competition. New developments in the industry such as the use of waste for value-added products, greater eco-tourism opportunities, and the development of bio-energy systems could potentially lead to a more sustainable industry while diversifying and supporting the economies of forest-based communities.

The first step of the GBA+ process is to identify the issue and its context. In this scenario, the Canadian Forest Service would undertake a GBA+ for the development of an initiative to support the environmental and economic sustainability of forest-based communities through strategic funding programmes.

The second step requires the practitioner to challenge assumptions about the forestry sector as well as forest-based communities. Examples of assumptions include the ideas that all forest-dependent communities can be treated the same way, that everyone based in those communities wants to be involved in forestry, and that those involved in the sector all have the same needs and wants. The third step involves collecting disaggregated data and gathering facts.

The perspectives of stakeholders are also necessary to develop a thorough understanding of the issues at play. Because forestry workers who occupy supervisory and managerial roles are often consulted more regularly than under-represented groups, an effort to engage with groups such as women and Indigenous workers is essential to an inclusive participation process. Consulting individuals with knowledge of local forests and ecosystems is also essential; this could include community elders, forest-sector organizations, and/or technical experts.

Three examples of facts and disaggregated data:

1. 12% of forestry workers are women, while only 6% of upper-level positions are filled by women;

2. Indigenous workers make up 3.5% of full-time forestry workers compared to 1.8% of full-time workers in all other industries;

3. Women account for 14% of the Indigenous labour force and have the lowest average income of all forestry workers.

After data is gathered and consultations are undertaken, the information is used to develop recommendations—the fourth step. At this stage, issues that were initially addressed can now be redefined based on the identified data and consultations. For example, it is now known that communities are experiencing uneven changes in the industry; that Indigenous women face disproportionate challenges compared to other forestry workers; and that in many Indigenous communities, forests hold significant cultural and traditional value which cannot be overlooked.

Based on the findings, three recommendations are proposed:

Option 1: The initiative to promote innovation and economic diversification will be integrated uniformly across all communities in the sector. Although the GBA+ demonstrates that local settings and contexts are variable amongst communities and that a uniform approach may lead to unequal impacts and benefits, it is often the case that uniform approaches are chosen due to feasibility and scope. When this is the case, it is imperative to highlight limitations and outline how data collection and analysis will be undertaken moving forward.

Option 2: The initiative will focus on integrating and engaging under-represented and marginalized groups in the forestry sector, including women and Indigenous people. The implementation of this aspect of the initiative would include the promotion of family-friendly practices and policies, as well as unique training opportunities targeted at specific groups.

Option 3: The initiative will include partnerships with communities and local governments to promote bottom-up decision-making and develop best options to diversify the local economy. This could include integrating traditional knowledge into decision-making alongside current practices and diversification efforts in order to best determine how to support innovation for all industry stakeholders.

Once an initiative is developed and chosen, the final step of the process involves monitoring and evaluating the implemented recommendations in order to ensure that the objectives are being met and that any ongoing issues are identified and addressed.

Developing communication strategies is important to further engage the local community and to promote the initiative. Examples of communication products include those aimed at community groups by identifying traditional cultural practices as imperative to the development of the industry; campaigns aimed at younger populations to promote employment through a representation of an inclusive and diverse workforce; and communication though local newspapers, radio, and community events.

FemNorthNet has developed a gender analysis framework for specific application to resource development and extraction projects (Manning 2014). The gender and diversity analysis tool includes various questions to pose throughout the development such as:

- What are the costs and benefits of the development? Who is bearing the costs and benefits? Do benefits include social, cultural, and economic considerations for affected communities?
- What and whose needs are considered and addressed? Are considerations inclusive of diverse populations?
- What type of information is being collected, from whom is it being gathered, and how is it being applied to the analysis?
- Who has decision-making authority and power, how are decisions made?
- Is a consideration to social justice given throughout development, implementation, and monitoring?

Other recent frameworks include the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE - working group of the EU), which uses gender impact assessment (GIA) as the tool to achieve gender mainstreaming. The guide titled *Gender Impact Assessment: Gender Mainstreaming Toolkit* (2016) outlines a five-step process on how to apply and implement the framework. Similar to the SWC GBA+ framework, the GIA framework includes guiding questions for each step of the process. The guide further outlines GIA policies in several EU nation states including Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Finland, Sweden, and Spain. There are five parts in the framework:

1. Defining the purpose of the policy, programme, or project
2. Checking gender relevance by taking into account target groups, and both direct and indirect impacts on diverse groups
3. Gender-sensitive analysis through information and data collection
4. Weighing the gender impact by taking into account certain criteria, such as participation as well as access to and control of resources
5. Documenting the findings and provide conclusions along with formulated proposals to promote gender equality

GIA is centred on the question: "Does a law, policy or program reduce, maintain or increase the gender inequalities between women and men?" (EIGE 2016, par.1). It is further referred to as a "learning process"; GIA is continuing to be developed and improved through the identification of data gaps, increased capacity through gender training, and follow-up based on previous experiences (EIGE 2016).

Oxfam published *A Guide to Gender Impact Assessment for the Extractive Industries* (Hill, Madden, and Collins 2017) with a specific focus on mining and oil and gas projects. The guide builds on aspects established in the aforementioned early gender analysis frameworks and offers a four-step GIA framework specific to mining and oil and gas developments. The steps of the framework are as follows:

1. Identify and collect baseline data and information regarding the impacted community: Baseline data should include information related to gender division of labour, as well as access and control of resources. The guide includes two detailed matrices (similar to those described in the Harvard Framework) to assist with data collection. However, the guide emphasizes that the tools should be used as templates and adapted based on the relevant context. For example, the matrix for access and control of resources identifies land, water, infrastructure, and labour amongst the resources; these could be removed or adjusted according to the particular context at hand.

2. Analyze the collected information through community consultations and public participation: This is achieved through the analysis of four key issues, including structural and institutional causes of inequality, barriers to participation in decision-making, practical and strategic gender needs, and identifying and mitigating negative project impacts.

3. Develop a gender action plan: The plan should enable gender-responsive engagement and be publically available. Furthermore, the plan should be developed in close consultation with the impacted community as well as discussed openly to ensure that all impacted members understand the developer's commitments.

4. Review the plan and follow-up: Monitoring and evaluation should be undertaken by someone outside of the development company to ensure transparency and objectivity, as well as engaging with community members regarding their perceptions of effectiveness and ideas for improvements.

An earlier guide published by Oxfam in 2013 titled *Balancing the Scales: Using gender impact assessment in hydropower development* outlines a framework for specific use in hydropower development projects (Simon 2013). The framework includes six steps drawing on various tools developed in earlier gender analysis frameworks. The steps are as follows:

1. Collect data

2. Understand the context

3. Identify risks, issues, and impacts brought on by the project

4. Understand women's needs

5. Develop recommendations

6. Review and audit regularly

Hill et al. (2017), use the Oxfam GIA approach to determine the gender impacts of two hydropower projects in Laos and Vietnam. Their study determined that women were not adequately consulted prior to development, and as a result, unequal gender impacts emerged. For example, both men and women experienced a loss of livelihood from fishing practices because of the hydro-developments. However, through the GIA it was determined that the new economic opportunties that emerged from the development, such as work at the dam and tourism positions, strongly favoured men. The study concludes by emphasizing the use of a gender analysis prior to hydropower developments.

The World Bank Group published a Rapid Assessment Toolkit for use in artisanal small-scale mining (ASM), to help identify gender issues and promote gender equality in the industry (Eftimie et al. 2012). The toolkit includes six modules outlining an introduction to gender in ASM, a gender and ASM framework, specific gender and ASM tools, and three detailed cases of the toolkit in practice.

The Gender and ASM framework is based on the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA), a well-established framework used to assess community vulnerabilities and broadly promote sustainable development (Eftimie et al. 2012). Through the integration of a gendered perspective, the Gender and ASM framework emphasizes an understanding of the disproportionate impacts of ASM on men and women. The framework breaks down the ASM value chain into five primary components: prospecting and exploration, mining, processing, goods and services, marketing of minerals. The framework further seeks to identify and address gender issues at each component based on aspects such as roles and responsibilities, access and control, and impact and benefits. Detailed sample questions are identified for each issue at all value-chain components (See Table 2.1 in Eftimie et al. 2012, 23, for all sample questions).

The Gender and ASM framework is broken down into three primary sections: design and planning; data collection; and interpretation, validation, and write-up. Each section consists of three to six sub-steps, including an estimated amount of days needed to complete each step, as well as identified ASM tools to be used at each step. The ASM tools described in the toolkit include: background information collection, key informant interviews, ASM site visits, participatory focus groups, and surveys (Eftimie et al. 2012).

A Tanzanian case study illustrates the use of the Gender and ASM Framework. The case is based on a report by Hinton and Wagner (2010) and further outlined by Eftimie et al. (2012), alongside three further examples of the framework in practice in Lao PDR, Mozambique, and Uganda.

Case Study 2: The Gender and Artisanal Small-Scale Mining (ASM) Framework in Tanzania

(Adapted from Hinton and Wagner (2010) and Eftimie et al. 2012)

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Design and planning

In Tanzania a study was undertaken to identify and assess the gender dimensions of ASM. The pilot study was based in the town of Mererani as well as nearby areas in Northern Tanzania. ASM in the area is largely gemstone (tanzanite) mining and is undertaken by both local Maasai people and migrant workers. Further economic opportunities in the area include livestock and small-holder farming. Within the mining industry, Maasai men undertake the majority of digging and mining positions, while women are generally responsible for the washing, hand-picking, and the selling of tanzanite. The study was undertaken in close collaboration with local consultants, as well as through coordination with international consultants.

Data collection

Data collection was undertaken to better understand the local and national context surrounding ASM. The following key facts emerged from secondary data collection: Approximately 1 million people in Tanzania are directly involved in ASM, of which 25% are women; Including secondary and indirect employment, it is estimated that over 7 million Tanzanians are involved in ASM, accounting for 31.5% of the country's working population. Furthermore, it was noted that although women have legal rights to own land, this is rarely the case due to cultural barriers. As such, women do not occupy upper level ASM roles, such as owners or operators.

Key informant interviews were undertaken with local and national officials. While the national officials were all men, the local interviews were conducted with both men and women.

Two site visits to the Mererani area were done to conduct focus groups and interviews with on-site workers. Daily activity clocks and seasonal calendars were used as tools to document and better understand gender-roles in ASM.

The key findings are categorized by capital, including natural and physical capital, and human capital. Regarding land and water, it was determined that while both men and women have limited access to water due to the aridness of the area, women bear disproportionate negative impacts due to their role in collecting the water. It was documented that women and girls spend up to six hours a day transporting water, and therefore women are more susceptible to water-borne diseases compared to men. Regarding land and property rights, it was identified that women are largely excluded from ownership and control of ASM activities, and therefore gain significantly lower incomes compared to those occupying upper-level positions. For example, 40% of profits from a gemstone find is obtained by the sponsor, 30% is taken by the claim owner, and 20% to the compressor owner, while the remaining 10% is distributed to the diggers.

Further impacts were identified regarding human capital of the labour market. It was determined that at both ASM sites, women were involved in sex-work. They were also susceptible to health and safety risks associated with gemstone processing, such as greater exposure to mercury vapors. Furthermore, it was determined that women work, on average, 7 hours more per day compared to men.

Interpretation and validation

The study concluded with detailed recommendations for each area of capital. For example, a recommendation that addresses human capital notes the need for improved training and greater capacity-building opportunities. It is suggested that this could be achieved through engaging government and local training institutes to provide seminars and trainings on various topics such as HIV/AIDS awareness, conflict resolution, and novel product valuation. With regards to financial capital, another recommendation seeks to engage government and local financial organizations to provide ASM workers with information and opportunities regarding credits and investments.

The results of the study were reported back to the community and to stakeholders. In June 2010, the results were further shared at an international workshop on women in mining in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.

5. A REVIEW OF METHODS

Drawing on similarities from the above-mentioned frameworks, themes central to gender analysis emerge: understanding the issues and context; collecting disaggregated data; undertaking inclusive and diverse participation; and identifying and analyzing distribution, access, and control of resources, as well as gender norms and values, through the consideration of both gender-roles and gender-relations. These key themes also reflect qualities or approaches seen in programme and policy analysis more generally.

Understanding the issues and the context is essential for establishing an appropriate and practical approach, as cultures, geographies, histories, languages, politics, and other values can all influence the indicators/determinants required for the analysis. Certain considerations relevant in one context may be overlooked in another. For example, a gender analysis of a mining development in Northern Canada will be quite different from the analysis of a mine in South Africa.

This sensitivity to context is highlighted by the *Culturally Relevant Gender Based Analysis Framework* developed by the national organization Pauktuutit Inuit women of Canada. The framework includes relevant indicators which would often be overlooked if modelled off of a more general framework. For example, the use of country food consumption as an indicator in the Inuit GBA framework would demonstrate large discrepancies among Inuit men, women, girls, and boys. The GBA framework would further demonstrate that men generally consume greater amounts of country food compared to women. This is the case until women reach the age of 60, at which point they begin to consume more than men. Inuit girls consume significantly more than boys (Pauktuutit Inuit Women of Canada 2008; Rasmussen & Guillou 2012).

Rasmussen and Guillou (2012) highlight how there is often a feeling of disconnect between Inuit community members and outside researchers or practitioners due to differing values and worldviews. The use of Inuit-specific indicators, developed by communities, could help ensure that the needs of the population are being addressed relevantly and respectfully.

This approach can be extended to a variety of situations where an understanding of the diverse contexts and issues can provide more practical and relevant approaches to the analysis. This is particularly relevant in an international development context, where culture, values, and environments can be vastly different.

Data collection would be done through consultation with relevant groups, such as women's groups, as well as through identified and available databases. Statistics Canada provides reliable data related to a variety of impact indicators that could be relevant to a gender analysis. Internationally, organizations such as the World Bank Group and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) often provide qualitative and quantitative data related to human development, gender equality, education, health, and other factors (Sauer 2013). Gender-specific statistical databases are available and accessible, including the gender development research service BRIDGE, as well as the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD).

Data used should be separated and broken down based on gender and other diversity factors. An example of desegregated data that could be used in a gender analysis is the fact that women in Canada aged 25 to 44 and who hold status under the Indian Act are five-times more likely to experience extreme violence, when compared to other women of the same age and Canadian nationality (Canada 2013). Here, the data is broken down based on multiple factors such as gender, Indigenous status, and age. Another example of desegregated data is the fact that in 2000 in Canada, Aboriginal women gained an average income of 75% of that of Aboriginal men (Canada 2013).

While it is difficult to determine indicators in the absence of available and reliable baseline data, gaps in baseline data should be addressed and made explicit (EIGE 2016). This could be achieved through further research and development. The documentation of such data could be beneficial to future analyses.

Inclusive and diverse participation in gender analysis as well as in decision-making should be a primary consideration. The representation of women and marginalized groups should be favoured. Attention to potential participation barriers should be recognized through certain key considerations: ensure that participation opportunities are open and accessible to men and women; ensure that both men and women are comfortable speaking in each other's presence; ensure that materials are translated appropriately and accessible to everyone; include gender diverse facilitators to diminish bias; and ensure that feedback sessions are facilitated for all groups of people (Hill, Madden, and Collins 2017).

For example, it has been demonstrated that men, more often than women, occupy seasonal work positions and are therefore absent from the community for extended periods of time (Canada 2013). An identification and understanding of this dynamic would allow for the incorporation of strategic remote participation opportunities. As well, it has been determined that some Indigenous populations in Canada are more responsive to broadcast / audio-visual sources rather than print sources, compared to other Canadian populations (Canada 2013). Therefore, it appears necessary to carefully consider and understand the context in which the analysis is taking place and to identify the specific and contextual barriers to participation. This understanding could be the first step to overcoming barriers to participation through culturally-appropriate recruitment and participation methods.

Inclusive participation has been demonstrated to improve the efficiency, effectiveness, equity, and sustainability of resource developments and resource management projects (Johnson et al., 2004). An inclusive representation of all stakeholders ensures that the analysis reflects all identified needs, concerns, and priorities–especially those that could otherwise be overlooked.

The implementation of the analysis, including the identified needs and concerns, should be carefully planned and monitored. For example, in a study of the gender-based outcomes from the EA of the Voisey Bay Mine in Labrador, it was determined that despite the participation of women in the EA and in the development of the Impact Benefit Agreement, they were nonetheless discriminated against, felt as if they were token hires, and identified difficulty gaining acceptance and advancing through promotions (Cox and Mills 2015). This highlights the importance of adequate implementation and follow-up to ensure that the expressed concerns are addressed in practice beyond public participation.

Distribution, access, and control of resources such as time, space, education and training opportunities, housing availabilities, mobility, employment opportunities and income, and political and economic power should be carefully evaluated throughout the gender analysis.

An understanding of the difference between access to resources and control of resources is central to the analysis. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2001) explains that access to resources refers to the availability or opportunity for use, while control of the resource implies decision-making authority. The UNDP further distinguishes between three categories of resources: economic/productive resources including land, credit, income, employment; political resources including education, representation in policy, leadership; and time as a general resource (UNDP 2001). Furthermore, an identification and understanding of the benefits of resource control and use, including satisfaction of both practical and strategic needs, is essential in the analysis (SIDA 2015).

For instance, a gender analysis should not only consider who is using agricultural land, but should also consider who is deciding how it is being used and managed. An example from Eastern India documented that although women make up a large portion of farm labourers, they only own approximately 10% of the land (Lahiri-Dutt and Ahmad 2012). As mining developments encroach on agricultural land, men benefit from land ownership and new jobs in mining while women lose access to the land and resources that sustained their livelihoods (Lahiri-Dutt and Ahmad 2012).

Gender-norms and values such as division of labour, cultural norms, and organization of private life should be recognized and evaluated to develop information and knowledge that may help promote the equal social-value of women, men, and gender diverse people.

Regarding work and labour, understanding the distinction between productive work, reproductive work, and community work is imperative to the gender analysis. Productive work refers to the production of goods or services that often generates an income; reproductive work refers to work in the household such as the care and maintenance of the home and children; and community work refers to work related to political, religious, or social work in the community (SIDA 2015). For example, because reproductive work can often be undervalued or overlooked, an understanding of value associated with different types of labour can ensure that benefits are relevant and meaningful to diverse groups of workers.

6. IMPLEMENTATION CHALLENGES

Challenges of gender-analysis are widespread and range from aspects regarding implementation to its fundamental values and assumptions. Many scholars have highlighted the gap in implementation of gender mainstreaming and gender analysis tools, as well as their lack of effectiveness (Scala & Paterson 2017; Lukatela 2014; Paterson 2010; Lang 2009; Squires 2005; Daly 2005; Hankivsky 2005). For example, in Taiwan, the implementation of gender analysis through gender impact assessment (GIA) has encountered problems such as resistance and passivity from bureaucrats, lack of baseline gender-related data, lack of specific gender sensitivity training, and inadequate auditing and monitoring programs (Peng 2015).

In places with notably strong patriarchal cultures (which arguably could describe most social/cultural contexts) the idea and implementation of gender analysis will undoubtedly be a challenge. Dool-Soon & Kang (2016) identified this as a challenge in settings, where despite the increased development and implementation of gender impact assessment frameworks, the results from GAs are not being applied in practice due to underlying patriarchal values (Dool-Soon & Kang 2016).

A Gender Expert

A gender expert is a broad term that describes an individual working to understand issues and policy needs related to women. Depending on the organization and the context, the role would promote actions to help ensure the incorporation of gender into policy or project outcomes.

A gender expert would also promote and monitor the participation of women in economic and other institutions, policy making and decision-making. The expert would also help assess the impacts and outcomes of projects on women and men.

In the Canadian context, GBA has been critiqued for exacerbating gender differences through the exclusion of other oppressed groups and neglecting intersectionality (Hankivsky 2005), as well as favoring expert opinions over the thoughts and ideas of women's groups and others who may not often be heard (Hankivsky 2009; Rankin and Wilcox 2004).

While the adoption of a GBA+ frame may address some of the concerns regarding the lack of intersectionality (diverse individual identities and linked sources of repression) and diversity considerations, the critique about the role of the "gender expert" would still be valid. It has been argued that due to the nature of implementation of GA, a "gender expert" is needed to do the analysis. However, this could further emphasize gender inequalities by reproducing the discourse which it attempts to address (Paterson 2010). It has also been suggested that there is a gap in research regarding the implementation of GBA, since the focus is often placed on evaluating the "nuts-and-bolts" of the tool, rather than the concept of need (Scala & Paterson 2017).

Further critiques highlight how GBA is based on the assumption that problems and inequalities can be readily mitigated through more information or more facts, rather than by addressing the underlying structures, processes, and causes under which gender and diversity inequalities are formed (Paterson 2010, Bacchi & Eveline 2003). It is suggested that through reflexive framing—placing oneself (in this case the gender expert) inside the analysis, and attempting to understand how problems are created and reproduced—the use of GBA could better influence social relations (Paterson 2010).

More tangible suggestions include an emphasis on participatory gender analysis processes as well as on the prominence of community consultations in order to attempt to move beyond the limitations imposed by an expert-driven approach (Bacchi 2003; Kabeer 1994). Equality considerations should be explicit in programme, project, and policy objectives in order to ensure the effectiveness and transformative potential of the analysis (Verloo 2002; Warren 2007). Nevertheless, caution should be noted in adopting an expert-driven analysis, which may be seen as top-down and unfamiliar with local contexts, needs and narratives.

7. MOVING FORWARD AND ADVANCING PRACTICE

Gender analysis is a primary consideration in programme, policy and project assessment. Gender analysis can help identify and address issues and concerns that may otherwise be overlooked. It can also help identify unique business and innovation opportunities for individuals and communities.

In impact assessment, gender analysis could help identify impacts of developments and their effects on all individuals. Negative gendered-impacts could be better mitigated through an understanding of how gender inequalities are formed, and result in greater opportunities and benefits for men, women, and gender-diverse people. Positive gendered-impacts of project development would be identified through gender analysis, encouraging the support for such initiatives, and promoting best practices for future projects and providing practical guidance and examples for proponents.

SEVEN MAIN LESSONS FOR IMPACT ASSESSMENT PRACTITIONERS:

1. The intersection of gender and other identity factors will be present in some form for almost all projects.

2. Thinking about gender and other identity factors should occur early in the project process, at the point of conceptualization. This will help anticipate potential impacts and better integrate gender and other identity factors into project design and implementation.

3. Gender analysis begins with data collection in order to create an understanding (information and knowledge) of the social and economic setting, and to begin to be able to understand the impacts of the project on different groups of people.

4. Gender analysis may best be implemented through the lens of social/economic impact assessment, where established tools and approaches can be adapted to include gendered perspectives and issues. This can help ensure that the analysis is not an add-on, but instead becomes part of the routine consideration of project effects—both positive and adverse.

5. Gender analysis will be more effective and beneficial if it is integrated into all stages of the impact assessment process, including monitoring, compliance and follow-up.

6. Using gender analysis can provide an opportunity to advance project benefits and develop innovative approaches to employment, community engagement, and timely project implementation and operation. There is a tendency to focus on the negative outcomes of projects. These should not be ignored. However, the positive benefits of gender assessment should also be recognized and indeed emphasized within a frame of opportunity and innovation.

7. A gender analysis can contribute to risk management by providing additional information and knowledge about project impacts and opportunities for mitigation and benefit enhancement.

Gender analysis in IA can best be achieved through: an understanding of the social and environmental context in which development occurs; collecting disaggregated data through diverse sources such as databases as well as consultation processes; undertaking inclusive and diverse participation as well as a collaboration with diverse stakeholders; and identifying and analyzing distribution, access, and control of resources, as well as gender norms and values, through consideration of both gender-roles and gender-relations.

The field of gender analysis is conceptually well-developed. There are multiple examples from a range of international development settings and there are general templates that can provide basic guidance for practitioners. In IA, the application of gender analysis is progressing. However, there is a need for more case examples, better integration into existing impact assessment tools, and further guidance and capacity building for proponents, regulators, and civil society in order for the concept to be applied practically through project assessment.

Advancing best practices in impact assessment will require consideration of key implementation factors:

1. Gender analysis (or gender assessment), if it is to be implemented and used, requires practical and specific methods and tools that can be applied by practitioners at a project assessment level and across a range of sectors and activities. As we note above, these can be in part adapted from social/economic impact assessment and draw on the use of other methods in IA.

2. The role of gender analysis in contexts where social structures are not necessarily amenable to changing gender roles or to notions of inclusion will require careful approaches that may involve more time and resources to help realize benefits for communities and proponents. Research that can outline best practices and provide examples will be of value to regulators and business.

3. Over time, the effectiveness of gender analysis approaches should be assessed to understand the actual impacts and outcomes and to provide data and knowledge that can be used to advance best practices in IA and refine approaches and tools.

4. The language of gender analysis can be difficult to navigate. For impact assessment, future guidance and the presentation of research must be clear in language and methods, and oriented toward applied outcomes and practical use.

5. Monitoring projected impacts and evaluating mitigation approaches and benefits must be undertaken to understand the effectiveness of mitigation and other provisions. This monitoring and evaluation can also help refine and improve the integration of gender analysis into IA.

Moving forward, there is a need for additional research that highlights the development of real-world applied methods. There is also a need for research that highlights comprehensive approaches that can be used by proponents and other organizations when they undertake IAs, when assessments are reviewed, and when projects are monitored and performance is evaluated. This additional research will require drawing on existing impact assessment methodologies and the experience of international development assistance, as well as adapting other gender analysis frameworks and methods to the specific needs of impact assessment.

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