

Publications

Title : Conceptualising social change processes and social impacts

Authors : Marlies van Schooten, SevS Consultancy
Frank Vanclay, Charles Sturt University, Waga Waga, Australia
Roel Slootweg, SevS Consultancy

Published in : In: Becker and Vanclay (eds): The International Handbook of Social Impact Assessment: Conceptual and Methodological Advances, chapter 6: 74-91.
Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Date : 2003

Abstract

The conceptual framework based on environmental function evaluation of Slootweg et al (2001) is used as the basis for conceptualising social change processes and social impacts. Existing lists of social impact variables are examined and found to be inadequate and contradictory. A new list of social impacts is developed, reflecting a change from project based thinking to inclusion of the impacts of policies and programs, from thinking only about negative impacts to including positive benefits, and from thinking about unintended consequences to including intended consequences. We argue that it is necessary to differentiate between context-dependent social impacts and context-independent social change processes, and that many of the variables typically measured in SIA studies are not in themselves impacts, but rather represent the measurable outcomes of social changes processes, which may or may not cause impacts depending on the context in which they occur.

Introduction

Involved in the development of a decision support system (DSS) to assist development agency staff determine when impact assessment was required in development cooperation projects, the authors were required to specify a comprehensive listing of social impacts for inclusion in the DSS. Initially, a set of variables was to be compiled through a meta-analysis of previously published lists of social impact variables. However, a high degree of inconsistency between such lists, and internal inconsistency in many of the lists meant that a systematic reconsideration of the nature of social impacts was required.

This paper presents new comprehensive lists of social change processes and social impacts which were developed using the function evaluation framework for integrating social and environmental impact assessment as elaborated by Slootweg et al. (2001) (see former chapter). It is our view that while there has been an attempt at completeness, the impacts listed are quite likely to exhibit our prejudices and biases. Others, particularly those

from other cultures and economic settings, may well classify impacts differently. For this reason, we specifically invite response on the adequacy of our lists.

Existing social impact variable lists

Many publications provide a generic classification on types of social issues that should be considered in SIA. A small number of publications include lists of social impacts. In these publications, social impacts can refer to quantifiable variables such as numbers of immigrants (newcomers), but can also refer to qualitative indicators such as cultural impacts involving changes to people's norms, values, beliefs and perceptions about the society in which they live.

Most social impact specialists stress that it is impossible to detail all dimensions of social impact – social change has a way of creating other changes. Further, most of the changes are seen as situation-specific and are therefore dependent on the social, cultural, political, economic and historic context of the community in question, as well as the

characteristics of the proposed project and of any mitigation measures put in place.

This ambiguity associated with impacts, the lack of operational definitions for many constructs, as well as an asocietal mentality (Burdge and Vanclay 1995) has led to a focus on investigation on measurable variables (e.g. economic and demographic) and/or politically convenient indicators such as population change, job creation or use of services (Gramling and Freudenburg 1992). At the other extreme, Cernea (1994) complains that there have been some in-depth social analyses which have a tendency to become lengthy social overviews without any focus on the likely future social impacts.

Attempts have been made by various social scientists to develop classifications of types of social impacts, but few have developed lists of specific social impacts, and fewer still have provided operational definitions of their variables. Amongst the classifications are:

Audrey Armour (1990), expanded by Vanclay (1999), have identified the following as important:

- people's way of life – that is, how they live, work, play and interact with one another on a day-to-day basis;
- their culture – that is, their shared beliefs, customs, values and language or dialect;
- their community – its cohesion, stability, character, services and facilities;
- their political systems – the extent to which people are able to participate in decisions that affect their lives, the level of democratisation that is taking place, and the resources provided for this purpose;
- their environment – the quality of the air and water people use; the availability and quality of the food they eat; the level of hazard or risk, dust and noise they are exposed to; the adequacy of sanitation, their physical safety, and their access to and control over resources;
- their health and wellbeing – where 'health' is understood in a manner similar to the World Health Organisation definition: "a state of complete physical, mental, and social wellbeing, not merely the absence of disease or infirmity";
- their personal and property rights – particularly whether people are economically affected, or experience personal disadvantage which may include a violation of their civil liberties; and,
- their fears and aspirations – their perceptions about their safety, their fears about the future of their community, and their aspirations for their future and the future of their children.

Juslén (1995) made an analysis of the social impacts identified in several studies. He determined that a universal list of social impacts that would suit every case was not possible, but he argued that a checklist would be useful especially in scoping. He identified several general impact categories:

1. 'standard' social impacts concerning noise-level, pollution, and so on;
2. psycho-social impacts (such as community cohesion, disruption of social networks);
3. anticipatory fear;
4. impacts of carrying out the assessment;
5. impacts on state and private services;
6. impacts on mobility (such as transportation, safety, obstacles).

In more general typologies, Taylor *et al.* (1990) identified lifestyles, attitudes, beliefs and values, and social organisation. Branch *et al.* (1984) highlighted community resources, community social organisation, and indicators of individual and community well-being.

Gramling and Freudenburg (1992) distinguish between six systems of the human environment:

1. Biophysical and health systems;
2. Cultural systems;
3. Social systems;
4. Political/Legal systems;
5. Economic Systems;
6. Psychological systems.

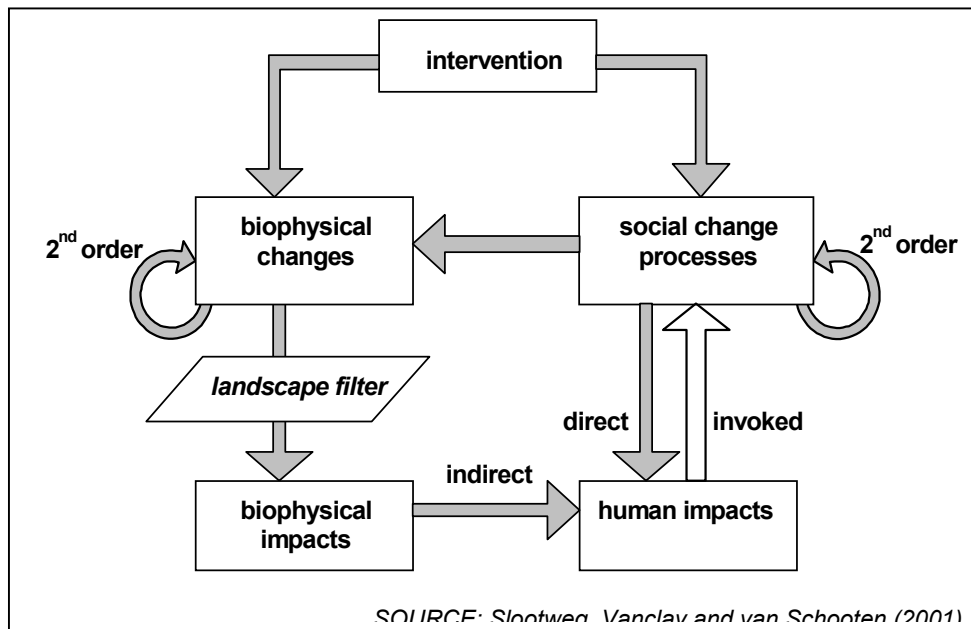
The Interorganizational Committee (1994) included a list of social impact variables. These variables point to measurable change in human population, communities and social relationships resulting from a development project or policy change. The Committee suggests a list under the headings of: (i) population characteristics, (ii) community and institutional structures, (iii) political and social resources, (iv) individual and family changes, and (v) community resources. Rabel Burdge (1994), a member of the Interorganizational Committee, produced the "list of 26" under the same headings.

The first observation in our search for lists of social impacts is that there is a strong reluctance by SIA researchers to provide such lists. It is argued that impacts are context dependent and therefore can't be listed and predicted in advance. The second observation has to do with the contents of the lists: there are substantial differences between SIA researchers about the variable lists that are produced, and even in the way that social impacts should be categorised or grouped. Wide discrepancies about what constitutes social impacts exist. Besides, many impacts are missing from the lists, impacts described are focused on negative impacts only and often western biased.

In most lists there appears to be an emphasis list on empirical measures and many of the variables are not social impacts in themselves. For example, taking the first grouping of variables “population characteristics” from the Interorganizational Committee’s list, none of the ‘variables’ listed constitute an ‘impact’ where an impact is an actual experience of an individual or community. Social impact variables such as increase in population, increase in ethnic or racial diversity, relocation, presence of temporary workers and/or seasonal residents are not in themselves impacts. Under certain circumstances they will result in social impacts such as loss of community cohesion, fear and uncertainty amongst residents, fluctuating real estate (property) values, shortage of housing etc, but if properly managed, these demographic

There is a western orientation to the lists that have been developed, for example where they focus on individual property rights. Broader social objectives and goals of development are less considered in the lists. It is clear that the lists of social impacts produced and the variables considered in most SIA studies relate only to the negative social impacts of projects. Positive impacts, the impacts of policies and programs, and the benefits, goals or objectives of planned interventions are not seriously considered despite rhetorical statements that they should be.

Figure 1: integrated framework for environmental and social impact assessment



changes might not create impacts. Whether impacts are caused will depend on the characteristics and history of the host community, and the extent of mitigation measures that are put in place. Thus there is confusion in the literature between **social change process** and **social impact**.

Important social impacts are missing from the lists. Occupational health and safety issues provide a good example. Disease, death and injury are social impacts that can be the direct or indirect result of a project, for example increased traffic in a neighbourhood or increased exposure to vector-borne diseases in irrigation schemes. Another example is the missing of changes in human rights situation as a social impact that can occur when governments use force to allow a project to be implemented, or when public comment in opposition of the project is suppressed.

The conceptual framework

The integrated framework by Slootweg et al. (previous chapter) identifies the pathways by which environmental and social impacts can occur as a result of proposed projects (see Figure 1). The use of this figure assists in thinking about a full range of social impacts. The distinction between a change process and impact in the physical environment encouraged us to think about social impacts in much the same way.

Social change processes can be measured objectively, independent of the local context. If ‘social impact’ refers to the impacts actually experienced by humans (at individual and higher aggregation levels) in either a corporeal (physical) or cognitive (perceptual) sense, then many impact variables commonly measured in SIA studies – for example, population growth, presence of

construction workers etc – are not impacts, but social change processes that may lead to social impacts.

The ways in which the social change processes are perceived, given meaning, or valued, depends on the social context in which various societal groups act. Some sectors of society, or groups in society, are able to adapt themselves quickly and make use of the opportunities of a new situation. Others are less able to adapt themselves (e.g. various vulnerable groups) and will bear most of the negative consequences of change. Social impacts by definition thus are context dependent.

To complete the interpretation of the figure, some explanation of the iterations and feedback mechanisms is required. Social change processes that result directly from the intervention, the so-called **first-order changes**, can lead to (several) other social change processes, the **second and higher order change processes**. For example, resettlement can lead to processes of rural to urban migration and changes in food production. In addition, the social experience of change (that is the human impacts) can also provoke people to undertake other behaviour that leads to further social change processes. For example, the negative human impacts (experiences) associated with unemployment can activate the social change process of rural to urban migration in search of work. Social change processes can also provoke biophysical changes. Economic developments which increase the number of tourists in a particular area can have serious influence on land use and water quality, which in their turn, can have indirect human impacts through a reduction in agricultural production and subsequently on income level for smallholder farmers.

As explained previously in SIA literature no distinction is made between the independent and objectively verifiable social change processes and the social impacts that are experienced by people. Social change processes are set in motion by project activities or policies. They take place independent of the local social context. Resettlement, for example, is a social change process, set in motion by for example the activity of land clearance (for a road or an agricultural project), or by inundation of an area by dam construction. Social change processes can lead to several other, second-order, social change processes. Depending on the characteristics of the local social setting and mitigation processes that are put in place, social change processes can lead to social impacts.

Direct social impacts result directly from social change processes that result from a planned intervention. They may be the intention of specially

designed activities to influence the social setting (intended impacts), or may unintentionally result from these activities. **Indirect social impacts** are a result of changes in the biophysical environment. Biophysical changes can affect the functions the environment provides for people. For example: if an activity causes land degradation, one of the biophysical impacts can be that the productive capacity of the land will decrease. The resulting reduction of income from farming activities is an indirect social impact. Biophysical changes can also have effects on disease organisms or disease vectors that can lead to health impacts: An example is the introduction of irrigated agriculture. This leads to social change processes such as the creation of jobs and an increase in food supply. A direct social impact resulting from these social change processes is the raising of social well being. However, the same activity leads to biophysical changes such as the creation of breeding sites for mosquitoes and snails, resulting in biophysical impacts such as increased transmission of malaria and schistosomiasis and consequently in the reduction of health (indirect social impact).

The framework presented by Sloodweg et al. (2001) presents a useful way of thinking about the integration of social and environmental impacts, and for conceptualising the full range of social impacts that are likely to occur from a given intervention. By following impact pathways, or causal chains, and specifically by thinking about the iterations that are likely to be caused, the full range of impacts can be identified. This makes the model a useful scoping mechanism and a heuristic aid. We have remodelled the existing lists of social impacts into this framework, have added processes and impacts, and reformulated many in order to cover negative as well as positive impacts.

Social change processes

Below we give an elaborate list of the social change processes that are important in social impact assessment. It is an indicative list of examples of social change processes and is not intended to be complete. In fact, it is argued that no list could ever be complete. New technologies and new social phenomena are occurring all the time, and it would be impossible to predict them or their likely social influence (the rapid expansion of new communication technology is a good example). It is likely however, that the categorisation of social change processes into a number of groupings of social change processes is appropriate and likely to be robust across a range of situations.

It is also clear that processes are not uniquely definable, conceptually clear, and mutually exclusive phenomena. The types of identified

processes are linked to the purposes, objectives or interests of the observer. When the objective or interest is different, it is likely that the processes will also be differently defined. An economist will use different terms as compared to a sociologist.

There are different levels at which social processes can be described. Some social processes are macro processes that entail many other processes, see for example the processes related to globalisation, where others are more detailed.

A. Demographic Processes

Demographic processes are those that relate to the movement and/or composition of people in the region(s) affected by the project.

- **In-migration.** Population growth due to permanent settlement of people from other areas. This complex process can be further subdivided in:
 - **Presence of newcomers.** The social impacts of in-migration are exacerbated when the newcomers (new settlers) are different from, or perceived as being different from, 'old-timers'.
 - **Presence of (temporary) construction workers.** Newcomers who are resident in the project area on a short term (or commuting/fly in, fly out) basis.
 - **Presence of seasonal residents** People who live for only some part of the year (perhaps summer or winter) in a particular region. In one sense they may have legal rights as citizens to participate decisions about the community, but they may also be profoundly different from permanent (year-round) residents.
 - **Presence of weekenders.** Similar to seasonal residents is the phenomenon of weekenders. This refers to the influx of people who do not live permanently in the community, but who regularly visit, say on weekends, and who may own property in the community.
 - **Presence of tourists and day-trippers.**
- **Out-migration.** Decline in population size due to moving out of people move, for example because the area affected by a project becomes less desirable as a place to live, or because a project at some distance lures people in search of work.
- **Resettlement.** Resettlement refers to co opted or coerced process by which local people surrender land for a project (such as a dam), and are relocated elsewhere as part of a compensation package.
- **Displacement/dispossession.** Displacement and dispossession refers to the processes by which development projects and policies cause

people to lose land or other assets or access to resources but for which they are not (adequately) compensated. The land lost may be their homes or their agricultural lands, or other areas on which they depended for resources.

- **Rural to urban migration.** Many projects accelerate the rate of rural to urban migration as jobs or social services become increasingly only available in the cities, or because of a growing perception of the attractiveness (lure) of life in the city (cultural hegemony).
- **Urban to rural migration.** In many European countries, with improved transportation and communication networks, many previously urban people are now choosing to live in rural environments, significantly altering the demographic and cultural characteristics of those areas.
- **Processes related to natural birth and death rate (including fertility, distribution among age and sex):** very few projects will directly affect natural birth or death rates or fertility rates, although some activities may be specifically designed to influence these parameters.

B. Economic Processes

Economic processes are those that affect the economic activity in a region including the way people make a living as well as macro-economic factors that affect the society as a whole.

- **Waged labour.** Change in the number of available jobs.
- **Conversion and diversification of economic activities.** Change in the nature of economic activities from one type of production to other types of production. At the macro level this might be from agricultural to industrial forms of production. At lower levels, it might be from subsistence farming to cash-cropping.
- **Impoverishment.** The process by which (groups in) a society experience a downward spiral of poverty.
- **Inflation.** The process of escalating prices. It can occur at the national level as a result of macroeconomic factors, or it can occur at local levels caused by the spending power of increasing numbers of high income people.
- **Currency exchange fluctuation (devaluation).** Changes in the exchange rates of local currency.
- **Concentration of economic activity.** At the sectoral level, concentration of economic activity refers to the lack of diversification in the country as a whole, it refers to concentration of activity in a single industry. This makes the society and nation vulnerable to the fortunes of that commodity. At

geographical scale, it refers to concentration of economic activity in a small number of places.

- **Economic globalisation (conversion to global market-oriented production).** Globalisation – i.e. the incorporation of the local into the global – of the local economy means that the focus of local production changes towards international markets instead of local or regional markets; for example the transition from traditional mixed agriculture to monocropping of cash crops, and the shift from payment in kind to payment in cash.

C. Geographical Processes

Geographical processes are those that affect the land use patterns of a society.

- **Conversion and diversification of land use.** Change in the way land is utilised, both in terms of the area of land appropriated for a particular activity, the intensity of utilisation of the land and whether there are areas of land not utilised for production, and in the type of land use activities and the pattern or mix of those activities.
- **Urban sprawl** is the expansion of urban areas into previously rural or peri-urban areas with associated land use changes.
- **Urbanisation** is both the process that promotes rural-to-urban migration as well as the process of transforming smaller centres (towns) into more densely populated cities.
- **Gentrification** is the process whereby usually inner city suburbs become converted from lower class areas to middle or upper class suburbs.
- **Enhanced transportation and rural accessibility.** Improvements in transport facilities results in increased accessibility, which results in various demographic changes.
- **Physical splintering.** Infrastructure projects like highways, railways, transmission corridors, irrigation canals, and the impoundment of water can lead to the physical division or splintering of communities.

D. Institutional and Legal Processes

Institutional and legal processes are those processes that affect the efficiency and effectiveness of various organisations that are responsible for the supply (and security of supply) of the goods and services on which people depend. These organisations include government agencies, non-government organisations and the commercial sector. This category definitely needs further elaboration.

- **Institutional globalisation and centralisation.** The incorporation of the local into the global in terms of institutions relates to

the loss of autonomy of decision making at the local level.

- **Decentralisation.** Somewhat as a counter force to institutional globalisation is the process of decentralisation, that is of change from a centralised to a decentralised public administration system.
- **Privatisation** refers to the process of transfer of responsibilities from the public to the private sector. It is often associated with the sale of government-owned enterprises.

E. Emancipatory and empowerment processes

Emancipatory and empowerment processes are ones that lead to an increase in the ability of local people to affect (contribute to) the decision making that affects their life.

- **Democratisation** is the process by which people are granted increased influence in political decision-making.
- **Marginalisation and exclusion** refer to the processes by which various groups in society are denied access to services or to participation.
- **Capacity building** refers to increasing knowledge, networking capacity and increasing skill base amongst local people.

F. Socio-Cultural Processes

Socio-cultural processes are those that affect the culture of a society, that is, all aspects of the way that people live together, including.

- **Social globalisation.** The incorporation of the local into the global at the socio-cultural level refers to the change in the nature of the local culture, particularly as a result of the cultural hegemony of Western cultural expression (often described as McDonaldization or ‘Coca-Cola development’).
- **Segregation** refers to the process of creation of social difference within a community.
- **Social disintegration** refers to the falling apart of existing social and cultural networks.
- **Cultural differentiation.** Increase in the differences between various groups in a community based on cultural values, traditions, rituals, language, traditional skills, etc.
- **Deviant social behaviour.** Types of social behaviours that might be considered deviant or antisocial, such as excessive alcohol consumption, illegal drugs use, various types of risk taking behaviours, vandalism.

Social impacts

In this paper we emphasise the need for a reconceptualisation of the nature of social impacts. We have differentiated social change processes from social impacts arguing that impacts need to be

experienced or felt in corporeal or perceptual terms. We have argued that the SIA literature has confused impacts and social change processes and that there is indeed a fundamental distinction. Above we have given an outline of some of the types of social processes that occur.

Below, we present a list of social impacts. This list has been developed with considerable thought. However, we do not guarantee that it is exhaustive. It is likely to still contain a western bias and as far as economists and policy analysts are concerned, may not represent adequately economic and institutional impacts. The list was developed by a review of the literature and accumulated collective practical experience as SIA and EIA consultants. The dimensions vary in their specificity. Some are macro concepts that may be difficult to measure, while others may lend themselves to operational definition, variable creation, and measurement easily.

Social impacts must be experienced or felt. The list of impacts must potentially be capable of addressing positive benefits as well as negative ones. And because social impacts (that is, all impacts on humans) cover a wide variety of issues, the list must be broad. Some impacts are experienced at the level of an individual, other impacts are experienced at the level of a family or household unit, and other impacts are experienced by social organisations, institutions, or a community or society as a whole. Some impacts are corporeal – that is, felt by the body as physical reality – other impacts are perceptual or emotional. Some macro level impacts are quite removed from individuals but nonetheless are important social impacts.

The list has been divided into seven categories of impacts. The categorisation is intended to provide a general grouping to assist in thinking about the range of impacts. We accept that others may well group impacts in different ways. The impacts are as much as possible defined in neutral terms and should be read with the pre-fix “*changes in...*”. The impacts thus can be interpreted to the positive or to the negative side. Not all impacts can, however, be phrased in such neutral terminology. This is well – illustrated by the first impact, death, which can only be formulated unidirectional (there is no opposite direction to dying).

I. Health and Social Well-being

Health issues are an essential category of social impacts. Health impact assessment (see Birley 1995; Birley and Peralta 1995) is needed as a process to identify the health impacts, and health impact assessment professionals may have an

extended range of health indicators that they consider. Here, we have included health aspects from a social perspective expressed in non-medical terminology.

- **Death of self or a family member** – personal loss; has major consequences for other members of the family or household (grieving and economic impacts).
- **Death in the community** – loss of human capital.
- **Nutrition** – adequacy, security and quality of individual and household food supply.
- **Actual physical health and fertility**
- **Perceived health.**
- **Mental health** - feelings of stress, anxiety, apathy, depression, nostalgic melancholy, changed self image, general self esteem (psycho-social factors).
- **Aspirations** for the future for self and children.
- **Autonomy** – an individual’s independence or self-reliance.
- **Stigmatisation or deviance labelling** – the feeling of being ‘different’ or of being excluded or socially marginalized.
- **Feelings in relation to the planned intervention** (positive or negative) which may result in formation of interest groups. Projects are often associated with uncertainty or fear; impacts perceived in anticipation of the planned intervention can be greater than the impacts that ultimately result from the intervention (Burdge and Vanclay 1995); includes uncertainty, annoyance (a feeling/experience such as due to disruption to life, but which is not necessarily directed at the intervention itself), dissatisfaction due to failure of a planned intervention to deliver promised benefits, and experience of moral outrage (such as when a planned intervention leads to violation of deeply held moral or religious beliefs).

II. Quality of the Living Environment (Liveability)

Deals with the liveability of the neighbourhood and workplace. This category contains many of the variables traditionally considered in SIA and EIA studies. Some of these variables relate directly to the biophysical environment and come through the pathway of biophysical impacts (see Figure 1). This concept has both a perceptual dimension, and an actual dimension.

- **Quality of the living environment (actual and perceived).** (i.e. physical environment or neighbourhood at home or at work) – in terms of exposure to dust, noise, risk, odour, vibration, artificial light, etc..
- **Leisure and recreation opportunities and facilities.**

- **Environmental amenity value / Aesthetic quality** – the non-market, non-consumptive aesthetic and moral value ascribed to a location (impacts on outlook, vistas, shadowing, etc.).
- **Availability of housing facilities.**
- **Physical quality of housing (actual and perceived).**
- **Social quality of housing** (homeliness) – the degree to which inhabitants feel that their house is their ‘home’.
- **Adequacy of physical infrastructure** – water supply, sewage, land, roads, etc..
- **Adequacy of and access to social infrastructure** – change in the demands for and supply of basic social services and facilities, such as education, police, libraries, welfare services, etc.
- **Personal safety and hazard exposure(actual and perceived).**
- **Crime and violence (actual and perceived).**

III. Economic Impacts and Material Well-being

Relates to the wealth and prosperity of individuals and the community as a whole.

- **Workload** – amount of work necessary in order to survive and/or live reasonably.
- **Standard of living**, level of affluence – a composite measure of material well-being referring to how well off a household or individual is in terms of their ability to obtain goods and services. It is also related to the cost of living, and is affected by changes in local prices etc.
- **Economic prosperity and resilience** – the level of economic affluence of a community and the extent of diversity of economic opportunities.
- **Income** – both cash and in kind income.
- **Property values.**
- **Employment** – includes actual level of (un)employment, employment options and status of employment.
- **Replacement costs of environmental functions** – the cost of replacing a product or service that was formerly provided by the environment, such as clean water, firewood, flood protection, etc.
- **Economic dependency** – the extent to which an individual or household (or higher entity) has control over economic activities, the degree of incorporation into larger production systems.
- **Burden of national debt** – such as the intergenerational transfer of debt.

IV. Cultural Impacts

Includes all impacts (changes) on the culture or cultures in an affected region, including loss of language, loss of cultural heritage, or a change in the integrity of a culture (ability of the culture to persist).

- **Change in cultural values** – such as moral rules, beliefs, ritual systems, language, and dress.
- **Cultural affrontage** – violation of sacred sites, breaking taboos and other cultural mores.
- **Cultural integrity** – the degree to which local culture such as traditions, rites, etc. are respected and likely to persist.
- **Experience of being culturally marginalized** – the structural exclusion of certain groups because of their cultural characteristics, thus creating a feeling of being a second class citizen.
- **Profanisation of culture** – the commercial exploitation or commodification of cultural heritage (such as traditional handicrafts, artefacts) and the associated loss of meaning.
- **Loss of local language or dialect.**
- **Natural and cultural heritage** – violation, damage to or destruction of cultural, historical, archaeological or natural resources, including burial grounds, historic sites, and places of religious, cultural and aesthetic value.

V. Family and Community Impacts

Impacts related to the family, social networks and the community generally.

- **Alterations in family structure** – such as family stability, divorce, number of children at home, presence of extended families.
- **Obligations to living family members and ancestors.**
- **Family violence** – physical or verbal abuse.
- **Social networks** – impacts on the social interaction of household members with other people in the community.
- **Community identification and connection** – sense of belonging, attachment to place.
- **Community cohesion.** (actual and perceived)
- **Social differentiation and inequity** – creation of differences between various groups in a community or differentiation in level of access to certain resources (actual and perceived).
- **Social tension and violence** – conflict or serious divisions within the community.

VI. Institutional, Legal, Political and Equity Impacts

A range of impacts on institutions, most notably those that affect the capacity of organisations, regulatory authorities and institutions to cope with the workload generated by proposed interventions.

- **Functioning of government agencies** – capacity of the formal institutions to handle additional workload generated by a planned intervention.
- **Integrity of government and government agencies** – absence of corruption, competence in which they perform their tasks.
- **Tenure, or legal rights.**
- **Subsidiarity** –the principle that decisions should be taken as close to the people as possible.
- **Human rights** – any abuse of the human rights, arrest, imprisonment, torture, intimidation, harassment etc., actual or fear or censorship and loss of free speech.
- **Participation in decision making.**
- **Access to legal procedures and to legal advice.**
- **Impact equity** – notions about fairness in the distribution of impacts across the community.

VII. Gender Relations

According to the World Bank (2001) “gender discrimination remains pervasive in many dimensions of life – worldwide. ... In no region of the developing world are women equal to men in legal, social, and economic rights. Gender gaps are widespread in access to and control of resources, in economic opportunities, in power and political voice”. Women tend to bear the largest and most direct social impacts. For these reasons, gender is a core social impact issue, and a development objective in its own right, requiring explicit consideration in the form of gender assessments (DGIS 1994, Feldstein and Jiggins 1994, Gianotten et al. 1994, Guijt and Shah 1998)

- **Women’s physical integrity** – refers to the right of women to be able to make informed decisions about their own body, health and sexual activity, having control over fertility and childbearing and child-rearing practices, and having the resources to implement those decisions safely and effectively, and to be free from coercion, violence and discrimination in the exercise of those decisions.
- **Personal autonomy of women** – the level of independence, self-reliance and self-respect in physical, economic, political and socio-cultural aspects.
- **Gendered division of production-oriented labour** – refers to the unequal distribution of workload between men and women in relation to production, in terms of cash cropping, subsistence food production, wage-labour and other household (cash) income strategies.
- **Gendered division of household labour** – refers to the gendered and uneven distribution of workload in relation to the maintenance of the household.

- **Gendered division of reproductive labour** – refers to the gendered and uneven distribution of workload in relation to the care and maintenance of household members, that is the personal burden of childbearing and childrearing.
- **Gender-based control over, and access to, resources** – including land, water, capital, equipment, knowledge, skills, employment opportunities and income, and services such as health facilities, education and agricultural extension services.
- **Political emancipation of women** – women’s influence on decision making at household, community and society levels.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have argued that a differentiation should be made between the concepts of social change processes and social impacts. This important conceptual distinction, based on the framework presented by Slootweg et al. (2001), is not previously made in the SIA literature. Many previously measured SIA variables are not in themselves social impacts, but rather social change processes which might lead to social impacts under certain conditions, depending on the characteristics of the impacted community and of mitigation measures.

The lists of social change processes and social impacts are broad and represent most of the issues relevant to social impact assessment. However, depending on the conditions under which any assessment is being carried out, the change processes as well as the impacts can and may need to be redefined, either in more appropriate language, or in more detail. Furthermore, the involvement of various disciplines in a specific assessment may result in a need for more discipline-oriented concepts and terminology. This paper is an invitation to all disciplines that feel related to the subject to make use of the material and share their experiences in working with it.

For each of the categories of change processes and impacts, people with relevant disciplinary background are invited to further describe these by defining measurable variables for each issue, preferably based on practical field evidence. A further field of research would be the identification of the conditions under which certain social change processes would lead to social impacts. There is a host of literature on successes and failures of development activities, providing a wealth of baseline information from which such conditions can be distilled (see previous chapter for a discussion on the use of a “social filter”).

The list of potential social impacts is described in terms of issues that can be changed in positive or negative direction. This provides room to define positive as well as negative impacts and thus consider intended as well as unintended impacts. The existing SIA literature strongly emphasises negative, unintended impacts of projects. By providing a neutrally defined list of issues of importance to impact studies, it becomes possible to also assess the goals of projects, programmes and policies and weigh these against the unintended impacts.

The lists are useful for expanding awareness of the full range of social impacts, though we caution against using the list as a checklist. Because of the existence of second and higher order impacts, the complex iterative processes by which impacts are caused, and the complex impact pathways and causal chains, we advocate a thorough analysis using the conceptual framework of Slootweg et al. (2001) which was used as the basis of the lists developed in this paper. By using the framework, the list of social impacts will certainly be further elaborated.

By analysing the pathways to derive social impacts, we believe that greater awareness of the processes by which impacts are caused will arise. Acceptance of the potential for the greater range of impacts we have presented will occur, and by utilisation of the Slootweg et al. (2001) conceptual framework, better scoping of SIA studies will occur, leading to better impact predictions. This will lead to improved SIA and EIA studies, and potentially to better planned interventions and improved quality of life of affected communities.

Acknowledgements

The paper developed as a result of collaboration made possible by the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs. We thank Anneke Wevers for her support and vision in this innovative and challenging endeavour. We also thank Annelies Stolp for encouragement, perspective, balance and for being a sounding board.

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