

Evaluating the impact of information campaigns in the field of migration:

*A systematic review of the evidence,
and practical guidance*

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PUBLISHER:

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Report produced by IOM's Global Migration Data Analysis Centre

GRAPHIC DESIGN AND DATA VISUALIZATION:

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SUGGESTED CITATION:

Tjaden, J., S. Morgenstern and F. Laczko (2018), "Evaluating the impact of information campaigns in the field of migration: A systematic review of the evidence and practical guidance", *Central Mediterranean Route Thematic Report Series*. International Organization for Migration, Geneva.



Central Mediterranean Route Thematic Report Series

The Central Mediterranean Route (CMR) Thematic Report Series, launched by IOM’s GMDAC, aims to provide accurate, comprehensive and policy-oriented information on key issues related to migration on the Central Mediterranean Route. The series is published as part of the “Safety, Support and Solutions” programme implemented by IOM, funded by the UK’s Department for International Development (DFID). The programme’s main objective is to contribute to safer and more orderly migration along the CMR, resulting in fewer deaths and less suffering. The programme includes activities in ten countries – Algeria, Burkina Faso, Côte d’Ivoire, Gambia, Guinea, Libya, Mali, Morocco, Niger and Senegal. IOM’s GMDAC aims to disseminate information products to policymakers and other stakeholders on mobility dynamics and relevant topics along the CMR, with a view to improving knowledge and understanding of these and enabling actors to effectively manage emerging migration trends for the benefit of countries and migrants. Thematic reports such as this one will be regularly published throughout the programme period.

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Information campaigns designed to raise awareness of the potential risks of (irregular) migration have attracted much attention and investment across the world in recent years. Studies have repeatedly shown that many migrants start their journeys with limited or biased information and end up in vulnerable situations. In response, information campaigns have increased in number and the type, format, messages and strategy of such campaigns have diversified. This report presents the results from a systematic literature review of evaluations of such information campaigns in the field of migration.

The study reveals that the evidence base available for programming and policymaking in this area is strikingly limited. We find that the uptake in the use of information campaigns has far outpaced any rigorous assessment of the effects that different campaigns may have on their respective target groups. In the absence of reliable evidence, the debate on the potential of this policy tool often relies on largely anecdotal evidence. Better evidence can show how information campaigns can be designed to best achieve their intended effects given the particular circumstances. The current lack of evidence limits the impact of future campaigns. While rigorous assessment of campaign impact can be difficult and costly, better evidence is clearly needed – wherever feasible and appropriate.

Based on an extensive, systematic literature review, 60 relevant evaluations of information campaigns that targeted potential migrants and traffickers, as well as communities at large, were identified from a pool of 3,600 records. Only 30 of the selected campaign evaluations had publicly available results; the rest were

collected through expert referrals. Two studies were published in peer-reviewed journals.

Among the campaigns featured in the 60 studies, the most popular communication tools were workshop-type activities and cable TV programmes/advertisements. Most campaigns focused on trafficking, followed by irregular migration and, more generally, smuggling.

A common issue is the lack of a clearly defined campaign objective and/or target group. This hampers any rigorous evaluation of programme effects. Whenever an objective is defined, it is most often aimed at “awareness-raising” and “knowledge generation.”

The majority of the campaign evaluations claimed that the campaign under study was “successful” in inducing a change in knowledge, perceptions, attitudes and – to a lesser degree – (intended) behaviour. However, most of the evaluations reviewed provided relatively little evidence of the full impact of information campaigns. While many of the evaluations reported the number and profiles of campaign recipients or beneficiaries, impact was not directly measured. (In the evaluation literature, impact is defined as a change in outcome that is directly attributable to the programme and not any other factor.)

Most of the evaluations identified did not meet minimum standards for robust evidence on programme effects. The large majority of evaluations were based on cross-sectional surveys of small numbers of participants (N) sampled at convenience, limiting the generalizability of the results. Only a few large-N studies employed a control-group design or involved pre- and post-measurements. None employed a (quasi-)experimental method for causal inference (e.g. randomized controlled trial, which is considered the “gold standard” for measuring impact).

Rigorous assessment of campaign impact is difficult. As data collection can be costly, the costs and benefits of conducting impact evaluations must be weighed carefully and should be proportionate to the campaign's overall scope. Obviously, the lack of evidence slows progress for the entire field. Actors that contribute to improving the evidence should be rewarded regardless of the results of individual campaign evaluations. Lastly, donors should require implementing agencies to make the results of evaluations publicly accessible to facilitate shared learning.

The last section of this report provides practical guidance for evaluating the impact of information campaigns, outlined along several steps: campaign implementation, choice of evaluation type, research design and sharing of findings/learnings.

1

INTRODUCTION

THE CHALLENGES OF EVALUATING INFORMATION CAMPAIGNS

The use of information campaigns to address irregular migration from Africa to Europe has been scaled up substantially in recent years – largely funded by European governments and the European Union. In general, information campaigns are defined as purposive attempts to inform, persuade and motivate behaviour by reaching audiences through organized communication activities (Atkin and Rice, 2013). However, it has been argued that this relatively inexpensive tool has one central shortcoming: a lack of proper assessment of its effectiveness (Browne, 2015). The aim of this extensive literature review is to assess the current state of knowledge of the effectiveness of migration information campaigns by reviewing the design (or methodology) and results of their respective evaluations.

The term “evaluation” is used freely in various contexts and may mean different things to different stakeholders. An evaluation may broadly be defined as an objective assessment of a planned, ongoing or completed project, programme or policy. There is a broad range of evaluation methods, and so campaign evaluations take a variety of forms. Evaluations are often commissioned to assess outcomes and the difference that an intervention made in these outcomes.

An impact evaluation is a particular type of campaign evaluation that seeks to answer cause-and-effect questions, for example, “What is the impact (or causal effect) of a programme on an outcome of interest?” It, therefore, attempts to detect the changes in outcomes that are directly attributable to the programme and not to some other, alternative factor(s). This distinguishes impact evaluations from conventional ex-post evaluations.

Migration information campaigns can broadly be analysed on four key aspects that implementers and evaluators should be aware of.

1. European Union, “Asylum, Migration and Integration Fund Ongoing Calls for Proposals” section. Available from https://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/financing/fundings/calls-for-proposals_en. Refer to specific campaigns at, for example: Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), “Events and Campaigns” section, available from www.unhcr.org/events-and-campaigns-56f15ab24.html; International Rescue Committee, “Support our Back to School Campaign”, webpage available from www.rescue.org/announcement/support-our-back-school-campaign; SEEFAR Enterprise, “Communications in Afghanistan”, webpage available from <https://seefar.org/projects/communications-in-afghanistan>; and IOM, “IOM X” and “i am a migrant”, in: “Campaigns and Projects” website section, available from www.iom.int/campaign



COMMUNICATION TOOL OR MEDIUM. For example, websites, social media, TV shows and video productions, radio reports, print media (including newspaper articles, posters, billboards, postcards and flyers), workshop-type activities, parades, concerts, (road)shows, quiz programmes, comic strips/books, theatre, sports-related activities, hotlines and information centres, and word-of-mouth peer networks.



CAMPAIGN OBJECTIVE. For example, awareness-raising, knowledge dissemination, change(s) in perception and (intended) behaviour, and shift(s) in societal attitudes.



TARGET GROUP. For example, the general population; communities or neighbourhoods (including community and religious leaders), sociodemographic subgroups (such as women, youth and old persons), victims of trafficking, smuggling networks, victims of forced labour, potential migrants, and parents, friends and children of migrants and potential migrants.



MESSAGE. For example, the risks of irregular migration journeys, the situation in a country of destination, and legal alternatives to migration, including local job opportunities (Schans and Optekamp, 2016).

A review of the evidence of the effectiveness of migration information campaigns is urgently needed due to their growing number. Donors increasingly require solid evidence, monitoring and evaluation, and the lack of such evidence leads many observers to call the general approach taken by information campaigns into question (Oeppen, 2016). For implementers of information campaigns, there is a crucial need for guidance on how to design such campaigns in order to achieve certain desired effects on the awareness, knowledge, perceptions, attitudes and (intended) behaviour of the specific target groups.

Generating evidence in this area is difficult, given the complexity and variety of migration information campaigns and their underlying assumptions (Nieuwenhuys and Pecaud, 2007; Carling and Hernández-Carretero, 2011; Schans and Optekamp, 2016). First, it is assumed that potential migrants lack information; second, that available information (i.e. prior to an information campaign) is inaccurate; third, that new information (i.e. from the campaign) is trusted and believed; fourth, that the new information will affect knowledge, perceptions and/or attitudes; and, fifth, that a change in knowledge, perceptions and/or attitudes will translate into a change in behaviour (e.g. Nieuwenhuys and Pecaud, 2007; Carling and Hernández-Carretero, 2011).

This literature review is funded by the UK Department for International Development as part of the project “Safety, Support and Solutions in the Central Mediterranean Route” of the International Organization for Migration (IOM). It will inform the design of a set of first-ever, rigorous impact evaluations of information campaigns that will be implemented in 2019 and 2020 under the same project.

2

WHAT IS GOOD EVIDENCE?

How do we know whether or not to trust a campaign evaluation? How do we know which studies produce good evidence?

The reliability, generalizability and overall quality of evidence on campaign/programme effects can be broadly divided into the four criteria introduced by Jesson et al. (2012) and the Cochrane Study Quality Guide (2013) – the most established guide for systematic literature reviews within the health field. Adapting these criteria to this paper’s field of interest, we derive a simplified, five-level ranking scale to distinguish between different classes of evidence from campaign evaluations (Table 1). The criteria are neither exhaustive nor mutually exclusive in all cases. It is also important to note that the criteria refer to the reliability of evaluations that seek to measure quantifiable programme impacts on a particular target group or audience. Different types and methods of assessment may be suitable for other purposes. The advantages and disadvantages of conducting a rigorous impact evaluation have to be weighed carefully and depend on the specific case (see Annex 2: Practical guidance for conducting impact evaluations of information campaigns).

Table 1: Evaluation quality criteria and ranking scale

RANK	CRITERIA			
	Randomized treatment allocation?	Control-group design?	Pre- and post-measurements?	Large sample size (N)?
1	YES	YES	YES	YES
2	NO	YES	YES	YES
3	NO	NO	YES	YES
4	NO	NO	NO	YES
5	NO	NO	NO	NO

2.1 | CRITERION 1: *Randomized treatment allocation*

The most crucial criterion is what the technical literature calls “randomized treatment allocation.” The treatment in this case are migration information campaigns. Treatment allocation is the process of deciding who will be exposed to the information campaign (treatment group) and who will not be exposed to it (control group). In randomized treatment allocation, individuals are randomly assigned to either one of the groups. This ensures that the treatment and control groups are comparable, and that no systematic differences exist. If the treatment group receiving the information campaign shows higher levels of change, on average, in their knowledge, perceptions, attitudes or (intended) behaviour compared to the control group (which has not been exposed to the campaign), the effects can be clearly attributed to the campaign and not some other factor. Impact evaluations based on randomized controlled trials are often referred to as the “gold standard” in the campaign evaluation literature (Gertler et al., 2016; Rogers, 2014).

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE 1

An information campaign is being delivered through townhall meetings in a region with high emigration potential. The campaign implementers are interested in determining the effect of these townhall events on the participants. Randomized treatment allocation means that half of the members of the target group (let’s say, men between the ages of 16 and 30) who live in the region are randomly selected to attend the townhall events (treatment group) and the other half attend another type of event or no event at all (control group). After the townhall events, the campaign implementers compare the knowledge of event participants with the knowledge of those in the control group. The difference is considered the effect of the campaign. Note that this effect is only reliable if the control group is comparable to the treatment group. If enough people participate in the campaign evaluation, randomization ensures that the effects are not due to some other relevant factor that the survey was unable to measure.

2.2 | CRITERION 2: *Control-group design*

A second criterion is the presence of a control group, even when the treatment cannot be assigned randomly. “Quasi-experimental” methods can be used to statistically account for differences between the control and treatment groups.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE 2

In the case of the townhall information campaign in Practical Example 1, the campaign implementers could also simply collect data on the participants to the event and test whether their knowledge has improved. It must be noted that it is also possible for knowledge to increase over time even without being exposed to the campaign. This is one reason why any programme effect observed in a treatment group is compared to a control group that was not targeted by the campaign. If randomization is not possible, the implementers may still collect data on a similar control group. In the analysis, differences between the groups should be taken into account to arrive at reliable conclusions.

2.3 | CRITERION 3: *Pre- and post-measurements*

Another evaluation quality criterion is the question of whether data was collected both before and after an information campaign. It is important that the same people who were exposed to the campaign were surveyed before and after their participation (pre- and post-measurements). This design allows implementers and/or researchers to establish whether the campaign has had an impact on the participants (i.e. “treatment effect on the treated”). However, it cannot help to determine whether the campaign was more successful (and, if so, by how much) in reaching its objectives than if there were no campaign at all. A slight deviation from this concept is called “repeated cross-sectional design,” where different sets of people are surveyed before and after a campaign. This design is not always ideal, given that it is difficult to ascertain who were or were not exposed to the campaign. However, such a design may still be informative if the pre- and post-samples are both large, random samples of the same specified population.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE 3

Some evaluations ask campaign participants for feedback after the campaign is over. Results are commonly reported according to the following template: “XX per cent of _____ are/have _____” (e.g. “70 per cent of participants have good knowledge about the risks of migration”). While this statement may document an outcome, it is not an impact. The participants’ level of knowledge before their exposure to the campaign must be determined to test whether the knowledge level has, indeed, increased – either overall or for a particular subgroup of the population.

2.4 CRITERION 4: *Large sample size (N)*

Sample size (N) refers to the number of people participating as subjects in a campaign evaluation. Only a sufficiently large sample ensures generalizability and reliability of the evidence of campaign/programme effects. Evaluation designs with a small number of observations include pilot studies and qualitative research designs based most commonly on focus groups or in-depth interviews. Ranking qualitative research designs on the lowest position, however, does not imply lower research quality compared to quantitative research designs. The purpose of the ranking scale is to establish the degree to which evaluations can measure (or quantify) campaign effects and impacts. In establishing measurable (or quantifiable) and generalizable impact, qualitative evaluation is thus limited. Regardless, there still are certain circumstances where a qualitative type of evaluation is the most ideal option.

PRACTICAL EXAMPLE 4

An evaluation of an information campaign finds that it was “successful” in increasing knowledge by 30 per cent. If only 10 people attended the campaign event, there is reason to suspect that the result is biased. It is possible that the result would be very different had a different group of 10 people attended. When there are few people exposed to a campaign,

each individual has a bigger impact on the results than if there were a big number of participants. For example, if 3 of the 10 participants in the event were over 70 years old, the information provided in the campaign would unlikely have an effect on their attitudes towards migration, as they were not planning to migrate in the first place. If there were 100 participants and only 3 were over 70, their relative weight in the group would be less problematic. The sample size of subjects in the campaign evaluation is also important, even if many people were exposed to the campaign itself. For example, if 1,000 people were exposed to the campaign, but only 50 people responded to the end-line survey, the chances are high that the results would not be representative.

3

LESSONS LEARNED

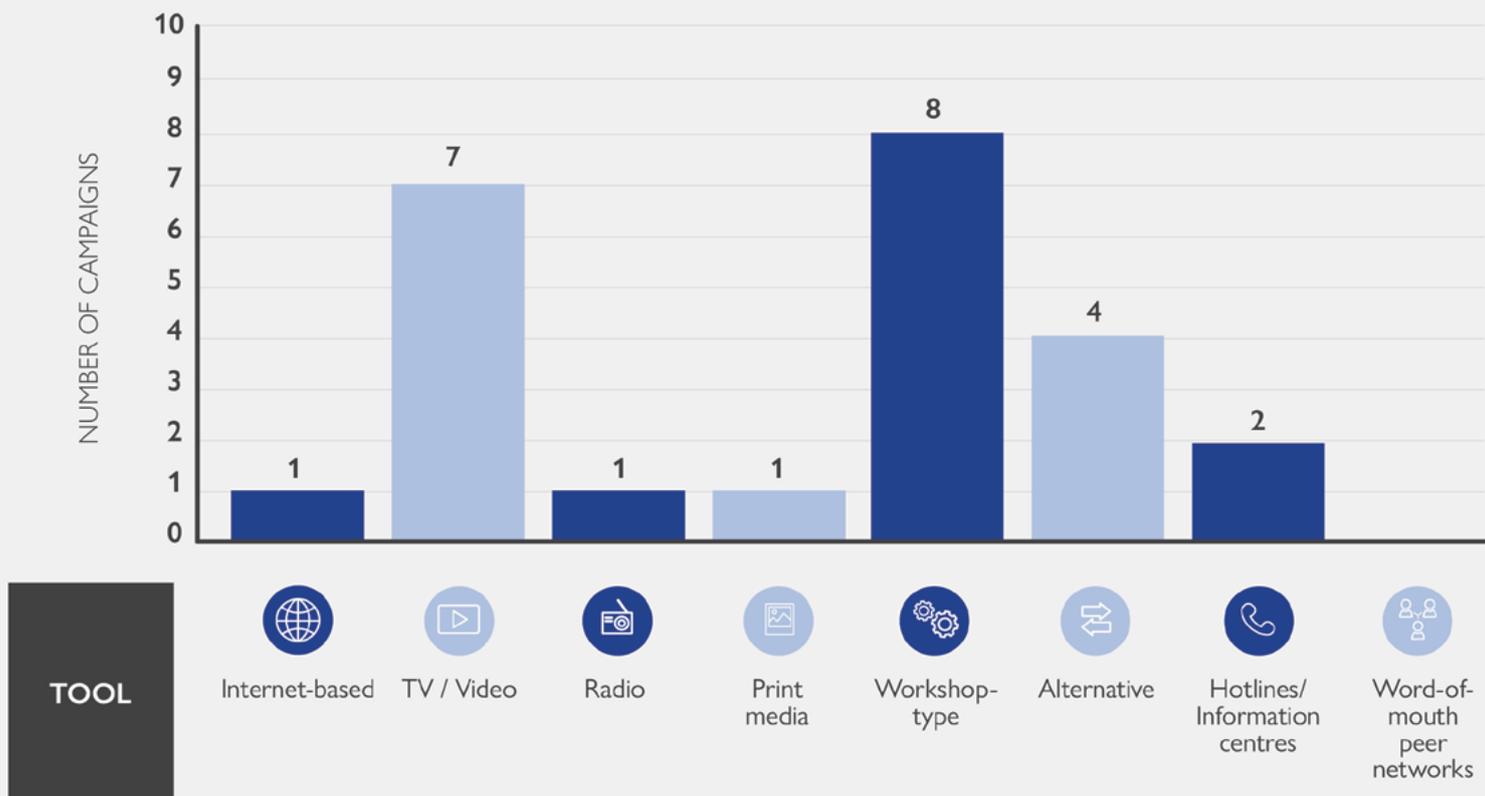
EVALUATIONS OF MIGRATION INFORMATION CAMPAIGNS

Of the 60 relevant reports/articles on campaign evaluations (which totalled 65, as some reports/articles feature more than one campaign evaluation), 20 were gathered through a database text search, 12 through a bibliographic search and 28 through expert referrals. Of the 60 articles, 58 were part of the so-called “grey literature,” and the other 2 were published in peer-reviewed journals (Davy, 2014; and McNevin et al., 2016). Only approximately half of the articles were publicly available. The exact durations, implementation periods and budgets of the campaigns were rarely reported. In cases where information was available, campaigns lasted between one month to one year.

The 65 campaign evaluations under study took place on four continents: Africa (specifically, in Ethiopia, Ghana, Libya, Tunisia and Zimbabwe), the Americas (Colombia), Asia (Afghanistan, Cambodia, India, Islamic Republic of Iran and the Philippines) and Europe (Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Montenegro). Some campaigns narrowly focused on one village, a specific community (e.g. fishermen) or a church congregation. Other campaigns targeted entire provinces within a country or were even launched nationwide. Most campaigns were implemented by intergovernmental organizations such as IOM (N = 39; base N = 65).

The campaigns used a variety of communication tools or media, for instance, online channels, including social media platforms and project websites/webpages; TV shows and video productions; radio reports; print media, including newspapers, posters, billboards, postcards and flyers; workshop-type activities; alternative media, such as parades, concerts, (road) shows, quizzes, sketches, and theatrical or sports events; phone hotlines and information centres; and word-of-mouth peer networks. Figure 1 shows the frequency distribution of communication tools used by information campaigns that used a single tool rather than a mix of two or more tools.

Figure 1: Frequency distribution of communication tools used in information campaigns



Note: These frequencies include only those information campaigns that used a single tool (N = 24).

3 LESSONS LEARNED

While the communication tool(s) used by the campaign were often stated explicitly, the objective of the campaign, as well as the specific target group, was often not clearly documented (Bryant and Joudo, 2017). Of the 65 campaigns, only 44 specified a clear objective. The majority of campaigns stated awareness-raising and/or knowledge dissemination (N = 24; base N = 74) as campaign objectives, while a minority aimed to achieve a change in attitudes (N = 11; base N = 74) or behaviour (N = 15; base N = 74), the latter generally in combination with at least one other objective. The most popular combination is knowledge, attitudes and behaviour (N = 8; base N = 65).

The indicated target groups were very diverse. In the majority of cases, either migrants/potential victims of trafficking (N = 21; base N = 88) or the whole community (N = 25; base N = 88) were defined as the direct target group. When an age focus was reported, it was most often

adolescents (N = 11; base N = 88). Gender focus varied noticeably by topic, with women stated as the primary target group in the case of anti-trafficking campaigns and men in the case of anti-smuggling campaigns. Four campaigns had secondary, indirect target groups (i.e. “multipliers”) in addition to their primary target group.

The main campaign message in the majority of campaigns pertained to trafficking (N = 39; base N = 93), followed by irregular migration (N = 18; base N = 93) and smuggling more generally (N = 12; base N = 93). The key message communicated depended on the target group, for example, potential victims of human trafficking, potential traffickers/smugglers or the general community. Campaigns targeting potential victims focused on communicating legal rights (Ageros and Pathilath, 2009), protection options (Research Communications Group, 2016) and empowerment (Al-Hussainy, 2011), with some featuring personal testimonials, for example, in the “I am Fatima” campaign (IOM X, 2016), or campaign slogans such as “Don’t be fooled – You too could be a victim of trafficking” (Ballestraz, 2014) and “Don’t be fooled by the promises of people smugglers” (Schloenhardt and Philipson, 2013).

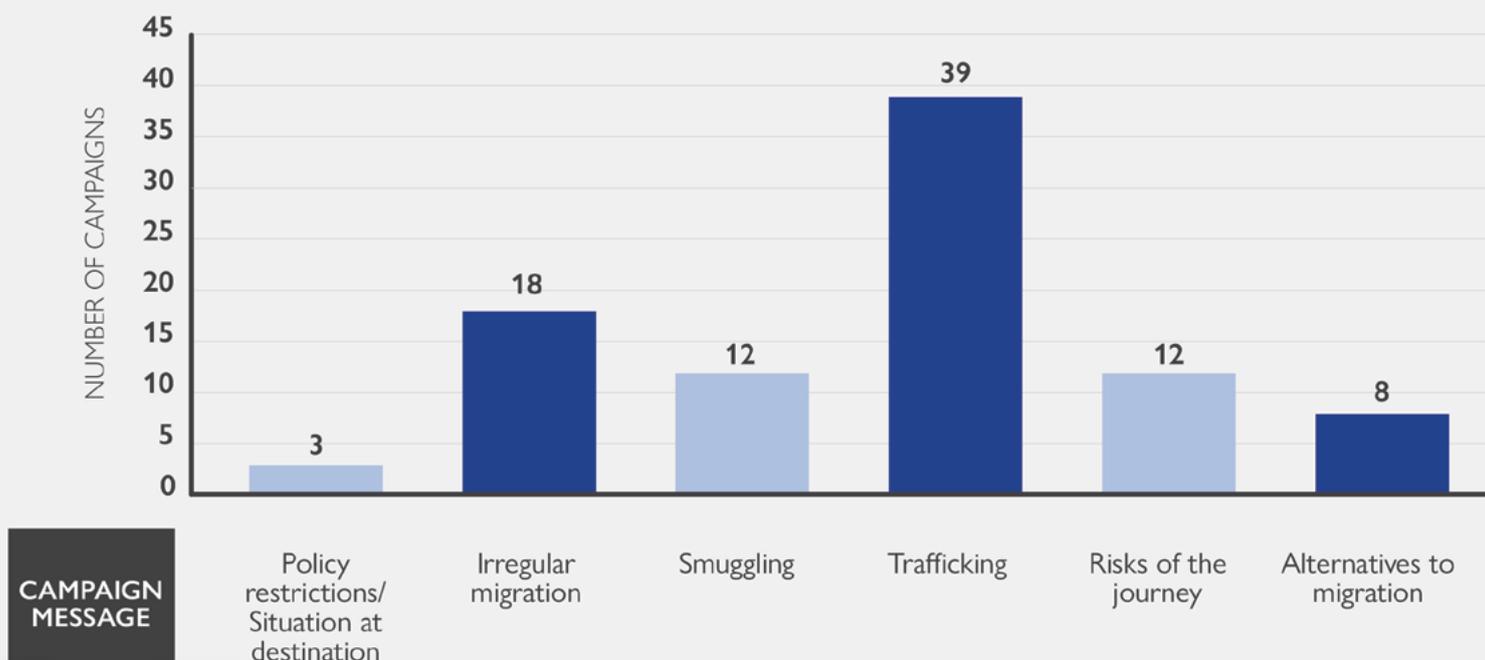
Potential traffickers were targeted by communicating legal punishment (Marshall and Berman, 2013) and potential smugglers with moral messages such as “I know smuggling irregular migrants is wrong” (Schloenhardt and Philipson, 2013). Especially for the trafficking sector, messages were used to strengthen the community’s role and enable people to protect potential victims and detect incidents (Stewart, 2013; Bugnion de Moreta, 2017).

Some campaigns on irregular migration more generally highlighted the risks of the journey (N = 12; base N = 93). Key slogans included “pay a people smuggler and you’ll pay the price” (Schloenhardt and Philipson, 2013), while personal testimonials were featured in the “Telling the Real Story” campaign.

A minority of campaigns emphasized alternatives to irregular migration (N = 8; base N = 93). One example is the IOM X campaign, with its catchy slogan “Know Before You Go.” The situation at destination was rarely the focus (N = 2; base N = 93), exceptions being the “Communicating Borders” and “Don’t Be Sorry” campaigns (Beyer et al., 2017; Schloenhardt and Philipson, 2013).

The specific tone or frame of the campaign message is generally not reported (unreported N = 39; base N = 65). 12 out of the 26 evaluations that reported tones can be labelled as “emotional,” 7 as “primarily fact-based,” 4 as “fun-based” and 2 as “religious,” while 2 others claimed to be “balanced.”

Figure 2: Frequency distribution of information campaigns' stated messages



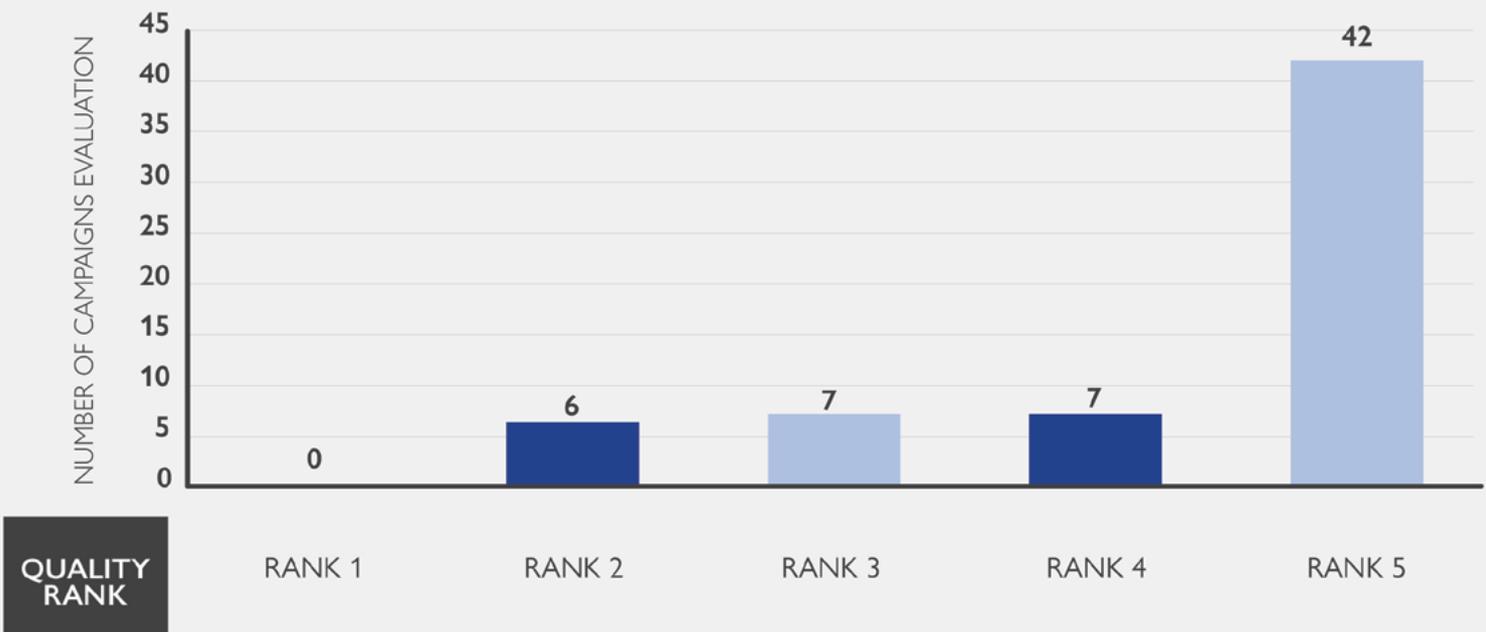
Note: These frequencies include information campaigns with multiple messages. Hence, a campaign may have more than one stated message and is counted accordingly.

3 LESSONS LEARNED

The quality and, thus, reliability of the campaign evaluations selected were rated on the set of quality criteria by Jesson et al. (2012) and the Cochrane Quality Study Guide (2013), introduced in Part 2. The ranking scale ranges from 1 to 5, with Rank 1 being the level of the most sophisticated research design for campaign evaluation. None of the evaluations in this review were rated at the first rank, indicating that none of them met the highest standards for evaluations of quantifiable programme impacts. Roughly equal numbers of campaign evaluations were rated at Ranks 2, 3 and 4. These evaluations featured non-randomized control-group designs (Rank 2), before- and after-campaign measurements (Rank 3) and a simple large-N post-campaign survey (Rank 4). Two thirds of the evaluations were rated at the lowest rank, indicating low generalizability and low reliability of results. The evaluations that received this rank primarily include qualitative, small-N and/or pilot studies.

While the results strikingly reveal the lack of high-quality evidence in this field, it is important to note that being in the lower ranks does not imply lower research quality or relevance. The purpose of the ranking scale is to establish the degree to which evaluations can measure quantifiable campaign effects and impacts. Qualitative evaluations are thus severely limited with respect to establishing measurable impacts. Regardless, qualitative evaluation may still be useful in certain circumstances.

Figure 3: Frequency distribution of evaluation quality rankings



Note: The frequencies are based on the number of campaign evaluations under study (N = 65); detailed definitions of the research design ranks are described in the text.

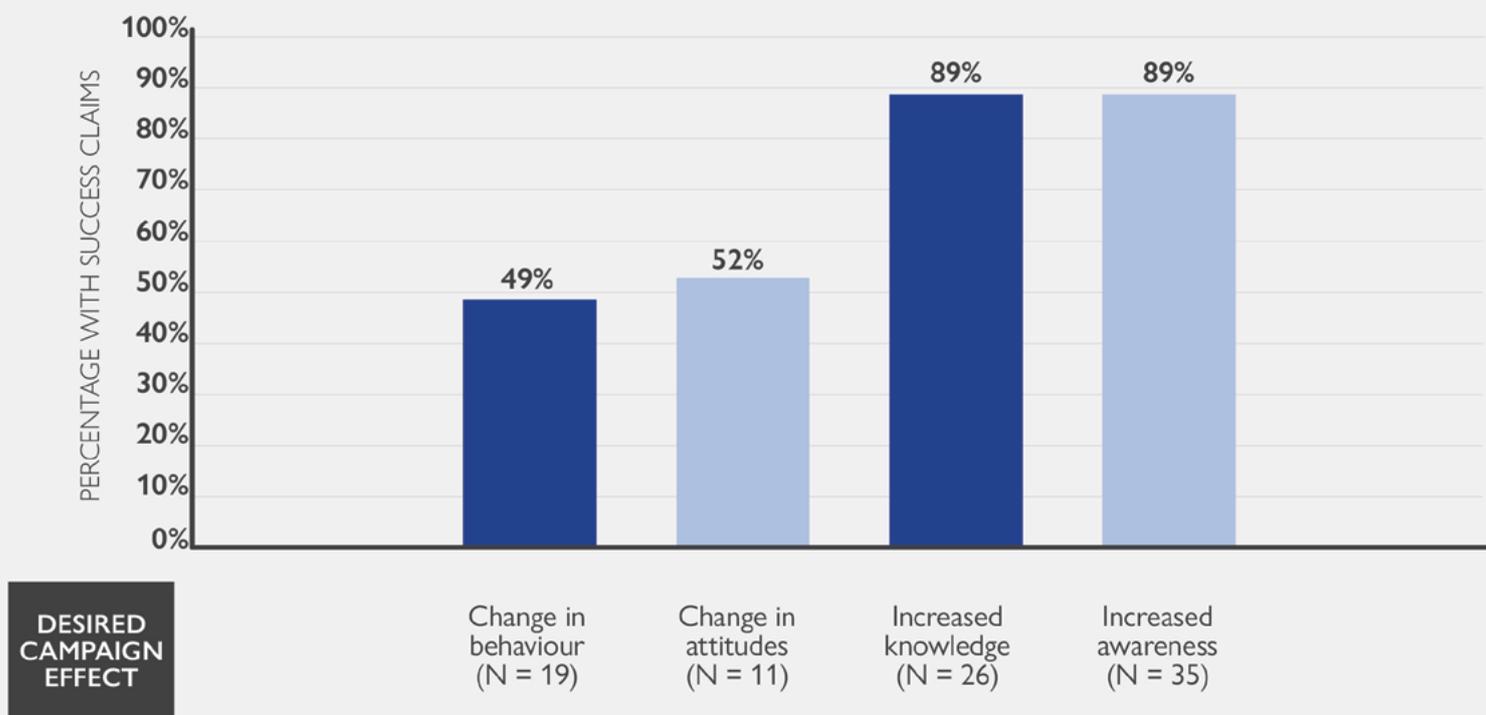
The sample size of subjects (N) in campaign evaluations was rarely documented (unreported N = 40; base N = 65). The range varied from 10 to 1,785, with a high mean value of 384.6 participants. This high average may not be surprising, given that studies with high numbers of participants are more likely to report their findings.

The majority of campaigns under study claimed to be “successful” to some degree (successful = 49; not successful = 6; mixed = 3; base N = 65). “Mixed” results refer to variable levels of success depending on geographic area (e.g. different cities). A more nuanced picture emerges when breaking down the number of success claims according to the objective of the respective campaign. Campaigns with the objective of influencing behaviour (N = 19; base N = 65) are only successful in half of the cases (N = 9; base N = 19). In addition, measuring behaviour is quite complex, as measurement can be based on behavioural intentions (e.g. plans of migrating), information-gathering behaviour (e.g. seeking migration-related information), reporting behaviour (e.g. reporting suspected trafficking cases), or actual migration behaviour.² Evaluations of campaigns aimed at changing attitudes tended to show only a slight effect in the targeted direction (N = 6; base N = 11). Evaluations of campaigns that aimed to influence knowledge or awareness mostly showed positive effects – at least in the short term (knowledge = 23; base N = 26; awareness N = 31; base N = 35). The evaluation of the anti-trafficking campaign by IOM and USAID (2006) showed that the audience’s ability to recall main messages from the campaign varied strongly depending on the message itself. In this example, the most effective messages were about the number of years a convicted trafficker would spend in prison, and the fact that parents who sell their children qualify as traffickers.

It is important to note, however, that success claims must be judged by the quality of the evidence that underpins them. That two thirds of the evaluations were placed at the lowest rank should warn about the limited reliability of any success claims. Another issue is “publication bias” – the fact that studies are more likely to be released if they show positive effects.

2. Reported behavioural intentions might have suffered from response bias and thus differed from actual behavioural observations

Figure 4: Percentage frequency distribution of campaigns with success claims, by campaign objective



Note: The percentage frequencies represent the percentage of campaigns with success claims respective to their stated campaign goals. The x-axis indicates the campaign objective and the y-axis indicates the percentage share of evaluations that claimed to show positive effects.

4 |

CONCLUSION

This systematic literature review of information campaign evaluations in the field of migration revealed that the effects of such campaigns are not clear. The lack and limited quality of available evidence is striking, given the growth in investments in information campaigns. Of the 60 relevant articles that were identified (see Annex I for a description of systematic literature review methodology), half were not publicly available, only 2 were published in peer-reviewed journals, and the majority employed evaluation designs that are severely limited in their ability to measure impacts (defined as changes in outcomes that are directly attributable to the programme and not any other factors).

The majority of campaign evaluations claimed that the respective campaign was “successful” in inducing a change in knowledge, perceptions, attitudes and – to a lesser degree – intended (not actual) behaviour. However, the large majority of evaluations were based on a small number of participants (N) sampled at convenience, limiting the generalizability of the results. Another common issue has been the lack of clearly defined campaign objectives and target groups, hampering rigorous evaluation of programme effects.

Rigorous assessment of campaign impact is difficult and data collection can be costly. As such, the costs and benefits of conducting impact evaluations must be weighed carefully and should be proportionate to the campaign’s overall scope. However, the current lack of evidence slows progress for the entire field, and more rigorous evaluations are needed to inform policy and programming. (Annex II of this report provides guidance on the implementation of an impact evaluation.)

Actors that contribute to improving the evidence base should be rewarded regardless of the results of the individual campaign evaluations. Donors should require implementing agencies to make evaluations publicly accessible to facilitate shared learning. In addition, more exchange across different agencies and sectors are needed to exchange best practices in evaluating information campaigns and maximize future impact.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to many internal and external experts for their input and advice, notably Katharine Bryant (Walk Free Foundation), Caitlin Optekamp and Tara Dermott (IOM X).

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— ANNEX 1

SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW METHODOLOGY

Between March and May 2018, the authors conducted an extensive systematic literature review with three steps (see Figure 5). A key text search on academic databases, Google (general search engine) and Google Scholar (specialized Google search engine for scholarly literature) retrieved the main body of research literature.³ Google was deemed particularly valuable for the grey⁴ literature search, while Google Scholar was expected to provide primarily scientific literature (Ortega, 2014). A bibliographic research approach expanded the pool of literature. Additionally, non-publicly available work was accessed through expert referrals.

Relevant search terms were defined based on a strategy proposed by Booth et al. (2012). A recent review by Browne (2015) was identified as a “pearl” article which provided relevant key words. Search terms included various combinations of the words “information,” “campaign,” “communication,” “impact,” “effect,” “evaluation,” “evidence,” “measurement,” “monitor,” “migration” and “trafficking.”

The titles and abstracts of the first 50 results from each platform were screened for each search term. Studies were included if they were published in the English language after the year 2000. Campaigns in destination countries were excluded. This first screening procedure excluded 3,198 out of 3,600 search results. The final sample consisted of 60 reports, with 65 evaluations in total (some reports covered multiple evaluations). As such, the base number of campaign evaluations (i.e., base N) varied depending on the variable being analysed. See Figure A1 for a description of the step-by-step selection process and Table A1 for a full list of the final sample of reports.

3. An additional check using Web of Science (an online, subscription-based, scientific citation indexing service) as a search platform did not reveal any meaningful results.

4. The term “grey literature” applies to any written work that is not an academic journal article (Jesson et al., 2012).

Figure A1: The literature selection process

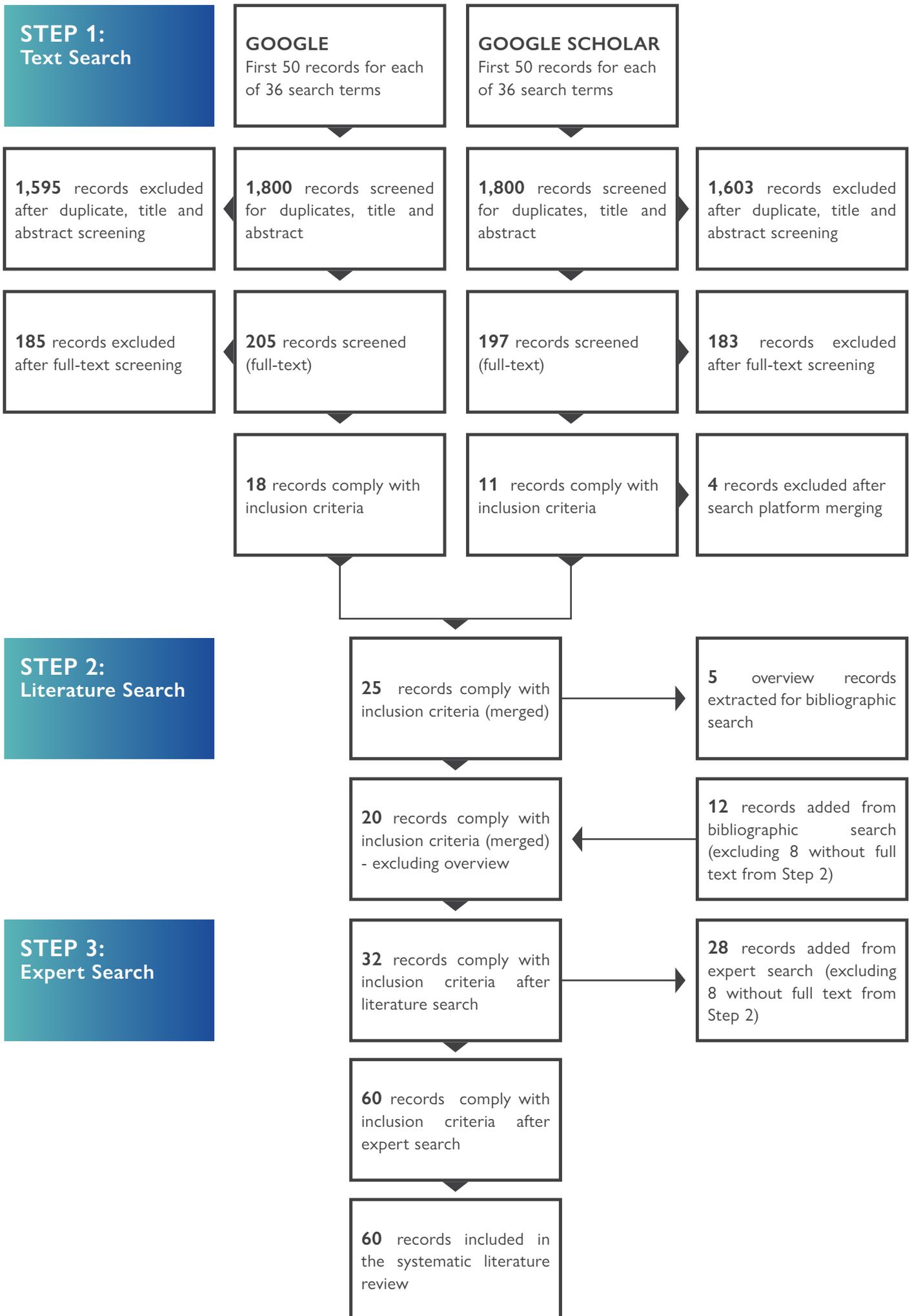


Table A1: Migration information campaign evaluations included in the study

AUTHOR(S)	TITLE	YEAR
Ageros and Pathilath	Terminal Evaluation Report of UNODC R76 Project	2009
Al-Hussainy	Evaluation Report: Protection and Empowerment of Victims of Human Trafficking and Domestic Violence Project	2011
Amenufor	Combating Trafficking in Persons and Irregular Migration from and through Ghana	2010
Ballestraz	Evaluation of the PIP-Project and Assessment of Victim Assistance in Romania	2014
Beyer et al.	“Communicating Borders”: Informing Migrants and Potential Asylum Seekers through Social Media	2017
Boak et al.	Smooth Flight: A Guide to Preventing Youth Trafficking	2013
Bugnion de Moreta	External Evaluation of the “Strengthening Regional Multi-National Coordination for Increased Protection of Vulnerable and Trafficked Migrant Children Travelling Through the Gulf of Aden Migration Route” Project	2017
Canadian Government	Evaluation of the Global Assistance for Irregular Migrants Program	2015
Centre for Research on Environment Health and Population Activities	The Anti-trafficking Programme in Rural Nepal: Assessment of Change in Awareness and Communication among Adolescent Girls, Peers and Parents in Baglung District	2004
Chames et al.	Final Report for the Evaluation of the United Nations Joint Programme on Human Trafficking	2012
Dalberg Global Development Advisors and UN Disaster Assessment and Coordination	In-depth Evaluation of UN Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking (UN.GIFT)	2011
DanChurchAid Bangladesh	Mid-term Evaluation of the Project “Promoting Safe Migration and Local Development in Eight Districts in Bangladesh”	2012
Davy	Understanding the Complexities of Responding to Child Sex Trafficking in Thailand and Cambodia	2014
Development Data	Cross-border Mobility, Irregular Migration and HIV and AIDS: The Safe Journey Information Campaign 2005–2010	2011
European Commission	Strengthening the Role of Civil Society in Eliminating Human Trafficking in Zimbabwe (2010–2012)	2012
European Commission	A Study on Smuggling of Migrants: Characteristics, Responses and Cooperation with Third Countries	2015
Gera	Regional Programme and Dialogue on Facilitating Safe and Legal Migration from South Asia to the European Union	2011

AUTHOR(S)	TITLE	YEAR
Hitchcock	Final Report to UNHCR: Raising Awareness to Combat Trafficking and Smuggling through Bossasso	2008
Individualized Education Program (IEP) Team	Evaluation of the Program for the Enhancement of Transit and Irregular Migration Management in Libya	2008
Institute of International Education	Assessing Change in Attitudes, Awareness and Behavior in Indonesian Youths: A Multi-method Communication and Social Media Approach to Help Counter Human Trafficking	2014
Interieur Binnenlandse Zagen (Federal Public Service Interior, Belgium)	Prevention of Irregular Migration from Albania to Belgium	2017
International Organization for Migration (IOM)	Final Report to the Government of Australia (Customs and Border Protection Service): Information Campaign against Irregular Migration from Sri Lanka to Australia	2010
	Technical Support to the Government of Ghana to Address Child Trafficking and Other Child Protection Abuses in the Ketu South, North and South Tongu Districts of the Volta Region	2013
	Strengthening the Capacity of the Government of Seychelles to Combat Trafficking in Persons	2016
	Evaluation of the Ghana Integrated Migration Management Approach Project	2017
	Counter-trafficking Campaign Targeting Clients of Prostitution in the Czech Republic	2008
IOM and USAID	Mass and Micro-information Campaign Awareness Impact Assessment: Information Campaign to Combat Trafficking in Women and Children in Cambodia Project (Joint evaluation by Cambodia's Ministry of Women's Affairs and IOM)	2006
IOM X	MTV Exit Myanmar Final Report	2012
	MTV Exit Asian Countries Compared	2012
	MTV Exit Viet Nam Final Report	2012
	Cambodia: Safe Migration Program in Cambodia	2016
	Philippines: Roadshow Baseline and Impact Evaluation	2016
	Myanmar Roadshow	2017
	Prisana: KAP Baseline and Impact Assessment Full Report	2016
Kuneviciute	Anti-trafficking Campaign in Kosovo 2012 Final Campaign Evaluation Report	2012

Table A1: Migration information campaign evaluations included in the study

AUTHOR(S)	TITLE	YEAR
López	Joint Final External Evaluation of Projects CT.0783 and CT.0810	2016
Marshall and Berman	Promoting the Implementation of the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, and the Protocol against Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, both supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime	2013
McNevin et al.	The Rationalities of Migration Management: Control and Subversion in an Indonesia-based Counter-smuggling Campaign	2016
Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs	Leaving Libya: Rapid Assessment of Municipalities of Departures of Migrants in Libya	2017
Novelli	Malaysian Public Information Campaign	2011
Nshimiyimana	Addressing Irregular Migration in Southern Africa: Addressing Irregular Migration in Southern Africa	2017
Pawliczko	Inventory of Impact Assessment of International Migration Projects/Programmes Carried Out by GMG Agencies	
Peschi	Strengthening Security in Djibouti and Safety of Migrants through Counter-trafficking, Marine Safety and Emergency Assistance	2017
Player	Campaign Evaluation: “By Boat, No Visa” – Final Report of Findings	2013
Research Communications Group (RCG)	Enhancing Protection and Improving Knowledge on the Risks of Irregular Migration in Sudan	2016
	Enhancing National Capacities and Cooperation for the Prevention of Trafficking in Persons (TIP), Protection of Victims and Prosecution of Traffickers in Ethiopia	2016
Sainsbury	Information Campaign to Combat Trafficking in Women and Children in Cambodia	2006
Scanlan	Evaluation of International Organization for Migration’s Counter-trafficking Project in Tunisia	2013
Schloenhardt and Philipson	“No to People Smuggling”: A Review of Australia’s Anti-migrant Smuggling Awareness Campaigns	2013
Shaw et al.	Evaluation: ILO’s Action Programme Against Forced Labour and Trafficking in West Africa (PATWA)	2006
Siddiqui et al.	Information Campaigns on Safe Migration and Pre-departure Training	2008
Skuse and Downman	MTV EXIT ASIA III: A Campaign to Increase Awareness and Prevention of Trafficking in Persons Independent Review	2013

AUTHOR(S)	TITLE	YEAR
Stewart	Independent Evaluation of IOM's Project "Horn/Gulf of Aden/ Yemen: Improving Protection of Migrants – Phase III"	2013
Thainiyom	Human Trafficking Team A Media Campaign to Increase Awareness and Prevention of Human Trafficking in Asia: Background Strategies and Outcome Evaluation of the MTV EXIT Campaign	2011
Treviño	Improving the Protection of Vulnerable Migrants Travelling through the Horn of Africa, 2013–2015, and Previous Phases	2015
UN-Women	End-line Evaluation UN-Women's Anti-Human Trafficking Programme	2014
Verduijn	Capacity-building, Information and Awareness-raising towards Orderly Migration in the Western Balkans	2010
World Bank	Promoting Safe Migration through Innovation	2016
World Vision	End-of-Project Evaluation of "Preventing Trafficking in Persons through Sustainable Livelihood Recovery for Typhoon-affected People"	2015

— ANNEX 2

PRACTICAL GUIDANCE FOR CONDUCTING IMPACT EVALUATIONS OF INFORMATION CAMPAIGNS

Before outlining how to conduct an impact evaluation, it is important to clarify what an impact evaluation is and what it isn't. The term "evaluation" means different things to different stakeholders. It is often used in combination with another word, "monitoring" (as in "M and E" or "monitoring and evaluation"). Monitoring and evaluation, however, are two separate things and serve different purposes.

According to Gertler et al. (2016), "monitoring is a continuous process that tracks what is happening within a programme and uses the data collected to inform programme implementation and day-to-day management and decisions." Monitoring tracks inputs, activities and outputs.

An evaluation is an objective assessment of a planned, ongoing or completed project, programme or policy. Evaluations can take many forms and are often commissioned to assess outcomes and the difference an intervention made in these outcomes.

Impact evaluations are a particular type of evaluation that seek to answer cause-and-effect questions. What is the impact (or causal effect) of a programme on an outcome of interest? An impact evaluation attempts to detect the changes in outcomes that are directly attributable to the programme and not to any other factor. This distinguishes impact evaluations from conventional ex-post evaluations.

Impact evaluations are the best tool to reliably assess programme effects and are often called the "gold standard" for measuring or quantifying impact. To be able to estimate the impact of a programme on outcomes, any method chosen must estimate the so-called counterfactual, that is, what the outcome would have been for programme participants if they had not participated in the programme (Gertler et al., 2016).

In this light, we have developed some basic guidance for programme managers and donors who wish to assess the impact of information campaigns in the field of migration.

IMPLEMENTATION FIRST

Any evaluation exercise is clearly limited by the implementation of the information campaign itself. Programme managers and field coordinators should define the objective(s) of the campaign, its target group, its message and the appropriate channel(s) for its delivery. These decisions should be based on a priori assessment of available data collected at baseline (i.e. before the start of the campaign), previous research and policy priorities.

There are a number of ideal conditions for an effective impact evaluation:

First, it has to be clear what effect the campaign is supposed to produce. Is it a change in perception, attitude, knowledge, intended behaviour or actual behaviour? All these concepts are similar but different. Assumptions about the chain of events that need to occur to produce the intended effect should be transparent (i.e. theory of change or causal chain). Taking a common example: It is not enough to state that a campaign intends to “raise awareness of the risks of irregular migration.” These questions must be answered: Which risks should be highlighted? How can awareness be measured? Migration from where, to where and by whom?

Second, the target group has to be clear: Does the campaign aim to affect change among potential migrants themselves? Or does it target their parents, communities and community leaders? It is much harder to evaluate the effect of an intervention on the whole community compared to specific individuals.

Third, which tools or channels are most suitable for reaching the particular target group? Does the target group have access to radios or social media? Which channels or media are generally more trustworthy and who should be the messenger? An emotional testimonial may have a different effect compared to a fact-based campaign. A townhall discussion or community conversation may have different effects compared to a billboard.

It might sound obvious that these questions should be answered before any evaluation is considered. However, field implementation does not always proceed according to plan. There are many moving parts and conditions are often difficult on the ground. However, one can only measure what has been previously defined and implemented.

Standardized formats of dissemination are equally important. When measuring the effect of a particular information campaign, the campaign should follow the same format (content, dissemination and target group) consistently throughout the measurement period. For example, if a campaign organizes 20 townhall events that are supposed to induce knowledge gains, it is important that the messages at each event are the same.

In all these aspects, information campaigns can benefit from having an integrated evaluation component from the start. It helps to sharpen the design, keep expectations realistic and make tough but conscious decisions. The rule of thumb in all these decisions is clear: Be specific. Vagueness is the enemy of impact measurement.

~ | CHOOSING THE RIGHT TYPE OF EVALUATION

Evaluating programme impacts in a rigorous way is not easy. It is costly because a lot of data has to be collected and it requires trained staff with a good understanding of causal inference, programme evaluation, econometrics and data collection in (mostly) low-income settings. Donors and project managers have to weigh the costs and benefits of a proper impact evaluation carefully. One helpful indicator is scale. If your campaign costs less than EUR 500,000, it is probably not worth spending EUR 100,000–200,000 on an impact evaluation. If your campaign reaches less than 1,000 people, it is probably also not worthwhile to collect data. If your campaign is an experiment where you are trying out different approaches in various settings at the same time, an impact evaluation should not be your first choice. Other assessments, such as ex ante surveys, or qualitative evaluations, such as focus groups or interviews, can be a low-cost option to gather feedback and learn. However, these approaches are limited in establishing any reliable claim about impacts. Given the scarcity of reliable evidence on information campaigns, especially in the field of migration (Chapell and Laczko, 2011), more rigorous experimental impact evaluations are needed. More and more international development organizations are starting to use rigorous methods for impact evaluation such as randomized controlled trials, as results from these are more credible than other evaluation efforts and, therefore, have the potential to effect learning and lasting policy change. However, the decision should not be taken lightly.

3 | MEASURING IMPACT: WHAT IS NEEDED?

If you decide to go for a robust impact evaluation after carefully weighing the pros and cons of conducting one, there are several steps to follow.

Choosing a design. It is helpful to start with a setup of a randomized controlled trial (RCT) where the individuals who would be exposed to your campaign are randomly selected from your target group. If this is not possible (and there are many reasons why it often is not possible), consider alternative (quasi-experimental) designs, such as propensity score matching, difference-in-difference models, regression discontinuity designs, instrumental variables and others. In most cases, it is advisable to have a control group that is as similar as possible to your campaign audience. Furthermore, you should collect data on campaign participants before and after the campaign and compare it with data on target group members who were not exposed to the campaign. There are a number of excellent online resources available to support your design choices.⁵

Questionnaire development. People generally do not like to answer surveys. Try to keep them as short as possible. Only collect information that is absolutely necessary. Think carefully about how questions are phrased and whether the terminology and concepts used apply in the local context. For this purpose, make sure to field-test the questionnaire to check how long it takes to conduct and whether the enumerator and the respondent understand each question correctly. Nowadays, most questionnaires are computer-programmed and interviews can be conducted with the assistance of computer software, that is, enumerators ask questions and encode answers or responses on a tablet or smart phone. The data is then automatically uploaded onto the programme server and analysed remotely. If you collect data on a control group, make sure to ask questions regarding their sociodemographic and socioeconomic background to ensure during

5. P.J. Gertler et al., *Impact Evaluation in Practice*, second edition. (Inter-American Development Bank and World Bank, Washington, D.C., 2016); H. White and D.A. Raitzer, *Impact Evaluation of Development Interventions: A Practical Guide* (ADB, Mandaluyong, Philippines, 2017), available from www.adb.org/publications/impact-evaluation-development-interventions-practical-guide; and P. Rogers, Overview of Impact Evaluation, UNICEF, Florence, 2014, available from www.unicef-irc.org/publications/746-overview-of-impact-evaluation-methodological-briefs-impact-evaluation-no-1.html

statistical analysis that the campaign audience is, in fact, comparable with the control group.

Enumerator training. Most data is only as good as the staff collecting it. Enumerators should be trained and incentivized appropriately. Only a few bad enumerators can substantially bias your results if the data that they have collected is of poor quality. You also need a protocol to clearly spell out each step of the interview process. The logistics of where and when to send which enumerator are a major part of a successful impact evaluation.

Data collection. Make sure you have enough manpower to collect enough survey responses in time and check whether enumerators follow the protocol. It has become more common to conduct back-checks where different enumerators revisit respondents and check whether the responses are consistent with the first interview. High-frequency checks are also often performed on incoming data to check whether response patterns make sense.

Data cleaning and analysis. The better the evaluation design and data collection process, the less time you will need for cleaning data and actually analysing it. A lot of the analysis can be pre-programmed before any data is actually collected. Generally, you would want to start with simple descriptive statistics (proportions, means, percentages, breakdowns, etc.). You would then want to move towards statistical modelling (regression analysis) if your research design requires it. The report should always include information on the number of participants (N), the sampling strategy (how participants were identified and contacted), the full questionnaire (which shows the exact wording of questions as respondents received them), the timeframe of the data collection and details on the statistical models employed.

➤ | SHARING YOUR INSIGHTS

Impact evaluations are meaningless if the results and insights are not shared with staff in your organization and beyond. Ideally, you would want to circulate the report widely among policymakers and practitioners. Information campaigns that aim to induce behaviour change are a big topic in the social sciences. Consider publishing your study in an academic journal to introduce your findings to a wider audience. If experts, policymakers and practitioners do not have access to your study, they might continue to make the same policy and programmatic mistakes, or miss an opportunity to duplicate what has worked in your case. Donors should encourage implementing agencies to make the findings public and not link future funding with the outcomes of impact evaluations. In contrast, organizations with a transparent and genuine interest in improving their programmes by conducting impact evaluations should be rewarded in order to incentivize others to follow suit.



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