

Measuring the Results of Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE)

A Working Paper

The GICHD works towards reducing risk to communities caused by explosive ordnance, with a focus on landmines, cluster munitions and ammunition stockpiles. We help national authorities, international and regional organisations, NGOs and commercial operators to develop and professionalise mine action and ammunition management. The GICHD supports around 40 affected states and territories every year. Based at the Maison de la paix in Geneva, the GICHD employs around 80 staff members from 26 different countries. This makes the GICHD a unique and international centre of expertise and knowledge. Our work is made possible by core contributions, project funding and in-kind support from over 30 governments and organisations.

Acknowledgments

The working paper was made possible thanks to the financial support of the Government of Switzerland. The GICHD extends its sincere gratitude to the people and institutions who contributed to the paper.

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© GICHD, Geneva, August 2021

ISBN: 978-2-940369-84-3

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Abbreviations and acronyms

AAP	Accountability to affected populations
COT	Community outreach team
EO	Explosive ordnance
EORE	Explosive ordnance risk education
EORE AG	EORE Advisory Group
FGD	Focus group discussion
GMAP	Global Mine Action Programme
IMAS	International Mine Action Standards
KAP/B	Knowledge, attitudes, practices, and beliefs
KII	Key informant interview
MA	Mine action
MEAL	Monitoring, evaluation, accountability and learning
QM	Quality management
RBM	Results-based management
SADD	Sex and age disaggregated data
ToC	Theory of change
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Fund

Executive summary

Explosive ordnance risk education (EORE) strives to reduce the risk of injury from explosive ordnance by increasing awareness and promoting behaviour change among explosive ordnance-affected populations. Being able to demonstrate effective and impactful results promotes the value and relevance of the EORE sector, and as such significant efforts are being invested in reviewing, assessing and adapting ways of working. Knowing what works allows the transition from ‘doing EORE right’ to ensuring ‘EORE is doing the right things’.

According to International Mine Action Standard 12.10 Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE), evaluations of EORE should focus on the achievement of objectives, impact, accountability, and lessons learnt. Impact assessments should inherently try to answer the ‘so what?’ question: how has an intervention actually affected the lives of the people it aimed to support? Through investigation of current approaches to demonstrate impact, this working paper finds that EORE ‘results’ are mostly measured in terms of quantifiable activities (e.g. number of EORE sessions) and outputs (e.g. number of people trained and increase of knowledge). While most EORE operators also endeavour to measure immediate or short-term outcomes, such as the adoption of safer behaviour following EORE, the approaches to measuring such outcomes are less developed and refined. Furthermore, there is a need for more well-developed approaches to measuring medium-term outcomes and longer-term impact.

Through the application of good practice criteria, this working paper argues for a need to reach consensus on what monitoring, evaluation and learning should look like for EORE. This includes having a common understanding of what EORE operators measure, why they measure it, and how what is measured links to the envisioned changes. Key to accomplishing this is the accurate understanding of needs, vulnerabilities and capacities that may put individuals and communities at increased or decreased risk from explosive ordnance and the subsequent articulation of how the intended changes are to come about. However, as few examples of evaluations or assessments at impact level could be identified in the context of this working paper, prevalent approaches to monitoring, evaluation, accountability and learning (MEAL) are arguably less fit for capturing medium- to longer-term changes brought about or contributed to by EORE. This is despite wide acknowledgement of the fact that as operating contexts become more complex, EORE effectiveness and impact may not be straightforward.

This working paper finds that while much effort has gone into adapting EORE to ever-changing contexts, there is still a need to complement this with adaptive MEAL approaches. This points to the importance of considering intended results through the elaboration of a theory of change, already during the design phase (*prior to* implementation), rather than scrambling to put together a MEAL plan *post* implementation. However, even if results chains are missing, behaviour change – that is to say the outcome of EORE – may still be measured, rather than merely focusing on activities and outputs. The inclusion of two case studies in this paper provides insight into how mixed methods, working from understanding the outcomes, can give deeper insight into what is working. These examples provide a good reality check on what is required to measure behaviour change and to assess the extent to which it can be attributed to EORE. Moreover, the principles for conducting assessments were found to be as important as the choice of tools themselves.

This working paper concludes by offering recommendations on how to improve the conduct of MEAL. By acknowledging the multidimensional characteristics of EORE activities and outputs, change can be measured and evaluated to confirm medium-term outcomes and longer-term impact, even as contexts and needs change. Tracking these elements builds evidence which can be shared with donors, stakeholders and even affected populations, to communicate the kind of impact EORE can claim to have contributed to in various, and often complex, humanitarian and development contexts.

1. Introduction

Over the last few years, the mine action (MA) sector has raised the profile of explosive ordnance risk education (EORE), both through international advocacy fora, and by building synergies with other sectors. At the same time, this success has coincided with a growing call for principled humanitarian funding and localisation of efforts. Linked to this is the demand for greater consistency in assessing and demonstrating the impact of humanitarian interventions, coming from donors, national and international authorities, MA providers and affected populations. Therefore, the MA sector must demonstrate, through an evidence-based approach, that EORE interventions make a difference in people's lives, either through stand-alone projects in support of other MA activities or integrated in other sectors' programmes. Monitoring, evaluation, accountability and learning (MEAL) mechanisms which are methodologically robust, ethically sound and communicable to technical and non-technical audiences alike, are meant to achieve this.

As operating contexts have become more complex, assessing the impact of EORE has become more demanding. Insecurity and environmental challenges, displacement and transient populations, delays in obtaining authorisations and permits and, more recently, the COVID-19 pandemic have accumulated to compound the complexity of the situation. Strengthening the consistency and reliability of results¹ measurement can directly mitigate the concerns of leaving affected populations behind as 'mine action dividends do not always benefit all members of society equally.'² Similarly, comprehensive and transparent MEAL will improve reliability and confidence in the fact that those most in need are actually the ones who are being reported when quantitative depictions of 'beneficiaries' are provided – supporting EORE operators by confirming they indeed reach the populations most at risk as they strive for accountability to affected populations.

The EORE Advisory Group (EORE AG), under its 2019–2020 work plan, took the opportunity to address these demands to provide evidence of the value of EORE, by tasking the GICHD to conduct 'a desk review of good practices for measuring the effectiveness and impact of EORE in diverse contexts, with a particular focus on qualitative methodologies'.³ The resultant working paper sets out how EORE makes a difference, outlining *what* is meant by and *how* to demonstrate the effectiveness and impact of EORE.

1.1 Scope

The above-mentioned desk review originally sought to answer the question: what are the current and emerging good practices in measuring the effectiveness and impact of EORE? This working paper seeks to make accessible the information gathered in relation to this question so far, whilst also outlining areas that need continued research. Its focus is on sharing established and emerging good practices in EORE monitoring, evaluation, accountability and learning, and exploring what learning mechanisms are available for the assessment of outcome achievement in particular, as this was the area for which most information was collected. The paper provides an overview of existing MEAL guidelines, frameworks and practices in the EORE sector (chapter 2), as well as a concrete toolbox of MEAL methods currently being used (chapter 3). Lessons learnt are then explored through case studies (chapter 4) and preliminary findings on good practice criteria are offered (chapter 5). In its conclusion, the working paper offers recommendations for improvement of existing practices, including gender and diversity inclusion (chapter 6).

1.2 Definitions

The paper begins by providing a clear definition of what EORE is and offers two specific evaluation criteria: effectiveness and impact. These criteria are anchored on the concepts of the *why* and the *what* of MEAL, as well as impact assessment, monitoring and evaluations, as defined as follows:

- Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE) refers to ‘activities which seek to reduce the risk of injury from EO by raising awareness of women, girls, boys and men in accordance with their different vulnerabilities, roles and needs, and promoting behavioural change. Core activities include public information dissemination, education and training’.⁴
- Effectiveness refers to the ‘extent to which the intervention achieved, or is expected to achieve, its objectives, and its results’.⁵
- Impact is the ‘extent to which the intervention has generated or is expected to generate significant positive or negative, intended or unintended, higher-level effects’.⁶
- Impact assessment is taken as the analysis of the lasting or significant changes brought about by EORE.^{7 8}
- Monitoring is an ongoing assessment focused on the activity and output levels of an intervention, in its quest ‘to check if a job was done well’.⁹
- Evaluations seek to establish ‘if the right job was done’ and, thus, assess the performance, outcome and impact of an intervention.¹⁰

Evaluations provide insight and learning across the spectrum of MA activities: strategy, operations and tasks. Evaluation of EORE interventions should be carried out in accordance with the requirements of IMAS 12.10 Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE), and IMAS 14.10, Guide for the evaluation of mine action interventions. Building on the evaluation criteria of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development’s Development Assistance Committee (OECD DAC), IMAS 14.10 defines the aim of evaluation as being ‘to determine the relevance and fulfilment of objectives, developmental efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability’ and adds a further mine action-specific evaluation criterion, though primarily related to demining activities: safety / quality.¹¹

Results-based management (RBM) is a framework that includes evaluation and impact assessments through the application of quality management (QM) principles and methods to manage outcomes and impacts that result from MA activities.¹² As such, this working paper situates itself between QM and RBM by examining ways in which EORE operators monitor quality, as in whether EORE activities and outputs are of the required quality, and assesses impact, as in whether the outcomes have made people affected by explosive ordnance safer in the longer term.

*If QM in mine action is about managing processes that relate to the delivery of mine action services and products, then RBM is about the extent to which those products and services make a real difference to affected people.*¹³

1.3 Methodology and survey participants

The research methodology applied a mixed methods approach. Primary sources were survey, questionnaires and interviews, whilst secondary data was used from the literature of significant case studies. The overall design aimed to represent and leverage the expertise of national MA programmes, including national and international MA organisations, and UN agencies. The bulk of

survey participants constituted EORE practitioners broadly engaged in designing, monitoring and evaluating interventions.

Data was collected during September and October 2020 using four tools:

1. A survey delivered through SurveyMonkey® to capture impact assessment tools currently used in the EORE sub-sector. A total of 33 respondents, of which 60% were from operators, 20% from UN agencies, 10% from National Mine Action Authorities and 10% from other organisations, shared 20 examples of impact assessment tools.
2. An individual questionnaire also delivered through SurveyMonkey to allow EORE stakeholders to share their views on challenges and lessons learnt around EORE impact assessments. A total of 27 responses were received.
3. Key informant interviews, based on a semi-structured interview guide taken from good practice criteria. A total of 20 key informants participated.
4. Case studies to highlight emerging practices and examples of good practices. Two case studies are included in this working paper.

¹ Results refer to all levels: outputs, outcomes and impact, see: <https://www.intrac.org/wpcms/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Outputs-outcomes-and-impact.pdf>.

² GICHD and UNDP, *Leaving No One Behind: Mine Action and the Sustainable Development Goals* (Geneva: GICHD & UNDP, 2017), 9.

³ EORE AG Workplan 2019–2020, https://www.gichd.org/fileadmin/GICHD/about-us/media/EORE_AG_Workplan_2019-2020.pdf.

⁴ IMAS 12.10 (2020), *Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE)*, Second Edition, Amendment 3, September 2020.

⁵ OECD/DAC Network on Development Evaluation, “Better Criteria for Better Evaluation. Revised Evaluation Criteria Definitions and Principles for Use,” approved 20 November 2019, <https://www.oecd.org/dac/evaluation/revised-evaluation-criteria-dec-2019.pdf>.

⁶ OECD/DAC “Better Criteria for Better Evaluation, Revised Evaluation Criteria Definitions and Principles for Use,” 11. This definition of ‘impact’ should not be confused with ‘impact’ as defined in IMAS 04.10, *Glossary of mine action terms, definitions and abbreviations*, which refers to ‘the level of social and economic suffering experienced by the community resulting from the harm or risk of harm caused by explosive ordnance hazards and hazardous areas’.

⁷ Chris Roche, *Impact Assessment for Development Agencies. Learning to Value Change* (Oxford, England: Oxfam GB with Novib, 1999), <https://policy-practice.oxfam.org/resources/impact-assessment-for-development-agencies-learning-to-value-change-122808/>

⁸ IMAS 14.10, *Guide for the evaluation of mine action interventions*, First edition, Amendment 3, June 2013.

⁹ GICHD, *A Guide to Mine Action*, Fifth Edition, (Geneva: GICHD, 2015).

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ IMAS 14.10, *Guide for the evaluation of mine action interventions*, First Edition, Amendment 3, June 2013.

¹² GICHD, *Guide to Strategic Planning in Mine Action*, (Geneva: GICHD, 2014).

¹³ IMAS 07.12, *Quality Management in Mine Action*, First Edition, July 2016.

2. Guidelines, frameworks and practices for assessing the results of EORE interventions

2.1 Existing guidelines and frameworks

The recently revised International Mine Action Standard (IMAS) 12.10 Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE) elaborates minimum standards for monitoring and evaluation in EORE. This includes defining key issues that should be monitored and evaluated, minimum requirements for monitoring systems¹⁴ and guidelines on when an evaluation may be conducted.

The IMAS Mine Risk Education Best Practice Guidebooks¹⁵ and the affiliated training manuals¹⁶ are the most comprehensive guidance on assessing needs, planning and designing interventions, monitoring activities and evaluating the impact of EORE. While still highly instructive, these guides need updating to reflect the changing landscape of protection of civilians, as well as ever-evolving programme and operational requirements.

In the meantime, other reference documents¹⁷ offer a framework for reviewing such methods, tools and approaches to results-based EORE. In particular, through the development of indicators, efforts have been made to support the accountable implementation of the Oslo Action Plan and the draft informal Lausanne Action Plan; EORE actions outlined in both action plans have their own set of quantitative indicators to monitor progress made by States Parties. However, while inputs, activities and outputs are fundamental elements of EORE logic models, they do not allow for evaluative assessments of how effective or impactful an intervention has been, for example, in reducing injuries through behaviour change. In general, there is still a need for more guidance on demonstrating impact.

2.2 What do EORE operators measure and why?

It's not enough to be busy. Risk education only makes a difference if as a result people change their everyday behavior.¹⁸

According to IMAS 12.10, evaluations of EORE should focus on the achievement of objectives, impact, accountability and lessons learnt. Impact assessments should inherently try to answer the 'so what?' question: how has an intervention actually affected the lives of the people it aimed to support? This also includes capturing what did not go well, including decidedly negative impacts, in order to learn, adapt and improve.

But what do EORE operators measure? With logic models as the most omnipresent planning tool, EORE 'results' are mostly measured in terms of quantifiable activities (e.g. number of EORE sessions) and outputs (e.g. number of people trained and increase of knowledge). As shown in Figure 1 below, these variables can be considered as part of the production chain. Most EORE operators also endeavour to measure immediate or short-term outcomes, such as whether affected populations adopt safer behaviour following EORE. At the same time, only a small number of evaluations of the medium-term and longer-term impact were able to be identified.

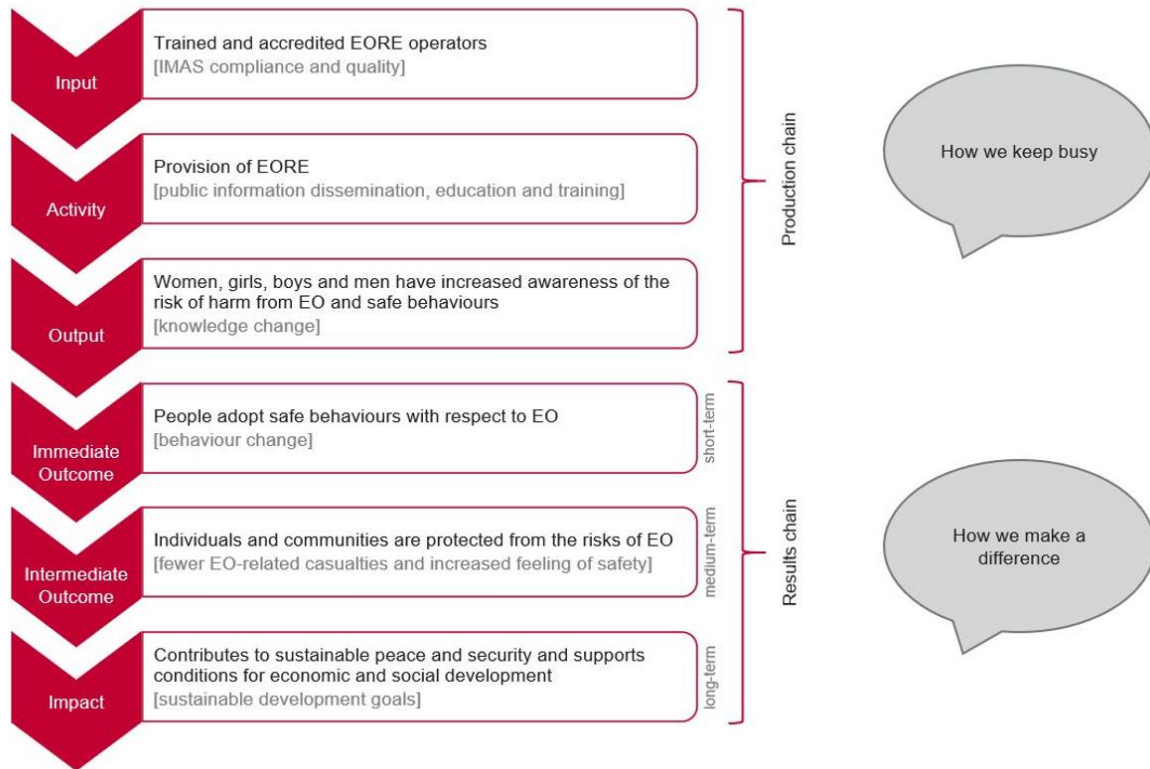


Figure 1: Example of a theory of change for EORE¹⁹

Some reasons for this gap are easily identified. As stated in IMAS 14.10 Guide for the evaluation of mine action interventions, while effectiveness is relatively straightforward to measure, determining longer-term impact is less so. Trying to assess what might happen in the future, and what might have happened due to the EORE intervention, is understandably difficult. Furthermore, there are numerous non-project / programme factors, including political, economic, social and cultural factors, as well as, potentially, other projects and programmes that may have impacted, positively or negatively, on the context and affected communities.

Despite these challenges, it is nevertheless the responsibility of those providing EORE to ensure accountability at all levels, from output to impact, to the fullest extent possible – with monitoring systems at a *minimum* focusing on the five dimensions of relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability. Figure 2 shows an example of a framework used by the UK Department for International Development (now FCDO) that links some of these dimensions to the concept of value for money. This is a useful display of how the linkages along the results chain can give insight into the value of activities at each stage, along several of the above-mentioned dimensions. It also helps to contextualise the interrelation between different levels of results.

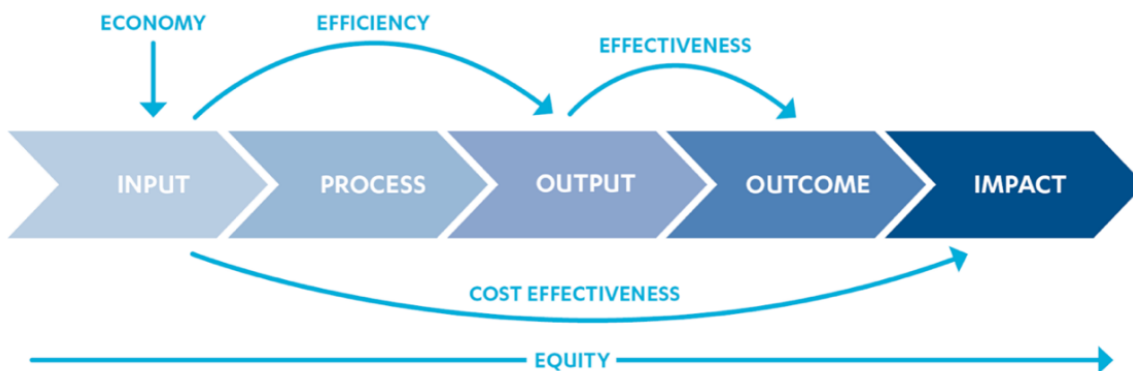


Figure 2: 4Es framework – value for money (VfM) – DFID

Izzi and Murray (2019) provide an excellent account of ‘value for money’ as a cornerstone of aid effectiveness and how the 4Es framework ‘can help justify spending associated with (sometimes costly) activities that are critically important to securing the development outcomes’.²⁰ How the 4Es relate to the reality of interventions and spending can be considered throughout this paper in relation to:

- Economy: are we paying for inputs of appropriate quality at the right price?
- Efficiency: how well are we converting inputs to outputs (‘spending well’)?
- Effectiveness: how well are the outputs from an intervention achieving the intended effect (‘spending wisely’)?
- Equity: how fairly are the benefits distributed? To what extent will we reach marginalised groups (‘spending fairly’)?
- Cost effectiveness: what is the intervention’s ultimate impact on risk reduction / behaviour change, relative to the inputs that we invest in?²¹

While there might not be an official definition of the difference between a logical framework and a results chain, it can be argued that while the former outlines the steps in a given intervention in a sequential or ‘logical’ manner by completing the sentence ‘we plan to do X, which will give Y result’, the latter outlines the ‘big picture’ of how impact is expected to come about as a result of the intervention through the completion of the sentence ‘if we do X, then we will have Y result, because Z is in place’. This includes establishing and thinking through assumptions, such as the necessary conditions for the planned change to happen, as well as risks and other external factors. While the 4E framework offers a possible template for the formulation of assumptions, additional criteria may help to think through the assumptions attached to good EORE practices.

¹⁴ IMAS 12.10 states that ‘The monitoring system developed should, as a minimum, be able to:

- a) identify measurement indicators, including sex and age disaggregated data where relevant, that focus on relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability;
- b) establish systems to collect and record information concerning these indicators;

- c) ensure that the data collected is analysed and interpreted;
- d) ensure that the information is used to inform day-to-day project/programme management; and
- e) ensure that EORE is adapted based on the information gathered by monitoring to ensure that the activities support the achievement of objectives.¹

¹⁵ IMAS Mine Risk Education Best Practice Guidebooks 1–12 (2005),

<https://www.gichd.org/en/resources/publications/detail/publication/international-mine-action-standards-for-mine-risk-education-best-practice-guidebook/>.

¹⁶ GICHD and UNICEF, *International Mine Action Standards for Mine Risk Education – Training Manual* (2009),

<https://www.gichd.org/en/resources/publications/detail/publication/international-mine-action-standards-for-mine-risk-education-training-manual/>.

¹⁷ This includes, *Standardising Beneficiary Definitions in Humanitarian Mine Action* (2nd edn.), 2020; APMBC Oslo Action Plan; and CCM draft Lausanne Action Plan.

¹⁸ Russell Gasser, “RBM and Theories of Change,” *Journal of Conventional Weapons Destruction*, 20.3, (2016): 7–10.

¹⁹ The sample represents a composite of eight theories of change collected and analysed for this paper. These theories of change came from mine action donors, EORE operators and the UN system.

²⁰ Valeria Izzi and Becky Murray, “Between value for money & development impact: Some reflections for the Global Challenges Research Fund,” LSE (Blog), 26 February 2019,

<https://blogs.lse.ac.uk/impactofsocialsciences/2019/02/26/between-value-for-money-development-impact-some-reflections-from-the-global-challenges-research-fund/>.

²¹ Figure and descriptions adapted from [ICAI](#) Report: DFID’s approach to value for money in programme and portfolio management – A performance review – February 2018.

3. The monitoring, evaluation, accountability and learning (MEAL) toolbox for EORE

This section outlines some of the tools for an explosive ordnance risk education (EORE) operators' MEAL toolbox. Like with any tool, good results are contingent upon correct application in accordance with IMAS 12.10 Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE): '*staff conducting a needs assessment should be appropriately trained, equipped and gender balanced to do so*'. It should be noted that facilitation skills are of particular importance for participatory approaches. It is likely that any situation will need to use a mixed methods approach with focus group interviews, key informant interviews, direct observation, various assessments, (virtual) KAP (knowledge, attitudes, practices) surveys, and digital methods. As with any data containing personal and / or potentially sensitive information, impact assessments should carefully consider how data is protected and handled in an ethical manner, how people of concern have a say in how their data is used, and the rights of people of concern to privacy and protection.^{22 23} A summary of tools follows in this chapter.

3.1 Guidelines for an inclusive approach to EORE

In order to consider the different needs, vulnerabilities, roles and capacities of affected people, impact assessments should be undertaken to the greatest extent possible in a manner that maximises representation and participation across age groups, genders and other aspects of diversity. Risks from explosive ordnance vary greatly by age, gender, and other diversity factors such as occupation / livelihood, as is demonstrated by accident and casualty data, so as a result it is vital to mainstream gender and diversity considerations in all aspects of EORE, including MEAL.

Inclusion is a core principle which is cross-cutting across all tools and methodologies (including those in this toolbox) and may, depending on the findings of the gender- and diversity-sensitive context analysis, necessitate adaptations to data collection to facilitate access to target groups. Where possible, mixed gender teams are preferable, especially for teams with a community-facing role.²⁴ This can also include the deployment of mixed gender data collection teams, teams speaking specific languages, teams with members of specific ages or ethnic / social backgrounds, as appropriate, in order to maximise access to affected populations. Further considerations may include adapting the time and location of the interviews, proactive sampling approaches, and additional resources dedicated to safeguarding and ensuring the Do No Harm approach. Community-facing EORE activities and consultations should also aim to maximise meaningful participation from those present, rather than simple representation, which may require the adoption of participatory approaches, or the creation of separate groups by age, gender, or other diversity factors.

Sample criteria and sample sizes should be defined and include sex and age disaggregated data (SADD), in order to ensure that findings are representational and establish statistical validity. Whether any of the tools are conducted face to face or remotely, they should be designed, field tested and administered in a manner that allows for the safe participation of children, vulnerable and marginalised groups, and people with specific needs.

Dimensions of diversity and identity to consider include, but are not limited to:

- Gender;²⁵
- Age group;
- Disability status;

- Wealth and socio-economic status;
- Educational level, including literacy, and language skills;
- Livelihood activities, including access to and control over resources;
- Ethnic / tribal / clan affiliation;
- Power relations and spheres of influence, including formal and informal representation structures;
- Religion;
- Type of household, e.g. extended family, single parent-headed, grandparent-headed;
- Displacement status, e.g. refugee, internally displaced person, and other legal status;
- Stage in the potential displacement cycle, e.g. new arrivals, previous arrivals, repeated displacement;
- Location e.g. proximity to hazardous areas, urban vs rural location;
- Sexual orientation;
- Health status, e.g. malnutrition, poor health, disabilities;
- Role, affiliations, and status in potential, ongoing, or previous conflict.^{26 27}

Impact assessments should also consider the intersectionality of these identity dimensions. For example, how a male-led, single-parent household may experience different vulnerabilities to that of a female-led, single-parent household. Or the different risk profiles of people living in poverty in rural settings compared with their urban counterparts.

In the toolbox

- ✘ United Nations (2019), *Gender Guidelines for Mine Action Programmes* – for practical steps to mainstream gender and promote gender equality in the full mine action project cycle: https://unmas.org/sites/default/files/mine_action_gender_guidelines_web_0.pdf
- ✘ GICHD and GMAP (2014), *Gender & Diversity in Mine Action Quality Management*: <https://www.gichd.org/fileadmin/GICHD-resources/rec-documents/Gender-and-diversity-in-mine-action-quality-management-2015.pdf>
- ✘ Global Protection Cluster's Age, Gender, Diversity Guidance and Tools: <https://www.globalprotectioncluster.org/tools-and-guidance/essential-protection-guidance-and-tools/age-gender-diversity-essential-guidance-and-tools/>
- ✘ CIVICUS, *The Gender and Social Inclusion Toolkit* – for practical, easy-to-use checklists: <https://www.civicus.org/documents/toolkits/CIVICUS-gender-and-social-inclusion-toolkit.pdf>
- ✘ UNICEF (2013), *Ethical Research Involving Children* – a key reference document for planning and conducting research involving children and young people, whether directly or indirectly: <https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/eric-compendium-approved-digital-web.pdf>
- ✘ UNHCR (2012), *Listen and Learn. Participatory Assessment with Children and Adolescents* – tools to ensure the ethical and full participation of children and adolescents in assessments: <https://cms.emergency.unhcr.org/documents/11982/51766/UNHCR%2C+Listen+and+Learn>

[++Participatory+assessment+with+children+and+adolescents%2C+2012/cdf91e84-76fc-415a-aa04-8e806dc71160](https://www.gichd.org/Portals/0/Participatory+assessment+with+children+and+adolescents%2C+2012/cdf91e84-76fc-415a-aa04-8e806dc71160)

- ✘ Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) (2020), ‘Social and Cultural Influence Analysis’ in the *NRC Community Coordination Toolbox* – provides adaptable tools for understanding vulnerabilities as well as capacities that can be capitalised on: <https://cct.nrc.no/chapter/6>
- ✘ IASC (2018), *The Gender Handbook for Humanitarian Action*, https://interagencystandingcommittee.org/system/files/2018-iasc_gender_handbook_for_humanitarian_action_eng_0.pdf
- ✘ Institute of Development Studies, Participatory Methods website – containing resources on participatory approaches to development and humanitarian action: <https://www.participatorymethods.org/>
- ✘ UNICEF (2020), *Minimum Quality Standards and Indicators on Community Engagement*, https://www.unicef.org/mena/media/8401/file/19218_MinimumQuality-Report_v07_RC_002.pdf.pdf

3.2 Pre / post EORE test

The pre / post EORE test consists of a standardised questionnaire that is administered to an individual prior to and immediately following an EORE session. Pre / post EORE tests are designed to measure immediate knowledge output of EORE as primarily a quantitative tool.

One of the main strengths of this tool is that it is inexpensive and easy to use. Furthermore, it can be loaded onto a digital platform for easy compilation and analysis. Ideally, the pre / post EORE test is administered by a member of an EORE team, rather than letting respondents fill in the survey themselves. This minimises any ‘lucky guessing’ entailed in viewing available options before responding.

One of the main shortcomings of the pre / post EORE test is that it provides no data on medium-to long-term knowledge retention, although this is sometimes addressed by conducting a second post-test (also known as a retention test) with EORE beneficiaries three to six months after their EORE session. Another limitation is that the tool does not allow for cross-checking responses to distinguish between revealed and stated preferences; nor does it allow for the assessment of behaviour change.

The pre / post EORE tests should be explicitly designed for the EORE intervention at hand. This includes field testing the standard questionnaire to ensure that it is gender, diversity and context sensitive. The pre / post EORE test may be designed for specific age groups, rather than using the same survey for children, adolescents and adults, or otherwise be tailored to fit identified target groups / risk categories. Pre / post EORE tests should be tailored to specific target groups. For children and adolescents under the age of 18, the pre / post EORE test should be designed in an age-appropriate manner, for instance, utilising more photos / illustrations, rather than being too text heavy. For children aged 6 to 11 years, other means of assessing knowledge outputs should be considered, for instance using role play, games, and quizzes.

In the toolbox

- ✘ Humanity & Inclusion’s (HI) ‘Pre and post RE sessions knowledge assessment package’ includes both a testing protocol and customisable questionnaire: https://publications.handicap-international.org/AVR/AVP_PGGM_27/tools-list/#tool17

3.3 KAP/B surveys and KAP/B studies

A KAP/B survey seeks to identify the knowledge (K), attitudes (A), practices (P) and beliefs (B) of a defined population on a specific topic at a particular point in time. Building on an individual and standardised questionnaire, a KAP/B survey is a quantitative methodology that allows for capturing qualitative information. The KAP/B survey may feed into a wider KAP/B study.

As with other quantitative tools, KAP/B surveys require a comprehensive sampling strategy that allows for the collection of SADD to establish statistical confidence levels. The KAP/B questionnaire should, furthermore, undergo field testing to ensure that questions are socioculturally appropriate and contextualised.

The KAP/B study, on the other hand, is a broader research or evaluation activity that takes a mixed methods approach by complementing the KAP/B survey standardised questionnaire with qualitative data collection using, for example, focus group discussions, key informant interviews and participant observations (see below). KAP/B surveys are limited in their ability to establish behaviour change resulting from EORE. Meanwhile, by taking a mixed methods approach, KAP/B studies may triangulate data and seek to uncover what affected people perceive as changes in social behaviour.

For the purpose at hand, explosive ordnance (EO) KAP/B surveys and studies are versatile in that they can be used as part of needs assessments, particularly in the design and planning stages of EORE²⁸ but also as fundamental parts of impact assessments through the establishment of baselines and end lines.

Among the drawbacks or potential challenges to conducting KAP/B surveys and studies are the resource requirements, both in terms of human and financial resources. The KAP/B survey and study methodology is quite complex, and without a qualified research manager the quality and validity of data may be compromised. KAP/B surveys / studies are also labour intensive in terms of obtaining permissions, training and deployment of data collection teams, community liaison, data management and quality assurance. Finally, KAP/B surveys require careful management of expectations and carry the risk of generating survey fatigue among affected populations.

In the toolbox

- ✘ Handicap International (HI) (2009), *Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices for Risk Education: how to implement KAP surveys* – provides a highly practical guide to KAP surveys explicitly tailored to mine action: https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Landmines_How_to_implement_KAP_Surveys.pdf
- ✘ Médecins du Monde (2012), *The KAP Survey Model* – another good step-by-step resource for KAP surveys: <https://www.medecinsdumonde.org/en/actualites/publications/2012/02/20/kap-survey-model-knowledge-attitude-and-practices>
- ✘ Save the Children (2012), *Knowledge, Attitude and Practice Surveys in Child Protection* (2012) – a useful manual for child protection KAP surveys, including a checklist to establish whether a KAP survey is the most appropriate method for collecting data: <https://resourcecentre.savethechildren.net/node/7245/pdf/7245.pdf>

3.4 Interviews

As a qualitative data collection tool, an interview can be used throughout the project cycle, including for needs assessment, prioritisation, design and refinement of activities, and evaluation of outputs and outcomes. Interviews enable learning from affected communities and are particularly useful to elicit deep information, or detailed descriptions from relatively few people, to make broader contextual interpretations and generalisations.

Interviews can be either structured or unstructured, planned or unplanned. As such, the art of interviewing draws either from journalism where research and preparation often precede interviews, or ethnography where interviews often result from participant observation and which take place spontaneously. A 'good' interview often uses a combination of closed and open questions in order to elicit both quantitative and qualitative information.

Interviews are cost effective, however, they require specific techniques and interpersonal skills to avoid bias and must ensure that they are conducted in an inclusive, ethical and safe manner. Interviews with vulnerable groups, people with specific needs, children and adolescents raise particular issues that need to be considered, to ensure that inclusivity and safeguarding go hand in hand.

Training in interview techniques is essential to avoid interviewer bias and to ensure that the interviewer does not lead the informant in any way. Furthermore, note taking and the accurate recording of answers requires additional skills and data processing / data security considerations. In short, 'Interviews are easy to do badly and hard to do well.'²⁹

In the toolbox

- ✘ UNICEF (2014), *Interviewing* – outlines key issues to consider when planning interviews for impact evaluation: https://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/pdf/brief_12_interviewing_eng.pdf
- ✘ Better Evaluation: *Interviews* – provides a good overview of how to use interviews for evaluation purposes and includes several useful resources: <https://www.betterevaluation.org/en/evaluation-options/interviews>
- ✘ Pathfinder International Tool Series. Monitoring and Evaluation – 2 (2006), *Conducting In-Depth Interviews: A Guide for Designing and Conducting In-Depth Interviews for Evaluation* – outlines advantages and disadvantages of in-depth interviews for evaluation purposes, including the steps involved in applying interviews: <https://www.pathfinder.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/06/A-Guide-for-Designing-and-Conducting-In-depth-Interviews-for-Evaluation-Input.pdf>

3.5 Key informant interviews

A key informant interview (KII) is a derivative of an interview in which key informants, often so-called people with knowledge (PwK), are selected based on their first-hand or in-depth knowledge about a specified topic or affected community, and / or are selected on the basis of representing groups of people, communities or interests. KIIs are qualitative, in-depth interviews based on a semi-structured or structured interview guide. The interview guide usually comprises a list of issues to be discussed, often constituting open questions. Resembling a conversation, KIIs should be facilitated to allow for a free exchange of information and ideas.

KIIs are valuable in gathering descriptive, in-depth information and perceptions. As such they are useful to complement quantitative, survey data, for instance by probing for preferences and on

sensitive topics. KIIs are often used for rapid assessments to gather crucial information on the impact of EO contamination and on priority community needs. However, KIIs are also a fundamental tool for assessing outcomes and impacts of an intervention, including lessons learnt during implementation.

The identification of PwK may require considerable time and effort, to ensure that vulnerable and marginalised groups as well as children, young people and women are represented and given a voice. This is particularly important when KIIs are intended to guide the designing and planning of activities to ensure that needs, vulnerabilities and safety considerations of women, girls, boys and men are accurately taken into account. When using KIIs to assess the impact of EORE, it is critical to ensure that identified target groups are represented in the interviews.

In terms of resources, key informant interviews are inexpensive in terms of financial cost and allow for rapid assessments. However, they can be demanding in terms of human resources, such as the competencies required. As with interviews overall, conducting a KII requires skills to avoid interviewer bias and prevent the interviewer from leading the key informant. Furthermore, as KIIs are often conducted on a one-to-one basis, care should be taken to ensure privacy, confidentiality, consent, and that safeguarding principles are adhered to. For children and adolescents under the age of 18, the interview should not go ahead without the explicit consent of a responsible adult.

In the toolbox

- ✘ USAID (2011), *Conducting Key Informant Interviews* – outlines the advantages and limitations of KIIs and provides a brief step-by-step guide to undertaking KIIs as a rapid appraisal technique: https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnadw102.pdf
- ✘ ACAPS Technical Brief (2011): *Direct Observation and Key Informant Interview techniques for primary data collection during rapid assessments* – intended to improve primary data collection techniques among assessment teams and covers both KIIs and direct observation: https://www.acaps.org/sites/acaps/files/resources/files/direct_observation_and_key_informant_interview_techniques_for_primary_data_collection_during_rapid_assessments_october_2011.pdf

3.6 Focus group discussions

A focus group discussion (FGD) is a gathering of a specific number of participants, typically no more than 12, to discuss set topics and experiences. An FGD enables analysis and understanding of the selected topic on the basis of the common characteristics of the group, be it age, gender, socio-economic status, experience of displacement, and so forth. For EORE purposes, separate FGDs should be conducted with groups of women and men respectively, ideally starting around the age of adolescence,³⁰ because age and gender have a fundamental bearing on needs, priorities and capacities and thus affect how risks, services and resources are experienced.³¹

An FGD is facilitated or moderated to ensure that topics are well introduced, and the discussion stays focused. The facilitator should also ensure that the discussion takes place in a respectful, inclusive and participatory manner, thereby avoiding domination or bias towards ‘powerful’ voices. Ideally, the FGD facilitator is accompanied by a note taker to carefully record the discussion, including making notes about the dynamics in the group. When well facilitated, group settings provide a natural counterbalance for opinions and perceptions, although FGDs are susceptible to facilitator bias. Information derived from FGDs should always be interpreted in the context of the group setting.

Facilitation is also key to unlocking the main strength of FGDs: the process of allowing FGD participants to voice agreement or disagreement, thereby providing insight into the range of

experiences, opinions and ideas, including potential contradictions and variations in perceptions, beliefs and practices.

As a rapid assessment technique, FGDs provide qualitative information, including feedback, insights and ideas, from a purposely selected group of people and are useful throughout the project cycle. FGDs are generally low cost to implement, however, consideration should be given to selecting appropriate venues where FGDs can take place. This includes considering what is considered acceptable, safe, and convenient for different social groups, especially for children, adolescents, women, and people with specific needs.

In the toolbox

- ✘ The Community Toolbox offers a checklist and examples of DOs and DON'Ts when planning, preparing and conducting FGDs: <https://ctb.ku.edu/en/table-of-contents/assessment/assessing-community-needs-and-resources/conduct-focus-groups/checklist>
- ✘ USAID (2011), *Conducting Focus Group Interviews* – another useful tip sheet that also covers the advantages and limitations of FGDs: https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/pnadw110.pdf
- ✘ Richard A. Kruger (University of Minnesota) has put together a very practical YouTube video on *Moderating a Focus Group* that demonstrates some of the techniques involved in moderating FGDs: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xjHZsEcSqwo>
- ✘ Jordan Civil Society Program (2012), *A Step-by-Step Guide to Focus Group Research for Non-Governmental Organizations* – a manual for implementing FGDs, including research design, development of discussion guides, and analysing and reporting findings: <https://www.ngoconnect.net/sites/default/files/resources/A%20Step-by-Step%20Guide%20to%20Focus%20Group%20Research.pdf>

3.7 Case studies

A case study is a story about a person, group, approach, policy, event or situation, and how changes have taken place over time. Case studies are useful to piece together how different elements, such as affected communities, behaviours and context, fit together and how a certain project or approach have produced or contributed to observed outcomes. By building case studies, EORE – and wider mine action (MA) – can describe the value added to affected communities, and thus help demonstrate the relevance of EORE.

Case studies often use a combination of quantitative and qualitative tools, including interviews, surveys and observations, and are useful in validating or exemplifying findings generated through other methodologies. Case studies can be used to describe and offer examples and information, such as about an EORE project. However, as an impact assessment tool, case studies rather examine and offer explanations for causality. As such, case studies are useful in answering 'how' and 'why' questions.

As with interviews, case studies may take form spontaneously during community-based activities, for instance, or take place in a planned manner. Case studies must adhere to the same methodological rigour as other tools, and case studies that are used for evaluative purposes will, in particular, require certain skills for analysis. Case studies, whether spontaneous or more deliberate, must ensure that the individuals and communities involved are fully informed and consent to participating.

The advantage of using case studies for impact assessments is that they are low cost and quicker to implement than other tools, such as surveys. Furthermore, case studies are useful when investigating the effects of an intervention that cannot easily or clearly be separated from the context in which it took place.

In the toolbox

- ✘ UNOPS and UNMAS (2020), *Call for Proposals Annex E: Case Study Guidelines for Grantees* – these have been developed for MA operators who submit case studies as part of their reporting obligations. The guidelines provide a blueprint for putting case studies for MA together:
<https://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=2ahUKEwiLyaSSm7XvAhWCURUIHVRzAVsQFjAAegQIARAD&url=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.ungm.org%2FUser%2FDocuments%2FDownloadPublicDocument%3FdocId%3D977252&usq=AOvVaw13nIST2sM0YHhC8GKkMhbg>
- ✘ USAID Technical Note (2013), *Evaluative Case Studies* – provides guidance on how to use case studies to evaluate an intervention:
https://usaidlearninglab.org/sites/default/files/resource/files/case_study_tech_note_final_2013_1115.pdf

3.8 Direct observation

Though observation is part and parcel of social behaviour, direct observation refers to a more systematic process that can be either structured or unstructured. Structured direct observation is useful in gathering standardised information and results in quantitative data. Unstructured direct observation looks at natural occurrence and provides qualitative data.

By thoroughly recording what is observed (seen, heard, smelled, tasted or felt), direct observation is an effective tool to build understanding of people, communities and contexts. Direct observation may reveal patterns and problems that are difficult to capture through KIs or surveys, for example, as informants may be unable to describe or provide ‘preferred’ answers.

Direct observation can, therefore, be particularly useful in uncovering the reasons why outputs and outcomes are *not* happening as expected; this includes assessing the unintended effects of an intervention. Having said that, direct observation is susceptible to bias on both the part of the observer due to, for instance, unconscious bias, and on the part of the observed subjects who may change her / his behaviour solely on the basis of being observed (the so-called ‘Hawthorne effect’).

Direct observation is a rapid, low-cost tool. It requires less advanced technical skills, especially if conducting structured direct observation, and observed behaviours need to be carefully defined to ensure the principle of Do No Harm. An example of an area of behaviour that may be able to be safely observed without intervention is whether people are ‘living and moving freely’, such as in cases where activities are taking place in previously contaminated areas that have been released.

Direct observation should be standardised through the use of an observation record form, similar to Information Management System for Mine Action quality assessment forms, developed for the purpose at hand. However, even when guided by a structured record form or checklist, training is required to ensure that a comprehensive record of what is being observed, including non-verbal dynamics, is made. Furthermore, findings of direct observation are contingent upon accurate identification of sites at which observation should take place; several sites should be included in order to establish a realistic assessment of impact.

Technology, such as video capture, can be incorporated into direct observation and is able to be embedded in mobile data collection platforms. It can also be adapted as a participatory data collection method, for instance by engaging community volunteers in observation efforts. While little specific training is required, some preparation and supervision should be considered to ensure that direct observation is an integral, ongoing effort on the part of the individuals involved, such as members of an EORE team.

In the toolbox

- ✘ USAID (2011), *Using Direct Observation Techniques* – provides a brief overview of the pros and cons of direct observation as well as the basic steps involved: <https://www.alnap.org/system/files/content/resource/files/main/pnadw104.pdf>
- ✘ ACAPS Technical Brief (2011): *Direct Observation and Key Informant Interview techniques for primary data collection during rapid assessments* – intended to improve primary data collection techniques among assessment teams and covers both KIIs and direct observation: https://www.acaps.org/sites/acaps/files/resources/files/direct_observation_and_key_informant_interview_techniques_for_primary_data_collection_during_rapid_assessments_october_2011.pdf
- ✘ Ellen Taylor-Powell and Sara Steele, University of Wisconsin-Extension (1996), *Collecting Evaluation Data: Direct Observation* – a fairly complete yet short guide to direct observation which provides examples of recording sheets: <https://ucanr.edu/sites/CEprogramevaluation/files/294189.pdf>
- ✘ U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Evaluation Brief (2018), *Data Collection Methods for Program Evaluation: Observation* – a brief yet useful overview of when to use and how to plan for direct observation: <https://www.cdc.gov/healthyouth/evaluation/pdf/brief16.pdf>

3.9 Barrier analysis

A barrier analysis is a rapid assessment tool that makes use of structured interviews to identify behavioural determinants or factors that may facilitate or inhibit behaviour change. By asking respondents divided between equal numbers of so-called ‘doers’ (i.e. those who have adopted safe behaviour) and ‘non-doers’ (i.e. those who have not adopted safe behaviour), a standardised set of questions, the barrier analysis aims to identify which are the barriers and motivators that influence behaviour.

Usually used when designing behaviour change interventions, barrier analysis can also be used to assess the impact of an intervention on behaviour, especially to determine why behaviour may not have changed. Barrier analysis is useful to capture immediate outcomes, or lack of expected immediate outcomes, and needed corrective action.

As barrier analysis depends on comparing data, it is not recommended to undertake FGDs as part of the barrier analysis; this is in order to avoid obfuscating differences between those who have adopted ‘correct’ behaviour or those who have not.

The design and management of a barrier analysis should ideally be done by someone with experience in behaviour change communication, and personnel undertaking data collection should be fully trained on the required interview techniques, including the purpose of screening questions. Time requirements can be kept to a minimum, depending on how many behaviours are included.

In the toolbox

- ✘ The HALO Trust (2021), *Using Barrier Analyses to Improve Explosive Ordnance Risk Education*: https://www.gichd.org/fileadmin/GICHD-resources/info-documents/EORE_Advisory_Group/Barrier_Analysis_Paper_01.pdf
- ✘ Helen Keller International (2013), *A Practical Guide to Conducting a Barrier Analysis* – a very practical, hands-on training curriculum that includes a guide which covers sampling, interviewing techniques, coding, tabulation and data use: https://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PA00JMZW.pdf
- ✘ Food for the Hungry (2020), *Barrier Analysis Facilitator's Guide: A Tool for Improving Behavior Change Communication in Child Survival and Community Development Programs* – divided into two parts: a training guide and a step-by-step guide to conducting barrier analysis: https://coregroup.org/wp-content/uploads/media-backup/Tools/Barrier_Analysis_2010.pdf
- ✘ People in Need has developed barrier analysis questionnaire templates in several languages that can be easily customised for EORE behaviour change objectives, including English, French, Arabic, Dari and Lao: <https://www.behaviourchange.net/ba-questionnaire-templates>

3.10 Image and video

Images and videos are increasingly used as tools for MEAL, though often complemented by some sort of commentary such as written or spoken captions. The use of image and video has long been common practice in EORE in an acknowledgement of how visuals prompt interest and curiosity, in addition to adding context. Images are commonly used as part of pre / post EORE tests and FGDs, especially involving children and adolescents.

While images are highly applicable as prompts during data collection through other means, they also offer stand-alone opportunities for EORE personnel as well as EORE participants, to capture changes resulting from activities. Particularly in areas where mobile phones are commonly available, beneficiaries can be asked to contribute their 'observations' through photos and videos, while children, for instance, can be asked to draw the most important thing they remember from an EORE session.

With the advance of mobile technology, images and video are becoming more accessible and applicable to document change in a highly participatory manner. The strengths of photography and video as participatory evaluation tools are obvious: people of concern are able to show what they find important, and EORE stakeholders can see the change through the eyes of affected people. However, photographs and videos offer the potential for framing: what is not captured, or rather left out of the frame, potentially tells a different story. Thus, the need to contextualise and triangulate images arises.

Images can include drawings, cartoons, clip art, icons and photographs. They can be quick to produce, but require the same considerations around gender, inclusion and cultural sensitivities as any other tool used in the EORE project cycle. Photographs and videos that depict people require consideration around the issues of privacy, confidentiality and informed consent. One way to avoid sensitivities involved with depicting 'flesh and blood' persons is to turn photographs into illustrations.

In the toolbox

- ✘ USAID and SPRING (2017), The Strengthening Partnerships, Results, and Innovations in Nutrition Globally (SPRING) project, *Photo-to-Illustration Guide: A Resource for the*

Development of Health Communication Visual Materials – provides guidance on how to create and use photo-to-illustration for behaviour change communication programming: https://www.spring-nutrition.org/sites/default/files/publications/tools/spring_pts_guide.pdf

- ✘ Intrac (2017), *Photography and Video* – briefly outlines how such tools can be used for MEAL: <https://www.intrac.org/wpcms/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Photography-and-video.pdf>

3.11 Transect walk

A transect walk allows for collecting spatial data by observing people, infrastructure and resources while walking around a community or area such as a neighbourhood or village. Transect walks are systematic and take place along an agreed route, although deviations can be made if relevant or interesting. During the walk, the application of predetermined indicators allows for the gathering of both qualitative and quantitative data on prevalent risks and existing capacities.

The transect walk should be led by a facilitator who is joined on the walk by community representatives. The facilitator should be able to record and systematise the information as well as be capable of conducting interviews. Careful identification of ‘guides’ is essential to ensure that the end result does not end up as merely a snapshot of what the guide wants outsiders to see. The transect walk may take a while, as community members encountered while en route are asked questions and local conditions are explored.

In contexts with conservative gender norms and conflict-affected areas, transect walks may not offer much useful information on the impact of EO and the outcomes of EORE on all people of concern, including marginalised and vulnerable groups, children and women, and people with specific needs. Furthermore, in active and post-conflict contexts, transect walks may be limited in terms of access to the most affected areas. Furthermore, while transect walks constitute a valuable means of direct observation and for creating a visual sense of the community, they also entail a risk of valuable aspects getting lost in translation, as local guides may struggle to translate what is seen and heard into a common language.

Transect walks are a useful tool when first entering a community and when undertaking a needs assessment; as such it can feed into the design and planning of EORE activities. As an impact assessment tool, transect walks can be used to establish a baseline against which changes that have occurred can be measured. For evaluative purposes, several transect walks should be undertaken in order to compare findings.

In the toolbox

- ✘ The Sustainable Sanitation and Water Management (SSWM) toolbox provides a brief overview of the transect walk, including how to prepare, undertake, capture and analyse findings. It includes an Arabic translation and links to other useful resources: <https://sswm.info/humanitarian-crises/urban-settings/planning-process-tools/exploring-tools/transect-walk>
- ✘ International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (2007), *VCA toolbox with reference sheets* – provides a comprehensive overview of several participatory tools including transect walks and examples of reporting templates: <https://www.ifrc.org/Global/Publications/disasters/vca/vca-toolbox-en.pdf>

3.12 Outcome harvesting

Outcome harvesting is a highly participatory tool for measuring outcomes and is especially concerned with capturing changes in behaviour, activities, practices, and so forth. Outcome harvesting can be applied retrospectively, even without an associated baseline and without having been thought into the results chain from the planning stage. A specific strength of outcome harvesting is that it can identify and assess unplanned, unintentional and negative as well as positive impacts. Through the ‘harvesting’ of outcomes, implementers, stakeholders and partners share their observations of changes that have happened during the course of the intervention. The outcomes, whether positive or negative, or intended or unintended, are then analysed in order to establish and verify to what extent and how the intervention affected the change.

By focusing first on outcomes as observable change and then seeking to establish contribution, rather than attribution, of an intervention, outcome harvesting is a good fit for behaviour change programming. Further advantages of outcome harvesting are that it is highly applicable in complex settings and compatible with results-based management.

As with most participatory tools, outcome harvesting requires a skilled facilitator who can design and lead the ‘harvesting’. Furthermore, participants may find it challenging to work from the outcomes ‘backwards’. However, participants who have worked with theories of change will find the process familiar. Outcome harvesting requires some resources in terms of time and skills to get started but, as demonstrated by case study B (see sub-section 4.2) once the process has been adopted it can be undertaken as part of day-to-day business without requiring much in terms of added time and funding.

In the toolbox

- ✘ Ford Foundation (revised 2013), *Outcome Harvesting* – a comprehensive guide co-authored by one of the pioneers of the methodology, Ricardo Wilson-Grau. The guide explores the six steps involved in an outcome harvest: http://www.managingforimpact.org/sites/default/files/resource/wilsongrau_en_outcome_harvesting_brief_revised_nov_2013.pdf
- ✘ Intrac (2017), *Outcome Harvesting* – an easily accessible overview of the steps involved in, as well as strengths and weaknesses of, outcome harvesting: <https://www.intrac.org/wpcms/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Outcome-harvesting.pdf>

²² See Centre for Humanitarian Data guidance notes on data responsibility: <https://centre.humdata.org/tag/guidance-note/>

²³ See *Accountability to Affected People Institutional Framework*, ICRC (2020),

<https://www.icrc.org/en/publication/accountability-affected-people-institutional-framework>.

²⁴ United Nations, *Gender Guidelines for Mine Action Programmes*, 3rd edition (2019), https://mineaction.org/sites/default/files/publications/mine_action_gender_guidelines_web_0.pdf.

²⁵ The activity should also include gender norms, considerations and the impact of gender inequality. Gender identity beyond traditional binary conceptions of gender should also be considered (including non-binary and transgender identities).

²⁶ United Nations, *Gender Guidelines for Mine Action Programmes*, 3rd edition (2019).

²⁷ UNHCR, *The UNHCR Tool for Participatory Assessment in Operations* (2006).

²⁸ GICHD, *A Guide to Mine Action*, Fifth Edition, (Geneva: GICHD, 2015).

²⁹ UNICEF, *Interviewing – Methodological Briefs: Impact Evaluation No 12* (2014).

³⁰ Adolescence as used here is understood to be in line with the UN definition as encompassing persons aged 10–19.

³¹ UNHCR, *The UNHCR Tool for Participatory Assessment in Operations* (2006).

4. Case studies

Two case studies have been chosen as examples, to improve understanding of how behaviour change – this being one of the key desired outcomes of explosive ordnance risk education (EORE) – can be measured and demonstrated, rather than monitoring and reporting of EORE activities being the only outputs. These two cases show the potential of approaches which have yet to be implemented at scale in mine action. Initial indications in these specific circumstances are very positive, so the learning should be taken to be transferable.

In case study A, Norwegian People's Aid (NPA), The HALO Trust, and Mines Advisory Group (MAG) piloted a mixed qualitative and quantitative approach to measure behaviour change. This was primarily implemented through focus group discussions (FGDs) which were conducted in different contexts using participatory methods and then analysed in detail to apply a quantitative scoring mechanism. Rather than looking at changes in individuals' behaviours, as has traditionally been the case, the whole group was taken as the unit of analysis.

In case study B, Saferworld adopted an approach of outcome mapping to capture change in behaviour and relationships. This has been primarily implemented in conflict settings, due to their volatile environment. The method focuses on understanding and analysis of 'what others are doing differently' in the situation following the interventions, and how that difference can be linked through evidence and judgement to the project activities or not.

In both cases, the emphasis is on evidenced, informed and qualitative aspects that enable understanding of why and what behaviour, or actions, have changed. In fact, embracing the complexity of the sociocultural nature of behaviour and relationships is key. Keeping in mind that analysis may not be linear and results unexpected or even contradictory, allows for (re)directing focus to the change that did, or did not, happen, rather than the change that 'should' have happened. Instead of looking for a predisposed change, the point of departure should be listening to what affected communities have to say and ensuring they are kept at the centre of assessments, monitoring and evaluations.

Another commonality is that participatory and observational methods are used in both cases to gather evidence to retrace the interventions and justify their contributions to the change. The frequency of monitoring and evaluations is highlighted, as threats often evolve and people's knowledge and beliefs change, so assessments need to be ongoing to ensure that interventions remain relevant to people at risk. Where the 'evidence' of change came from varied, depending on the case. One was solely FGD-based, while for outcome harvesting multiple sources should be considered. In all instances, online / digital survey tools would be considered when access is restricted for security, environmental or health reasons.

4.1 Case study A: measuring behaviour change through FGDs (GMAP)³²

Situation

The Global Mine Action Programme (GMAP³³) includes The HALO Trust, NPA and MAG working together under UK Foreign, Commonwealth & Development Office (FCDO) funding. GMAP had implemented a standardised pre / post EORE test approach, yet partners found that methods for systematically measuring actual behaviour change, and in particular at community level, were lacking. Under FCDO GMAP2 follow-on funding, the consortium explored new ways to capture behaviour change using a combination of qualitative and quantitative survey methods: carrying out FGDs at the community level before and after EORE interventions, and measuring behaviour change

against a primary indicator of 'Percentage of impacted communities surveyed reporting an increase in people who behave in a safer manner (as a consequence of EORE)'.³⁴ The entire initiative was based on dialogue with donors and with joint investment put into considering what impact measurement would work best with, and for, organisations and donors combined.

Action

Community outreach teams (COTs) conducted FGDs before the delivery of EORE sessions in a given community and then again three to six months after the EORE intervention, thus providing a baseline and end line as datum points. From this the implementers noted the following: 'The population understands better who we are, why we are there, and what we can offer. As operators, we can use the information gathered from the FGDs to improve our work by refining targeting, messaging, and identifying risk reduction alternatives.'³⁵

The FGDs aimed to draw out respondents' attitudes, feelings, beliefs, experiences and reactions in a group setting. Each FGD covered a series of core topics, with open-ended and follow-up questions posed by facilitators. The overarching purpose was to obtain detailed information on behaviour towards explosive ordnance (EO) in the community. Example questions included: *What do you consider to be safe behaviours towards EO? What are unsafe behaviours? What do you do when encountering EO in contaminated areas? What reasons, if any, prevent you from taking a safer approach to the EO threat?* Each FGD comprised approximately nine to ten questions, with the potential for numerous follow-up questions depending on the responses given.

COTs took comprehensive notes of the FGDs and these were immediately analysed by the facilitator and note taker, with further analysis provided by a senior team member responsible for community liaison and / or EORE to reduce implications of bias. A summary paragraph was produced to explain the current behaviour towards EO including identifying the risk profiles of a community, of which there may be multiple present in each community at any given point in time. Risk profiles were broken down into five categories and can be ascribed to individuals but also groups: *the unaware, the uninformed, the misinformed, the reckless, the forced*.³⁶ The scoring matrix ranked communities on a scale of one to five: from a *very high risk-taking community (#1) to one where a majority of members in the community conduct safe behaviours related to EO (#5)*.

Scoring of an FGD session followed. A '*none / some / all*' attribution allowed for the weighting of a profile / behaviour to a majority or minority of community members, as they behaved safely or unsafely towards EO.

The same process was repeated, with as close to but not wholly dependent on the same participants, three to six months later. When scoring the post-EORE FGD, results were compared to the summary paragraph from the pre-EORE event to see if the amount of community members exhibiting unsafe behaviours had reduced since the EORE session. It is this general quantification of community members that gives a realistic scoring as it is quite likely for a community to exhibit both safe and unsafe behaviours at the same time, and for differing reasons.

Lessons learnt

After an initial round of piloting and implementation in 10 countries (Angola, Burma, Cambodia, Lao PDR, Lebanon, Somalia, South Sudan, Sri Lanka, Vietnam, and Zimbabwe), the approach is showing positive results but is not without its challenges. Some of the learning points that have been reported from implementing the methodology include:

- Multiple FGDs should be conducted rather than just one, with distinct groups such as local leaders, women, youth, and / or specific risk-takers, such as shepherds. This was deemed

necessary because ‘The process of having a discussion makes the community address the challenges together and understand whether they have different beliefs about what to do.’³⁷ But ‘it is important to take note of the lack of fully honest answers and stated answers versus actual behavior change’.³⁸

- The reasons for ranking a community in relation to its behaviours towards EO must be well explained, and the scoring should be assigned with an understanding of whether a majority or minority of community members behave safely or unsafely towards EO.
- The facilitation skills of the survey staff are paramount. Additional training and continual monitoring of in-country COTs is needed to ensure that the nuance of varying behaviours and the underlying motives across differing subgroups within communities is captured. The reviews of the pilot observed that ‘too many of our staff were used to asking suggested questions in a script-like fashion, and did not probe deeper; and most importantly, they asked leading questions and judged participants’ answers.’³⁹
- Data gathered in the first FGD might not always be fully representative due to an initial lack of trust. It was noted that spending more time with the communities increased trust between affected groups and mine action operators. At the same time, some communities experience survey fatigue and are less likely to participate in the FGD. Furthermore, and critically, it was assessed that ‘Sustained behavior change will only manifest itself over time and, therefore, must be planned and implemented beyond any donor funding cycle.’⁴⁰
- The FGDs clearly showed that EORE would have to link in with other sectors to properly address forced unsafe behaviours, as EORE in itself may be insufficient to change behaviour. Broader reach of the FGDs or discussions jointly undertaken with other sectors could lead to a better understanding of the keys to changing behaviours. A concluding takeaway from the implementing teams was that: ‘Effective risk reduction must go beyond “just” EORE and should include options for safer alternatives to livelihoods in affected communities.’⁴¹

4.2 Case study B: a people-centred approach (Saferworld)⁴²

Situation

Saferworld is an independent international organisation that works to improve the safety of conflict-affected people and prevent violent conflict. It does so through five main approaches that put people at the heart of its work: community programming, partnerships, global policy and advocacy, conflict and gender sensitivity, and learning. Saferworld has pioneered a fresh approach to capturing change and claims that:

*Unlike other evaluation methods it doesn’t start with predetermined outcomes, and measure progress towards them, but rather collects evidence of what has been achieved in the programme or project area and works backwards to determine whether and how the project or intervention contributed to the change.*⁴³

For many years, Saferworld like many other organisations focused primarily on reporting activities (the ‘what’) rather than impact (the ‘so what’). Focus was placed on quantitative measures like output counting, which, while easier to measure, failed to adequately capture the value of its efforts on changing behaviour. Moreover, the linearity of logframes did not quite fit work on complex social change in shifting and evolving conflict contexts. Too often the rigidity failed to take into account the systemic nature of conflicts, so the Saferworld team returned to first principles and looked at whether evaluations were ‘understood exclusively as an “enforcement” or “accountability” exercise or whether we were *learning* from what we did in a structured way that went beyond reporting to donors and commissioning external reviews or evaluations’.⁴⁴

Under specific donor support Saferworld decided to do away with the language of logframes, the terminology and jargon, and an individual was hired to exclusively work on these improvements as well as to develop a new outcome-focused monitoring system with those closest to the ‘action’ in the driver seat.

Action

This monitoring approach is based on a combination of outcome mapping, outcome harvesting and utilisation-focused evaluation. Practically, it aims to gather data about outcomes or, rather, ‘demonstrable change’ by answering three questions:

- Who did what, when and where?
- How significant is this change?
- What contribution was made by the project to this change?⁴⁵

‘Frontline’ (field) staff were empowered to take a leading role in the monitoring process because it was found before the new system that: ‘Teams were either collecting lots of data that were of questionable use, often because that data was easy to collect, or not collecting any data at all. Few were asking themselves what constituted reliable evidence of change’.⁴⁶ Staff now maintain records of their observations as evidence to answer and justify the core question of ‘what’s changed?’. A combination of consultation techniques is used: direct conversations with local partners via FGDs or KIs on the question ‘what’s changed?’ every six months; biannual workshops with other colleagues to discuss the outcomes and agree on their significance; and gathering of evidence through more passive methods, such as emails, reporting forms and general conversations.

All evidence regarding outcomes is collected and analysed in a way that it can be shared with external evaluators for verification in the case of an evaluation, based on the fact that: ‘Most external evaluations Saferworld had commissioned in the past relied on paid consultants reading strategies, plans, project proposals and donor reports, and then being expected to collect primary evidence. We wanted to be able to provide a review or evaluation team with a package of verifiable claims and evidence that they could then put to the test by interviewing key informants and focus groups, rather than having to do all the work uncovering results and evidence themselves.’⁴⁷

Lessons learnt

Saferworld outlined several internal and external factors that facilitated their switch to the new monitoring system and approach. Primarily, the value is captured in Saferworld’s key message that: ‘Our approach is centred on collecting and analysing evidence *together* about *what others do differently* – and determining how far that is because of our work. The approach is different because it is flexible and straightforward enough to be used in complex, rapidly changing contexts. It empowers frontline staff, communities and partners to ‘monitor’ what matters to them.’⁴⁸

Bringing their plan to life took time and persistent effort, driven by a new strategic plan that served as a catalyst and by donor funding for the establishment of a dedicated capacity with cross-organisational function. This allowed for sufficient experimentation and learning over a multi-year period to confirm strong buy-in from senior management and adoption from staff across the organisation. A clear description of the value identified was ‘a participatory tool that enhances quick identification of changes with less effort – no scratching the head when generating outcomes anymore. It generates adequate information on complex behaviour change and relationships among many actors and serves as an analytical tool – by disaggregating outcomes per actors, and outcomes per level of influence (local, sub national, national, regional and international).’⁴⁹

Other lessons learnt by Saferworld to make MEAL more accessible, usable and valuable included:

- The need to simplify language. Many frontline staff reported mixed and overlapping use of terms like goal, purpose, objective, outcome, indicators, targets, results, outputs, etc., and even donors using confusing terms. The confusion is further compounded when translated from English into various languages. The language of outcome harvesting allows for simplicity, and support was provided by a new communications team to ‘uncomplicate’ the language even further.
- Changing the approach to impact assessment reveals how much time it takes to embed and adopt practices, as well as to build staff confidence in applying concepts and approaches. Staff training on outcome harvesting, like any MEAL approach, is essential, and frequent refresher courses and practice are necessary.
- Employment of dedicated staff at country level who are responsible for monitoring, evaluation and learning and who have a strong understanding of the approach, ensures it is applied systematically.
- Valuable information on the outcomes achieved could be obtained through oral conversations with partners, rather than just relying on written reports, as this allows for the exploration of changes that partners may not realise are significant.

While the use of an ‘outcome harvesting’ monitoring system has not replaced the need for reporting according to donor-specific logframes, it has allowed Saferworld to report to a much higher level of detail and inclusivity than previously. Staff and stakeholders commented that: ‘In highly volatile environments, it enables the teams to take corrective action and understand where perverse incentives or negative effects might be occurring for some, from what look like positive results for others. This reinforces the importance of being context-and gender-specific.’⁵⁰

EORE practitioners are monitoring the impact of activities that are aimed at promoting behavioural and social changes in highly complex, unpredictable environments. Therefore, the linear nature of results and the sequencing of evidence gathering, and analysis or motives of each participant and facilitator, should be challenged. In the words of Saferworld’s Head of Organisational Development:

The ‘results chain’ is so common that we rarely question where it comes from or the language attached to it. Activities lead to outputs, which then lead to outcomes. It’s all in a line, linked together, intentionally set out to be as simple as possible for those filling in forms and adding things up. This rarely reflects the way change actually occurs, especially in conflict-affected societies. We all know it’s not linear. To add insult to injury, we make our partners and ‘beneficiaries’ responsible for our poorly-designed M&E processes. We suck data ‘upwards’, and push responsibility ‘downwards’, as if this is a kind of pay-back for benefits. All the procurement processes, frameworks, administrative systems, and funding structures reinforce this system. At the global headquarters of international institutions, we yank the chain.⁵¹

Reversing this extractive process has numerous benefits. At a quality level, results become more meaningful when those responsible for implementing them, and even the ‘beneficiaries’, also share ownership in the outcomes. This makes all actors in the results chain more powerful agents of change, while increasing the likelihood for changes (positive or negative) to be captured accurately in the monitoring system.

You need people in place who understand the approach, and work with and support teams, at the ground level, to make sure that the focus is right. This is hard

to do from a distant HQ or centre. Having country-level ME[A]L coordinators or advisers is essential – where we have them, the approach is much more systematically applied... Working through outcomes with partners, in conversation with them, rather than expecting them to complete reports in writing, produces much better material. Partners often have a clear understanding of what others have done differently, but they don't realise that that is important.⁵²

³² This case is based on and adapted from: Helaine Boyd, Sebastian Kasack and Noe Falk Nielsen, "Measuring Behavior Change Resulting from EORE and the Need for Complementary Risk Reduction Activities," *The Journal of Conventional Weapons Destruction*: Vol. 24: Iss. 1 (2020): Article 6, <https://commons.lib.jmu.edu/cisr-journal/vol24/iss1/6>.

³³ Not to be confused with the Gender and Mine Action Programme (GMAP) of the GICHD, which carries the same acronym.

³⁴ Helaine Boyd, Sebastian Kasack and Noe Falk Nielsen, "Measuring Behavior Change Resulting from EORE and the Need for Complementary Risk Reduction Activities," *The Journal of Conventional Weapons Destruction*: Vol. 24: Iss. 1 (2020): Article 6, <https://commons.lib.jmu.edu/cisr-journal/vol24/iss1/6>.

³⁵ Boyd, Kasack and Nielsen, "Measuring Behavior Change Resulting from EORE and the Need for Complementary Risk Reduction Activities".

³⁶ In line with the five categories of risk-takers as detailed in IMAS *Mine Risk Education Best Practice Guidebook 1* (2005).

³⁷ Helaine Boyd, Sebastian Kasack and Noe Falk Nielsen, "Measuring Behavior Change Resulting from EORE and the Need for Complementary Risk Reduction Activities," *The Journal of Conventional Weapons Destruction*: Vol. 24: Iss. 1 (2020): Article 6, 4, <https://commons.lib.jmu.edu/cisr-journal/vol24/iss1/6>.

³⁸ Boyd, Kasack and Nielsen, "Measuring Behavior Change Resulting from EORE and the Need for Complementary Risk Reduction Activities," 6.

³⁹ *Ibid.*, 2.

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, 29.

⁴¹ *Ibid.*, 28.

⁴² This case is based on and adapted from *Doing Things Differently: Rethinking monitoring and evaluation to understand change*, Saferworld learning paper (2016), <https://www.saferworld.org.uk/resources/publications/1027-doing-things-differently-rethinking-monitoring-and-evaluation-to-understand-change>; and *Outcome harvesting: Saferworld's approach*, Saferworld learning paper (2019), <https://www.saferworld.org.uk/resources/publications/1223-outcome-harvesting-saferworlds-approach>.

⁴³ *Doing Things Differently: Rethinking monitoring and evaluation to understand change*, Saferworld learning paper (2016), 3, <https://www.saferworld.org.uk/resources/publications/1223-outcome-harvesting-saferworlds-approach>.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.*, 2.

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*, 3.

⁴⁶ *Ibid.*

⁴⁷ *Ibid.*, 4.

⁴⁸ *Ibid.*, 1.

⁴⁹ *Ibid.*, 7.

⁵⁰ *Ibid.*, 9.

⁵¹ Madeline Church, "Upending the system: putting people at the heart of monitoring and evaluation," *Saferworld (blog)*, 11 June 2019, <https://www.saferworld.org.uk/resources/news-and-analysis/post/824-upending-the-system-putting-people-at-the-heart-of-monitoring-and-evaluation>.

⁵² *Doing Things Differently: Rethinking monitoring and evaluation to understand change*, Saferworld learning paper (2016), 9–10, <https://www.saferworld.org.uk/resources/publications/1027-doing-things-differently-rethinking-monitoring-and-evaluation-to-understand-change>.

5. Preliminary findings: good practices for MEAL

For the purpose of this working paper, good practice criteria were used to investigate what explosive ordnance risk education (EORE) operators and practitioners understand as good ways of working.

A good practice is not only a practice that is good, but a practice that has been proven to work well and produce good results.⁵³

Building on the good practice criteria as outlined by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the following questions help establish what is good practice:

1. Effective and successful: has the practice proven its strategic relevance as the most effective way to achieving a specific objective? Has it been successfully adopted and had a positive impact on individuals and / or communities?
2. Environmentally, economically and socially sustainable: does the practice meet current needs without compromising the ability to address future needs?
3. Gender (and diversity) sensitive: has the practice demonstrated its consideration of the different needs, priorities and capacities of women, girls, boys and men?
4. Technically feasible: is the practice easy to learn and implement?
5. Inherently participatory: is the practice participatory and does it support a sense of ownership of decisions and actions?
6. Replicable and adaptable: does the practice have the potential for replication? Can it be adapted to similar objectives in varying situations or contexts?
7. Reducing crisis risks (if applicable): does the practice reduce risks and contribute to resilience?⁵⁴

This paper sets out to define good practices for measuring the effectiveness and impact of EORE, but it is apparent from the above criteria that impact assessments are in and of themselves fundamental to determining the worth of a practice. This raises the question: what criteria can be used to assess whether a particular tool or methodology *for MEAL itself* is representative of good practice?

Intervention design should, at a minimum, include a plan for MEAL that is tailored to the specific intervention and ideally enable the capturing of accountability and learning objectives. The development of, or adaptation of existing, MEAL plans should happen concurrently with the design and planning stage in order to be fit for purpose.

The MEAL plan should reflect the findings of needs assessments and context analyses to ensure that indicators are defined and articulated in line with the intended result or the theory of change, of the EORE intervention. If the immediate outcome is that affected communities change their behaviour around explosive ordnance (EO), then outcome indicators need to be able to measure behaviour change. Counting the number of beneficiaries that are present at an EORE session is, for example, a means to verify an *output* indicator. Undertaking focus group discussions in which a percentage of participants state that they have observed a change in how community members behave around EO is a potential means to verify an *outcome* indicator.

Many mine action (MA) operators work in conflict-affected contexts, whether post or active conflict, which may present particular challenges for MEAL. Complexity and volatility are not a good fit for 'standard' approaches as the collection of information may be difficult, and standardised indicators

are unlikely to be context specific and, as such, may not be able to assess effectiveness and impact in line with the local setting.⁵⁵ As part of the broader field of human security, MA and thereby EORE should take a ‘people-centred, comprehensive, context-specific and prevention-oriented’ approach.⁵⁶ This means applying context sensitivity and the Do No Harm approach⁵⁷ and requires MEAL plans to make provisions for context analysis, needs assessment and risk assessment, including gender and diversity analysis.^{58 59}

In essence, a ‘good’ MEAL plan should not solely focus on progress towards the achievement of objectives but should allow for establishing lessons learnt and ensuring accountability. MEAL is, thus, key to making EORE operators accountable to *all* stakeholders, including affected communities, authorities and donors.

Beyond these minimum standards, what lessons can be drawn regarding good practices for monitoring and evaluating EORE interventions? This section offers several preliminary findings from the desk review and examples collected so far. Its structure takes the FAO good practice criteria defined above as a starting point, with some adjustments in accordance with the direction of the findings.

5.1 Focus on effectiveness and impact, not just outputs

Both the Oslo Action Plan and draft informal Lausanne Action Plan outline actions to ensure that EORE is context specific and prioritised on the basis of accurate identification and targeting of most at-risk groups, with the latter including the following indicator:

*‘The number of affected States Parties that report on measures taken to better understand and more effectively demonstrate the impact of risk education, including in terms of behavioural change’.*⁶⁰

The recently revised IMAS 12.10 Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE), is also explicit that monitoring ‘should quality-assure EORE and the outputs, outcomes and impacts of the project or programme’, and evaluations ‘should focus on the achievement of objectives, the impact of EORE, accountability, and lessons learned’. Yet while the EORE sector is very good at measuring outputs such as number of people reached,⁶¹ the sector is less consistent in measuring outcomes such as behaviour change and even less is known at impact level.

Measuring effectiveness: capturing behaviour change

The fact is, knowledge does not equal behaviour change. Before behaviour change can be measured it needs to be planned for. According to the 2020 EORE Stakeholder Survey conducted by the EORE Advisory Group, just 40 percent of surveyed stakeholders from EORE operators or national authorities reported having a theory of change on EORE at either organisation-wide or country programme level. Without having an idea of *how* behaviour change is assumed to come about, it is difficult to assess whether activities and outputs were effective and successful, in leading to the intended outcome.

One reason for this gap is that the collection of qualitative data, participatory research, community ownership of data and capacity building of personnel, require specific financial and human resources. With limited resources, EORE operators express a real or perceived struggle to justify spending their budget on impact assessments, especially in the face of urgent humanitarian needs. However, it should not be a zero-sum choice between principled humanitarian funding, localisation of efforts and accountability to affected populations and donors. Impact assessments can help solve the seeming juxtaposition of effectiveness and efficiency. By assessing outcomes, rather than just

outputs, EORE operators can prioritise and adapt interventions to ensure that EORE is targeting those most at risk and most in need.

Effectiveness and success mean proving the relevance of EORE as an effective way of facilitating behaviour change and contributing to reducing the human, social and / or economic impact of EO.⁶² For this purpose, among the common EORE impact assessment tools, pre / post EORE tests are of limited applicability, while KAP/B (knowledge, attitudes, practices, and beliefs) surveys are useful in establishing baselines and assessing behaviour change resulting from EORE. Nevertheless, they are also costly when properly implemented and must be conducted multiple times in order to have a corresponding endline. As such, and as indicated by survey respondents, there is a need to identify, utilise and disseminate other 'good' means of capturing behaviour change. The example in case study A (see sub-section 4.1) of focus group discussions is a promising new example for monitoring changes in community behaviours that should be further explored.

Evaluating impact: reducing risks from EO and building resilience

In line with IMAS 12.10, the core objective of EORE is to reduce risks of injury from EO. Explosive ordnance risk reduction is, however, not solely a matter of removing the threats posed by EO but refers to a broader conception of resilience to EO.⁶³ When and wherever clearance is not prompt, EORE is a key approach to ensuring that affected communities can anticipate, cope with, prevent and recover from shocks and stresses presented by EO. This is perhaps the main contribution to the wider impact of EORE, yet at the time of data collection for this desk review, few EORE operators contributed examples of how they measure the way in which EORE enhances resilience.⁶⁴

While resilience can be conceived as a process that aims to strengthen capacities of affected communities to cope, recover and transform in the face of shocks and stresses, there is no unified understanding and interpretation of how impact in this dimension should be assessed. Resilience is inherently contextual and, thus, requires careful context analysis and vulnerability assessment to establish not just needs but also to ascertain existing capacities that will either act as barriers, or enablers, of resilience. Several of the tools covered in this working paper can contribute to evaluating the contribution of EORE to the resilience of EO-affected communities, especially when overlaid with casualty data and indicators related to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), including SDG 16 (Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions).

As resilience is firmly about the capacities of affected communities, the issues of participation and ownership must be further brought to the fore in EORE interventions. Consequently, providers should firmly dig out their participatory tools – not just when assessing needs and impacts but, in particular, when designing and delivering EORE. If affected communities are not put at the very centre, if their voices are not heard, and their capacities are not acknowledged and built upon, then EORE does not likely enhance resilience.

5.2 Gender and diversity sensitive

IMAS 12.10 is explicit in its requirements on gender and diversity, including ensuring that EORE should target specific at-risk groups in a socially, culturally and age-appropriate manner. While this entails a minimum requirement to collect sex and age disaggregated data (SADD), additional data related to other diversity aspects should also be collected and disaggregated to capture the impact of EORE on defined target groups, especially when, for example, livelihoods and displacement status are among the determinants of risk category. The obligation is further affirmed in the Oslo Action Plan which includes the following indicators:

‘the percentage of affected States Parties whose national work plans and strategies integrate gender and take the diverse needs and experiences of people in affected communities into account’ and ‘the percentage of States Parties that report carrying out mine risk education and reduction activities that collect, analyse and report data disaggregated by gender, age, disability and other diverse needs’⁶⁵

Yet gender and diversity sensitivity goes beyond quantifiable data on how many women, girls, boys and men receive EORE; it should further capture the gendered *outcomes* of an EORE intervention. Gender and diversity sensitivity is fundamental to ensure that any changes in behaviour can be traced to the intervention. Without this, it is difficult to further tailor and adapt messages and methodologies to the most at-risk groups. From this it follows that SADD has to not only be collected but accurately analysed vis-à-vis the identified target groups and assumptions that underpin the results chain.

The tools covered in this working paper are easily adapted and tailored to be inclusive, however, any of these tools are only as good as their application. Facilitation skills and the composition of enumerator teams in order to maximise access to, and meaningful participation of, all relevant groups are key, as are dedicated analytical resources.

5.3 Inherently participatory

One of the findings of a recent report on innovation in the EORE sector is that ‘community-based approaches’ that facilitate trust-building are crucial to ensure that EORE interventions are relevant and effective.⁶⁶ Participation and ownership are considered good practice and, while they are not included as evaluation criteria, they are certainly factors that heavily weigh on the relevance and, indeed, effectiveness, sustainability and impact of EORE.⁶⁷ Put differently: if EORE is not inherently participatory it is likely not good EORE. Interestingly, the same principle holds true for MEAL in EORE.

Not surprisingly, this review found that the more time spent in communities or with community members, the better understanding EORE operators will have of risk behaviours and needs against which the effectiveness and impact of EORE can be assessed. EORE operators agreed that engagement with people and communities living in EO-affected areas is valuable when seeking to gauge behaviour change. Participatory qualitative methodologies were cited as particularly useful sources of information on the context and the ‘why’ aspects of behaviour change. However, as with other good practices, facilitation skills and ensuring that activities are conducted in a context-, gender- and diversity-sensitive manner are key to ensuring meaningful participation.

Another way of facilitating participation and ownership is to involve community-based stakeholders and frontline staff in the monitoring of outputs and evaluation of any outcomes, in line with the approach adopted in case study B (see sub-section 4.2). Frontline staff, including those directly involved in delivering EORE, spend the most time with communities and are, as such, often well placed to contribute to a holistic understanding of how communities are affected by EO and conflict. This includes understanding how affected communities, and groups in those communities, have particular needs, vulnerabilities and capabilities. In cases where EORE is delivered repeatedly or over longer periods of time in the same areas, frontline staff may also be in a unique position to observe the changes in community and / or social behaviour over time. Moreover, if evolving circumstances, for instance as a result of security shifts or health and safety measures, prevent access by EORE operators to affected regions, having community focal points who can sustain the MEAL plan is vital for ensuring continued accountability while delivering remotely.

Participation is about giving voice to *all*, including marginalised and vulnerable groups. Several EORE operators have formally committed to adhere to accountability standards such as the Core Humanitarian Standard, as well as the Minimum Standards for Child Protection. In order to facilitate equal opportunities for participation and allow for affirmative adaptation as needed, it is critical to identify and address any barriers that may prevent certain groups from meaningful participation. This includes setting up, institutionalising and making accountability mechanisms for affected communities accessible, in order for them to provide their feedback and influence decision-making.

5.4 Technically feasible

Being technically feasible means that a practice is easy to learn and implement. A MEAL plan that is too complex to be implemented given available resources is set up to fail. Resources in this sense include financial resources dedicated to MEAL as well as human resource capabilities. The latter can be strengthened through greater time allocation (e.g. dedicated positions) and training, as reflected in the above case studies – but again, this has financial ramifications.

All consulted EORE operators deliver EORE in compliance with International Mine Action Standards, including available Technical Notes. This includes comprehensive requirements for EORE personnel, whether staff or volunteers, to be ‘appropriately trained, equipped and qualified’.⁶⁸ The adherence to minimum requirements for the training and qualification, including regular refresher training, of relevant personnel is sometimes a requirement for recruitment, and often a precondition for accreditation, as in technical and operational approval to deliver EORE. This ensures that EORE personnel are able to communicate, educate and train people of concern in line with existing and newly developed materials and methodologies. Most EORE teams undergo regular monitoring, both internal and external, aimed at ensuring that personnel are able to implement EORE in line with approved standards, tools and guidelines.

5.5 Adaptable

With the emergence of COVID-19 as a global pandemic and the subsequent and repeated lockdown measures put in place in most EO-affected contexts, EORE operators had a real opportunity to demonstrate the adaptability of EORE. According to IMAS 12.10, EORE interventions ‘need to be flexible enough to react and adapt quickly to changes in circumstances’. As demonstrated by several of the tools and the case studies covered by this working paper, EORE operators pay particular attention to adapting EORE and means of impact assessment as required, to ensure that EORE reaches targeted communities and groups in a safe, context-sensitive and appropriate manner. It is especially important that, when adapting EORE interventions from a programming perspective, the results chain and associated assumptions are also given a second look and adapted accordingly.

Many EORE interventions take place in communities and contexts that are characterised by limited access, either due to physical and security constraints, including health and safety considerations, or due to sociocultural constraints preventing or hampering the access to certain groups based on, for example, gender and diversity. In displacement and protection crisis contexts, access to main target groups may be further compounded by transience and ever-moving target groups. These factors make it more challenging for EORE operators to assess the effectiveness and impact of EORE.

While EORE methodologies and messaging have been increasingly adapted, especially to remote delivery modalities, there is a general lack of guidance on remote impact assessment tools. Similarly, while indicators are available for EORE delivered by means of social media and SMS, these often remain at output level, such as the number of people reached. Furthermore, for EORE delivered through means such as billboards, TV and radio it is difficult to even determine reach at the output

level – to the extent that existing guidance only recommends measuring ‘estimates’ of beneficiaries of mass and digital media EORE, and does not promote counting beneficiaries of information, education and communication materials, except in cases where it is the primary means of reaching populations.⁶⁹ EORE operators are adapting to access challenges through the adoption of remote MEAL tools, often adapting existing tools such as key informant interviews and pre / post EORE tests to be conducted by telephone and through mobile applications.

Several digital technologies offer scalability, cost effectiveness and potential to reach large audiences, especially youth, with EORE.⁷⁰ This working paper further found that targeted and two-way communication through mobile and digital means is considered as promising, not just for delivery but also for assessing the impact of EORE. The challenge, however, remains to ensure that mobile and digital data collection do not merely become tools for upward data extraction without the possibility and provision of feedback. Some EORE operators have put effort into adapting pre / post impact assessments, for instance, through Facebook polls, and setting up two-way feedback mechanisms. However, few concrete examples of how impact assessments have been adapted to capture remote provision of EORE were shared as part of this review. While the EORE sector was found to be in its ‘infancy’ of embracing the value, and adopting the use, of digital mediums, the COVID-19 pandemic seems to have sped the process up.

5.6 Integrated and sustainable

The need for integration of EORE efforts with those of other mine action pillars and sectors is well established.^{71 72} Not only has EORE been shown to be strengthened when integrated or mainstreamed into other sectors such as livelihoods and education, doing so also increases the sustainability of EORE and, thus, the net benefits of EORE in the longer term, particularly in socio-economic terms.

Such integration is also important from a MEAL perspective. Given that the desired impact of EORE interventions often relates to broader efforts to strengthen resilience, safety, security and sustainable development, it naturally follows that cross-sectoral assessments and evaluations are crucial to assessing progress towards these objectives. Unfortunately, no examples of integrated, cross-sectoral impact assessments were able to be collected through this review. As such, it is not yet possible to offer conclusions on how the sustainability of EORE can be evaluated.

⁵³ FAO, ‘Good practices template’ (2014), http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user_upload/goodpractices/docs/GoodPractices_Template-EN-March2014.docx.

⁵⁴ Ibid.

⁵⁵ OECD, *The OECD DAC Handbook on Security System Reform: Supporting Security and Justice*, Section 10: Monitoring and Evaluation (2011), <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264027862-13-en>.

⁵⁶ UN General Assembly, *Follow-up to paragraph 143 on human security of the 2005 World Summit Outcome*, 6 September 2012, <https://undocs.org/pdf?symbol=en/A/66/L.55/Rev.1>.

⁵⁷ Do No Harm, also referred to as conflict sensitivity, is the ability of an organisation to, i) understand the context in which it is working, ii) understand the interaction of its interventions and that context, and iii) act upon that understanding to minimise negative and maximise positive impacts.

⁵⁸ GICHD and GMAP, *Gender & Diversity in Mine Action Quality Management* (Geneva: GICHD & GMAP, 2014).

⁵⁹ See also GMAP, Gender & Diversity Analysis Checklist, <https://www.gmap.ch/wp-content/uploads/2017/09/Gender-and-Diversity-Analysis-checklist.pdf>.

⁶⁰ Review Conference of States Parties to the Convention on Cluster Munitions (October 2020), CCM/CONF/2020/14, Informal *draft – Lausanne Action Plan*, 17–18, <https://undocs.org/en/ccm/conf/2020/14>.

⁶¹ DCA, DDG, HALO, HI, MAG, NPA and FSD, *Standardising Beneficiary Definitions in Humanitarian Mine Action*, (2nd edition) 2020.

⁶² IMAS 12.10, *Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE)*, Second Edition, Amendment 3, September 2020.

⁶³ GICHD (n.d.), GICHD Strategy 2019–2022.

⁶⁴ Since then, and as of the time of publication of this working paper, two more recent evaluations have been shared with the GICHD but were not able to be included in this review.

⁶⁵ APMBC Oslo Action Plan, <https://www.apminebanconvention.org/fileadmin/APMBC-RC4/Fourth-Review-Conference/Oslo-action-plan-en.pdf>.

⁶⁶ GICHD, *Review of New Technologies and Methodologies for Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE) in Challenging Contexts* (Geneva: GICHD, 2020).

⁶⁷ OECD/DAC Network on Development Evaluation, “Better Criteria for Better Evaluation - Revised Evaluation Criteria Definitions and Principles for Use,” approved 20 November 2019, <https://www.oecd.org/dac/evaluation/revised-evaluation-criteria-dec-2019.pdf>.

⁶⁸ IMAS 12.10, *Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE)*, Second Edition, Amendment 3, September 2020.

⁶⁹ DCA, DDG, HALO, HI, MAG, NPA and FSD, *Standardising Beneficiary Definitions in Humanitarian Mine Action* (2nd edition), 2020.

⁷⁰ GICHD, *Review of New Technologies and Methodologies for Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE) in Challenging Contexts* (Geneva: GICHD, 2020).

⁷¹ See, for example, APMBC Oslo Action Plan, <https://www.apminebanconvention.org/fileadmin/APMBC-RC4/Fourth-Review-Conference/Oslo-action-plan-en.pdf>.

⁷² EORE AG, “Risk Education in the Oslo Action Plan: from Vision to Reality,” https://www.gichd.org/fileadmin/GICHD-resources/info-documents/EORE_Advisory_Group/EORE_AG_Side_Event_Report_-_23NDM_2020.pdf.

6. Conclusions and recommendations

This working paper set out to answer the question ‘what are good practices in measuring the effectiveness and impact of EORE?’. It did this starting from existing standards, guidelines and frameworks for monitoring, evaluation, accountability and learning (MEAL) in explosive ordnance risk education (EORE) to investigate how EORE operators measure these dimensions. While EORE operators have several useful approaches to impact assessment in their toolbox, the review found that the correlation / causation conundrum linking activity to outcome continues to pose a challenge.

All organisations that responded to the survey reported using quantitative tools for gathering data. However, the numerical data collected reveal little to nothing about the reasons people receiving EORE change or do not change their behaviour. Even if triangulated with, for instance, casualty data that demonstrate a decrease in explosive ordnance (EO) accidents and victims, it is often not possible to conclude whether such a decrease in casualties is a result of behaviour change inspired by EORE interventions. Several EORE operators, therefore, increasingly employ qualitative tools that are perceived to be better at revealing insights into people’s behaviours. However, the tools are only as good as the people using them. Making a shift to more qualitatively founded MEAL necessitates a rethink of how personnel are trained, capacitated and managed to ensure that they can collect evidence in a confident and participatory, as well as gender- and diversity-sensitive, manner.

Theories of change are vital to assessing effectiveness and impact

EORE operators measure, or try to measure, the reach, knowledge retention, and behaviour change that can be attributed to, and / or are contributed to by EORE interventions. The evaluability of an EORE intervention depends on whether it is based on an articulated results framework such as a theory of change (ToC). Yet too few EORE programmes, in their conceptualisation phase, develop a ToC based on comprehensive needs assessment and context analysis, or explicitly formulate assumptions for how immediate to long-term outcomes (e.g. desired behaviour change) are expected to come about – although there are encouraging signs this is changing, partly as a result of wider sectoral recognition of its importance as well as to meet donor-driven requirements.

Without clearly establishing and distinguishing between outputs, outcomes and impacts, EORE operators run the risk of measuring standardised indicators that may or may not link to existing needs and capacities. And without explicitly formulating assumptions, there is a potential schism between perceived risk categories and existing capacities. This may obscure how high output levels, for example, in terms of participants in EORE, do not result in the expected outcomes, such as the adoption of different behaviour around EO. As such, several respondents noted a need for approaches that allow for capturing the relevance of EORE to behaviour change, and link behaviour change brought about by EORE to longer-term impact in people’s lives.

Capacities are as important as needs

It is overwhelmingly accepted that needs should determine EORE interventions. By establishing needs for different at-risk groups, taking various gender and diversity aspects into account, EORE operators are expected to target and tailor interventions. However, needs go hand in hand with capacities. Effectiveness and impact should be assessed on the basis of what is already there, rather than assuming that EO-affected communities have no coping mechanisms nor any conception of how to behave around EO prior to receiving EORE.

Few respondents emphasised the inherent link between needs assessments and context analyses on the one side, and EORE intervention design on the other. Several EORE operators noted a number of challenges to conducting comprehensive needs assessments, ranging from a lack of financial resources and time within the project cycle, through to physical access to operational contexts. However, disregarding this step leads to an inadequate understanding of affected communities' distinct vulnerabilities, needs and capacities – all of which ultimately influence risk behaviour.

This working paper found that the conduct of a careful needs assessment and context analysis remains a critical weakness of EORE programmes. Without undertaking such an in-depth analysis it is difficult, if not impossible, to identify not only barriers but also existing support and problem-solving capacities and mechanisms. These can be built upon, rather than introducing or imposing something new or inappropriate.

No one tool fits all

This working paper summarises several MEAL tools. However, the way in which a MEAL plan is designed, planned, conducted and reported on is just as important as the tools selected. Generally, more resource intensive, participatory approaches that are gender, diversity and disability sensitive, and integrated with other sectors will be more effective in generating evidence on behaviour change.

Each tool presented has its stronger and weaker points in allowing collection of particular data. Furthermore, not all data is equal; the number of EORE sessions conducted says nothing about the percentage of women, girls, boys and men who adopt safe behaviour around EO. Consequently, it is not possible in the frame of this working paper to recommend one tool, or even a combination of tools, to assess the impact of EORE. Context continues to matter and, as such, any impact assessment tool should be designed with the specific context, identified needs and capacities, as well as the expected outcomes, in mind. Based on the results chain or ToC, a combination of quantitative and qualitative tools will likely be required to collect relevant data.

Furthermore, in order to analyse and establish any relationship between EORE and behaviour change, a number of tools are likely to be needed. The review found that EORE operators overwhelmingly agree that a mixed methods approach is required to triangulate the consistency and validity of impact assessment data. However, respondents also agreed that additional resources – human as well as financial – are required to adopt, adapt and employ various tools and ensure that MEAL is not a mere 'tick-box' exercise for quality or accountability reporting.

Learning and accountability

It should go without saying, but results measurement under results-based management and MEAL is about collecting, analysing and putting information to use. As demonstrated in the discursive change from monitoring and evaluation to MEAL, this process is not solely about demonstrating impact but about learning, adapting programming, and rethinking priorities and strategies to ensure that interventions are and remain effective. Effectiveness is a matter of achieving objectives – for EORE that often entails increased awareness as well as behaviour change. Yet the goalposts may move during the project cycle as awareness levels go up and people adopt, or do not adopt, safer behaviour (including as a result of EORE). This means that EORE practices should be continuously monitored and evaluated with a view to making changes to ensure that affected communities receive quality EORE.

In the end, while much MEAL may be undertaken with a view to ensuring compliance with donor requirements, impact assessment should be as much about accountability to affected populations (AAP) rather than accountability to donors. However, it is critical to identify and adopt more cost-

effective impact assessment approaches. While donors have a role to play in ensuring that sufficient resources are provided for impact assessment, EORE operators have an ultimate responsibility to affected communities. This demands a rethink of how resources are currently deployed to ensure a shift from chasing outputs to demonstrating outcomes.

This working paper finds that EORE operators overall seek ways to listen to and build trust with affected communities. In addition, many EORE practitioners strive to create connections and build partnerships – both with other EORE operators and with the wider humanitarian community, as they too grapple with many of the same issues identified throughout the paper. These are two encouraging signs that should be seen as a source of hope for what comes next.

More research and examples are needed

Measuring behaviour change

EORE activities, as defined in the revised IMAS 12.10 Explosive Ordnance Risk Education (EORE), seeks ‘to reduce the risk of injury from EO by raising awareness... and promoting behavioural change’. In reality, awareness is just one factor contributing to behaviour change – a complex process – and requires a comprehensive context analysis that allows for the results chain to be defined on the basis of prevalent norms, knowledge, attitudes, perceptions, beliefs and practices. If the sector is to better understand the effectiveness and impact of its EORE interventions, more attention will need to be given to developing ‘good’ methodologies for measuring behaviour change outcomes.

Measuring results from digital interventions

Several EORE operators have made substantial steps to adopt and adapt various media and platforms. This includes social media and mobile applications, and how to utilise influencers, role models and ‘people like me’ to expand and scale up EORE efforts. However, this working paper finds that there is a gap between the provision of EORE and the welcoming of community feedback in a truly two-way fashion, to assess whether ‘new technologies’ indeed provide for effective and impactful EORE.

6.1 Recommendations

Needs assessments should not be optional

According to IMAS 12.10, ‘[n]ational authorities and EORE operators should base their projects on a careful assessment of needs... to identify, analyse and prioritise the local EO risks, to assess the capacities and vulnerabilities of the women, girls, boys and men in the affected communities and other stakeholders, and to determine the options for conducting EORE’. Conducting a needs assessment – even a rapid one in the case of emergency interventions – should be a firm, rather than a preferred, requirement. Needs assessments should be inclusive of gender and diversity as well as context analysis. As needs evolve, assessments should be readapted to ensure that EORE interventions remain relevant and coherent.

Design for impact

EORE stakeholders – understood to include national authorities, EORE operators and donors – should design for impact, rather than allowing EORE to take place without having considered what identified needs, vulnerabilities and capacities mean for achieving expected results. Results chains and ToCs are key to ensuring that EORE operators are accountable for planned outputs and

expected outcomes. Furthermore, ToCs and quality MEAL plans allow for capturing and analysing learning when the intention is to establish what effective and impactful EORE looks like.

Good practice should be efficient, effective and impactful from the perspective of affected communities. EORE stakeholders should take steps to include local actors and affected communities in design, monitoring and evaluation to ensure that EORE interventions are participatory, sustainable, gender- and diversity-sensitive, and adaptable.

A derived recommendation is to ensure that resources are allocated to undertake evaluations of EORE interventions. There are few examples of evaluations, whether ex ante or ex post, and without such it remains difficult to determine whether intervention designs lead to the intended outcomes and longer-term impact.

MEAL approaches should reflect the intervention design

While EORE operators seem to have made rapid strides in adopting and adapting remote and digital methodologies for delivering EORE, especially in areas where access is restricted due to issues such as security or COVID-19, there is a gap in terms of adapting MEAL accordingly. Thinking through the results chain would allow for identification of which areas of MEAL, including data collection and analysis, need a rethink.

Adapting remote approaches, for example, should not simply be a matter of transplanting planned-for outputs. If the means or methods of EORE deliver change, then the assumptions that underpin the results chain should be re-evaluated and tested: do the assumptions still hold up when changing from in-person to remote, for example? If not, then the expected outcomes may fail to materialise.

EORE stakeholders should learn from humanitarian and development actors with longer-standing experience with remote – especially phone and apps-based – evidence gathering. This may include phone interviews, online surveys and third-party monitoring through other organisations and existing community volunteers. Interesting examples to consider include Rapid SMS, which allows mobile data collection and polling, U-Report that can send polls by SMS and Facebook Messenger, as well as various tools for media monitoring.

Training and capacity development

As demonstrated by the case studies, continued training and capacity development are essential components of efforts to improve on impact assessments. This review finds repeated references to a lack of human resources with sufficient capacity to undertake qualitative impact assessment. However, quantitative tools require as much in terms of competencies, skills and contextual sensitivity. EORE stakeholders should prioritise building capacities to allow for better data collection and analysis, information sharing and use of insights and learning.

This could include:

- Updating relevant guidelines, *including the Mine Risk Education Best Practice Guides*, and developing training packages that include guidance on how to adapt them to local contexts and specific needs.
- Ensuring that the EORE operators know of and have access to relevant training courses, whether delivered through the mine action or broader development and humanitarian community.
- Increasing collaboration and partnerships with non-EORE operators to build training synergies and allow for integrated needs and impact assessments.

Research on measuring impact

This desk assessment revealed an urgent need for more good practice examples and exploration of:

1. How results, particularly at an outcome level, can be measured especially when delivering remote or digital EORE; and
2. Impact evaluations of EORE interventions.

Strengthening accountability

While donors have a strong influence on what is measured, both in terms of the setting of required indicators, but also in driving resource allocation, EORE operators have a fundamental responsibility to be accountable not just to donors but to affected communities.

The two case studies presented emphasise the important role a donor can play in triggering improved results monitoring. Several major mine action donors subscribe to localisation, participation and AAP commitments; this should be seized upon to increase advocacy towards donors, ideally by a unified EORE community, with the objective of increasing funding for impact assessments, including the associated funding for training and capacity development to enable assessments and evaluations. Furthermore, donors should be held to their Grand Bargain and AAP commitments on flexible funding to ensure that EORE interventions can be adapted during the implementation phase if, and as needed, to cater to changes in needs and contexts.

For their part, EORE operators cannot neglect their responsibility to demonstrate the effectiveness and impact of their interventions as part of AAP. Whether face-to-face and / or through remote or digital means, participation and local ownership are key. It is recommended to develop communities of practice and feedback mechanisms at a local and national level, to leverage approaches to EORE impact assessments and ensure that findings are shared with affected communities.