THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

School of Social Work

Practicum Report: Evaluation Research and

the Social Agency

By

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A Practicum Report submitted to the Faculty of Graduate

Studies in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of Master of Social Work

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EVALUATION RESEARCH AND THE SOCIAL AGENCY

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

PREFACE

      The following report is a written summary of
my field experiences at the Social Planning Council of
Winnipeg. The subject of the report is evaluation research
and how it can be applied in the social service field.
The report is structured in three parts.

      After a brief introduction, the first part describes
the field setting and discusses the rationale for having
reached certain preliminary decisions. Some retrospective
comments on the field placement are also presented.

      Part II documents the initial learning that took
place during the first three months of the Practicum. This
involved consulting relevant literature on the subject of
evaluation research. The first three sections of Part II
discuss the history of evaluation, definitions of evaluation
and the rationale for social work's involvement in this type
of research. The final section demonstrates how these
academically oriented activities influenced the structuring
of the practical experience.

Part III contains sections describing the field work and how the learning of the first three months was put into action. Some concluding comments and a log of Practicum activities are also presented.

The primary subject of the third part of this report is the work that I did on a social program evaluation. After reading through this report, the reader may be left with the impression that the evaluation was designed to collect data only on a small group of people. This is not true. The evaluation project actually began one year previous to my becoming involved. The staff person who started the original research however, left the Social Planning Council before the project was near completion. My field supervisor took over the evaluation and became the project coordinator. One of his first decisions was to redesign the evaluation strategy. These events took place at about the same time that my field work at the agency was beginning. When I became involved in this evaluation, I did so with the impression that it was a new project, which it wasn't. In the following report however, the project is treated as if it and my field work were initiated at approximately the same time. This was done only for the sake of writing ease and presentation consistency and should not mislead the reader into believing that the whole evaluation was

performed during my nine month stint at the Social Planning
Council. During these nine months, data was collected only
on a small number of individuals. This, by no means,
constitutes the entire amount of data collected for the
evaluation project. Previously collected data was in
existence and additional data would be collected after my
field work was finished.

In the following report the terms "evaluator"
and "researcher" are used interchangeably. Also, whenever
terms depicting maleness are used, (such as his, him or
himself), they should be regarded as referring to the female
gender as well.

INTRODUCTION

As a student entering the graduate level in social work, I had an interest in a number of topic areas which all served as potential study areas for my Practicum report. I did possess a strong interest in the area of social research. My understanding of this subject was that in any one of its various forms (and in varying degrees), research represents a systematic, controlled and often complex method of structuring, recording and interpreting observations. It was also my understanding that research and social service operation were closely related. By acting as hypothesis tester and/or by being the source of social theory itself, research contributes to the foundation upon which both social policy and intervention strategies are based. Therefore, its influence on, and relationship with, the provision and administration of social services has to be considered of paramount importance and a legitimate field of inquiry for social work study.

Certainly merely possessing a special interest in social research presented an insufficient basis upon which a Practicum could be undertaken. It was however, with this broad frame of reference that a field placement was arranged.

The decision to make use of a field placement for the basis of a Practicum, as opposed to opting to do a thesis, was premised upon one explicit assumption: although much knowledge can be gained by consulting literature, only through participation in actual research processes can a person truly learn the roles and experiences that are idiosyncratic to this type of activity.

This assumption is reminiscent of the perceptive thoughts expressed by a previous graduate student who had chosen program evaluation in the child welfare field as a focus for her studies. She writes:

> "As evaluation itself is as much a skill
> as a field of knowledge, a practicum
> offered certain advantages over a thesis
> as a method of learning. The practicum
> was designated a 'research practicum'
> because the emphasis is on the systematic
> investigation of the selected area rather
> than on the intervention strategy."
> (Osmond 1979, pg. 41)

The latter sentence in the above quotation is indicative of the strategy employed by this writer. I sought to learn about program evaluation by assuming a systematic step by step approach. In order to document the specifics of this method, the following report is structured in a section

by section format with each one representing a progressive

movement forward in the learning process. Consistent with

this approach, pertinent literature will be discussed

throughout the report as opposed to providing the more

traditional review of the literature chapter. As this is

a report of field activities, from a student's point of view,

it is not the quantity of literary works cited that is

of most importance but rather, whether or not it can be

clearly demonstrated how the review of relevant literature

was used to provide structure to the practical experience

thereby contributing to the overall learning. The ideas

expressed in the remaining pages of this report are the

product of this writer's attempt to form a compatible union

between academic endeavours and practical experience.

PART I

GETTING THE PRACTICUM STARTED

The Field Placement

To facilitate a refinement in my scope of interest
a field placement was arranged at the Social Planning Council
of Winnipeg (herein referred to as SPC). As this was to be
the primary setting for my Practicum, it was necessary that
I quickly familiarize myself with the staffing, structure,
funding mechanism and roles of the agency. This was done
by reading available written material describing the agency
and meeting with staff representatives. Also, merely being
present and observing the everyday activities at the agency
added to my understanding of the Practicum setting.

The SPC is located at the corner of McDermot Avenue
and Ellen Street in downtown Winnipeg. The agency employs
sixteen people in the following positions:

1 Executive Director

4 Senior Researchers

2 Research Assistants

2 Contracted Research Assistants (used as required)

1 Office Manager

1 Community Relations and Marketing Director

5 Clerical Support Staff

The SPC, a non-profit organization, is funded by the United Way (58%), the Winnipeg Foundation (5%) and the Province of Manitoba (14%). In addition, it receives money from contracts and the sale of publications (23%). It was established in 1919 and as can be seen from its staff complement, operates primarily as a research component of Winnipeg's social services. The SPC, through its staff, is responsible for performing a number of functions. Included are the forming of work groups to study and report on a specific social needs area, conducting educative workshops and seminars, providing consultant services and research necessary for comprehensive social service planning, and preparing publishing and distributing various types of written documents including a detailed manual of social services in Winnipeg. A further responsibility falling within the realm of the SPC's activities is that of program evaluation. The agency, frequently on a contract basis, will directly undertake, or act as a consultant in, the

evaluation of social programs. The source of such contracts
can be either private or governmental in nature.

The decision to concentrate study in the field of
program evaluation was made at a meeting in September of 1982
that was attended by myself, my principal advisor, a senior
researcher and the Executive Director of the agency.
The general opinion expressed at this meeting was that my
Practicum would best serve all concerned if I was given
the opportunity to work on a current agency project.
The rationale for this opinion was that I could still gain the
necessary knowledge and practical experience while at the
same time provide the agency with an additional source of
usable labour. Choosing to work on a current project did
substantially reduce the number of available study areas.
This fact did not prove to be of major importance when it
was taken into consideration that my experience was expected
to be in the area of social research. As such, it was the
process, not the specific subject matter that was anticipated
to be the primary source of learning. It was with this
thought in mind that I was asked to assist in the evaluation
of a social program. I agreed, and emerged from the meeting
with a newly discovered direction for study that brought
specificity to a previously general frame of reference.

The Contract

A contract was drawn up which spelled out the conditions of an agreement between myself and the SPC. Two members of my graduate committee, the Executive Director and myself were all provided with copies of this document. The specific points of the contract are listed below:

(1) I would be given the opportunity of working on the evaluation of a specific social program. Which project I would be working on had not been decided at the time this contract was prepared.

(2) The SPC would supply office and clerical facilities as required.

(3) A staff member, (one of the four senior researchers) would act as both a member of my graduate committee and as a field supervisor.

(4) I would be given the opportunity to attend meetings not related to the program being evaluated which would provide a more in depth view of our city's social service system.

(5)   It was expected that I would abide by all
guidelines of confidentiality concerning information about
the program being evaluated.

(6)   I would work a minimum of twenty (20) hours
per week (on average, from September 1982, through May 1983).
The specific schedule was to be quite flexible and mutually
agreed upon between myself and my field supervisors.

Of the six points contained in the contract, only
one was not adhered to. With the exception of SPC staff
meetings, I was not able to attend meetings that were unrelated
to the program being evaluated. This, however, was not due
to the opportunity not being given to me, but was due to
my having other commitments. Although being able to attend
outside meetings would have been beneficial for the sake
of exposure, being unable to do so did not present a major
detriment to the learning process.

Additional Comments on the Social Planning Council

After spending nine months at the Social
Planning Council (SPC), it is possible to look back and
reflect upon some of the observations that I made concerning

the everyday functioning of the agency. These will be
stated briefly in the ensuing paragraphs. The purpose of
this retrospect is to further enlighten the reader as to
the type of work environment present at the field placement
setting.

In terms of physical surroundings and layout, the
SPC presents as an attractive place to work. The general
office, board room and individual offices are separated in
such a manner that noise is kept to a minimum. An on-site
library is available containing material specifically related
to the social sciences. The library is frequently used by
staff of the agency and proved to be a valuable resource
centre for this writer. The standard office equipment such
as a typewriter and copier were at my disposal as were a
co-operative and helpful clerical staff. The daily activities
at the agency are performed in an informal, autonomous work
atmosphere with little noticeable tension existing between
staff and administration. The monthly staff meetings were
productive although at times lengthier than need be due to
participants straying from the tasks at hand. The Executive
Director chaired the meetings and was quite effective at

facilitating a return to topic when necessary. Interaction between the research staff was characterized by a high level of co-operation. Consultation and advice on projects was frequently sought and received. It was interesting to note that each of the four senior researchers possessed and demonstrated a preferred opinion about how to approach social research. These differing ideas did not result in conflict, but on the contrary were seen by this writer as being a healthy occurrence. The results of job related interaction between the four senior research people most often produced advice that in turn, created an improved research project.

Doing the field work for my Practicum at the SPC provided for valuable exposure to the everyday operations of a research-oriented social agency. The advantages of providing a pleasant and functional work environment did not go unheeded. Also duly noted were the merits of co-operation in the workplace as well as the seeking of advice from colleagues. Observations such as these illustrate the learning advantages accorded by having the opportunity to gain actual experience through a Practicum field placement.

Selecting a Project

Having chosen an area of specialty and having
familiarized myself with the field setting, my next step
was to select one of the current evaluative studies being
done upon which to work. A quick perusal of the available
options indicated that, due mainly to the short nine month
time-frame of my Practicum, the opportunity of participating
in a study from start to finish was not provided. There was
only one evaluation in progress that would provide exposure
to the various elements of the research process. Although
the final report for this project was not due until the summer
of 1984, an interim report was expected in July of 1983.
This meant that in a relatively short period of time, a
research design had to be formulated, a measuring device
designed and some preliminary data collected and analyzed.
Based on this information the decision was made to work on
this particular project. The rationale for the decision was
that this project would allow the greatest chance of being
exposed to the complete process of evaluation research.

In the interest of confidentiality (as per point 5
of the previously described contract), the program being

evaluated will not be named anywhere in this report.
Alternatively, it will be referred to as Program X. The
funding source and sponsoring agency will also be given
replacement titles. Third, the names of staff, clients
and related people involved in the program will not be
revealed.

When viewing the detailed description that
comprises a later section of this report, it becomes apparent
that little investigative work would be required in order for
the reader to be able to pinpoint the identity of the program
in question. The fact that this could happen was explained
to the program administrator at the outset of the Practicum
in a meeting attended by him and the writer of this report.
In addition, a general framework outlining the probable
direction of Practicum activities was discussed. The program
administrator indicated that he shared my concerns regarding
the protection of identities and consequently granted his
approval to the proposed method of keeping the names of
relevant agencies and people as confidential as possible.

It should be made clear that my role at the SPC
was defined as <u>assisting</u> in the evaluation of Program X.

The senior researcher who had consented to sit on my graduate committee was in charge of co-ordinating the research project. His assistance played an integral part in the completion of the field work. The roles that he assumed at different times during my nine months at the SPC can be described as follows:

(1) by acting as a consultant, served a significant educative function;

(2) as the project co-ordinator, assigned tasks as required; and

(3) as a supervisor, provided direction, guidance, advice and support throughout the entire learning experience.

The fact that it was my responsibility to assist in the research meant that a good portion of the work was performed by the project co-ordinator or one of the agency's paid research assistants. The nature of this work was so vital to the research process that failing to address it would surely result in a disjointed and confusing report. On the other hand, I have no intention of trying to pass this work off as being my own. Therefore, whenever the subject matter concerns work undertaken by persons other than this writer, this point will be clarified in written form. For

sections such as these, what is important from a student learning standpoint, is whether or not I am able to demonstrate an understanding of the purpose and product of such endeavours.

An additional point that the reader should be made aware of, is that I did not enter the field placement without some understanding of what social research was all about. Completing related coursework in previous under-graduate programs provided a general knowledge base from which to work. This knowledge base, however, did not include a cognizant understanding of the purposes or techniques of evaluation research. Much of the first few months at the SPC was spent attempting to correct this intellectual deficiency. This was done by consulting pertinent literature. The following three sections will be devoted to describing the results of this preliminary inquiry as pertaining to three subject areas: (1) historical notes on evaluation; (2) definitions of evaluation; and (3) the rationales for social work's involvement in evaluation research.

PART II

LEARNING ABOUT EVALUATION

Historical Notes on Evaluation

Few writers in the field have provided detailed
insight into the historical development of evaluation
research. This is because evaluation on a large-scale
basis is a phenomenon exclusive to the last ten to fifteen
years (Rutman 1977, pg. 5; Rich 1979, pg. 15; Rossi 1972,
pg. 245; Willette 1982, pg. 155; Armitage 1980, pg. 185).

Most written material delving into the historical
aspects of evaluation deal only with this time period.
During the early part of this time period (mid sixties) in
the United States, the Johnson Administration's "War on
Poverty" was gaining in prominence. With the growth of
capital expenditures on social welfare programs came an
increased demand for evaluation to determine whether the
government was getting an adequate amount of service per
dollar spent (biggest bang for the buck principle).
Researchers commissioned to carry out these studies sought
to examine what evaluative measures had been employed during
the government's last great attempt at ameliorative action,
Roosevelt's "New Deal" of the mid 1930's (Conkin 1975).

What they found was that few evaluation of the then newly formed social programs had taken place. Therefore, the evaluative attempts applied to the "War on Poverty" programs indeed marked the first widespread effort at judging the efficacy of social programs.

Increased usage, however, should not be considered synonymous with the discovery of evaluation methodologies. Although it is true that evaluation strategies have certainly grown in number and complexity in recent years, the very beginnings of such research tactics can be traced as far back as 1897 (Caro 1977, pg. 4). At that time, J. M. Rice, an educator by trade, used a standardized test to relate the amount of class time spent on learning spelling skills to spelling achievement. A simple comparison of data obtained from a number of schools which allotted varying amounts of class time to the teaching of spelling induced the researcher to conclude that increasing emphasis in this area would not lead to improved spelling achievement. Following the example set by Rice, most of the evaluations done prior to the decade of the sixties were concentrated in the field of education. The foci of these studies were concerned with measuring the effects that various educational techniques had on student performance.

In order to avoid doing a great injustice to
the historical development of evaluation research, this
section will go no further than to provide the skeletal
overview contained in the previous two paragraphs. The
purpose for the inclusion of this section is to clarify
for the reader the chronological time differential that
exists between the extensive use of evaluation in the
social services and the development of evaluation research
techniques. It is evident that some of the basic elements
of modern day evaluation research were being used at the
turn of this century. For example, the consistent use of
a standardized measuring device, a method of data analysis
that emphasizes a comparison of scores, and implied inferences
from such analysis are three principles that, as will
be pointed out in more detail later, play an important
role in today's evaluation strategies.

Evaluation - Defined

In reference to written definitions of program evaluation, a recent report states that "the terminology used varies widely and is itself the source of much confusion" (Office of the Comptroller General 1981, pg. 2). Cook et al. (1981) express a similar opinion when discussing the various definitional approaches that have been employed:

> "Most of the definitions refer in one way or another to describing the operations and consequences of on-going social programs in the public sector. Most social programs have goals that local program-funded projects have to follow, but the services or mix of services that projects provide may be quite different from place to place. Other definitions of evaluation place some of the stress elsewhere than on describing operations and consequences. Some emphasize the evaluation of demonstration projects and other social experiments; some stress the evaluation of any assumptions that have been made about the need for the program; others emphasize the need to examine the theoretical assumptions underlying the design of the program or its local project types; while yet other approaches emphasize evaluating any implicit or explicit assumptions about the consequences for society of achieving program goals - e.g., will increased academic achievement affect job prospects and lifetime earning? We are at present in an era of expanding definitions of evaluation as well as an era with an explosion of evaluations authorized by state and local authorities as well as federal ones." (pp. 727 - 728)

The authors are suggesting that as this particular type of research has grown in popularity and usage, so too has the variety of evaluative methods and complexity of evaluation definitions increased. As an illustration of this point I cite a recent report prepared by the Social Planning Council of Winnipeg (1982, pg. 5), within which, the assertion is made that the following diversified list of issues have all been addressed in the evaluation literature:

(1) needs assessment research;

(2) process evaluation;

(3) qualitative approaches to outcome evaluation;

(4) social and political implications of program evaluation;

(5) experimental and quasi-experimental approaches to outcome evaluation;

(6) data collection, analysis and confidentiality;

(7) evaluation of program efficiency; and

(8) evaluation utilization and social policy.

As field experiences of this writer can verify, when seeking to become involved in the activity of evaluation

research, there is the danger than one may become

confused, disoriented or discouraged when confronted with

this multitude of categorical definitions. To avoid

unnecessary confusion it is important that the program

evaluator be clear in his own mind what his understanding

of evaluation research is. To accomplish this, the strategy

employed by this writer was to identify predominant

themes that pervade the majority of definitive statements.

One commonality is that evaluation should contain

some method of assessing program efficacy (Hopps 1975, pg.

158). Rutman and Hudson (1978) support this point when

defining evaluation as being "a process of applying scientific

procedures to accumulate reliable and valid evidence on

the manner and extent to which specified activities produce

particular effects or outcomes" (pg. 210). Greenberg (1968)

assumes a similar position when suggesting that evaluation

is simply "a measurement of accomplishment with respect to

a program's particular target" (pg. 26). In his definition,

Suchman (1969) remains consistent with the concentration

on outcome philosophy but provides a more detailed account

of the components necessary in an evaluation:

> "The key conceptual elements in a definition
> of evaluation from a methodological point
> of view are (1) a planned program of deliberate

intervention, not just any natural or
'accidental' event; (2) an objective
or goal which is considered desirable
or has some positive value, not simply
whatever change occurs; and (3) a method
for determining the degree to which the
planned program achieves the desired
objective. Evaluation research asks about
the kind of change desired, the means by
which this change is to be brought about,
and the signs according to which such change
can be recognized." (pg. 15)

In the above example, the author has specified

a number of components necessary for an evaluation to take

place. Mayer (1975) also attempts to do this in the following

quotation:

"Certain conditions have to be met in order
to evaluate a program. There has to be a
clarity as to objectives; the target
population; the treatment methods to be used,
the effectiveness of the effort; and the
efficiency with which the work has been done."
(pg. 385)

Another major theme can be found in the definitional

approach used by many writers which incoporates both the

necessary conditions and an outcome-oriented focus into

a step by step evaluative model. Where the authors differ

is in their presentation of the specific numbers and types

of steps required. In this section of the report three

models will be reviewed with each one being more detailed than the one before it. In the following models the underlined step headings are those used by the respective authors while the written explanation accompanying each is my understanding of the implications that the particular step in question has for the person performing a program evaluation.

MODEL I

The following model presented by Stephen Isaac and William Michael in their book Handbook in Research and Evaluation (1982, pg. 14), contains three steps that are basic and necessary elements of the evaluation process.

Step I - Objectives - In this initial step the evaluator should identify and state as clearly as possible each one of the program's intended objectives.

Step II - Means - The researcher should examine the program strategies and activities that have been implemented in an effort to facilitate the attaining of the objectives. This is done so that the evaluator can

increase his understanding of the way the program operates and how the designed intervention and stated objectives are related.

Step III - Measures - In this step the evaluator will select the appropriate measures that will be used to determine whether or not the program has been successful in attaining the objectives.

Although most step by step evaluative models develop their typologies further than what Isaac and Michael have done in Model I, all contain in one form or another at least these three steps. Therefore, this model is quite useful as it provides a basic framework from which other more detailed models can be examined and understood.

MODEL II

A second popular model again presented by Isaac and Michael (pg. 5), is based on the ideas and concepts developed by Marvin Alkin (1971, pg. 18).

Step I - Needs Assessment - Isaac and Michael
(pg. 5) define need as being the "discrepancy between
what is and what ought to be". In this step it is the
responsibility of the evaluator to identify the needs
as per the above definition that the program is intending
to address. Once this is done, the needs should be placed
in order of priority. This step is necessary as the needs
are what form the basis from which program goals or
objectives are set.

Step II - Program Planning - This step is a
combination of Steps I and II of Model I. The researcher
should clearly articulate the program goals and identify
the methods, strategies and activities that have been
designed to enhance the realization of these goals.

Step III - This step contains two sub-procedures
that the authors suggest occur simultaneously in the
evaluation process.

(A)   Implementation Evaluation - The
evaluator should, at this point, examine whether there are
any observable differences in the way the program was
originally designed and the way it is currently operating.

(B) Progress Evaluation - In
addition to determining whether the program has remained
true to its design, the evaluator should also monitor
indicators of progress toward the attainment of objectives.
This will allow the researcher to approximate the length
of time needed for change to occur as well as helping him
to identify where in the program the most, or least, change
has taken place.

Step IV - Outcome Evaluation - After completing
the previous three steps the researcher should be able to
determine whether or not the program has been successful
in reaching the stated goals. This step will analyze
program strengths and weaknesses and where appropriate
will allow the evaluator to make recommendations for improve-
ments.

In their presentation of Model II, Michael and
Isaac (1982) label Step III as the formative phase of
evaluation and Step IV as the summative phase. In the
following example the point is made that the essential
difference between the two is dependent upon the evaluation
tasks that have been assigned.

"1. You may have responsibility for
producing a *summary statement*
about the effectiveness of the
program. In this case, you
probably will report to a funding
agency, governmental office, or
some other representative of the
program's constituency. You may
be expected to describe the program,
to produce a statement concerning
the program's achievement of
announced goals, to note any unantici-
pated outcomes, and possibly to make
comparisons with alternate programs.
If these are the features of your job,
you are a *summative evaluator*.

2. Your evaluation task may characterize
you as a helper and advisor to the
program planners and developers or even
as a planner yourself. You may then be
called on to look out for potential
problems, identify areas where the
program needs improvement, describe and
monitor program activities, and periodically
test for progress in achievement or attitude
change. In this situation you are a 'jack
of all trades' whose overall task is not
well defined. You may or may not be
required to produce a report at the end
of your activities. If this more loosely
defined job role seems closer to yours,
then you are a *formative evaluator*."
(Morris and Fitz-Gibbon 1978, pg. 11;
italics in original)

In the above quotation and in the previous
description of Model II, there are some implied differences
between a formative and a summative evaluation. Five of
these can be stated as follows:

(1)   A formative or process evaluation
(Carter 1973, pg. 43), is intended to determine whether
the program has been implemented as originally designed
while a summative evaluation is primarily concerned with
whether or not program goals have been attained.

(2)   A summative evaluation will be conducted
over a specified period of time after the program has been
implemented.   At the completion of such a study there will
be an overall conclusion as to the achievement of the
program.   A formative evaluation, although also concerned
with program outcomes to a certain extent, will often be
initiated in the planning stages of the program and seek
to provide continual, ongoing assessment, analysis and
information about the program in question (Johnson 1970,
Jenkins 1961 and Hyman and Wright 1967).

(3)   It is unlikely that in a formative evaluation
the researcher will have more personal contact with program
representatives than what would be the case in a summative
evaluation.

(4)   In a summative evaluation the roles, tasks
and responsibilities of the researcher are more clearly

defined than if that person were conducting a formative
evaluation.

(5) In a formative evaluation the researcher
is considered to occupy a type of "helping" role as opposed
to a type of "judging" role in a summative evaluation.

As will be shown in Model III, the differences
between a formative and a summative evaluation are not as
easily discerned as implied above. The processes of each
in fact, contain many similar procedural steps.

MODEL III

In 1978 Lynn Lyons Morris and Carol Taylor Fitz-
Gibbon co-authored a series of small books that together
comprise the Program Evaluation Kit. One of these books,
entitled Evaluator's Handbook, outlines a step by step
procedure for both formative and summative evaluations
(pp. 25 - 106).

Formative Evaluation

Step I - Set the Boundaries of the Evaluation -
This step occurs in the time span from when the researcher

is asked to perform an evaluation until the time that
the evaluation begins. During this period there are a
number of tasks that the evaluator should complete.
He should initially find out as much as possible about
the program that is to be evaluated. The researcher should
also, after assessing the accuracy of this information,
conceptualize in his own mind the direction that the
evaluation might take: in other words, form some preliminary
ideas about a possible research design. This information
should then be shared with the pertinent program people
(agency administrator and/or staff), at which time it is
likely that a good deal of negotiating will take place
before the specific research design and roles and
responsibilities of both evaluator and program people will
be agreed upon.

Step II - Prepare a Program Statement - The
evaluator should develop a clear statement of program goals
in conjunction with a written rationale explaining his
interpretation of how the various aspects of program
operation are intended to lead to these goals being realized.
These ideas should again be shared with program people to
enhance their accuracy.

Step III - Monitor Program Implementation and the
Achievement of Program Objectives - During this step the
evaluator should select, develop or purchase appropriate
measuring devices that can be periodically administered
in an effort to collect data to be analyzed. This analysis
will allow the researcher to inform program representatives
whether the program is operating as intended and whether
progress is being made toward achieving the desired outcomes.

Step IV - Report and Confer with Planners and Staff -
During this phase it is the responsibility of the evaluator
to meet program representatives with the purpose of sharing
acquired information and where appropriate, make suggestions
for improvement as based on the data analysis of Step III.

Summative Evaluation

Step I - Focus the Evaluation - During this step
the evaluator should determine the purposes of the evaluation
in relation to what information is desired, by whom and for
what reason. Second, he should find out as much about the
program as possible and subsequently be able to describe
program components and desired objectives. After this is
done, the objectives should be ranked in order of importance.

Step II - Select Appropriate Measures - The
evaluator should be clear as to what will be measured
in the study - i.e., whether it is necessary to include
all the stated goals in the research or, after ranking,
is it possible that some could be excluded. The researcher
should then develop a research design that contains
provisions for the acquisition or development of
appropriate measuring instruments that will allow for the
testing of the previously identified program components
to take place. Included in the design should be a state-
ment of where (or from whom), the data is to be obtained
and some proposals for data analysis.

Step III - Collect Data - During this step the
evaluator should set time deadlines for completion of
the information gathering process and see to it that the
measuring instrument is administered to the data source.
There could also be some preliminary scoring of instruments
as the data comes in.

Step IV - Analyze Data - The researcher will,
depending on the availability of facilities and the size
of the evaluation budget, apply various statistical tests
to the collected data. The results of these tests should

allow the evaluator to arrive at some conclusions as to the program's success in reaching its stated objectives.

Step V - Prepare an Evaluation Report - During this step the researcher should initially plan the written report and in doing so, give consideration to what information is to be included and in what manner it is to be presented (i.e., in graphs, tables, prose or a combination thereof). After working through these issues the researcher should assemble and distribute the report to all relevant people.

In their book, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon (1978) provide a more complex account of formative and summative evaluations. In the above review I have merely touched upon the highlights of their presentation. Even in this general overview it is evident that the steps of a formative evaluation and those of a summative evaluation are actually similar. Both require that the evaluator familiarize himself with the program, identify objectives, collect information, analyze data and make recommendations. Although Model III deals with these concepts more extensively, the suggested approach to evaluation research remains consistent with the procedural frameworks put forth in Models I and II.

The major difference is that Morris and Fitz-Gibbon (1978)
have chosen to treat summative and formative evaluations
as if they were separate and independent research methodologies.
On this topic, the position taken by this writer is that a
complete evaluation should contain both formative and
summative components. This assertion is premised on the
assumption that an evaluation should possess some method(s)
for assessing program achievement. This is generally done
by measuring program effects against stated objectives. It
is difficult to imagine how the evaluator could arrive at
a clear statement of objectives without first developing
an extensive understanding of how the program operates.
After completing this preliminary task, the researcher should
possess sufficient knowledge to assess whether the program
has been implemented in congruence with its original design.

The conclusion to be reached from this discussion
is that a formative evaluation can occur without a summative
component, but it is not likely that an accurate summative
evaluation can take place without a preceding formative
phase. An evaluation of a social program can reach its maximum
potential only if it contains both formative and summative
components.

Rationale for Social Work Involvement

The rationale for undertaking this Practicum could be more easily explained if the subject area involved more traditional types of social work activities, for example, a specific proposed intervention into a particular problem with an identifiable target population. For my Practicum report, this model just did not apply. That fact however, does not lessen the importance of establishing a rationale for social work involvement in the area of evaluation research. In reference to social work and the social service field, two questions come to mind. First, why should social programs be evaluated at all? Second, what are the reasons for social workers being aware of, and/or involved in, the processes of evaluation? An effort to address these questions will form the basis of the rationale for this Practicum. Four categories will be used for discussion purposes.

(1) Economic Influence

This refers to the recent and continuing recession which has stimulated a growing concern for the efficiency of government spending. In Canada, the number and nature

of social welfare programs has grown significantly since
the end of World War II (Guest 1980, pp. 104-165). This
has resulted in tremendous growth in public sector employ-
ment and, consequently, more jobs for social workers
(Armstrong 1977, pp. 295-304; Peitchinis 1970, pp. 83-85).
The work that people were performing prior to World War II,
driven mainly by motives of philanthrophy, is now being
done for money. Under the influence of tough economic times,
there is now, perhaps more than any other time in history,
a greater concern for the amount of public money being spent
on social programs. Due to limited resources, government
(as the primary funder of such programs), is continually
searching for areas in which expenditures can be curtailed.
The social service sector is one area in which government can,
and has, practiced pecuniary constraint.

> "The concern for productivity in the
> social services has become more wide-
> spread with the significant growth
> of the welfare state since World War II.
> More recent fiscal crises of capitalist
> states have intensified this pressure
> with cutbacks in welfare state expendi-
> tures and increased requirements for
> cost control." (Tudiver 1982, pg. 24)

The above author is suggesting that the current
economic crisis has resulted in a greater need to adequately

determine the effectiveness and efficiency of social welfare

operations. Buchbinder (1980) expresses a similar opinion:

> "Over the last several years the
> encroachment of cutbacks in the
> public sector generally, and in the
> social service sector specifically,
> have preoccupied many of us. These
> cutbacks in financing have been
> accompanied by increasingly punitive
> policies and attitudes concerning
> eligibility determination and delivery
> of services; as well as an increasing
> emphasis on efficiency and productivity
> in the social service workplace."
> (pg. 1)

Social services is one area in which government

can reduce public dollar spending. As Transue (1980) points

out: "Cities, state and private agencies have all felt the

financial strain of decreased dollars for social services"

(pg. 25). Keeping this point in mind, it becomes evident

that evaluation research can perform two specific functions.

First, a well designed evaluation can accurately identify

inefficient programs, or components of programs in which

funders can reduce spending without drastically hampering

service delivery. Second, social work administrators and

line staff alike, by being educated in the area of program

evaluation, will be able to work more effectively with an

representative of the monetary resources. In reference to the latter of these two groups, there has been an increase in recent years of the amount of concern being shown for how public monies are being spent and whether such resources are being put to effective use:

> "As public-sector spending has accelerated, the public has become increasingly concerned about how this money is spent. Legislators and government management officials, as well as the general public, have become interested in determining if government is achieving its goals within the parameters of the law in an efficient and economical manner." (Pomeranz et al 1976, pg. 26)

In actuality, people performing evaluation studies are not directly accountable to either the public or the program's clients. The structure of the system dictates that formal funding sources (such as government or the United Way), and the people responsible for designing and implementing policy (boards of directors and agency administrators), are delegates and representative of the larger society. Therefore, social programs and the evaluation of such end up being responsible to these two alternate sources. This fact does not diminish the need for monitoring service in an effort to determine which programs provide a beneficial service for their clients (ethical standpoint), and do so in a cost efficient manner (financial standpoint). Evaluation research

external evaluator* or, by using such research processes

themselves, identify components of their own program

which can be omitted or altered in an effort to provide

improved service (Bok 1980, pg. 5).

    (2)   Moral Accountability/Monitoring of Service

        Social welfare programs have a definite responsibility

to provide validation for their existence. In reference to

social work, Fisher and Bloom (1980) write the following:

> "Today there is an increasing sense of
> urgency about being accountable as the
> government, our clients and consumers,
> and colleagues all point to the need
> to evaluate our practice and to provide
> evidence of the effectiveness of our
> work." (pg. X)

        This need for accountability in the helping services

is as much a function of basic ethics as it is a concern for

financial constraint. From an ethical standpoint, given

that the ultimate funding source of social programs is

public tax dollars and/or voluntary contributions, these

programs should be accountable to two sources; clients, as

the consumers of service, and the public in general as

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*this term refers to an evaluator who conducts a program
 evaluation and is not a paid staff person of the program
 in question.

can meet these needs and who is better able to conduct
such research than those people (i.e., social workers) who,
by training and experience, have the most familiarity with
social service programs?

(3) Positive Contribution to the Field

Evaluation, although differing somewhat from
more traditional strategies, still exists as research. As
such, it possesses the potential to make some positive
contributions to the social work field. Evaluation research
is capable of contributing to the knowledge base that is
relevant to social work by testing the theories upon which
strategies for achieving social change are based (Deming 1975,
pg. 53). Nunnally (1975) expounds upon this point:

> "If one inspects examples of evaluation
> research discussed in these volumes and
> in other places, it is apparent that the
> term evaluation research is generally
> concerned with the effectiveness of
> programs of social improvement. Thus,
> social improvement is involved in the
> introduction of the Peace Corps into a
> new country, the institution of community
> mental health programs, development of
> family planning programs, and the intro-
> duction of 'new math' in a school system.
> In all cases the effort of the program is
> to improve some existing state of affairs
> among people; in all cases the effort of
> evaluation research is to document the
> amounts and kinds of improvements that
> actually occur, if any." (pg. 101)

From the above example one can infer that social programs are a deliberate and conscious effort to bring positive change to a situation, circumstance or event that has been labelled undesirable. An alternate, although similar way of examining the same phenomenon, is to regard the applied social intervention strategy as being a theory put into action in order to bring about certain desired changes. Evaluation, intended to assess whether these changes actually occur, serves a theory testing function. Deutscher (1979) makes this very point:

> "Program evaluation attempts to assess the consequences of deliberate efforts to intervene in ongoing social processes. Efforts to understand and explain social processes and social change constitute social theory. The evaluation of social programs provides an opportunity both to test existing theories of social change and to discover new theory." (pg. 309)

It is evident that the information provided by evaluation studies can serve an educative function by expanding the amount of available social work knowledge. In addition, evaluation research can enhance an overall improved system of service delivery by existing as a mechanism by which social intervention theory and subsequent action can be tested.

(4) <u>As a Function of Professionalism</u>

Social work, as a field, has traditionally taken great pains in its effort to become recognized as a <u>bona fide</u> profession (Wagner and Cohen 1978, pg. 25; Galper 1980, pg. 158). One of the methods commonly employed to determine professional status is to apply certain professional criteria to the occupation in question. One often-mentioned professional criterion is that there should exist a self-regulating body (Millerson 1964, pg. 5; Reid 1982, pp. 6-11). In the established professions of law and medicine, self-regulating bodies are primarily concerned with ensuring the competence of individual practitioners. In social work, as it contains no independent body with the power to sanction individual workers (the regulatory powers lie with each employing agency), for reasons stated previously it is important that the field be at least capable of providing evaluative data on programs that employ the services of its members. By delegating the responsibility for performing this type of research to people who are formally recognized as social workers, the field will take one step towards becoming self-regulating and meeting the above cited professional criterion. Independent of whether one looks favourably upon this drive for professional status, evaluation

can enhance the chances that social work will be able
to achieve this much sought-after goal.

Summary and Implications for the Practicum

The previous three sections of this report
provided a review of the pertinent literature consulted
prior to actually becoming involved in the evaluation project.
Some historical notes on evaluation were presented and the
conclusion reached was that although the use of evaluation
research in relation to social service operation has grown
significantly in the last twenty years, basic evaluation
strategies were being employed at the turn of the twentieth
century in the education field. Four categories representing
a rationale for the field of social work becoming involved
in evaluation research were also presented. These included
economic influence, moral accountability/monitoring of service,
positive contribution to the field and a function of
professionalism. Although these two areas of inquiry did
contribute significantly to this writer's knowledge of
evaluation, it was the examination of definitive issues
which proved to have the greatest direct influence on shaping
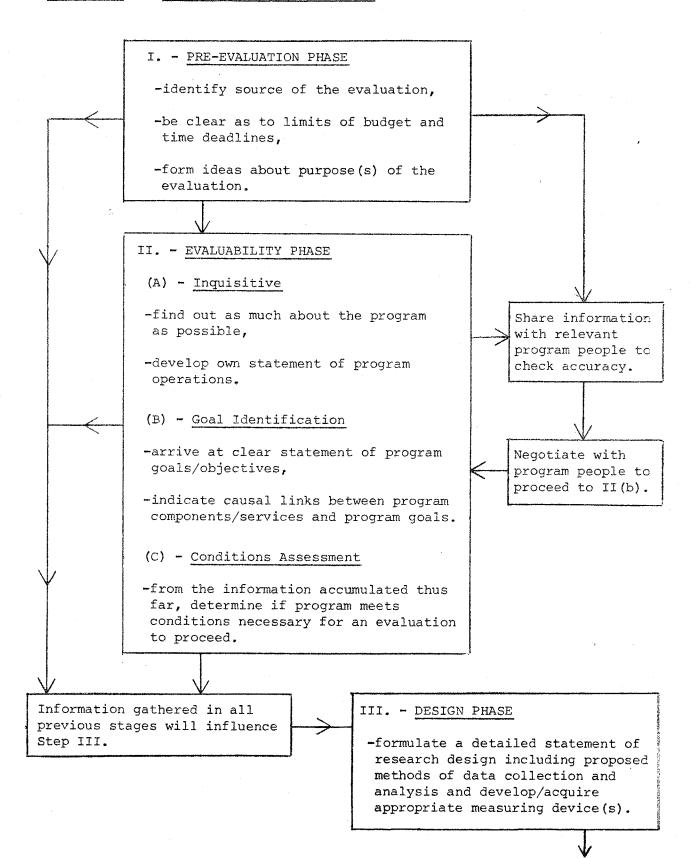future Practicum activities. Cited were (1) that evaluation

should focus on program achievement, (2) that social programs should meet certain conditions before an evaluation can proceed, and (3) that evaluation is a step by step process. Three step by step evaluative models were reviewed and within these the differences between a formative and summative evaluation were explored. The resultant position assumed by this writer was that a complete evaluation report should contain both.
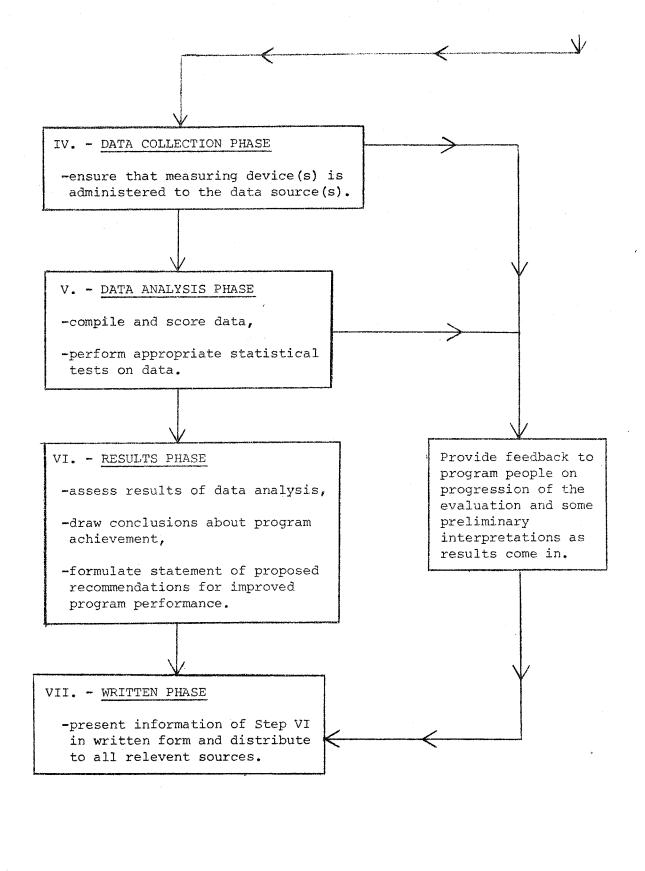
The key question from a learning standpoint was whether I could take this newly acquired knowledge and turn it into subsequent action. To create a framework for future Practicum activities, a new and complete step by step model was created incorporating the major concepts identified in the definitions section.* This model, found in Figure I on the following two pages, provided structure and direction for the undertaking of the evaluation project. The specific steps, identified via Roman Numerals, outline the activities that would be expected to occur in a complete evaluation. For reasons explained earlier, not all could be performed by the writer. I would ask that the reader pay special

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*a step by step model not reviewed in the definitions section was also used in constructing the diagram found in Figure I (see Wholey 1979, pg. 15)

attention to the following diagram as it provides, in
skeletal form, an overview of the material contained in
the remaining pages of this report.

FIGURE I. - A NEW EVALUATION MODEL

I. - PRE-EVALUATION PHASE

-identify source of the evaluation,

-be clear as to limits of budget and
time deadlines,

-form ideas about purpose(s) of the
evaluation.

II. - EVALUABILITY PHASE

(A) - Inquisitive

-find out as much about the program
as possible,

-develop own statement of program
operations.

(B) - Goal Identification

-arrive at clear statement of program
goals/objectives,

-indicate causal links between program
components/services and program goals.

(C) - Conditions Assessment

-from the information accumulated thus
far, determine if program meets
conditions necessary for an evaluation
to proceed.

Share information
with relevant
program people to
check accuracy.

Negotiate with
program people to
proceed to II(b).

Information gathered in all
previous stages will influence
Step III.

III. - DESIGN PHASE

-formulate a detailed statement of
research design including proposed
methods of data collection and
analysis and develop/acquire
appropriate measuring device(s).

IV. - DATA COLLECTION PHASE

-ensure that measuring device(s) is
  administered to the data source(s).

V. - DATA ANALYSIS PHASE

-compile and score data,

-perform appropriate statistical
  tests on data.

VI. - RESULTS PHASE

-assess results of data analysis,

-draw conclusions about program
  achievement,

-formulate statement of proposed
  recommendations for improved
  program performance.

Provide feedback to
program people on
progression of the
evaluation and some
preliminary
interpretations as
results come in.

VII. - WRITTEN PHASE

-present information of Step VI
  in written form and distribute
  to all relevent sources.

PART III

THE PRACTICUM: APPLYING THE EVALUATION MODEL

Some Prepatory Notes on the Program and Type of Research

Prior to explaining what was done in each of the individual steps, it is necessary to make some brief statements about the program being evaluated and the type of research being done. As a prepatory exercise this is intended to serve clarification purposes and enhance the reader's understanding of points made in the remainder of this report.

Program X is located in Winnipeg and was established in 1978 as an employment preparation program. The target population is generally described as being disadvantaged youths who are at risk of becoming unemployable. The overall goal of the program is to prepare participants for entrance into the work force. The program is funded by the Federal Government through the Local Employment Assistance Plan (L.E.A.P.). The money is provided to the program's sponsoring agency which in turn is responsible for the operation of Program X.

It should also be stated at this point that the
type of research being performed falls in the classification
of external evaluation as opposed to internal (or in-house),
evaluation. The essential differences between the two can
be seen in the following example:

> "An evaluation study can be staffed and
> structured in different ways. A research
> unit or department within the program
> agency can do the evaluation, or special
> evaluators can be hired and attached to
> the program. (This is often the way federally
> funded demonstration projects handle their
> evaluation requirement.) Outsiders,
> usually university faculty members, are
> sometimes paid to serve as consultants
> and either advise the evaluators on staff
> or carry out some of the evaluation tasks
> themselves in close co-operation with
> staff. These kinds of arrangements can
> be lumped together as 'in-house'.
>
> Another approach is for the agency to
> contract with an outside research organiza-
> tion to do the study. The research
> organization, whether it is an academic
> group, a non-profit organization, or a
> commercial firm, is responsible to the
> persons (and the level in the program agency)
> as the U.S. Office of Education or the
> national YMCA) to employ a research
> organization to study a number of the local
> programs it supports or oversees." (Weiss
> 1972, pg. 18).

As the Social Planning Council is a research
organization that operates independent of Program X, and the

evaluators were not formally attached to the program in any
way, the research being done is not an in-house project but
an external one. There has been much debate in the literature
as to which is preferable and why. (Likert and Lippitt 1953,
pp. 581-646; Weinberger 1969, pp. 23-26; Biggerstaff 1977,
pg. 71; Banergee 1979, pg. 229). One point often cited in
favour of employing an external evaluator is that this person
will have the greatest amount of expertise in the field and
therefore, will have a better chance of gaining the confidence
of the people who requested the evaluation and having the
end results taken seriously. An external evaluator is also
thought to work with more objectivity and autonomy as he is
not formally employed by the agency in question. Arguments
against using an external evaluator include (1) as he has
not worked in the program or agency, this type of researcher
will not possess as much understanding of the program's operation
as would an internal evaluator; and (2) the efforts of the
external evaluator will be viewed with more suspicion by the
program staff. This latter point may result in conscious
efforts by the staff to thwart the research process. As the
only experience this writer has gained in an actual evaluation
is by playing and observing the roles of the external evaluator,
is is not possible to objectively make a definite statement
as to which is preferable. I can state with confidence

however, that the cited advantages and disadvantages of an
external evaluation are accurate and realistic. It will
also become clear later in this report that much of the
external evaluator's earliest efforts are aimed at
alleviating the two disadvantages listed above.

STEP I - PRE-EVALUATION PHASE

The tasks of the researcher identified in the diagram
under Step I had already been done by the project co-ordinator
prior to my field work beginning. The result was that my
practical experience began in what is labelled Step II in the
diagram without possessing important preliminary knowledge
about the evaluation project. The responsibility for this
knowledge not being obtained has to lie with myself for not
taking the proper inquisitive initiative. The fact that
participation in the pre-evaluation phase did not occur in
the expected chronological period does not lessen the
significance of trying to identify for the reader the pertinent
information that would have been gleaned in this initial step
of the evaluation.

To the best of my knowledge, the evaluation of Program
X was requested by the Board of Directors of the sponsoring

agency. Although actually beginning in 1981, for reasons
explained in the Preface, the project is being treated in
this report as if it began in September of 1982. An interim
report was expected in the summer of 1983. The budget for the
evaluation was set at approximately $15,000.00 per annum.

Forming preliminary ideas about the purposes of
the evaluation prior to its implementation is an important
mental task that researchers have a tendency to omit (Marks
1980, pg. 69; Gore et al. 1977, pp. 85-87). If I had been
responsible for doing this in the pre-evaluation phase, a
list of purposes likely would have read as follows:

(1) to identify and assess the accuracy of
assumptions being made by the program;

(2) to determine if the program is operating in
a manner that is consistent with its original implementation
design;

(3) to identify and assess the practicality of
the program's stated goals;

(4) to determine if these goals are being achieved
and if so, to what degree; and

(5) to provide ongoing information throughout
the evaluation to program people and the sponsoring agency
(in addition to the interim and concluding reports), that
may lead to alterations in the program's operation in order
to facilitate an improved success rate.

The above list represents my interpretation of how
the purposes of the research project would have been stated
in the pre-evaluation phase. The list does assume that the
program meets the necessary evaluative criteria. It is also
consistent with points raised in the definitions section
in that it contains both summative and formative components,
a concentration on program achievement and some effort to
assess program assumptions.

STEP II - EVALUABILITY PHASE

(A) Inquisitive - In this subsection of Step II
it is the responsibility of the evaluator to find out as much
about the program as possible. In the literature, a number
of potential sources for obtaining this information are
suggested. Morris and Fitz-Gibbon (1978, pg. 38), suggest
consulting program proposals, program budgets, lists of
goals and objectives which the staff of the program feel
describe its aims and an organizational chart showing the

administrative structure of the program. Rutman (n.d.)
identifies "legislation, hearings, budget justifications,
past evaluations, as well as program guidelines and regulations"
as all being potential data sources. (pg. 11)

Prior to setting up any meetings with the program
administrator concerning the evaluation, a number of informa-
tional documents were obtained. These sources included program
outlines, an overview position paper, a project officer's
report, budget statements, funding proposals, statistical
summaries as well as a number of informational sheets that
the program makes available to the general public. The
research co-ordinator for the Social Planning Council provided
the writer of this report with the relevant written material.
Following is a description of Program X derived from information
contained in these reports.

Overall Goal

The overall goal of the program is to prepare its
participants for entrance into the work force.

Target Population

The average participant in Program X will be 17 years
old and possess an educational level of grade seven, although

many are functionally illiterate. Participants show a lack
of motivation which manifests itself in two ways; (1) lack
of desire to find employment and (2) once employed, the
inability to stay interested in keeping the job. About 80%
of the participants will have had encounters with the law.
This is a drawback to finding employment as many jobs either
implicitly or explicitly require that their employees be
free from legal difficulties. Participants are described as
having a physical appearance that is typical of so called
"street kids". This refers to attire such as blue jeans,
denim jackets, dirty T-shirts and tatoos: in other words a
generally unkempt appearance. The assumption being made
here is that participants are lacking in knowledge of what
is considered proper dress at a place of employment.

In addition to the above, program participants are
described in these written documents as possessing a number
of other problems which all present as barriers to finding
productive employment. These include the following:

(a) Low Self-Esteem - Most participants are said
to have enjoyed few successes in their lives. This has created
feelings of low self-esteem which feeds into their lack of
motivation as they do not want to try new things because of
a fear of failure.

(b) Residential Problems - Approximately 70% of
the participants are said to come from some sort of institutional
living arrangement such as group homes or detention homes.
One of the effects of this is that a participant will have
an inability to assume responsibility for his or her own
actions. There exists a child-like dependence on the govern-
ment to meet all of the individual's needs. An understanding
of why people work is not a part of their lives.

(c) Unrealistic Expectations - Another hypothesized
effect of institutional living is that the resident will
never be able to develop a clear conceptualization of job
and career options. The only contacts participants have with
the working world are the social workers, group home staff,
police and judges who enter into their lives. Most participants
have unrealistic expectations of career possibilities.

(d) Poor Communication Skills - Having experienced
a lack of social stimuli, the participants of Program X are
said to demonstrate a lack of ability to present themselves
in a social way. Most participants cannot carry on a
conversation for more than a few seconds.

(3) Lack of Work Experience - Due to the above
cited problems, participants will enter the program without
ever having held a job for any extended period of time.

Structure of the Program

The program is designed in such a way that as many as possible of the expected participant problems can be addressed in an effort to facilitate entry into the work force. To accomplish this, the program is structured in two segments.

Segment I - Vocational Development Skills

This segment itself is divided into three separate sections:

(a) Intrapersonal Job Skills - In a classroom setting, five days a week for five weeks, each morning is spent encouraging participants to look at themselves from the inside. The expectation is that these sessions will make participants aware of the fact that although they cannot change their past they can influence the way that the future will unfold.

(b) Occupational Exploration - As participants are said to possess an inaccurate view of employment, occupational exploration is used as a tool to help them discover what is realistic for them. This is done in a classroom setting,

five days a week for five weeks in the afternoon. The
intended purpose is to move the participant to a place where
he can realistically look at himself and employment and see
exactly where he fits in. Emphasis is placed in three areas;
(1) helping the participant find out what is needed to enter
certain areas of employment, (2) helping the participant to
find out all he can about his own abilities and interests,
and (3) helping the participant to match himself with the
job market. This section of the program is designed to alert
the individual as to what is a realistic and valid view of
what he can or cannot do.

    (c) <u>Interpersonal Communication Skills</u> - The thrust
of this part of the program is to teach the skills necessary
to survive in the workplace. In addition to teaching the
basic skills of communication, this section also explores
areas such as budgeting, making up a resume, filling out job
application forms and the format of job interviews. All are
skills needed to achieve and maintain independent living.
This is done in a classroom setting during the mornings of
the second five week period in conjunction with part one of
Segment II.

Segment II - Work Experience

After completing the initial five week classroom period, the participants move into the second segment of the program. The two goals of this segment are to give the participants some actual employment skills and to expose the participants to a real work environment. To facilitate achievement of these goals, Program X offers the following two types of work experience.

(a) Part-Time Experience - This occurs in the afternoons of the second five weeks of the program. It provides a smooth transition into the work place that is not quite as demanding as placing the participants initially into full-time work. The part-time jobs are with real employers doing real jobs. The actual types of employment vary. Program staff attempt to match the interests and abilities of the participants with the available jobs. For the participants, this becomes their first taste of what it is like to work and earn money.

(b) Full-Time Experience - After completing ten weeks of the program, participants are placed into a series of full-time work experiences. The full-time jobs last

from four to six weeks and are again with actual employers.
Once they have completed a contract in a place of employment, the participants are given another work experience.
Participants are paid $3.55 per hour on their first full-time
work experience and are given a raise upon successful completion
of each work placement. The full-time jobs are closely monitored
by program staff to ensure as much as possible that the
participants succeed. It is hoped that with each new success
a new level of self-esteem and awareness will be achieved.
The skills learned and the knowledge of work acquired by the
participants become valued and saleable commodities to future
employers.

These two segments of the program are seen as leading
the participants to the door of employment. Another one of
the program's goals is to assist them through that door and
into a permanent job. The program seeks to realize this goal
by encouraging employers to keep participants in full-time
work experience on as permanent staff by placing individuals
in jobs that are known in advance will turn into permanent
employment, and by providing the personal skills necessary to
seek their own permanent employment.

Staffing

The program employs nine staff members. Qualifications and responsibilities of each staff position are as follows:

(a) One Project Manager - The project manager is expected to be a strong leader with good management skills and a demonstrated ability to relate with adolescents. The reponsibilities of this position include hiring and supervision of staff; overseeing all financial transactions; public relations; monitoring participant status; liaison with other agencies; program development; staff development and participation in the sponsoring agency's management group. Additional roles include assisting in the design and implementation of the evaluation as well as evaluation of paid staff.

(b) One Vocational Development Supervisor - The person in this position is expected to be an effective teacher and strong leader with good communication skills. Duties include supervision of the vocational development instructor; teaching the vocational segment of the program; liaison with other agencies around issues involving vocational development participants; development of vocational and occupational exploration material and participating in the hiring of staff.

Additional responsibilities include acting as project manager when that person is absent and overseeing the intake process.

(c) One Case Manager - The person in this position is expected to possess extensive knowledge of the social service system as well as have the ability to relate to and counsel troubled adolescents. The case manager is also expected to act as a role model for participants and be able to communicate effectively both orally and in writing. The major responsibilities of this position are representing the program at participant conferences and court appearances; counselling of participants when necessary and appropriate; referral of participants to other agencies when necessary; searching out other agencies or programs that may be useful resources for program participants; crisis management and advocacy on behalf of participants.

(d) Two Work Experience Co-ordinators - These people are expected to be aggressive sales people with the ability to work under a minimum of supervision. Effective communication skills, oral and written, are also essential. Primary duties include job placements; liaison between participants and the program during work experience segment;

employer recruitment; preparation of participants for succeeding work experience; counselling of participants when necessary and appropriate; some liaison with outside agencies around participants in work experience and financial negotiations with employers.

(e) One Occupational Exploration Instructor - The person in this position is expected to possess good teaching abilities and be able to relate to adolescents. Responsibilities include daily instruction of participants in occupational exploration; continuing development of the occupational exploration program; participation in the intake process; counselling of participants when necessary and appropriate; arranging for tours, guest speakers and films as well as vocational testing.

(f) One Vocational Development Communications Instructor - The person in this position is expected to possess good teaching abilities and be able to relate to adolescents. Duties include daily instruction in vocational development skills; continuing development of the vocational development communications program; participation in the intake process; counselling of participants when necessary and appropriate; and some liaison with other agencies as required.

(g) <u>One Administrative Assistant</u> - The person in
this position is expected to act as a role model for participants
and possess the ability to relate to adolescents. Primary
responsibilities include all office procedures; channelling
of communications; typing, reception and filing; bookkeeping,
taking care of paycheques, accounts payable, etc.; maintaining
order in the reception area and positive participation as a
team member.

(h) <u>One Receptionist</u> - The person in this position
is responsible for typing, reception, filing, answering the
phone and some accounting duties as required.

Intake and Referral Process

The majority of the referrals to Program X come from
the Child Welfare System. Four to six weeks prior to the
beginning of the program, potential referring agencies are
notified that the program is receiving applications for a
twelve person group. Potential participants are interviewed
by two group leaders. The interviews are taped for review by
the larger staff group. From this review of the tape and
information submitted by the referring agency, participants
are selected with an emphasis being placed on those who are
considered "the more seriously disturbed adolescents".

Stated Rationale for the Program

Program X operates on the assumption that of the three methods of obtaining income in our society (illegal methods, charity or employment), potential participants are more likely to have used the first two as opposed to the third. As such, they are considered a burden to society as the operation of welfare and the correctional system costs millions of dollars. Therefore, one reason for the operation of the program is expected tax dollar savings by encouraging independence from the system of the participants.

A second reason for the existence of Program X is of a combination philosophical/psychological nature. The assumption here is that persons raised in an institutionalized environment have many controls placed on their lives that are not found in a regular home. Most adolescents will go through a period of transition in the space of one day -- their eighteenth birthday. If that person is unable to make plans, and does not have any employment, when that time arrives there is no place to go but to continue with dependence on the state via the adult welfare system. To keep this from happening, Program X seeks to give their participants the skills necessary to control their own lives. This independence

can be achieved through employment. Program X strives to provide benefits both to individuals in the form of independence, and to society by creating tax producers rather than tax burdens.

The above represents this writer's understanding of the information contained within the written documents obtained concerning the operation of Program X. The reading of this material was done prior to any meetings with program representatives concerning the impending evaluation. This exercise can serve two major purposes for the evaluator. Both purposes are based on the assumption that during the evaluation process the researcher will be interacting with representatives of the program in question. For the evaluation of Program X, it was expected that the evaluator would have the most personal contact with the program administrator as part of that person's job was to assist in the evaluation process.

The first purpose served by gaining extensive knowledge about the program is that the conceptual gap between evaluator and program administrator concerning the specifics of program operations will be reduced. Plunging headlong into

the research process without this preliminary awareness will enhance the chances that the evaluator can be manipulated by the program administrator. The evaluator, possessing no knowledge that can serve a monitoring function, when meeting with the program administrator (concerning goal formulation for example), will more or less have no choice but to accept the information that he is given. The program administrator in such an interaction has the option of telling the researcher whatever he chooses, however selective it may be. This allows the administrator to hold considerable power over the evaluator and allows the opportunity for him to influence the evaluation process with the probable intention of making the program look better than it actually is. Consideration of this fact raises one basic question that has not yet been addressed. Why would the program administrator want to manipulate the program evaluation in this manner? The answer lies in the very nature of evaluation research itself. Inherent in the word "evaluation" is the notion that some sort of judgement is being passed. In the case of a program evaluation, one may argue that it is the program as a distinct entity, not people, that are being judged. This idea is reflected in many written definitions of program evaluation as well. For example, consider the following:

"Program evaluation is the periodic,
independent and objective review and
assessment of a program to determine
in light of present circumstance, the
adequacy of its objectives, its design
and its results both intended and unin-
tended. Evaluation will call into
question the very existence of the
program. Matters such as the rationale
for the program, its impact on the public,
and its cost effectiveness as compared
with alternate means of program delivery
are reviewed." (Office of the Comptroller
General 1979, pp. 2-3)

In the above definition, it is the performance of

the program, not the work of people, that is said to come

into question during an evaluation. This is simply not the

case. The two are inseparable. The formulation and

implementation of any program policy and intervention strategy

is under the influence of human decision making. Therefore,

a negative evaluation not only contains aspects of program

failure but will also be indicative of human failure as well.

The program administrator and his staff may (and this writer

would argue they have every right to) take poor evaluation

results personally. In addition, the evaluator poses a threat

to the very economic well-being of the people employed by the

program in question. Keeping in mind that one of the purposes

of a program evaluation is to "call into question the very

existence of the program", it becomes evident that a negative

evaluation could possibly represent a future reduction in funding and a subsequent loss of jobs. Therefore, although the social program may indeed be the setting for the evaluation, it is people's competence, work and finances that prove to be at stake. What the researcher may think of as an objective investigation, program staff may view as a hostile attack.

When considering points raised in the above discussion it is not difficult to understand why the program administrator will make every effort to provide the evaluator with information that portrays the program in a laudatory manner. It is also easy to understand why program staff will not often look favourably upon the evaluator and his work.

> "Program staff have rarely liked
> evaluators poking their noses into
> the operation of programs or measuring
> outcomes. Whatever soothing explana-
> tions are offered about 'testing
> program concepts' or 'accountability
> to taxpayers', the evaluator is a
> snoop. To the program, operator
> who knows that his program is doing
> well, evaluation is at best unnecessary
> and at worst, if it shows few positive
> effects, a calumny and a threat to the
> future of the program, his job, and
> needed help to clients." (Weiss 1972, pg.
> 327)

The second function served by undertaking inquisitive activities is that the evaluator will become familiar with the staff positions and their roles. This will reduce the time needed for orientation to the program. In addition, when interacting with both the administrator and line staff, the evaluator can appear well informed and knowledgeable about the program. This will likely help to alleviate friction and increase the evaluator's legitimacy among program people.

For this writer, a perusal of the written material about the program served additional functions. It provided a conceptual framework from which the formative component of the evaluation could be undertaken. In addition, it brought to light one prominent purpose for performing the research. It is evident that the operation of Program X is premised upon a number of assumptions about the characteristics of its target population. The whole program is designed to change some of these characteristics which are assumed to exist. One goal of the evaluation is to test the accuracy of these assumptions. For example, do program participants really have low levels of motivation and self-esteem? Attempting to answer such questions is one way that the

evaluation can feed into the decision-making mechanisms
of the program. If the assumptions being made about the
target group's characteristics are found to be inaccurate
(the participants do not actually possess these deficiencies),
then whole components of the program would appear to be
inappropriate and in need of alteration.

The exercise of identifying the assumptions that
the program appeared to be making about its clientele brought
to light the important role that values play in the formation
and design of social program. The assumptions being made
were indicative of explicit moral judgements. The client
characteristcs were being labelled as "personal deficiencies";
in other words, undesirable. The program is designed to
correct these human inadequacies. Somebody, somewhere,
had defined something as being wrong and subsequently decided
to do something about it. This is a vague but nonetheless
accurate interpretation of how social programs get started.
Social programs are representative of definite statements
of morality that are based within a particular dominant value
set. In our society, the Protestant Work Ethic is one such
dominant value. People are supposed to work. Those who do
not (and are physically able) are often stereotyped as lazy

abusers of the system. Program X operates with the explicit intention of reinforcing this value. Remember, the overall goal of the program is to place its participants into full-time employment or to fit them into the existing system. As such it serves certain social control functions that are not inconsistent with the traditional role of social work:

> "For example, some social workers see
> their mission as promoting self-
> determination. Yet the history of
> social work suggests that from its
> inception it has been more concerned
> with supporting a work ethic,
> constricting and reducing freedoms
> for some groups in society rather
> than expanding them. (Rein 1978,
> pg. 27)

Based on points raised in the above example one can assume a somewhat radical perspective and suggest that Program X exists to serve the purposes of the ruling class by restricting the freedoms of lower class people who are considered a burden to the profitable economic functioning of the overall system. This view, however, should not be considered synonymous with a negative judgement being placed on the program's goals and/or operations. Surely the program is trying to influence and direct its participants into adjusting to the status quo. This point is difficult to deny. A viewpoint based in realism can amalgamate this radical

perspective with a positive interpretation of the program's intentions. Given the current economic structure and the large numbers of people unemployed (Gonick 1978), any program that attempts to improve the situation of a disadvantaged group through a placement in employment has to be seen as providing a valuable service. What this amounts to is a method of examining Program X that incorporates a realistic value (the program is providing a good service during tough times) and a philosophical value (the program serves the interests of the ruling class).

When evaluating a social program, the researcher should make a conscientious effort to assess whose interests are being served by the program's operations and in what way. In doing so, it is important that the evaluator be able to distinguish between opinions based on realistic values and those based on philosophical values. An assessment of this sort is vital prior to any effort being made to arrive at a statement of program goals. Researchers must be sensitive to their own value set. Evaluators are like social workers in that they should not perform their work on the premise that value-free investigation is possible.

"Social workers cannot be nonjudgmental,
and they should not attempt to be so.
They are merchants of morality and
should acknowledge this fact openly
instead of talking as if they believed
anything goes. Every individual possesses
an ethical system that he or she more or
less explicitly recognizes, a system that
is also more or less consistent with
the individual's behaviour." (Pilsecker
1978, pg. 54)

The point being made in the final sentence of the
above quotation is that an individual's ethical opinions
will influence his behaviour. If this idea is applied to
the person involved in social research, the natural deduction
is that the research process is open to similar types of
ethical influences (Sheinfeld and Lord 1981, pp. 337-391).
If this point is assumed to be accurate, then the importance
of the researcher being conscious of his own value and ethical
preferences is intensified. The evaluator's values will affect
at least the statement of goals, the research design and the
final summary report. In addition, as many of the steps of
an evaluation involve interaction with program representatives,
there is the possibility that conflict between the researcher
and these people may be a product of value differences.
Without being sensitive to his own value orientations, the
evaluator has no way of determining if and how he may be

unnecessarily biasing the research. Second, the evaluator
may be completely oblivious to the fact that conflict is
due to differing values, and will end up being immobilized
in making efforts to arrive at a resolution. The whole
evaluation process may be unduly delayed.

The researcher who undertakes a pre-evaluation
assessment of his own values and how they may affect his
interpretation of the program and the subsequent evaluation
process will improve the chances that the research can proceed
quickly with effective conflict resolution. By doing this,
the researcher will also increase his own objectivity:

> "We begin by assuming that there is no
> way of separating the scientist from
> the phenomena under investigation
> so that he can passively observe what
> is occurring. The problem becomes,
> then, one of assessing what his impact
> is on the course of his research, and
> his paradigm is a force helping to
> produce that impact. By addressing
> this problem, we are able to achieve
> a higher level of objectivity ---
> in the sense of taking into account
> the relevant factors operating within
> the research situation --- than by
> sweeping it under the rug." (Phillips
> 1976, pg. 89)

It is necessary that the researcher perform this
value assessment in the pre-evaluation stage as it will

serve a consciousness-raising function that the evaluator should remain sensitive to throughout the entire research process.

(B) Goal Identification - Arriving at a clear statement of program goals is both the most important and the most difficult task facing the evaluation researcher. It is the most important because the stated goals become the testable hypotheses upon which the researcher bases the remainder of his activities (Deutscher 1976, pg. 250). It is the most difficult because a clear and mutually exclusive statement of program goals rarely exists at the time an evaluation is being initiated. It becomes the job of the evaluator to specify goals in measurable terms (Twain 1975, pg. 38). One major barrier to the successful completion of this task is that goals are often stated in general and unspecific terms.

> "When he (the evaluator) pursues the
> question, 'What is the program trying
> to accomplish?' many program people
> give fuzzy replies, often global and
> unrealistic in scope. They may hazard
> the statement that they are trying to
> 'improve education', 'enhance the quality
> of life', 'reduce crime', 'strengthen
> democratic processes'. Thus begins the
> long, often painful, process of getting
> people to state goals in terms that are
> clear, specific and measurable." (Weiss
> 1972, pg. 26)

Goals stated in an unclear fashion represent a
problem for the evaluator trying to determine the success
of a program's operation (Weiss 1972, pg. 21; Aronson and
Sherwood 1972, pg. 286). Stating goals in an unclear
manner may or may not be a conscious endeavour on the part
of program personnel. Administrators may actually view
the stated goals as being realistic, and clear. This idea
becomes even more believable if one considers the fact that
when social programs are in their preliminary stages,
possible goals will often be inflated and romanticized
in an attempt to secure funding. Such quixotic statements
of purpose intended primarily to favourably persuade keepers
of the "public purse" ultimately may become translated into
official program goals. Whether intentional or not, vague
program goals represent a procedural problem for the evaluator
and can be a source of discomfort for program staff when
asked for specification. Suchman (1972) points this out:

> "Behind any program lies a host of
> untested assumptions, not only in
> regard to basic theory but also in
> relation to techniques of operation.
> The first task of the evaluator is
> to compile a list of program objectives
> and to examine their underlying
> assumptions. While being asked to
> specify one's objectives may be
> difficult for the program staff, being
> forced to justify these objectives
> and to defend one's beliefs in why

one's program can be expected to attain
them may actually be painful." (pg. 77)

Excessive opaqueness is only one problematic
element that the researcher must contend with in an attempt
to establish concrete program goals. Two others that often
demand the evaluator's attention are multiple goals and
changing goals. As evaluation is often viewed as a threat,
either one may be consciously employed by program administration
and/or staff in an effort to thwart the research process.

Rarely, if ever, will a social program have a
singular identifiable goal. The evaluator will most likely
be faced with programs that list a whole series of desired
outcomes (Covey 1982, pg. 425). These prospective ends may
range from being specific and to the point, to being general
and not so easily measured. Coke and Hansan (1974) point
out that the existence of multiple goals "greatly reduces
the utility of scientific evaluation, especially the type
that utilizes experimental design" (pg. 45). It is the
responsibility of the researcher when confronted with a
multi-faceted statement of purpose to first clearly define
each goal and second, rank these goals in order of importance.

The researcher can then examine this list to determine if program goals are contradictory, repetitive, or too numerous to all be included in the instrument design. Once these tasks have been completed, a decision can be made as to which goals shall be incorporated into the research design to comprise the basis upon which the program can be evaluated.

Changing goals also present a stumbling block for the effective evaluation. It is not unusual for program goals to change frequently after the program's implementation (Perrow 1961, pp. 856-860). This process has been referred to in the literature as "goal displacement" (Blau 1962), and "goal diversion" (Covey 1982). As the establishment of concrete goals is the building block upon which evaluation is based, an effective defense mechanism available to program administrators is the act of changing the stated goals after the evaluation process has been initiated. This creates a problematic situation for the evaluator for as goals change, the design and data to be collected will become increasingly irrelevant:

> "Changes in program goals can affect
> background and baseline data acquired
> in the early stages of the experimental
> design. In effect they alter data to
> a point where it becomes uninterpretable.

As goals change, so must their operational
definitions since they are often the
dependent variables of experimental
designs. Another difficulty develops
if objectives are set too high: then
the program, as well as an experimental
manipulation will always fall short of
the stated goals of the program." (Covey
1982, pg. 426)

Independent of whether the source of goal identification
problems is a lack of specificity, multiplicity or a tendency
to change, the basic problem still remains: clear goals
must be established before the evaluation can continue.
Identifying goals is so important to the evaluation process
that the researcher must take corrective action as soon as
possible when confronted with these obstacles. To overcome
these obstacles (unspecified goals, multiple goals and changing
goals) the evaluator has a number of options at his disposal.
Five of these are listed below.

(1) The researcher, after explaining the problem
to program representatives, can sit back and wait for them
to decide on the number and nature of the goals to be employed.
This is not likely to be a very efficient method as it will
greatly delay the research process and the evaluator still may
not receive a statement that represents an adequate basis
for evaluation.

(2) The evaluator can independently formulate his own statement of program goals. This should only be done after reading all available literature about the program, conducting extensive interviews with program staff and administration and observing the program in action (Cain and Robinson 1972, pg. 114). Two dangers of pursuing this course of action can be seen in the following example.

> "Sometimes this is a reasonable pro-
> cedure, but there are two dangers.
> One is that he (the evaluator), may
> read his own professional preconceptions
> into the program and subtly shift the
> goals (and the ensuing study) in the
> direction of his own interests. The
> other risk is that when the study is
> completed, the program practitioners
> will dismiss the results with the
> comment, 'But that's not really what
> we were trying to do at all'."
> (Weiss 1972, pg. 28)

A third danger not mentioned above is that the researcher may become increasingly alienated from program personnel. As so much of the evaluation process is dependent upon the existence of a good working relationship with program people, it is vital that the researcher avoid increasing alienation as much as possible.

(3)   Probably the best and most widely used method
of addressing the problem of goal identification is setting
up a collaborative and co-operative effort between researcher
and program representatives (Warheit et al., n.d., pg. 16)

> "Establishing evaluation objectives
> requires formal, frequent, and extensive
> interaction among program evaluators
> and administrators. The fundamental
> purpose of this interaction is to obtain
> from administrators the information
> necessary to make the most effective
> choices in planning and carrying out
> evaluations." (Rossi and McLaughlin
> 1979, pg. 331)

In this approach it is the responsibility of the
evaluator, employing methods similar to those outlined in
point 2 above, to present his interpretations of goal state-
ments. The program personnel will offer theirs and a period
of negotiation and modification will take place. This will
continue until agreement is reached between the two parties.
Although this too may prove to be an overly lengthy procedure,
it is probably the most advantageous for the evaluator to
use as it can serve the dual purpose of keeping program
people involved and interested as well as not aggravating the
adversarial relationship that exists. A further purpose of
pursuing a co-operative approach is that the involvement of
program representatives will enhance the chances that the
evaluation results will be taken seriously.

"Unless evaluators are willing to open
the process to program administrators,
we may assume that evaluations will
continue to be treated as an ancillary
process that bears little, if any,
relationship to the needs of social
programs." (Berg and Theado 1981, pg.
191)

(4) The researcher may abandon the traditional
evaluation procedures and attempt to implement what Scriven
(1970) has termed a "goal free" evaluation. In such a
design the "evaluator intentionally is shielded from the
stated purposes and objectives of the program - the better
not to see what is expected, but what is, in fact, happening"
(Isaac and Michael 1982, pg. 150). The emphasis is not on
outcome analysis or specification of goals but rather on
observation and monitoring of the program. The research
performed under such open-ended auspices will take on an
almost exclusively descriptive nature. This strategy is likely
to be more effective than undertaking a study that is rigidly
based on unclear or arbitrarily selected goals. Information
that takes the form of case studies or historical research,
although perhaps making for interesting reading, lacks an
inferential component due to its descriptive nature. There
is little chance of generalizing conclusions to the larger

social system. Also, this type of design is subject to
researcher bias more so than the traditional evaluation
studies due to its dependence on the researcher's
observations and interpretations of events. Thus, the use
of such information as evaluative data is quite limited.

(5) To address the issue of changing goals, the
evaluator should adopt a research methodology that is flexible
enough to incorporate new goals that may arise. This point,
of course, is not entirely the evaluator's decision. He
is bound by a number of factors including a specific time
frame and budgetary constraints. Such influences may not
allow the researcher the necessary access to resources or
the flexibility to be continually altering his design to
include new goals. The key point is that the evaluator should
enter into the evaluation process with an attitude that makes
his work amenable to change. He should, whenever possible,
be willing and able to change, or add on to, his chosen
research strategy in order to enhance the effectiveness of
the evaluation.

Of the above five options, the one assumed by this
writer involved setting up a collaborative and co-operative

effort between the evaluator and the administrator of
Program X. In September and October a series of three
meetings took place. They were attended by myself, the
project co-ordinator and the program administrator. The
overall purpose of these meetings was to arrive at a clear
statement of program goals. In addition, the meetings allowed
the opportunity to share with the administrator the knowledge
gained in the inquisitive phase of the evaluation. This
acquired information could be checked for accuracy in this
manner and it could be determined to a certain extent if the
program was currently operating in congruence with its
original design. The role played by this writer during
the meetings was that of passive observer while the other
two parties bartered and negotiated. Without discussing in
any great detail the specifics of the interactions that took
place, the following paragraph contains a brief description
of the observations made by this writer.

The program administrator appeared tentative and
reluctant to share information with the project co-ordinator.
This provided an indication that the evaluator was being
viewed if not as a threat, at least with cautionary suspicion
by the program administrator. Both were taking great pains

to be polite and appear sincere in their efforts to be
helpful while at the same time trying to pry information
loose from one another. When the subject of conversation
did turn to program goals, the initial response from the
program administrator was noncommittal and vague. Statements
such as "We try to make participants better people", or "We
try to give them the tools to live a more productive life",
were not uncommon. The project co-ordinator was not coerced
by these statements of niceness but continued unwavering in
his quest to obtain goal specificity. As the negotiating
continued, it became evident that, as expected, the program
had numerous objectives. Again the project co-ordinator
remained firm but not aggressive in his attempts to identify,
define and rank the program goals. Everything had to be done
with the approval of the program administrator or the evaluation
could not proceed. During the process of goal identification
this writer became aware of how important it was to develop
a co-operative relationship with program representatives. Much
of the work performed by an evaluator involves repeated inter-
action with program people. It is these same program people
who will have the tendency to view the external evaluator as
representing a threat to the operation of the organization.
On the basis of these points, in order to function successfully
in his job, it is vital that the person who chooses program

evaluation as a career adhere to the following principle:
The evaluator should make every effort possible to "get
along" in an atmosphere of co-operation with the staff and
administration of the program that he is evaluating. A
good working relationship is absolutely essential for the
completion of a successful evaluation.

The above principle is one that the researcher need
be sensitive to throughout the entire evaluation process. The
evaluator may not be able to totally avoid being seen as a
threat or placed in the role of adversary, but his actions,
conduct and communication skills can help reduce the friction
that will exist. The researcher who can put good communication
and negotiationg skills to work will improve the chances that
the evaluation will take place in an environment that contains
a minimal amount of conflict.

By the completion of the third meeting a number of
tasks had been completed. First, it was concluded that the
assumptions about participant characteristics were still
being made and that there were some omissions in the written
documents. Most notable of these were (1) that the partici-
pants were expected to have low levels of self-awareness;

(2) that overall, participants were expected to be unhappy
individuals; and (3) that participants were expected to feel
low levels of self-control and that they had little ability
to affect external events. Second, it was determined that
the program was operating in a manner that was pretty much
consistent with its original design. Third, an agreed-upon
statement of program goals had been formulated. A list
containing the primary program goals would read as follows.
The list differentiates between goals that were considered
to be short-term and those that were considered to be long-
term:

Short-Term Goals

(1) to improve the self-esteem of program
participants;

(2) to increase the participants' self-awareness;

(3) to increase participants' feelings of their
ability to control their own lives;

(4) to teach the participants to make realistic
career decisions;

(5) to improve participants' ability to communicate
in interpersonal interactions; and

(6) to improve participants' job seeking skills.

Long-Term Goals

(1) to have the participants either:

(a) obtain employment;

(b) pursue a higher level of education; or

(c) continue pursuing further job training

oportunities.

(2) to achieve a reduction in the delinquency rate
of the participants; and

(3) to increase the happiness of the participants.

Once the goals had been agreed upon, the next task
involved constructing a statement of causal links that would
explain how the program components, the short-term goals
and the long-term goals are all related. The project co-ordinator
and this writer jointly produced a diagram that was intended to
provide this information. This diagram can be found in
Figure II on the following page.

The diagram itself is pretty much self explanatory.
Each of the five program components is expected to yield
a specific outcome that represents the achievement of a

FIGURE II. - PROGRAM COMPONENTS, GOALS AND CAUSAL LINKS

PROGRAM COMPONENTS   SHORT TERM GOALS   LONG TERM GOALS

short-term goal. The short-term goal of increased
self-awareness is expected to contribute to the achievement
of two other short-term goals. Four out of the six short-
term goals are related to whether the long-term goal of
obtaining employment, education or training is realized.
This long term-goal in addition to two of the short-term
goals are expected to have an influence on whether the
final two long-term goals are achieved.

A diagram of this sort serves a number of purposes
for the evaluator. First, it provides an accurate description
of program operation and how program components are expected
to lead to the realization of program goals. Second, the
diagram identifies, by way of goal identification, the
components of expected program process and achievement that
will need to be measured. Finally, an accurate presentation
of causal links can allow the evaluator to, after measuring
program outcomes, determine if the program is achieving these
outcomes in the way that the program administrator suggests
it does.

After the diagram had been completed, another
meeting was called between the program administrator and

the project coordinator. Due to scheduling conflicts
this writer could not attend. The purpose of this meeting
was to check the accuracy of the diagram with the program
administrator and to obtain his approval of it so that
the evaluation could proceed. The end result was that
the program administrator did verify the accuracy of the
diagram and grant his approval of the evaluation
proceeding.

(C)   Conditions Assessment

Before continuing, the researcher should make an
effort to assess whether the program meets the conditions
necessary for an evaluation. To do this, the evaluator
should try, as much as possible to separate himself from
the evaluation process and assume a type of third party
outlook. This will facilitate an objective decision being
made on the basis of information gathered in all previous
stages.

In the literature there is general agreement that
a social program must meet three conditions before it can
be evaluated (Rutman 1977, pp. 6-10; Mayer 1975, pg. 385;
Wholey 1979, pp. 22-48; Rutman, n.d., pp. 5-10; Deutscher 1976,

pg. 250; Rossi 1972, pg. 18; Rutman 1976, pg. 1). These
are as follows:

(1) A Clearly Defined Program - The program to be
evaluated must be coherently and accurately defined. This
is necessary to ensure that the evaluator, administrator,
staff and other relevant actors will all have the same
understanding of program operation. If an evaluation proceeds
without this condition being present, or proceeds on the
assumption that this condition is present, there is the
danger that the research design will be aimed at determining
program components and measuring anticipated outcomes only
as the evaluator sees them. This will not likely be
consistent with the administrator's understanding of the same
phenomena. In such a case, the chances of research findings
being utilized are significantly reduced. The statement of
"But that isn't what we are trying to do", provides a
convenient defense for the administrator if a consensus has
not been reached on a clear program definition.

(2) Clearly Specified Goals - The virtues of
specifying goals in a clear and measurable manner have been
expounded upon at great length in previous sections of this

report. As a brief review of points made earlier, suffice
it to say that it is vitally important that this condition
be present as the program goals become the stated hypotheses
to be tested by the research and as such are the focus of the
entire evaluation process.

(3) Presence of Casual Links - The third condition
(also addressed earlier), will attempt to link the previous
two conditions with each other. Program operation as a whole,
and/or specific program components, must be related to the
expected outcomes. What is to be changed and how this change
is to take place should be identified. If the program cannot
realistically be expected to realize the stated goals,
independent of how clearly defined either one of them may
be, then the evaluation of that program should not take place.
If this were the case, goals and/or program statements would
need to be redefined in order to link them with each other
in a logical and rational manner.

A conditions assessment of Program X revealed the
following results. The program had been clearly defined
and there was no reasonable doubt in the minds of this writer
or the project co-ordinator that the program administrator

and ourselves did share a similar understanding of this definition. Goals had been specified and were measurable. There was a plausible statement of casual links between program operation and goals that would allow for an evaluation to determine first, if goals were being reached, and second, if they were being achieved in the manner purported by the program administrator. The conclusion reached was that Program X did meet the three necessary conditions and that the evaluation could continue.

The program evaluator can never be absolutely certain that the above three conditions actually have been met. He can only base his decision on an accurate assessment of available information and appearances. To do this, the researcher must control his enthusiasm and not be overly anxious to get on with the evaluation. He should attempt to step back and, as objectively as possible, determine whether the program meets the necessary conditions or will be able to meet them without lengthy and costly work having to be done. If the evaluator cannot reach either one of these decisions, the evaluation should not continue.

Performing a conditions assessment can save the researcher from evaluating a program that should not be

evaluated or performing an evaluation based on a misguided and ill-defined interpretation of program operation.

STEP III - DESIGN PHASE

The first step for the evaluator in this phase is to consult and familiarize himself with what designs are available. In reviewing literature on this subject the researcher should always keep in mind that the type of research design to be employed will be directly influenced by the nature of the program being evaluated.

A central issue in the evaluation field concerns the use of a classical experimental design for evaluating the efficacy of social programs. Some writers have taken the position that without a true experimental design, there can never be absolute verification of program outcomes (Freeman and Sherwood 1965). Social programs however, will rarely meet the conditions whereby a true experimental design can be utilized. Rather than not evaluate such programs at all, the trend has been to use what is termed a quasi-experimental design. The essential difference between the two is described in the following excerpt:

> "Experiments can be broken into two
> major classes. In true experiments
> the experimental units are randomly
> assigned to treatments. In quasi-
> experiments, assignment to treatments
> occurs in some non-random fashion,
> usually because individuals choose
> the treatment they receive or are
> assigned to a treatment by officials
> or professionals who believe that
> certain kinds of individuals should
> receive particular treatments." (Cook
> et al. 1976, pg. 2)

The prospective participants of Program X go through
an intake process where they are assessed and a decision is
made as to whether or not they will be allowed entrance into
the program. Emphasis is placed on those considered by
program staff to be the worst off. Actual participants are
chosen because they are thought to possess certain characteristics
and/or be in a certain problematic situation that can be
ameliorated by the available treatment. According to the
above criteria, this constitutes a non-random assignment.
Therefore the design used in this project was quasi-experimental
as opposed to a true experimental design because a true
experimental design must have random assignment.

The seminal work on the subject of quasi-experimental
designs for research was authored by Donald Campbell and Julian
Stanley and published in 1963. In their book, the authors

present a number of true experimental and quasi-experimental design options for the social researcher. These designs are also often reviewed in social research textbooks (Atherton and Klemmack 1982; Selltiz et al. 1976). Rather than undertake the somewhat redundant exercise of providing one more review of these designs, the following paragraphs will discuss the one design used in the evaluation of Program X and the influential factors that played a part in choosing this particular design.

It has been stated previously in this report that one of the central purposes of evaluation research is to measure program achievement. Implicit in the phrase "program achievement" is the notion of improvement. Achievement is measured by the degree to which program participants improve. In order to determine if the degree of improvement represents a positive occurence, the evaluator must be reasonably certain that those persons subjected to treatment improved more than those persons who were not subjected to treatment. This latter group of persons is what is known in research as a comparative control group. They should possess characteristics that are similar to those persons who are program participants. As most quasi-experimental designs presume the availability of

a control group it was necessary to establish whether Program X met this criteria. The answer to this inquiry was positive. The number of referrals received by Program X is greater than the number of people who are allowed into it (which by the way is twelve). With the possible exception of a totally inappropriate referral, all are assumed to possess similar characteristics. Some will be allowed into the program and some will not. Those allowed entrance would be the experimental group and those refused admittance would become the control group.

A second point implicit in the idea of human improvement is that the person(s) in question, in order to be considered as having experienced improvement, must, in their present state, be better off, or better people, than what they were before. For such a judgement to be anything but pure guesswork, there has to be some conceptualization of what that person's characteristics/situation were like prior to having experienced this improvement. The primary goal of Program X is to achieve human improvement. If a researcher is going to assess how much of this improvement was actually achieved, there will need to be a measurement taken before the participant goes through Program X and a measurement

taken after the participant has completed the program. These measurements are referred to as a pretest and a posttest.

A third point concerns whether an improvement can be assumed to be a lasting achievement. It is one thing to create improvement, quite another to have this improvement stand the test of time. Program X strives to provide people with the tools and skills deemed necessary for obtaining and keeping employment. If the acquired tools and skills are to be of any long-term use to the participants, they must still possess them after having been away from the program for a specified period of time. In order for the researcher to determine whether this is the case, there will need to be at least one more measurement in addition to the pretest and posttest components of the design.

A research design was selected that could incorporate all of the above three points. The name of this design is a Nonequivalent Control Group Design (Campbell and Stanley 1963, pp. 47 - 50; Campbell and Cook 1979, pp. 95-146). It can be seen in the following diagram where 0 stands for

Observation, X stands for treatment, E denotes Experimental

Group (or program participants), and C denotes Control Group.

FIGURE III. - A NONEQUIVALENT CONTROL GROUP DESIGN

$$E - \quad O_1 \quad X \quad O_2 \quad O_3$$

$$C - \quad O_1 \quad \quad O_2 \quad O_3$$

Up until this point it was only known that there
would be measurements taken from both program participants
and a control group before the program began, after the program
was completed and at some unspecified future point in time.
The structure of Program X had a direct influence on deciding
exactly when these measurements would be taken. The next
scheduled beginning for a Program X section was in mid-February
of 1983. The intake interviews for this section would take
place during late January and early February. The pretest
would be administered during these intake interviews to all
potential participants. The original plan was to administer
the posttest immediately after participants had completed the
program. When sharing this plan with the program administrator,
he informed this writer and the project co-ordinator that
participants completed the program at different times, depending

on how many full-time work experiences they had had. In light of this fact, it was decided to administer the posttest after the first ten weeks of the program. At this time, the classroom sections of the program would just be finishing, participants would still be together (excluding those who had dropped out), and according to program design, most of the goals should have already been achieved. The third measurement would be taken one year after completion of the program. The rationale behind choosing one year was that it was the longest period of elapsed time considered reasonable to still allow for data to be collected and analyzed in time for the final report to be written and published by the summer of 1984. The research design, when incorporating this time frame, is shown in the following diagram.

FIGURE IV. - RESEARCH DESIGN AND TIME FRAME (For one Group)

	Late January and Mid-February of 1983	10 Weeks	Late April or Early May, 1983	Late April or Early May, 1983
E -	O_1	X	O_2	O_3
C -	O_1		O_2	O_3

Once the design had been established, it was possible to develop a statement of testable hypotheses. These can be placed into two groups.

Group I - Assumptions About Participants and Assumptions in Comparison With the Control Group

The program makes a number of assumptions about its participants. Nine of these are as follows:

(1) participants have low levels of self-esteem;

(2) participants have low levels of self-awareness;

(3) participants feel that they have little control over their own lives;

(4) participants do not possess the ability to make realistic career decisions;

(5) participants will have poor communication skills;

(6) participants will not possess good job seeking skills;

(7) participants will have high delinquency
rates;

(8) participants are not happy individuals; and

(9) participants tend to be older individuals.

This group of nine assumptions can be considered
"testable" only if two criteria are met. First, the researcher
must obtain or develop a measuring device such as a scale
or index, that he feels will adequately determine the degree
to which individuals possess each characteristic (i.e. - how
much self-esteem individuals have or what the delinquency rates
of individuals are, etc.). Second, a cutoff point must be
determined for each measuring device that will allow the
evaluator to determine if any given score is indicative of
a high or low level of each characteristic. One method of
doing this, when using reproduced scales or indices, is to
identify what differentiating points were used in earlier
studies to distinguish between high and low levels of a
characteristic. Consulting the work of others will provide
the researcher with information that he can use to establish
"norms" or expected average scores that he may or may not choose
to use as a differentiating point in his study. For newly

developed measuring devices, the decision as to what
constitutes high and low levels will more or less be the sole
responsibility of the person performing the research.

The final assumption cited above directly infers
reference to a comparison group. This brings to light a
second group of assumptions being made about program partici-
pants. Program X asserts that those allowed entrance will be
the "worst off" of the referrals received. Therefore, in
relation to the control group, the original nine assumptions
can be restated as follows:

(1) participants will have lower levels of self-
esteem than do the controls;

(2) participants will have lower levels of self-
awareness than do the controls;

(3) participants will feel that they have less
control over their own lives in comparison with feelings
expressed by the control group;

(4) participants will have less of an ability to
make realistic career decisions than the control group will
have;

(5) the control group will have better communication skills than the participants;

(6) the control group will possess better job-seeking skills than will the participants;

(7) participants will have higher delinquency rates than the control group;

(8) participants will be less happy individuals than those in the control group; and

(9) participants will be older than members of the control group.

Group II - Statements of Program Achievement

The previous two classes of assumptions will be tested during the pretest phase of the research design. The posttest can serve to measure program achievement. The expected program outcomes or goals can also be placed into two groups. The first of these address human improvements in the experimental group alone.

(1) At the completion of the first ten weeks of the program, participants will have higher levels of self-esteem than what they had when the program began.

(2) At the completion of the first ten weeks of the program, participants will have higher levels of self-awareness than what they had when the program began.

(3) At the completion of the first ten weeks of the program, participants will feel that they have more control over their own lives than what they felt when the program began.

(4) At the completion of the first ten weeks of the program, participants will possess the ability to make realistic career decisions.

(5) At the completion of the first ten weeks of the program, participants will possess better communication skills than what they had when the program began.

(6) At the completion of the first ten weeks of the program, participants will have better job-seeking skills than what they had when the program began.

(7)   At the completion of the first ten weeks of
the program, participants will have lower delinquency rates
than what they had when the program began.

(8)   At the completion of the first ten weeks of
the program, participants will be happier individuals than
what they were when the program began.

The second group of hypotheses related to expected
achievement refers to improvements in program participants
in comparison with improvements in the controls.

(1)   At the completion of the first ten weeks of
the program, participants will have experienced improvements
in self-esteem that are greater than improvements in self-esteem
experienced by the control group.

(2)   At the completion of the first ten weeks of
the program, participants will have experienced an improvement
in self-awareness that is greater than any improvement in
self-awareness experienced by the control group.

(3)   At the completion of the first ten weeks of
the program, participants will have experienced improvements

in feelings of self-control over their own lives that is
greater than any similar improvements experienced by the
control group.

(4) At the completion of the first ten weeks of
the program, participants will have experienced an increase
in their ability to make realistic career decisions that
is greater than any similar increase in this ability experienced
by the control group.

(5) At the completion of the first ten weeks of
the program, participants will have experienced an improvement
in their communication skills that is greater than an improve-
ment in the communication skills experienced by the control
group.

(6) At the completion of the first ten weeks of
the program, participants will have experienced an improvement
in their job-seeking skills that is greater than any similar
improvement experienced by the control group.

(7) At the completion of the first ten weeks of
the program, participants will have experienced a reduction

in delinquency rates that is greater than a similar reduction experienced by the control group.

(8) At the completion of the first ten weeks of the program, participants will have experienced increased feelings of happiness that are greater than any similar increase having been experienced by the control group.

There would also be a third group of statements indicating which hypotheses would be tested in the second posttest. These would essentially be the same as those of Group II with one addition: that is, a hypothetical statement addressing the question of whether or not participants and members of the comparison group had been able to obtain employment and/or gain entrance into an education or training program since the completion of Program X. This is a long-term and ultimate goal of the program and becomes relevant only after participation in Program X has been terminated. It is also likely that a stronger indicator of whether the other two long-term goals (reduction in delinquency and increased happiness), had been realized would be obtained at the time of the second posttest as opposed to the first.

However, as it is expected that delinquency rates would decrease and that participants would become happier individuals during the first ten weeks of program operation, these hypothetical statements were included in the first posttest measurement as well.

Formulating a statement of hypotheses is a critical task that the evaluator must complete prior to taking any measurements. As the hypotheses are restatements of program goals, placing them in this form allows the evaluator the opportunity to check one last time whether they are clearly conceptualized, relevant to program operations and measurable. In addition, the researcher should examine the hypotheses to determine if they are stated as specifically as possible (i.e. - inclusion of the "first ten weeks of program operation" qualifying statement in Group II), exhaustive, and allow for program achievement and program assumptions to be tested. If these three criteria are not being met, the researcher will need to alter, add or delete statements so that the criteria can be met. Each time the evaluator has developed a statement of hypotheses that he feels are complete and relevant, it should be presented to program representatives to solicit their opinions concerning accuracy and possible changes.

For the evaluation of Program X, each group of hypotheses served specific functions. Group I would allow for the testing of assumptions defining expected participant characteristics and whether the program's assertion that it accepts the so called "worst off" of the referrals, was accurate. Group II would allow the evaluator to determine if positive changes had been experienced in the participants and whether these changes could be attributed to the intervention of exposing the experimental group to Program X. Group III would allow the researcher to assess whether any changes observed in the first posttest were able to stand the test of time and whether long-term goals had been achieved.

Having formulated hypotheses from which to work, the next step involved constructing an instrument for testing purposes. In the evaluation of Program X two such instruments were used. The work developing the first questionnaire (herein referred to as the primary questionnaire), was done by the project co-ordinator and one of the paid research assistants from the Social Planning Council. The work required for designing the other questionnaire (herein referred to as the secondary questionnaire), was delegated to the writer of this report.

Both instruments will be discussed in this section.
Points raised concerning the primary questionnaire are intended
to demonstrate that this writer understood the purposes for
including certain measuring devices and how they were related
to evaluating program achievement and assumptions. The
section dealing with the secondary questionnaire will deal
more with issues that the researcher need be sensitive to when
attempting to design an instrument.

The Primary Questionnaire

For the primary questionnaire the major task
consisted of locating and/or developing scales, indices or
individual items that would allow the evaluator to determine
if program assumptions were accurate, and to measure the
degree of program achievement. Before trying to construct
original measurements, the researcher should consult literary
resources to discover what types of instruments have been used
to measure similar variables in the past. Atherton and Klemmack
(1982) identify a number of good potential sources for obtaining
this information:

>"A good place to begin is with the
> publication Social Work Research

and Abstracts and its predecessor
publication Social Work Abstracts.
Over two hundred journals are
abstracted on a quarterly basis.
Abstracts are classified by subject.
Other useful tools are Sociological
Abstracts, Psychological Abstracts
and the Education Index. These can
be found in the reference room of
any college or university library.
Dissertation Abstracts and the
ERIC (Educational Resource Information
Center) files also contain a great
deal of material that often does not
find its way into the periodical
literature. You can usually depend
on the reference librarian to assist
in the location and use of these
resources." (pg. 297)

As a rule of thumb, whether specifically referenced

in any of the abstracts or not, there are some standard sources

that the evaluator should consult. These include evaluation

journals such as the Evaluation Review (formerly Evaluation

Quarterly), annually published volumes such as the Evaluation

Studies Review Annual and encyclopedic-type resources such as

the Mental Measurements Handbook. It is very important that

when reviewing the literature the researcher have a clear

statement of goals and hypotheses. Without a clear under-

standing of what he is intending to measure, it is likely that

the measuring devices chosen will be inappropriate, irrelevant

or insufficient. This will greatly reduce the reliability and

validity of the study design and ensuing results.

As the evaluator gains experience in consulting the literature and undertaking social research studies, he will become more and more familiar with the most usable sources and the measurements considered standards in the field. The utility of gaining this experience cannot be underestimated for as each study is completed, the researcher will develop more expertise in his work. This will serve to save time and money when working on future projects. On the other hand, evaluation researchers should be careful not to become overly dependent on using established measuring devices. Evaluators should continually be reviewing relevant literature in an effort to keep abreast of new developments in the field that might be of benefit for future research studies.

A copy of the primary questionnaire has been provided in Appendix I. Consistent with the research design, the questionnaire would be administered to one group of potential participants in February of 1983 prior to the program beginning. The same instrument would be administered ten weeks later and one year subsequent to that to the same people. In these latter two tests, the original group of respondents would have been separated into experimental and control groups.

When studying the questionnaire the reader will notice that each question is accompanied by a code in the left hand margin. Following is a list of these codes, what they stand for, the number of items for each, and how each is related to evaluating Program X. As the work was done by others, the exact location of where these measurements were obtained remains unknown to this writer. It is likely that most, if not all, were obtained from literary sources such as those listed earlier.

JSS = Job Seeking Skills: 4 items on questionnaire

The first three items on the questionnaire are intended to measure the participant's job-seeking skills. The whole first page is extracted from a standard type of job application used in industrial settings. If program assumptions are accurate, all potential participants should have trouble filling in the answers on this page. Those selected into the program should be the ones who experience the most trouble. As job-seeking skills are supposed to be taught during the program, it is expected that participants would not have this same difficulty after completing the program while members of the control group would. The fourth item is an open ended question (no. 20) that serves similar purposes.

R = Race: one item on questionnaire

Question 4 is included in order to determine if a large enough sample could be obtained to compare Native participants with Non-Native participants.

EMP - Employment Record: one item on questionnaire

Question 5 is intended to test program assumptions by determining exactly how many job experiences potential participants have had prior to their interview. Those selected into the program should have had the fewest number of experiences.

GP - Personal Skills/General Planning: 10 items on questionnaire

The program assumes that participants do not possess X the ability to undertake long-term planning and, therefore, seeks to provide this skill. These items will allow for an assessment of potential participants' planning abilities to take place. Those accepted into the program should be those who score the highest on the items as per the following scoring formula:

question 6 - Very Often scored 1 through to Never Scored 5.

question 7 - Often scored 1 through to Never scored 5.

questions 64 and 67 - Strongly Agree scored 4 through to Strongly Disagree scored 1.

After completing the program, participants should score lower on these ten items than the control group.

OP - Personnal Skills/Occupational Planning: 16 items on questionnaire

The program assumes that participants have little desire to obtain employment and when choosing an occupation do so on the basis of unrealistic expectations. Program X intends to instill such motivation in its participants and to provide them with the ability to make realistic career choices. Questions 8, 9 and 12 (a-m), allow the researcher to examine if participants are lacking in motivation and what they see as the major barriers to obtaining employment. Questions 9a and 10 will provide insight into whether potential partici- pants do have unrealistic job expectations. Those accepted should score low on the 16 items (scored arithmetically beginning at 1 with the amount of progression dependent upon the number of options) on the pretest and higher on the posttest.

<u>OR</u> - <u>Occupational Reinforcers</u>: <u>7 items on</u>
<u>questionnaire</u>

These seven items will document participant views
concerning how important certain components of a job are to
them. One reason for including these items is to collect
information that may aid staff in structuring future programs
(i.e. - what attitudes concerning employment need to be
reinforced or changed).

<u>OI</u> - <u>Occupational Interest</u>: <u>7 items on questionnaire</u>

These items will again allow the researcher to gain
data that may be beneficial to staff members. Assessing the
areas of occupational interests will aid staff in matching
available work experiences with individual clients.

<u>EDA</u> - <u>Educational Attitudes</u>: <u>2 items on questionnaire</u>

Given that one of the program's long-term goals is
to channel people into educational programs in the absence of
available full-time employment opportunities, these two items
will help staff determine which potential participants are
amenable to this suggestion. Program assumptions can also
be tested in that those not partial to the idea should be
accepted. Upon completion of the program this attitude should
have been positively changed according to program goals.

<u>MM</u> - <u>Personal Skills/Money Management</u>:   <u>3 items</u>
<u>on questionnaire</u>

The program assumes that potential participants do
not possess the ability to handle money. These three items by
assessing whether these people have been able to save money
in the past can test whether this assumption is accurate and
whether program intervention can produce any changes. Also
those with the least manifest ability should be assigned to
the experimental group.

<u>CIS</u> - <u>Communication/Interpersonal Skills</u>:   <u>7 items</u>
<u>on questionnaire</u>

These seven items are intended to measure respondents'
ability to communicate in interpersonal situations. The
program assumes all potential participants will not possess
good skills in this regard. Those scoring the lowest on the
seven questions should be the ones accepted into the program.
Their scores should be higher in the first and second posttests.

<u>SAW</u> - <u>Self-Awareness</u>:   <u>1 item on questionnaire</u>

All potential participants are assumed to have low
levels of self-awareness. One question in the instrument
addresses this assumption and can also provide a measurement
of any changes over time in both experimental and control groups.

VC - Values Clarification: <u>4 items</u>

The program assumes that all potential participants do not have a clear perception of their own lives in relation to the type of person that they are, past experience and future potential. These unclear perceptions are considered to be barriers to employment. One of the program's components is intended to clarify for participants' their own value set. The four pertinent items on the questionnaire can serve to test this assumption and measure program achievement in the experimental and control group.

HAP - Happiness Scale (Rosenberg Depressive-Affect Scale): <u>6 items on questionnaire</u>

All potential participants are assumed to be unhappy individuals. Participants of Program X are supposed to be happier after completing the program. These six items can test the accuracy of the assumption and measure change in participants and controls, thus allowing insight to be gained into program achievement.

RSE - Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale: <u>10 items on</u> questionnnaire

All potential participants are assumed to have low levels of self-esteem. Program components are specifically aimed at raising the self-esteem of participants. The ten items

on the questionnaire, taken from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem
Scale, will allow the evaluator to test the accuracy of
the assumption and measure human improvement in this area
in the experimental as compared with the control group.

    SC - Sense of Connectedness: 4 items on questionnaire;

and SA - Srole Anomia Scale: 4 items on questionnaire

    Potential participants are assumed not to possess
a sense of being connected to their environment. Eight items
in the instrument are intended to test this assumption and
measure any improvement that may take place in both experi-
mental and control groups.

DEL - Richmond Self Reported Delinquency Scale:
6 items on questionnaire

    The program assumes that potential participants will
possess high delinquency rates. Program X seeks to achieve
a reduction in delinquency rates of its participants. Six
questions in the instrument can allow the evaluator to assess
the accuracy of this assumption and test program achievement
by measuring change in program participants as opposed to
change in the control group.

IE - Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale: 23 items on questionnaire

The program assumes that all potential participants do not feel that they are in control of their own lives. One goal of Program X is to instill a feeling of self-control into the participants. These 23 items on the questionnaire will allow the evaluator to determine first, whether potential participants actually possess this characteristic and second, what changes take place in the experimental and control groups.

F - Rotter Filler Items: 4 items on questionnaire

These are four filler items that accompany the Rotter Scale.

At first glance, the above discussion of the measuring devices contained in the primary questionnaire may appear to be disjointed and inconsistent. That is because certain points important to all measurements were raised in different places rather than repeated throughout. One such point concerns the issue of scoring the items. It is important that the researcher keep the scoring consistent throughout. It is not difficult to perceive that all measuring devices are based on a bad to good continuum. For example, in the

Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, those
responses that represent the desired state (i.e. - high
internal control), should receive the highest scores and
vice versa for those responses indicative of a dysfunctional
state. The responses for all of the other measurements
should be scored in this manner as well. Keeping the scoring
consistent will allow the researcher to use the questionnaire
to serve a number of specific functions related to the overall
evaluation of Program X. A list of the major functions reads
as follows.

(1) Testing of the "Worst Off" Assumption

By keeping the scoring of all measurements consistent,
the evaluator can assess whether those taken into the program
are in fact the worst off of the referrals. If they are, they
should be the respondents who scored the lowest overall on
the questionnaire items.

(2) Testing of Assumptions Concerning Client
Characteristics

The program assumes that potential participants are
lacking in many desirable skills, attitudes and motivations,
possess high delinquency rates and do not feel as if they

are in control of their own lives. Provided that a cuttoff
point for each measuring device can be determined (i.e. - what
score must a respondent achieve to be considered lacking or
not lacking, possess high or low delinquency rates or
considered to be feeling a lack of control), the researcher
can test whether these assumptions are accurate. Depending
upon which ones may be found to be accurate or inaccurate,
it is quite possible that the appropriateness of certain
program components will come into question.

(3) Determining if Change Took Place

Consistent scoring of the measurement devices will
allow the researcher to, by simply comparing individual
scores obtained in the pretest with those of the posttest,
determine if change has taken place: in other words, if
program goals have been realized.

(4) Measuring the Degree of Change

Consistent scoring will also provide the researcher
with the tools necessary to identify the degree of change
that took place. Again a simple comparison of individual
scores will allow the evaluator to answer the question, "How
much, if any, improvement actually occurred?".

(5) Attributing Improvement to Program Intervention

As the questionnaire will be administered to both program participants (experimental group), and those refused entry (control group), by comparing scores between the two groups the evaluator can determine if positive change in program participants is greater than a similar change experienced by members of the control group. If this turns out to be the case, the researcher can reasonably attribute this change to program operation.

(6) Assessing Unanticipated Outcomes

The possibility exists that program participants may actually score lower on the posttest than on the pretest. This would indicate that their personal situation had gotten worse. If the degree of digression is larger than any similar occurence experienced by the control group, the researcher may conclude that the program was responsible and thus had caused a heretofore unanticipated outcome.

(7) Aiding Staff Actions and Programming

Much of the information gathered by the questionnaire (i.e. - occupational interests, motivation, attitudes, perceptions, etc.), will be beneficial to program staff in structuring program content to be more sensitive to the expected needs of the participant group.

The Secondary Questionnaire

The primary questionnaire was the instrument used for the pretest and the first posttest phases of the research design. According to this design, the second posttest was expected to take place one year after participants had completed ten weeks of the program starting in February of 1982. To test the feasibility of this design, the project co-ordinator and this writer decided that some effort should be made to contact participants who had completed the program approximately one year prior to February of 1982. Doing this would allow us to gain some ideas as to the likelihood of being able to locate people one year after completing the program. Since this effort was being made anyway, the project co-ordinator suggested that this writer design a questionnaire to collect some data from these people. Results could be compared with those of the second posttest from the primary questionnaire on selected variables. This may serve to increase the reliability of the study. A copy of the secondary questionnaire has been provided in Appendix II of this report.

The secondary questionnaire is not nearly as extensive as the primary questionnaire and focuses only on a limited

number of variables. These variables are specifically related to the stated long-term goals of Program X. The purpose of this section is not to discuss instrument content but rather questionnaire structure. The content of the secondary instrument is pretty much self-explanatory and the purpose similar to that of the primary questionnaire with the exception of concentrating more on the long-term goals of the program. Following is a brief list of the areas of inquiry covered in the questionnaire and for reference purposes, which questions are related to each. Many of the questions provide insight into more than one area of inquiry; especially those structured as contingency questions.

Area of Inquiry	Related Questions in Secondary Instrument
Demography	questions 1 through 5
Stabilization of Respondent's Situation	questions 2 through 5, 39 and 40
Whether Client is Currently Working or Attending School	question 6
(a) If working, specifics of this employment	questions 7 through 11
(b) If attending school, specifics of this education	questions 12 through 16

Area of Inquiry	Related Questions in Secondary Instrument
(c) If both working and attending school, specifics of each	questions 17 through 26
(d) If neither working or attending school	questions 27 through 31
Client Motivation for Finding Employment	questions 28, 30 and 31
Client's Job Seeking Skills	questions 29, 31 and 33
Client's Employment Record	question 32
Client's Vocational Interests	question 34
Client's Attitudes Concerning Employment, (Their Degree of Perceived Realism)	questions 34 and 35
Client's Personal Skills/Money Management	questions 36, 37 and 38
Client's Delinquency Rates	questions 41 and 42

The final two pages of the secondary questionnaire are included to solicit from former participants, their opinion of Program X and how it functions. This type if inquiry is often left out of many evaluation studies (Giordano 1977, pp. 34-40), as evidenced by the primary questionnaire where

an appropriate section could have been added for the first and second posttests. As it is the client who is being served by the program and is affected by it more than anyone else, his ideas should not go untapped by the conscientious evaluation researcher. The opinion of this writer is that when given the opportunity, the clients of social programs will express thoughts and concerns that are unique, accurate and beneficial to making improvements in the operation of the program in question.

Accurate content of a questionnaire is equalled in importance by the structure of the instrument. Four areas that need be given consideration by a researcher when constructing a questionnaire are discussed below.

(1) Specifying the Units of Analysis

In the preliminary stages of developing a questionnaire the social researcher should specify what the expected units of analysis are. Babbie 1975, mentions four types of possible units of analysis including individuals, groups, organizations and social artifacts. Determining exactly the nature of the units of analysis is not as simple as it may seem from glancing

at Babbie's typology. For example, in the evaluation of

Program X, it was expected that individuals would be the basic

units of analysis. However, as the study would involve

collecting data from people approximately the same age, in

the same physical environment for the pretest and the first

posttest for the experimental group and basically in a

similar personal situation, the unit of analysis could be

considered to be a group. Also, as the research intended to

explore attitudes and behaviours of people, would this not

delegate the individuals as solely the elements and their

attitudes and behaviours as being interactionary social

artifacts and therefore, the units of analysis? Although in

this particular study, the units of analysis could have been

classified as either individual, group or social artifact,

to simplify matters individuals would be considered the

definitive units of analysis. It is likely that using this

classification is the most accurate. Babbie (1975) writes:

> "I may note that social scientists most
> typically perhaps have individual people
> as their units of analysis. The researcher
> may make observations describing the
> characteristics of a large number of
> individual people, such as their sexes,
> ages, regions of birth, attitudes and
> so forth. He then aggregates the
> descriptions of the many individuals
> so as to provide a descriptive picture
> of the population that those several
> individuals comprise." (pg. 52)

It was expected that the evaluation study would
follow a direction similar to what Babbie (1975) has outlined
in the above quotation and in doing so, would be dealing with
individuals as the units of analysis.

The purpose of this section is to indicate that
specifying the units of analysis is not always a simple
process. It is important that the researcher not avoid addressing
this issue and explore all available possibilities. The
researcher should be clear as to what the units of analysis
are expected to be before attempting to design a questionnaire.
Content and specific wording of items are both influenced by
the source of the data.

(2) Specifying the Method of Data Collection

The proposed method of data collection will also
have an influence on how the questionnaire is worded and
structured. Options include participant observation, non-
participant observation, mailed questionnaires and in-person
questionnaires (interviews). The only feasible method of
collection concerning the use of the secondary questionnaire
was that of in-person interviews. This meant that the questions

would need to be worded in such a way so to reflect a conversational approach. For example, questions such as "How old are you now?" would be worded differently if the respondent was filling out the instrument himself. Specifying' the method of data collection will also allow the researcher the opportunity to calculate the approximate amount of time and money it will take to collect the required data and whether the collection method is possible under the budgetary limits for the evaluation study.

(3) Workability and Wording

When constructing the secondary questionnaire, some thought was given to the physical structure of the instrument and its degree of workability for the researcher. To make the questionnaire easy to work with, sufficient room was left between questions and enough space provided for writing in answers. By not clumping questions (and response categories or spaces) close together, there was a reduction in the possibility that a response may be read in the wrong category or in the wrong question. No names would be placed on the questionnaire to ensure the confidentiality of the respondents. Arrows for contingency questions are clearly delineated as are any instructions needed for working through the instrument

The space for the identification number was placed in the upper right hand corner of the questionnaire to speed up the process of thumbing through them when looking for a specific questionnaire, or when counting them to make sure all are present and accounted for. The secondary questionnaire was structured in such a way that it would be workable for this writer. Often the researcher will have to construct the instrument so that others can fill it out easily. Specifying the method of data collection dictates whose interests are worthy of most consideration when determining the physical structure of a questionnaire. The wording of the questionnaire should be easily understood by both researcher and respondent. When deciding upon the wording of questions, the researcher should give consideration to the characteristics of expected respondents. For Program X questions had to be worded simply enough that respondents could understand what was being asked of them while at the same time not so simple as to be insulting. Wording questions in this manner did signify a kind of passive acceptance of the program's assumptions, but under the circumstances, the researcher had little choice. It is important that during the first few interviews the evaluator observe whether respondents appear to be understanding the questions easily and are not degraded by the way they are being asked. If either of these occurrences appear, appropriate changes should be made to the questionnaire before continuing with the data collection.

(4) <u>Validity of Scales</u> - This section is
included as a precautionary note for prospective evaluation
researchers. When borrowing scales (or portions of scales),
from other studies to incorporate into a questionnaire,
the evaluator should make every effort to assess the
validity of these measuring devices. There are three
major types of validity that the evaluator should apply
to the instrument. The first of these is criterion-oriented
validity. When assessing this type of validity, the
researcher asks whether the test he is using compares well
with external variables that are considered to be direct
measures of the characteristic or behaviour in question.
One method for assessing criterion-oriented validity can
be seen in the following example:

> "In some cases, the researcher wants to
> devise a scale that will measure a future
> potential. For instance, suppose someone
> wanted to be able to predict how effective
> a therapist a student would be after
> completing training. The normal procedure
> would be for the researcher to devise some
> kind of scale (or perhaps an instrument
> that included a number of scales) that
> would measure certain skills that are
> considered important to effective
> therapy. The measuring device would
> then be used to assess the skills of
> a fairly large number of people already
> judged to be successful in the field,
> in order to secure norms for comparison.
> The instrument would then be given to

students. Students who possessed
the skills associated with successful
performance could then be predicted
to be successful. In effect, one
would say that the students met the
criterion that had been established
for successful performance and
therefore would be good therapists
at some future point." (Atherton
and Klemmack 1982, pg. 20)

When assessing the second major type of validity,
known as content validity, the researcher asks the
question, "How well does the content of the test sample
the kinds of things about which conclusions are to be
drawn?" (Isaac and Michael 1982, pg. 119). The usual method
of demonstrating content validity is to have the instrument
or scale inspected and evaluated by experts in the area
that the test is supposed to measure.

The third major type of validity is known as
construct validity. An explanation of this term and the
difficulties inherent in trying to assess this type of
validity can be seen in the quotation below:

"On many occasions, the researcher is
interested in measuring whether or
not a certain construct is characteristic
of a group of subjects. A construct is
an abstraction that is used to put some
theoretical concept into words. A good

example of a construct is the term
anxiety. Because anxiety is not an
empirically real thing (in that one
cannot go out and buy a pound of it),
one had to measure it indirectly by
looking at some characteristic or
attribute that can be agreed upon to
be the thing that is meant by the
term anxiety. The research question,
then, becomes whether the measuring
device really measures the thing
called anxiety and not something else.
Construct validity is very hard to
establish. Frankly, it appears that
whether or not a given procedure
measures a construct is determined
by the judgment of those assumed to
be knowledgeable in a given field.
Because the things that are measured
by such tests are not real in the
same sense that weight, height, and
distance are said to be real, it is
extremely difficult to say that one
is actually measuring it. . . .
Because the measurement of constructs
is always indirect, researchers must
take great care in interpreting such
tests." (Atherton and Klemmack 1982,
pg. 21)

Validity is not as much a problem for often-used

and generally accepted scales such as the Rotter Internal-

External Locus of Control Scale or the Rosenberg Self-Esteem

Scale as it is for newly developed or original measuring

devices. The evaluator should be clear as to the

circumstances and with what people the scales have been

used in the past and whether this usage makes them

appropriate for the current study. The researcher should

also set a time aside for testing whether the questionnaire
and the measuring devices contained therein are appropriate
for the respondents and whether they measure what they are
intended to measure.

Merely having been used in the past by others is
no guarantee that any given measure is relevant for
repeated use. The evaluator must assess under what
conditions the scales have been used and whether modifi-
cations are necessary before it can be included into the
present study in the form of a questionnaire.

STEP IV - DATA COLLECTION PHASE

In the data collection phase it is the responsibility
of the evaluator to ensure that the instrument is administered
to the data source. For the primary questionnaire, a research
assistant from the Social Planning Council took a sufficient
number of questionnaires over to the location of the
assessment interviews for Program X and had them distributed
to the respondents. Program staff present at the interviews
were informed of the purpose of the study, what the
questionnaire was all about and instructed as to what

assistance they could supply to respondents having
difficulty answering the questions. Once completed,
the questionnaires would be returned to the Social
Planning Council. The research assistant would then
check them over to see if all the information was present.
The questionnaires that were satisfactorily filled out would
be set aside for coding into the computer. If data was
missing, the research assistant would try and contact the
respondent in order to obtain the necessary information.

For the secondary questionnaire, it was this
writer who was given the responsibility for gathering the
data. This provided the opportunity to gain some valuable
experience in doing the practical activity of data collection
that plays an integral part in the completion of the research
process. The better part of February and March was spent
trying to collect the secondary data.

The first step in the collection process involved
acquiring the referral forms of program applicants from one
year ago. These were obtained from the clerical staff of
Program X with the permission of the program administrator.
Copies of the referral forms were made with the personal
guarantee that they would be destroyed upon completion of

Practicum activities. A blank copy of this referral
form has been provided in Appendix III of this report.

There were 32 people who had applied for entrance
into the program in February of 1981. Of these, twelve
were accepted into the program and twenty refused entrance.
The former constituted the experimental group and the
latter the control group.

Addresses and phone numbers for the clients
themselves were the first items of information from
the referral form that were used in trying to contact
these clients. For those who had listed phone numbers,
rarely were they still in operation. Efforts were then
directed at contacting the referral sources. In the
majority of cases the referring agent was a social worker
employed at one of the city's Children's Aid Societies.
In a minority of cases referrals were by self or from a
local youth hostel. The social workers were almost as
difficult to contact as the clients that they had referred
to the program. Those that even still worked at the agency
cited on the referral from were not frequently in their
offices and were somewhat less than enthusiastic about
returning phone calls. When the referral source could be

contacted, those that possessed any recent information about their clients were reluctant to pass it on due to a perceived threat to confidentiality. When confronted with this barrier, the writer, as a firm believer in the absolute right of clients to expect that their confidentiality will be respected by their social workers, did not press the issue. The fact that this attitude had the potential to create problems for the evaluation researcher was quickly realized. If one is being paid to do a complete and extensive evaluation of a social program, it is important that follow-up interviews be done. If that same person believes in the sanctity of client confidentiality, adhering to this value position creates problems for obtaining vital information. Consequently, the successful completion of the evaluation according to the chosen research design is placed in jeopardy. The end product will likely be an incomplete evaluation report which may cause employers and the people who commissioned the study to call into question the quality of the work performed by the evaluator. By assuming a strong ethical position, the evaluator is not only risking that the research will be lacking in completeness, but also, he is placing his personal competence in a position to be judged negatively by the relevant actors in

the system.

I am by no means suggesting that the evaluator should sacrifice his own value position for having his work approved and possibly praised. The evaluator should however, make an effort to ensure that any future follow-up data collection is done with the knowledge and acceptance of the clients in question. In the current research study, the logical solution to this dilemma would be to include in the primary questionnaire a section whereby it is explained that future information may be sought from people listed on the referral form or the questionnaire itself. The respondent would be given the opportunity to sign or refuse to sign a permission slip that verifies personal approval of this information being released. This would not only serve to provide the value-laden researcher with peace of mind but also would likely reduce the amount of friction encountered from third party contacts in future follow-up endeavours.

When doing the follow-up work, this writer was somewhat taken aback by the ease with which a few professionals did reveal client information to someone who amounted to little more than a new and strange voice on

the telephone. Ethically speaking, it was fortunate that
these cases were in the minority. Most of the time it
was necessary to verbalize at length what the study was
about and why the information was being requested. These
requests were frequently met with an uncooperative and
suspicious attitude from the referral source. Their
apparent reticence should not be viewed with negative
connotations as it was reflective of noble intent.
Although creating problems for the collection of data,
the practice of withholding information is one that had
to be respected.

When one of the 32 people could be contacted by phone,
an attempt was made to set up a time for an interview to
take place. The logical meeting place was at Program X
as all respondents had been there before. Arrangements
were made with staff to use facilities at the program when
necessary. Some of the people contacted refused to even
make an appointment while others would agree to a time and
not show up. On occasion the writer would agree to meet
the respondent in a coffee shop or other mutually acceptable
alternate location and ask the questions there. The actual
interviews with respondents proved to be more educative than
just simply gathering previously specified information.

The interviews often extended beyond being question-response interactions and turned into a full conversation with some counselling overtones. This writer was genuinely touched by the degree of sincerity and cooperation with which respondents tried to answer the questions and open themselves during post interview conversations. The experience was enlightening and served to make the writer more conscious of the problems and lifestyle of people in a situation characterized by chronic poverty, limited opportunities, broken families and growing up "on the street".

After countless hours on the phone, many broken appointments and much frustration, the final result was that interviews could be completed with seven out of twelve former program participants but only with one of twenty control group members. Some information, however skeletal it may have been, was still obtained on virtually everyone from third party contacts. Typical responses included "He's out of town", or "I haven't seen her in a long time", or "Last I heard he was in jail". This third party information being quite general was of little use to the evaluation project.

For a multitude of reasons extensive follow-up data from the secondary questionnaire could not be obtained. The process of data collection was, however, not a wasted endeavour. In addition to being of educational benefit for this writer, two other purposes were served. The first of these is related to the limited utility of the information collected. Certainly not enough questionnaires were completed to make any comparisons between the experimental group and the control group but whatever data was acquired could be compared with similar data from the primary questionnaire (second posttest) for selected variables. Also, even the general information indicated in an overall sense that the experimental group had become more stabilized than the control group. More of the former participants could be contacted and according to third party sources fewer of them were "on the run" or had their whereabouts unknown. The lesson to be learned from this experience is that the evaluation researcher should not hastily discount information just because it has come from third party sources or is not quantitative enough to be subjected to detailed statistical analysis.

Second, the fact that so few people could actually
be interviewed indicated that the chosen research design of
conducting a second posttest with the primary questionnaire
one year after program completion may not be realistically
workable. It was true that this writer did not have the
time to devote eight hours a day to the collection process
as would have been the case in an actual evaluation.
Even in light of this fact, at the time of completing
Practicum activities, the research coordinator was taking
this matter under advisement and was considering possible
methods of improving the success rate of future follow-up
efforts.

Sitting In On The Program

During the last week in February this writer
welcomed the opportunity to sit in on the operation of
Program X. Coincidentally, it was the first week that the
twelve successful applicants would be attending the program.

In addition to gaining firsthand experience which
will aid in the formative stage of the evaluation process,
by sitting in on the program the researcher can talk to line
staff, clerical staff and clients of the program. This writer

had conversations with all three program factions and discussed topics such as the purpose of the program, what was expected of the program, the evaluation study and the social service system as a whole.

Program participants often expressed a negative opinion of the social service system in general and social workers in particular. They really did not know what to expect from Program X other than it was supposed to help get them jobs at some point. At the beginning of the week, participants rarely interacted with one another. Caution and suspicion were the dominant feelings being expressed. By the end of the week this initial anxiousness had all but disappeared; internal groups of friends were clearly evident. Observing and engaging in conversation with program participants allowed the writer to experientially test whether program assumptions concerning client characteristics were accurate. One discrepancy was noted. Participants' dress and mannerisms did not appear to be as grubby or inappropriate as one might expect from reading program material.

Generally speaking, program staff were relatively uninformed about the evaluation study and appeared to view such a procedure as being an unnecessary waste of time and money. Line and clerical staff alike expressed negative opinions about the efficiency of the city's social service system. To hear them tell it, Program X was one of only a few social agencies providing a useful service to the public. This biased opinion was understandable considering their affiliation with the program and the task of the person with whom they were conversing. Program staff also demonstrated that they had some definite ideas about program operation and program goals. This did, on occasion, differ slightly from written material and the opinion of the program administrator. This writer could not help but reach the conclusion that staff representatives (both line and clerical), should have been included in the earliest stages of the evaluation. Their diversified opinions and practical experiences could have only enriched the statement of program operations, the statement of program goals and how the two were related.

The opinion of this writer is that the value of being able to sit in on the program being evaluated cannot be understated. Observations, ideas and opinions of and from

various sources, that would otherwise remain dormant, can be expressed and used to aid in the research process. It is recommended that when time and budgetary constraints permit, evaluation researchers should sit in on the social program that is the focus of their work.

STEP V - DATA ANALYSIS PHASE

By the first week in April, the time when the field placement at the Social Planning Council was due to terminate, data from the pretest had just recently been coded into the computer. In fact, during this writer's last day at the agency, some initial printouts had just arrived. These prelimiary methods of data analysis were intended to test some of the assumptions that Program X was making about the referrals that were being accepted into the program. Much of the program is designed to change some of the characteristics assumed to exist. As indicated earlier, there are a wide variety of assumptions being made. The variables operationalized in the primary questionnaire were intended to test these through measurement. Due to the fact that the data analysis had really just began, only five assumptions concerning program participants in comparison with the control group will be used to serve as an example

of how assumptions would be tested. These exemplary statements are presented below:

Assumptions About Program Participants in Comparison to Those Refused Entrance

(1) Participants have lower levels of self-esteem than do members of the control group.

(2) Participants will feel that they have less control over their own lives in comparison with similar feelings expressed by the control group.

(3) Participants will have higher delinquency rates than members of the control group.

(4) Participants will be less happy individuals than those who are members of the control group.

(5) Participants will be older than members of the control group.

To test this group of assumptions, the scores related to the relevant scales obtained from the administration of the primary questionnaire in the pretest, were run through the computer using a crosstabs procedure. This was done to seek out differences between the two groups. Referring to the list of measurements presented earlier, the following were run as scales:

Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control

Happiness Scale

Self-Esteem Scale

Srole Anomia Scale

Occupational Interests

Richmond Delinquency Scale

The remainder were run as single items. This meant that there were a total of 118 variables being tested for differences. Using a differentiating point of .05, one would expect that five variables would show a relationship as a result of chance. Therefore, for the possibility to exist that there are actual differences between the program and control groups, there should be more than five variables showing a relationship. There were ten. Of these, age and self-esteem were the only two related to the five assumptions being tested. Program participants were older and did possess

lower levels of self-esteem than those who had been refused entry into the program. The fact that age showed a relationship raised the question of whether the other nine relationships were a function of the maturation process. To test this, the original crosstabs were rerun, this time controlling for the variable age. The result was that five relationships were explained away and thus considered spurious. This left only four variables that showed a genuine relationship (self-esteem was replicated). On the basis of this preliminary data analysis the writer was able to reach the following two conclusions.

(1) The assumptions being made as to differences between program and control groups do not appear to be entirely accurate. The program participants do not seem to be "worse off" than members of the control group.

(2) As there are few actual differences perceived to exist between program and control members, this will add strength to the data obtained in future posttests. The fewer differences between the two groups that there is, the more likely it is that the researcher will be able to attribute future changes to the fact that intervention in the form of Program X took place.

The above has been provided only as an example
of how data analysis can be used to test program assumptions.
In the actual research project the data analysis will be
more detailed and complex that what has been discussed in
this section. From the analysis that does take place,
the project coordinator will reach conclusions concerning
whether program assumptions are accurate, the degree of
program achievement and whatever unanticipated outcomes were
noticed. As the data comes in from the initial tests, the
project coordinator should keep the program administrator
informed about what trends or tentative conclusions are
being identified. Once all tests have been administered,
the data collected and analyzed, the project coordinator
will put all of his findings down on paper in the form of an
evaluation report. This report should describe the
research methodology including design, measurements,
approach to data collection and data analysis as well as a
series of recommendations for program improvement. In
addition, and this is quite often not included in research
reports, the evaluation report should contain a section
outlining any problems encountered when performing the
research. If more researchers were to document procedural
difficulties, those reading the reports would have a better

idea of both the advantages and disadvantages of trying

to replicate the study or borrow the research methodology.

> "The faithful recording of research
> experiences would provide a rich lore
> for the evaluation community.
> Researchers would be forewarned about
> the costs and benefits associated
> with certain strategies, such as
> paying interviewees. Likewise they
> could capitalize on the lessons
> learned in dealing with various
> research management issues."
> (Rezmovic et al. 1981, pg. 66)

Unfortunately this writer did not have the

opportunity to gain field experience into either of the

last two stages of the evaluation process. By the first

week in April, the project had just passed into the data

analysis stage of development. In light of this fact,

the concluding section of this Practicum report will

address the often discussed topic of evaluation research

utilization.

EVALUATION UTILIZATION

In the field of evaluation research, both researcher

and program administrator are often left dissastified at the

completion of a project: the former because his suggestions

go unheeded and the latter because he does not hear much of

what he wants to listen to (Weiss 1977, pg. 5; Lindblom and

Cohen 1979, pg. 1). One major peril facing the person who
chooses to pursue evaluation research as a career is that
the fruits of his labour are rarely utilized to influence
policy or program decisions (Stevens and Tornatzky 1980,
pg. 341; Heath et al. 1982, pp. 233-234). This occurs even
in instances when methodologically sound research is
readily available (Hawkins et al. 1978, pg. 436; Campbell
n.d., pp. 409-429). There are two ways to interpret this
under-utilization of research findings. The first is to view
it as a methodological problem; the second, is to attribute it
to more practical issues such as personality conflicts
between evaluator and program administrator. Locatis et
al. (1980), discuss these two interpretations:

> "One way is to view it as a methodological
> problem requiring alternatives to the
> research paradigms traditionally employed
> in evaluation and recognition of the
> limitations of science. The inappropriate
> use of evaluation outcomes occurs because
> the methods are not feasible in real-life
> situations, involve invalid assumptions
> about reality, fail to provide sufficiently
> valid data, do not provide an adequate
> range of data, bias the ways problems
> are defined, or are inflexible and
> unresponsive to local information needs.
>
> Another perspective is to view nonuse as
> a problem of information utilization.
> Failure to use evaluation occurs because
> of extraneous factors affecting decisions,

evaluator/decision maker relationships,
barriers to information flow, and
improper communication." (pp. 810-811)

The primary function of performing evaluation

research is to provide information upon which program

administrators can make decisions or changes that will

facilitate the improvement of program operations over

time (Miller and Pruger 1978, pg. 470; Ross 1980, pg.

60). In fact, there are those who are of the opinion

that evaluation studies should only be considered successful

when research findings can contribute to the program in

question:

> "Evaluation research is applied
> research. It is expected to
> contribute to the programs studied.
> Evaluations are successful only
> if their results are used to
> inform policy decisions, resource
> allocations, or program planning
> and development activities."
> (Hawkins and Sloma 1978, pg. 283)

It is evident that the evaluation researcher is

often faced with a dilemma concerning study usage. His work

is supposed to help improve the efficiency and effectiveness

with which social programs function, but frequently, results

are not taken seriously by the powers that be. Many hundreds

of hours that were spent designing and undertaking a

comprehensive evaluation will be wasted when the final report

sits decoratively on the shelves of the program administrator and/or the people who commissioned the study gathering dust. The evaluation researcher must assume some of the responsibility for ensuring that evaluation results are taken seriously. This first step in accomplishing this difficult task is to realize the sources of such nonuse. The two interpretations cited earlier are exceedingly relevant in this regard. If the evaluation researcher realizes and accepts the fact that the root of usage indifference may be methodologically or practically oriented, then he can make efforts to correct the situation. The opinion of this writer is that the source of nonuse is not a definite either/or dichotomy. It is likely the result of a delicate interfacing between the specifics of both alleged causes. The effective evaluator will therefore need to possess both extensive methodological awareness and well developed negotiation and communication skills. The evaluation researcher when performing his work has to make every effort to avoid conflict and confrontation with program people. A researcher may possess all the intellectual know-how in the world concerning evaluation design, data collection and data analysis strategies; but without the delicate interpersonal touch necessary to put these skills to work in an environment conducive to creating mutual respect, his work will continue to go unrewarded and unused.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Upon commencing Practicum activities it was hoped that I would be able to gain exposure to the three basic components of evaluation research: evaluation design, data collection and data analysis. For the most part, this has taken place, although for the latter only skeletally. The learning experience however, went far beyond being the mere undertaking of social research. The value of being thrust into the face-to-face interactions and resulting obstacles that needed to be worked through is nothing short of immeasurable.

Certainly it is necessary that the evaluation researcher possess extensive research knowledge and methodological skills to effectively perform his work. However, the nature of evaluation itself causes the evaluator to be put in positions not familiar to those conducting the research purely for the sake of knowledge or theory building. The evaluator is expected to pass judgement on the effectiveness of a social program and consequently, also judge the work of people who staff that program. The evaluator often finds himself playing the role of intermediary between those who commissioned the study and those who are the focus of the study. The former, often being the funders of the program,

may be expecting to use the evaluation as a basis for
withdrawing monetary resources. In this sense, the evaluator's
work is being used merely to justify an already made decision.
Using evaluation results in this manner represents an unethical
misuse of the researcher's time, effort and work. The primary
purpose of undertaking evaluation research should always be
the improvement of social programming, not the discontinuation
of same. This writer remains unconvinced that evaluation
results can ever be conclusive enough to justify a social
program or agency having its funding withdrawn or cut. The
evaluation researcher should always try to determine whether
the people who have commissioned his services are sincerely
seeking ways to improve the program or are looking for a
justification for saving some money.

The evaluator will likely never be able to guarantee
that research results will not be misused by funders. In most
cases his job will be defined by the people who commissioned
the study as being responsible for research design, data
collection and data analysis. Any additional effort to see
that recommendations are implemented, or that results are not
misused will likely be viewed as an inappropriate intrusion
that extends beyond the expected role of the evaluator.

As stated previously, there is probably little
the researcher can do to ensure that his work is not misused.
In the written report, however, the evaluator should clearly
state that the results, findings and recommendations contained
therein are intended solely for the improvement of the social
program and should not be used as a basis for funding
decisions. Consistently, all recommendations in the report
should be improvement-oriented and thus will always be positive
suggestions for change and not absolute statements of negative
judgement. Including the qualifying statement in the written
report, in addition to recommendations worded as positive
suggestions for change will reduce the ability of funders to
indicate that funding cuts were based on statements contained
within the evaluation report.

Historically, social workers have not been the ones
performing social program evaluations. Considering their
vested interest in such programs, this needs to be changed.
Social workers have a definite and beneficial goal to play
in the evaluation field. The formally educated social worker,
trained in evaluation research strategies will possess an
admirable combination of technical and interpersonal skills.

These skills combined with a work-related sensitivity
to social programs and social agencies will make the social
worker well suited to perform the evaluation of social
programs.

LOG OF PRACTICUM ACTIVITIES

Approximate Dates	Description of Activities
September to Mid-October, 1982	- orientation to Social Planning Council - initial meetings with project co-ordinator - reading/learning about evaluation research* - attendance at staff meetings
Mid-October to Mid-November	- reading/learning abour evaluation research* - inquisitive phase; obtaining and reading all available material on Program X - one meeting with Program Administrator concerning goal identification - attendance at staff meetings
Mid-November to Mid-December, 1982	- further meetings with Program Administrator - negotiation with Program Administrator around setting of goals - some preliminary efforts at developing a research design - attendance at staff meetings

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*Although the reading/learning about evaluation research continued throughout the entire Practicum, this type of activity was concentrated in these two time periods.

Lot of Practicum Activities (cont.)

January, 1983	- reviewing of primary questionnaire
	- completion of research design
	- construction of secondary questionnaire
February and March, 1983	- participation in data collection phase
	- one week spent observing Program X
Early April, 1983	- coding and some tentative data analysis completed

APPENDIX I.

The Primary Questionnaire

For the Evaluation of

Program X

PROGRAM X

INTAKE QUESTIONS

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ THE ANSWERS YOU GIVE WILL NOT AFFECT WHETHER     │
│ OR NOT YOU GET INTO THE          PROGRAM!        │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```

ABOUT THESE QUESTIONS

This is part of a study to find ways to make this program better. To plan more useful programs, we need to know a great deal about you, your ideas, your plans, and your problems.

> THE ANSWERS YOU GIVE WILL NOT AFFECT WHETHER
> OR NOT YOU GET INTO THE   PROGRAM!

Also, the answers you give will be confidential. They will be seen only by persons working on the   program.

There are a lot of questions, so please work as fast as you can. Answer the questions frankly, even if you think there are people who would disagree with you. We want your ideas.

We will ask questions about yourself, about how happy or unhappy you are, and about how you feel about yourself. Some people might feel bad about their answers. There is no need to feel this way. Everybody feels unhappy or bad about themselves at some time. It is natural to feel this way at times. Just tell us how you feel at this time in your life.

HOW TO MARK YOUR ANSWERS

1. Some questions ask you to write answers in boxes. Please write as neatly as you can.

2. Most of the questions have a set of prepared answers. Answer these by putting an "X" in the box next to the answer that comes closest to the answer that is right for you. For example, if we asked your age and you are 16 years old, the question (and the answer) would look like this:

> a. What is your age?
>
> ☐ Age 12 or younger
>
> ☐ Age 13
>
> ☐ Age 14
>
> ☐ Age 15
>
> ☒ Age 16
>
> ☐ Age 17
>
> ☐ Age 18 or older

For any single question put an "X" in only one box.

PLEASE GIVE US SOME INFORMATION ABOUT YOURSELF AND THE JOBS YOU HAVE HAD
IN THE PAST 2 YEARS. FILL IN AS MUCH AS YOU CAN. IF THERE IS SOMETHING
YOU DON'T KNOW, JUST LEAVE THE BOX BLANK.

JSS

1. PERSONAL INFORMATION-PLEASE PRINT

Last name	First name	Middle name
Address	Street	City or town

JSS

2. EDUCATION RECORD

Elementary school	Grade completed	Date completed
Junior high school	Grade completed	Date completed
High school	Grade completed	Date completed

JSS

3. EMPLOYMENT RECORD FOR LAST TWO YEARS (MOST RECENT FIRST)

Position held	Name of employer	Employed from	To
☐ Full time? ☐ Part time?	Reason for leaving	Salary start	Salary finish
Position held	Name of employer	Employed from	To
☐ Full time? ☐ Part time?	Reason for leaving	Salary start	Salary finish
Position held	Name of employer	Employed from	To
☐ Full time? ☐ Part time?	Reason for leaving	Salary start	Salary finish
Position held	Name of employer	Employed from	To
☐ Full time? ☐ Part time?	Reason for leaving	Salary start	Salary finish

List other jobs held in last two years

HERE ARE OMF QUESTIONS ABOUT YOURSELF, YOUR PLANS, AND ABOUT JOBS
YOU MIGHT LIKE TO GET.

R 4. Are you: ☐ Status or registered Indian ☐ Metis

☐ Non-status Indian ☐ Other

EMP 5. How old were you when you got your first job at which you worked for pay at least five hours a week?

☐ I have never had such a job ☐ Age 14

☐ Age 10 or before ☐ Age 15

☐ Age 11 ☐ Age 16

☐ Age 12 ☐ Age 17

☐ Age 13 ☐ Age 18 or older

GP 6. How often do you think about what you are going to do and be as an adult?

☐ Very often

☐ Often

☐ Sometimes

☐ Almost never

☐ Never

GP 7. How often have you talked over your future plans with these people?

a. Mother or foster mother

☐ Often
☐ Sometimes
☐ Never

b. Father or foster father

☐ Often
☐ Sometimes
☐ Never

c. Other relatives

☐ Often
☐ Sometimes
☐ Never

Don't forget "d-g"

d. People your age

☐ Often
☐ Sometimes
☐ Never

e. Minister

☐ Often
☐ Sometimes
☐ Never

f. Social worker or other social agency worker

☐ Often
☐ Sometimes
☐ Never

g. Other adults

☐ Often
☐ Sometimes
☐ Never

OP 8. Have you decided on what job you want to aim for?

☐ I don't plan to get a job (Go to question #9)

☐ No (Go to question #9)

☐ Yes

8a. In the box below write the name of the job you want to aim for.

[   ]

9. How sure are you that you will really get the job you want?

OP

☐ Very sure (Go to question #10)

☐ Pretty sure (Go to question #10)

☐ Not very sure

☐ Not sure at all

9a. In the box below write the name of a job you think you will get.

[   ]

OP 10. Do you know anyone who has a job like the one you want?

☐ No

☐ Someone in my family

☐ Someone I know well

☐ Someone I know just a little

☐ Someone on T.V.

☐ Someone else I know of (but haven't met)

OR 11. People have lots of reasons for choosing jobs they want. Here are some of these reasons. Please tell us how important each reason would be to you in choosing a job.

a. Pays good money.

☐ Very important
☐ Important
☐ Not important

b. Lets me do the things I'm good at.

☐ Very important
☐ Important
☐ Not important

c. Gives me a chance to work with other people.

☐ Very important
☐ Important
☐ Not important

d. Lets me use my own ideas.

☐ Very important
☐ Important
☐ Not important

e. Gives me a chance to help others.

☐ Very important
☐ Important
☐ Not important

f. Is a steady job.

☐ Very important
☐ Important
☐ Not important

g. Will make people look up to me.

☐ Very important
☐ Important
☐ Not important

12. Do you think any of these things will keep you from getting the job
OP   you want to have?

a. Bad grades

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

b. Employers don't want to hire people of my race

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

c. Don't know the right people

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

d. Getting into trouble

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

e. Am not smart enough

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

f. Not willing to work hard enough

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

Don't forget "g-m"

g. Lack of money

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

h. Schools don't give the right training

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

i. Don't know how to find a job

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

j. No job available

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

k. Poor health

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

l. Am not old enough

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

m. Not enough experience

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ Maybe

   ☐ No

OI 13. Do you like to work with your hands?

[ ] Yes

[ ] No

[ ] I don't know

OI 14. Do you like work that needs a lot of thinking?

[ ] Yes

[ ] No

[ ] I don't know

OI 15. Do you like to work alone?

[ ] Yes

[ ] No

[ ] I don't know

OI 16. Do you like really steady jobs?

[ ] Yes

[ ] No

[ ] I don't know

OI 17. Do you like jobs that let you work at your own speed?

[ ] Yes

[ ] No

[ ] I don't know

OI 18. Would you like your job to be outdoors?

[ ] Yes

[ ] No

[ ] I don't know

OI 19. For you is money the most important reason to have a job?

[ ] Yes

[ ] No

[ ] I don't know

JSS 20. In the box below, list the things you could do now to find a job you want.

EDA
21. How much of what people learn in school helps them later in life?

▢ Nearly everything

▢ Quite a bit

▢ Very little

▢ None

EDA
22. How would you feel about going back to school?

▢ I'd like it

▢ I'd like it and dislike it about the same

▢ I'd dislike it

THE NEXT QUESTIONS ARE ABOUT YOURSELF, HOW HAPPY YOU ARE AND HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT YOURSELF. REMEMBER, NO ONE IS HAPPY ALL OF THE TIME AND NOT ALL PEOPLE FEEL GOOD ABOUT THEMSELVES ALL OF THE TIME. THAT'S NATURAL. JUST TELL US AS HONESTLY AS YOU CAN HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT YOURSELF AT THIS POINT IN LIFE.

MM
23. During the past year have you saved up to buy something you wanted?

▢ Often

▢ Sometimes

▢ Never

MM
24. During the past year have you borrowed money from others?

▢ Often

▢ Sometimes

▢ Never

MM
25. During the past year have you loaned money to others?

▢ Often

▢ Sometimes

▢ Never

CIS 26. Is it hard for you to talk to people when you first meet them?

▢ Very hard

▢ A little hard

▢ Easy

▢ Very easy

CIS 27. Do you find it hard to understand other people?

▢ Almost always

▢ Often

▢ Sometimes

▢ Never

CIS 28. Do you say things you later wish you hadn't said?

☐ Often

☐ Sometimes

☐ Almost never

☐ Never

VC 29. How sure are you that you know what kind of a person you are?

☐ Very sure

☐ Pretty sure

☐ Not very sure

☐ Not at all sure

VC 30. Do you feel mixed up about yourself, about what you are really like?

☐ Often

☐ Sometimes

☐ Never

SAW 31. How well do you think you understand what has made you the way you are?

☐ Very well

☐ Fairly well

☐ Not very well

☐ Not at all

VC 32. Do you ever wish you could change your past?

☐ No (Go to question #33)

☐ Yes

32a. How much of your past do you wish you could change?

☐ All of it

☐ Most of it

☐ Some of it

HAP 33. How happy would you say you are most of the time? Would you say you are...

☐ Very happy

☐ Pretty happy

☐ Not very happy

☐ Not at all happy

34. Would you say this: "I get a lot of fun out of life"?

HAP

☐ Yes

☐ No

HAP 35. Would you say this: "Mostly, I think I am quite a happy person."

[ ] Yes

[ ] No

HAP 36. How happy are you today?

[ ] Very happy

[ ] Pretty happy

[ ] Not very happy

HAP 37. A kid told me: "Other kids seem happier than I". Is this...

[ ] True for you

[ ] Not true for you

HAP 38. Would you say that most of the time you are...

[ ] Very cheerful

[ ] Pretty cheerful

[ ] Not very cheerful

[ ] Not cheerful at all

RSE 39. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

[ ] Strongly agree

[ ] Agree

[ ] Disagree

[ ] Strongly disagree

CIS 40. It's hard for me to tell other people how I really feel.

[ ] Strongly agree

[ ] Agree

[ ] Disagree

[ ] Strongly disagree

SC 41. Most people like me.

[ ] Strongly agree

[ ] Agree

[ ] Disagree

[ ] Strongly disagree

RSE 42. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

[ ] Strongly agree

[ ] Agree

[ ] Disagree

[ ] Strongly disagree

PA 43. When I start something most of the time I finish it.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

SA 44. These days a person doesn't really know who he can count on.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

RSE 45. All in all, I feel that I am a failure.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

PA 46. Whatever I do, I try hard.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

SC 47. Most people don't care what happens to me.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

RSE 48. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

SA 49. I often feel things will never get better for me.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

SA 50. These days a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

RSE 51. I wish I could have more respect for myself.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

PA 52. A person should never stop trying to get ahead.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

SC 53. I have no really close friends.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

RSE 54. I feel that I am a person of worth, as good as other people.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

PA 55. I'd rather not start something if I might fail at it.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

SA 56. It is hardly fair to bring children into the world with the way things look for the future.

- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

RSE 57. I certainly feel useless at times.

☐ Strongly agree

☐ Agree

☐ Disagree

☐ Strongly disagree

PA 58. Promising to do things you don't have to do is foolish.

☐ Strongly agree

☐ Agree

☐ Disagree

☐ Strongly disagree

CIS 59. It bothers me to be told what to do.

☐ Strongly agree

☐ Agree

☐ Disagree

☐ Strongly disagree

RSE 60. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.

☐ Strongly agree

☐ Agree

☐ Disagree

☐ Strongly disagree

61. An easy life is a happy life .

PA

☐ Strongly agree

☐ Agree

☐ Disagree

☐ Strongly disagree

62. Things are getting worse for the average person.

SA

☐ Strongly agree

☐ Agree

☐ Disagree

☐ Strongly disagree

63. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

RSE

☐ Strongly agree

☐ Agree

☐ Disagree

☐ Strongly disagree

64. Planning is useless since one's plans hardly ever work out.

GP
- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

65. Most of the time I try to get along with people even if I don't like them.

CIS
- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

66. At times I think I am no good at all.

RSE
- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

67. There is no sense looking ahead since no one knows what the future will be like.

GP
- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

68. It's often hard to make people understand what I'm trying to say.

CIS
- [ ] Strongly agree
- [ ] Agree
- [ ] Disagree
- [ ] Strongly disagree

REMEMBER, YOUR ANSWERS ARE CONFIDENTIAL. ONLY THOSE WORKING ON   WILL SEE THEM

69. Have you ever taken little things (worth less than $2) that did not belong to you?

DEL
- [ ] No, never
- [ ] More than two months ago
- [ ] During the last two months
- [ ] During the last two months and more than two months ago

70. Have you ever taken things of some value (between $2 and $50) that
DEL did not belong to you?

[ ] No, never

[ ] More than two months ago

[ ] During the last two months

[ ] During the last two months and more than two months ago

71. Have you ever taken things of large value (worth over $50) that
DEL did not belong to you?

[ ] No, never

[ ] More than two months ago

[ ] During the last two months

[ ] During the last two months and more than two months ago

72. Have you ever taken a car for a ride without the owner's permission?
DEL

[ ] No, never

[ ] More than two months ago

[ ] During the last two months

[ ] During the last two months and more than two months ago

73. Have you ever banged up something that did not belong to you on purpose?
DEL

[ ] No, never

[ ] More than two months ago

[ ] During the last two months

[ ] During the last two months and more than two months ago

74. Not counting fights you may have had with a brother or sister, have
DEL you ever beaten up on anyone or hurt anyone on purpose?

[ ] No, never

[ ] More than two months ago

[ ] During the last two months

[ ] During the last two months and more than two months ago

THE NEXT QUESTIONS ARE SOMETIMES HARD TO ANSWER. DO THE BEST YOU CAN. THERE ARE
29 PAIRS OF STATEMENTS, LETTERED "A" AND "B". SELECT THE ONE STATEMENT OF EACH
PAIR WHICH YOU BELIEVE TO BE CLOSEST TO THE TRUTH. THIS IS A MEASURE OF PERSONAL
BELIEF; THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. MARK ONLY ONE STATEMENT IN EACH PAIR

I more strongly believe that:

75. [ ] A. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.

F [ ] B. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents
are too easy with them.

IE 76. ☐ A. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.

☐ B. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

IE 77. ☐ A. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.

☐ B. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

IE 78. ☐ A. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in the world.

☐ B. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often goes unnoticed no matter how hard he tries.

IE 79. ☐ A. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.

☐ B. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.

IE 80. ☐ A. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.

☐ B. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

IE 81. ☐ A. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.

☐ B. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.

SC 82. ☐ A. I mostly like to be alone.

☐ B. I mostly like to be with other people.

IE 83. ☐ A. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.

☐ B. Trusting to luck has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

IE 84. ☐ A. In the case of the well prepared student, there is rarely, if ever, such a thing as an unfair test.

☐ B. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work, that studying really is useless.

IE 85. ☐ A. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.

☐ B. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

86. ☐ A. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions

IE ☐ B. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.

87. ☐ A. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.

IE ☐ B. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad luck anyhow.

88. ☐ A. There are certain people who are just no good.

F ☐ B. There is some good in everybody.

89. ☐ A. In my case, getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.

IE

☐ B. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

90. ☐ A. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.

IE

☐ B. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.

91. ☐ A. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.

IE

☐ B. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.

92. ☐ A. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.

IE

☐ B. There really is no such thing as "luck".

93. ☐ A. One should always be willing to admit his mistakes.

IE ☐ B. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.

94. ☐ A. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.

IE ☐ B. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.

95. ☐ A. In the long run, the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.

IE

☐ B. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

96.   [ ] A. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.

IE   [ ] B. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.

97.   [ ] A. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.

IE   [ ] B. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.

98.   [ ] A. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.

F   [ ] B. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.

99.   [ ] A. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.

IE   [ ] B. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

100.   [ ] A. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.

IE   [ ] B. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people; if they like you, they like you.

101.   [ ] A. I am different from most other people my age.

VC   [ ] B. I am pretty much like most other people my age.

102.   [ ] A. What happens to me is my own doing.

IE   [ ] B. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

103.   [ ] A. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.

IE   [ ] B. In the long run, the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

PLEASE TAKE THIS TO YOUR INTAKE INTERVIEWER.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!

A P P E N D I X   II.

The Secondary Questionnaire
for the Evaluation of
Program X

I.D. Number ____ ____ ____

Follow Up Interview

1. How old are you now?

   _____ years

2. Where are you living at the present time? (living arrangements,
   i.e. at home, group home, institution, etc.)

   _____

   _____

3. How long have you been living there?

   _____

4. With whom are you living right now?

   _____

5. (a) Including the place that you are living now, how many
        different places have you lived in the last year?

        _____

   (b) Where were they? (at home, group home, institution, etc.)

        _____

        _____

6. Are you now working or going to school?

   Working   ☐ ———→(answer questions 7 through 11)

   School/Training ☐ ———→(answer questions 12 through 16)

   Both   ☐ ———→(answer questions 17 through 26)

   Neither   ☐ ———→(proceed to question 27)

If Working Only

7. Right now, are you working at a full-time or a part-time job?

Full Time ☐

Part Time ☐

8. Where are you now working?

_____

9. When did you start this job?

_____

10. What kind of work do you do on this job?

_____

11. Do you plan to continue with this employment?

Yes ☐

No ☐ ──────────→ if no,

What other plans do you have?

_____

_____

_____

_____

(After completing this section skip to question 31)

If Attending School Only

12. Are you going to school full-time or part-time?

    Full Time ☐

    Part Time ☐

13. What school are you going to?

_____

14. What kinds of courses are you taking at this school?

_____

_____

15. When did you start taking the courses that you're taking now?

_____

16. Do you plan to stay in school until you have finished the courses that you are enrolled in?

    Yes ☐

    No ☐ ⟶

        if no,

        What other plans do you have?

        _____

        _____

        _____

        _____

(After completing this section skip to question 31)

If Both Working and Attending School

17. Right now, are you working at a full-time or a part-time job?

    Full Time ☐

    Part Time ☐

18. Where are you now working?

    _____

19. When did you start this job?

    _____

20. What kind of work do you do on this job?

    _____

21. Do you plan to continue with this employment?

    Yes ☐

    No ☐ ⟶ if no,

              What other plans do you have?

              _____

              _____

              _____

              _____

22. Are you going to school full-time or part-time?

    Full Time ☐

    Part Time ☐

23. What school are you going to?

_____

24. What kinds of courses are you taking at this school?

_____

_____

25. When did you start taking the courses that you're taking now?

_____

26. Do you plan to stay in school until you have finished the courses that you are enrolled in?

    Yes ☐

    No ☐   →   if no,

                       What other plans do you have?

                       _____

                       _____

                       _____

                       _____

(After completing this section skip to question 31)

If Neither Working or Attending School

27. What kinds of things do you do with your time?
     (probe: What kinds of activities are you involved with?)

     _____

     _____

28. Are you interested in finding a job right now?

     Yes ☐

     No   ☐

29. Are you looking for work at this time?

     Yes ☐ ───────► if yes,

                        What kind of work are you looking for?

                        _____

                        _____

                        How long have you been looking for work?

                        _____

                        Have you had any help from individuals,
                        services or agencies in your job search?

     No   ☐   Individual _____

                        Service/Agency _____

                        _____

        if no,

        Is there any particular reason why you are not looking for a
        job at this time?

        _____

        _____

30. Right now are you interested in attending school or a training program of some sort?

Yes ☐ ⟶ if yes,

What kind of course or program are you interested in attending?

_____

What are your plans with respect to this?

_____

_____

No ☐

31. Within the past year, have you applied or tried to get into any kind of educational or training program?

Yes ☐ ⟶ if yes,

What program was it?

_____

Were you accepted into the program?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Did you attend the program?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Did you complete the program?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Have you had any help from individuals, services, or agencies in getting into into this program?

Individual _____

Agency/Service _____

No ☐

32. In the last year have you held any (other) paid jobs?

Yes □
No □

if yes,

Type of Job	Full Time	Part Time	Date Started	Date Completed
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				

33. Have you had any help from individuals, services or agencies in getting these jobs?

Individual _____

Service/Agency _____

34. Right now, if you had your choice, what kind of job would you like to have?

_____

_____

35. Do you think you will be able to get this job in the foreseeable future?

Yes □
No □

if no,
What kind of job do you think you will be able to get, if any?

_____

_____

36. What are your current sources of money/income?

    employment   ☐

    parent/family   ☐

    guardian   ☐

    child welfare agency ☐

    social assistance   ☐

    other   _____

37. How much money do you have to spend weekly?

_____

38. Do you have your own bank account?

    Yes ☐

    No   ☐

39. Do you have friends who are going to school full time?

    Yes ☐   ⟶   if yes,

    No   ☐   How many of these friends do you have?

                       _____

40. Do you have friends who are working full time?

    Yes ☐   ⟶   if yes,

    No   ☐   How many of these friends do you have?

                       _____

41. Have you, within the past year, been involved in any
criminal or delinquent activities?

Yes ☐ ⟶ if yes,

No ☐

On how many different occasions would
you say you were involved in this
type of activity?

_____

Within the past year, were you ever
arrested as a result of this type
of activity?

Yes ☐

No ☐

if yes,
Were charges laid?

Yes ☐

No ☐

What sentence was
passed, if any?

_____

_____

42. Are you currently involved with any services, or programs of
a correctional nature such as probation, parole, attendance
remand centre, etc.?

Yes ☐ ⟶ if yes,

No ☐

What service or program is involved?

_____

When did this involvement begin and
when is it due to end?

Begin _____

End _____

Questions to Prior Students Only

1. Thinking back, did you enjoy your time spent in the   ' program?

    Yes ☐

    No ☐

2. What were some of the things you liked about   `?

    _____

    _____

    _____

3. What were some of the things you did not like about   ?

    _____

    _____

    _____

4. In your opinion, what was the hardest part of the program?

    _____

    _____

5. Is there anything about the program you would like to see changed?

    Yes ☐ ────────→ if yes,

    No ☐   Can you tell me what these changes are?

                     _____

                     _____

                     _____

For Students Who Dropped Out Only

   1.   At what point in the program did you decide to drop out?

       _____

   2.   What caused you to leave the program when you did?

       _____

       _____

       _____

For Students Who Completed the Program Only

   1.   At any point during the program, did you ever drop out only to return?

       Yes   ☐ ⟶

       No   ☐

> if yes,
>
> When did you drop out?
>
> _____
>
> When did you return?
>
> _____
>
> What caused you to leave in the first place?
>
> _____
>
> _____
>
> _____

A P P E N D I X   III

Referral Form For
Program X

PROGRAM X REFERRAL FORM

*In order for application to be reviewed, referral must be completed in full.

NAME:_____

AGE:_____ DATE OF BIRTH:_____

SOCIAL INSURANCE NUMBER:_____—Postal

PRESENT ADDRESS:_____ Code_____ PHONE:_____

How long:_____KEY PERSON IN RESIDENCE:_____

PROBLEMS IN PLACEMENT, IF ANY_____

_____

AGENCY INFORMATION:

REFERRING WORKER:_____ AGENCY:_____

ADDRESS:_____ PHONE:_____ Postal Code_____

LEGAL GUARDIAN'S NAME:_____

ADDRESS:_____ PHONE:_____

LEGAL STATUS: (check one)_____ P.W._____ T.W._____ T.C.P._____Other

_____

MEDICAL HISTORY: M.H.S.C. #_____ S.A.H.S. #_____

DOCTOR:_____ PHONE:_____

ANY RECURRING MEDICAL PROBLEMS:_____

DATE OF LAST EXAMINATION:_____ List any current
                                            —Medication:_____

EFFECTS OF MEDS.:_____ Contraindications_____

HAS THERE BEEN ANY PSYCHOLOGICAL OR EMOTIONAL DISTURBANCE HISTORY?_____

WHAT KIND?_____

IS THERE A REPORT AVAILABLE?_____

IS MEDICATION BEING USED?_____ HOW LONG?_____

EFFECTS:_____

WHAT IS THE PLAN FOR DEALING WITH THIS DISTURBANCE?_____

_____

FAMILY HISTORY:

NATURAL PARENTS:_____

ADDRESS:_____ PHONE:_____

OCCUPATION:_____

SIGNIFICANT FOSTER and/or ADOPTIVE PARENTS:

NAME:_____ PHONE:_____

ADDRESS:_____ IS CONTACT MAINTAINED?_____

HOW OFTEN?_____WHY WAS PARTICIPANT REMOVED FROM HOME?_____

SIBLING'S NAME	AGE	OCCUPATION

OTHER SIGNIFICANT FAMILY MEMBERS:_____

OTHER SIGNIFICANT FAMILY INFORMATION:_____

03/83

OTHER AGENCIES INVOLVED: YES_____ NO_____

NAME:_____ ADDRESS:_____

PHONE:_____ AMOUNT OF CONTACT:_____

PREVIOUS PLACEMENTS:

DATE	TYPE OF PLACEMENT	REASON FOR TERMINATION

SCHOOL HISTORY: Number of Schools Attended:_____ Last Grade Level_____

Actual Skill Level:_____ Reason for leaving school_____

HAS TESTING BEEN DONE FOR LEARNING DISABILITIES?_____ RESULTS:_____

ARE ACADEMIC RECORDS AVAILABLE?_____

SOCIAL HISTORY: What problems does participant have in relation to:

FAMILY:_____

COMMUNITY:_____

SELF:_____

WHAT IS THE PLAN TO DEAL WITH THESE PROBLEMS?_____

DOES THIS PERSON HAVE FRIENDS OF: _____same sex _____opposite sex?

LEGAL HISTORY: IS THIS PERSON'S INVOLVEMENT WITH THE LAW:____EXTENSIVE ____LIMITED ____NONE

ARE THERE ANY CHARGES PENDING?_____

PAST DELINQUENCIES?_____

IS THIS PERSON ON PROBATION?_____ IF YES, UNTIL WHEN?_____

WORK HISTORY:

WHERE HAS THE PARTICIPANT WORKED:_____

DATES:_____ JOB TITLE_____

RESULTS:_____

VOCATIONAL GOALS, IF ANY_____

IS THIS PERSON AWARE OF THIS REFERRAL AND THE REASONS WHY?_____

REASON FOR REFERRAL:

PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER OF THE LEVEL WHICH YOU FEEL BEST DESCRIBES THE PARTICIPANT, COMPARE TO THE GENERAL WORK FORCE

I. APPEARANCE

a) Body
1) grossly offensive
2) noticeably offensive
3) minimally acceptable
4) some care taken
5) noticeable care taken
6) exceptional care taken

b) Clothing
1) grossly unkept
2) unkept
3) minimally acceptable
4) noticeable care taken
5) exceptional care taken

II. COMMUNICATION SKILLS:

a) Relates well to others
1) totally withdrawn, grossly inappropriate and/or antisocial
2) somewhat withdrawn, and/or mildly anti-social
3) relates minimally where appropriate
4) outgoing and appropriate
5) excellent interpersonal skills

b) Accepts Criticism
1) hostile or withdrawn
2) some negative reaction or does nothing about criticism
3) accepts criticism somewhat reluctantly
4) accepts criticism contructively
5) appropriately seeks out criticism and acts constructively

III. MENTAL HEALTH

a) Stable Personal Life
1) very disruptive
2) somewhat distruptive
3) neutral
4) somewhat positive
5) extremely positive

IV. DISCIPLINE (i.e. school, programs, appointments, etc.)

a) Punctuality
1) seldom if ever, on time
2) frequently late
3) usually on time
4) always punctual

b) Attendance
1) frequently absent
2) regularly absent
3) normative attendance
4) perfect attendance

VI. ENVIRONMENTAL AFFECT VARIABLES

a) RESIDENCE
1) unhealthy/destructive
2) somewhat unhealthy
3) average
4) healthy
5) outstanding/supportive

b) Present Delinquencies
1) extensive/major
2) limited
3) none

c) SOCIAL NETWORK
1) unhealthy/destructive
2) somewhat unhealthy
3) average
4) healthy
5) positive and encourage growth

d) TRANSPORTATION SKILLS
1) mobility disabled
2) mobile

EVA cont'd

e) Physical Health
   1) severe-problem
   2) problem area
   3) average
   4) good physical condition

VII   JOB RELATED SKILLS

a) Specific Job Skills and/or training
   1) less than normal abilities to learn
   2) no job skills but can learn
   3) limited skills or not useful skills
   4) extensive/useful skills

b) Education
   1) less than grade 3 ⎫
   2) less than grade 9 ⎪
   3) less than grade 10 ⎬ or equivalent
   4) less than grade 12 ⎪
   5) more than grade 12 ⎭

d) Job Choice/Personality
   1) totally inappropriate (fantasy)
   2) appropriate (tentative- with some info)
   3) perfect match (realistic)

e) Work History
   1) none
   2) short term/sporadic
   3) limited
   4) good
   5) extensive

VIII   SELF CONCEPT

a) Alcohol/Drugs (abuse)
   1) extensive
   2) limited
   3) not a problem

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