EVALUATION OF SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

COMMONWEALTH SECRETARIAT

Evaluation of Social Development Programmes

A HANDBOOK FOR EVALUATION
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE
TO YOUTH WORK

COMMONWEALTH SECRETARIAT

COMMONWEALTH YOUTH PROGRAMME

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In many parts of the world social development programmes are being established, an increasing number of them in the field which has come to be known broadly as "Youth Work". While many reports are being prepared on these programmes there is a dearth of effective evaluation. The importance of evaluation is generally accepted and the need has been expressed for a handbook which would act as a guide to evaluation for those involved in the administration and implementation of this type of programme.

In response to this need the Commonwealth Secretariat offers this publication, which was prepared by a consultant, Mr. Elery Hamilton-Smith, Director of Community Planning Services, Victoria, Australia.

CONTENTS

SECTION A – THE STRATEGY AND METHODOLOGY OF EVALUATION

The author wishes to express his gratitude to the many professional colleagues throughout the world whose wisdom has contributed to this volume. These are far too numerous to name but include those who have carried out evaluative studies or written on evaluation; those who gave the author the benefit of their comments upon the draft outline of this book or who discussed aspects of it with him, and those who assisted in the provision of the abstracts in Section B.

E Hamilton-Smith
June, 1974.

SECTION A

THE STRATEGY AND METHODOLOGY OF EVALUATION

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE SCOPE AND NATURE OF THIS BOOK

There is a growing demand throughout the world for assessment and evaluation of social development programmes. Administrators and planners find themselves under pressure from a variety of sources to establish the effectiveness or otherwise of their rapidly increasing expenditure on social development. There is considerable evidence, and certainly a wide-spread assumption, that the more traditional styles of programme are failing to achieve the objectives for which they were designed or to meet the needs of the population to whom they are directed.

These pressures are probably particularly true in respect to programmes concerned with young people. On the one hand many countries of the world find the numerical majority of their people are under twenty-one years of age. Secondly they recognise, appropriately, that the future of a nation lies in the hands of those who are young people at the present time.

It is therefore not surprising that the need for evaluation has been more strongly expressed by the new countries who are most aware of the important role to be played by young people. However, one might also suggest that their particular concern with evaluation originates in part with their dissatisfaction with existing programme models.

Although superficially it might be suggested that one of the major problems facing new nations is the extent to which programme models adapted from the more developed countries are inappropriate to their needs, the real situation is more complex than this. Many of the programmes in developed nations have been perpetuated without any critical examination to ascertain the extent to which they achieve their goals and, in fact, many of them may be ineffectual in their country of origin. The extent to which paternalism by the adult generation towards the youth generation plays a major part in planning is probably a major factor in the uncritical attitude towards youth programming. However, during the last five years administrators in even the longest developed countries have been taking a much more critical stance towards social development and so we now see an increasing demand for more adequate evaluation in virtually all countries.

This book has been written to provide some preliminary guidelines for planners and administrators of services to young people. Obviously a great deal of what it says will be true of evaluation of any social development programme and not merely those concerned with youth, but the author has attempted to focus upon special issues relating to youth wherever these arise. The focus is also upon "out-of-school" services and programmes rather than upon formal education because there are many special issues and an extensive literature on the assessment of schooling. At the same time, there is a considerable movement towards the restructuring of education, and so many of the comments here may prove relevant to those concerned with educational evaluation, even though this is not the primary focus of the book.

It is not possible within a work of this length to provide a text book for the professional worker actually engaged in implementing an evaluation programme. References will be given elsewhere to some of the more detailed texts on methodology but the aim of the present volume is to provide guidelines to the establishment of evaluation programmes and to their place in the overall planning process.

The arrangement of the volume is that in *Section A* an outline is given to issues in the establishment and administration of evaluation, while in *Section B* some brief abstracts of examples of evaluation reports in various Commonwealth countries are given. No attempt has been made to develop a comprehensive list of evaluation projects but a number selected in order to demonstrate the diversity of approaches which may be taken and the wide variety of cultural settings in which evaluation has been undertaken.

1.2 PROBLEMS OF DEFINITION

In writing for an international audience it would obviously be unwise to establish rigid definitions of such terms as youth, youth work, youth programmes, or even education. Obviously each of these will be defined (or will fail to be defined) by each country according to its own conditions and situation. Some of these terms will be subject to continuing controversy about definition, much of which is often relatively fruitless.

When one is entering upon critical evaluation, however, it is important to define terms and the way in which they are used. It is also important to be consistent in the way in which one uses each term. As a very simple example, one sees literature on youth services adopting a definition of youth which implies limitation of the term to those between approximately 14 – 21 years. These studies then often take into consideration, without making explicit the extent to which they have departed from the stated definition, the services provided for young people in the 10 – 14 years age category.

Part of the reason why societies find it difficult to achieve a clear and satisfactory definition of youth is the constant social change surrounding the concept of "youth". In a simple primitive society there is no stage of social development corresponding precisely with that period known as adolescence or teenage in the so-called "developed" countries. This period of life is compressed by primitive societies into a brief ceremony of initiation during which the individual passes from childhood to adulthood. As societies have become more complex, developing a wide variety of social roles together with the need for specialised and prolonged education, so the period of initiation has grown into a lengthy stage of life which we generally call youth. Consequently just as the growth and change of society is a dynamic thing so must any adequate long-run definition of youth be a dynamic one.

Herein lies the difficulty of trying to reach a widespread common agreement on a definition of such a term and the fruitlessness of many efforts to do so. At the same time this does not excuse the person concerned with research, evaluation or planning, from being other than absolutely clear about the definitions he adopts for his immediate purpose and then being consistent in their application. Such definitions may, of course, have tight rigid boundaries, or they may be framed with some flexibility and tolerance in their boundaries. Programmes which have to be provided for through formal legislation will often lay down quite specific and rigid boundaries (e.g., "from the date of his or her 14th birthday to the date of his or her 21st birthday"). However, individuals develop at vastly different rates, and a boundary based rigidly on chronological age in this way will obviously be an artificial one insofar as the needs of individual people are concerned.

Various social characteristics will often provide more useful boundaries, not only for purposes of definition, but more importantly for purposes of programme planning. These characteristics might include boundaries like:—

Completion of primary education
Entry to secondary education
Entry to full-time employment
"Drop-out" from full-time education
Marriage
Departure from the parental home, etc.

As an extreme example of flexibility in definition, we note the recent suggestion of an American psychiatrist for the redefinition of adolescence:—

> "..... a person whose behaviour indicates that he has come to grips with a conflict between his need to remain dependent on the one hand and his intense desire to become independent on the other".[1]

A comparable situation exists with regard to formal education. The educational system has become highly institutionalized in most countries and as a result has often established limited and rigid inter-relationships with other aspects of living. However this pattern of organization has been seriously questioned by many critics and there is a rapidly growing volume of literature suggesting that the traditional approach to schooling is inadequate.

Thus, although one could traditionally define education clearly and in terms of schooling, it is now recognised that education is a pervasive and life-long process taking place in a variety of contexts throughout each individual's life. Formal schooling systems have therefore attempted to relate themselves more adequately to family life, community life and work life. The pattern of this change differs widely from one society to another and to attempt in a work of this kind, any definition of educational programmes as opposed to other kinds of programme would clearly be improper. Each country must examine and determine this question for itself.

The most important point to make in respect to definition is that administrators, planners and evaluators must strive for clear definition of their terminology and for a maximum clarity of communication with each other. Evaluation will often in itself reveal the extent to which lack of clarity in communication has damaged the effectiveness of programmes. However, the evaluator who is careless about his own definition of terms and his own clarity of communication may further confuse the situation. There is a particular responsibility upon those engaged in planning and evaluation to ensure that this does not happen.

1.3 THE CONDITIONS FOR EVALUATION

It is of fundamental importance to recognise that evaluation must essentially be concerned with possible change in an existing programme. One of the obvious preconditions for evaluation to occur is a state of uncertainty about a particular programme and a felt need to reduce the uncertainty.

Useful evaluations are most likely to occur when: (1) There is agreement amongst those concerned that evaluation of the programme is desirable; (2) There is a clear understanding of the purpose of the evaluation to be carried out; and (3) There is agreement regarding the uses and possible consequences of the evaluation.

The consequences which arise may include significant change in the programme, and hence in its pattern of staffing; no change in the programme but increased confidence in those involved; or complete abandoning of the programme in favour of an alternative. Thus it is easy to see that evaluation poses a potential threat to those persons committed to a programme and equally easy to see why genuine evaluation has all too rarely been undertaken. We will comment further in the next Chapter on the organizational process which must underpin any approach to programme evaluation.

Evaluation is least likely to be useful when administrators attempt to use it as a tool in the control of staff or as a device to collect only that information which will either support or destroy a specific programme. It is probably better not to evaluate a programme than to evaluate it for the wrong reasons.

Even given appropriate reasons and conditions for evaluation it is all too easy to be uncritical in one's approach. Professor Alan Klein has commented:

> "..... that many workers find all kinds of reasons and rationalizations for avoiding a thorough, honest examination and tabulation of their scores of effectiveness and failures. To be sure the tabulation of 'reaching-hits and reaching-failures' of human needs and goals is a more complex matter than for instance that of playing pool, where every player knows exactly that if the 8 ball rolls into the side pocket when he is trying to put the 12 ball into that pocket and the 12 ball does not get there, the 8 ball does not count.
>
> Yet despite the difference in complexity, this example still implies a challenge to the group work profession's own program-testing faculties and skills. Too often when accounting in a monthly or annual program report, group work practitioners have been remiss in this sense: We take aim at ball 12. Instead of ball 12 we touch ball 8 and then we proceed to write the report on 8 without ever coming to grips with why we missed the ball 12, the very aim we had been trying to reach. It seems to me, it is of utmost importance that we learn to call our shots, that we further learn to follow not only their direction but learn also to give the reason for their deflection from the intended goal, as applied to each program we use".[2]

It is now useful to end this Introduction with an overview of the possible objectives for evaluation together with an example of the kinds of question which might be asked in a specific programme.

OBJECTIVES OF EVALUATION

(1) To examine the goals of a programme and assess their appropriateness within the context where the programme operates.

(2) To measure the extent to which the programme is successful in achieving these goals.

(3) To measure the extent to which expenditure of resources upon the programme is justified by its results.

(4) To test possible alternative methods of achieving the programme's goals.

(5) To develop a system of providing a continuing check upon the effectiveness of a programme in order to facilitate its review and change as part of the continuing process of programme operation.

Let us now assume as an example, that we are looking at the evaluation of a vocational training institute established to provide marketable employment skills to young men who have dropped out of the formal educational system. Some of the questions which might be asked in respect to this programme are listed below divided into groups according to the five goals above.

(1) *Goals*

Are there sufficient young men without marketable skills to justify the programme?

Are the skills being taught likely to be in sufficient demand within the economy during the next ten years?

(2) *Achievement of Goals*

Do the skills being taught motivate the young men concerned to participate in the programme?

Does the teaching staff have sufficient capacity to teach the skills to a marketable level?

Are there sufficient resources (staff, equipment, teaching aids, accommodation, finance) to provide this programme to the number of young men who need it?

Is the programme being utilized by that section of the population for whom it was designed?

Is the programme reaching a sufficient proportion of the population for whom it was designed?

Are the skills being taught at the right level to ensure participants of an adequate opportunity in the labour market?

(3) *Resource Expenditure*

What is the real cost of the programme per participant?

How many of the participants, once trained, are actually entering the work for which they have been trained and how long do each of them remain in gainful employment in this field?

What are the gains to the economy in respect to each participant entering and remaining in employment?

Does the programme have beneficial side effects either upon the individuals concerned or upon society? If so, can the benefit of this be measured?

(4) *Alternatives*

In the light of answers to the above questions, can more effective or less costly methods be devised to achieve the same goals?

(5) *Continuing Programme*

Are the records being kept by the programme adequate to enable regular checking of its effectiveness?

If not, what further records should be kept, by whom should they be kept, and in what way can they best be analysed to provide continuing information.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. Bauer, Francis C., Fact and Folklore About Adolescents, *Bulletin National Association Secondary School Principals,* 49: 172–182 (March, 1965).
2. Klein, Alan, *Reaching Teenagers Through Effective Programming* (New York City Youth Board, 1956).

CHAPTER 2

EVALUATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

2.1 EVALUATION AND PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT

Organizations, whatever their character and purposes, consist of people. As a first step in looking at the way in which evaluation must be related to organizational structures, it is firstly important to consider the purely personal element. People working within an organization become identified with the goals of the organization, with its clientele, or with specific aspects of its programme. Those concerned with evaluation must recognise this personal and emotional investment as a potent force in organizational dynamics.

At the same time, people concerned with evaluation have their own personal investment in their evaluational activities. The evaluator doubtless has some commitment to objectivity, to a critical and searching analysis of a programme and, very likely, a commitment to a particular kind of theoretical or conceptual background.

Wildavsky has produced an extremely valuable discussion of some of the organizational aspects of evaluation and we will be referring to this paper at several points in the current chapter. [1] At this point it is useful to look at some of his comments on personal factors in the evaluation process:—

> "The ideal organization would be self-evaluating. It would continuously monitor its own activities so as to determine whether it was meeting its goals or even whether these goals should continue to prevail. When analysis suggested that a change in goals or programs to achieve them was desirable, these proposals would be taken seriously by top decision-makers. They would institute the necessary changes; they would have no vested interest in continuation of current activities. Instead they would steadily pursue new alternatives to better serve the latest desired outcomes.
>
> The ideal member of the self-evaluating organization is best conceived as a person committed to certain models of problem solving. He believes in clarifying goals, relating them to different mechanisms of achievement, creating models (sometimes quantitative) of the relationships between inputs and outputs, seeking the best available combination. His concern is not that the organization should survive or that any specific objective be enthroned or that any particular clientele be served.

Evaluative man cares that interesting problems are selected and that maximum intelligence be applied toward their solution. While he often does have strong social preferences, his central commitment is to solving problems in the right way ....."

"Evaluation should not only lead to the discovery of better policy programs to accomplish existing objectives but to alteration of the objectives themselves. Analysis of the effectiveness of existing policies leads to consideration of alternatives that juxtapose means and ends embodied in alternative policies. The objectives as well as the means for attaining them may be deemed inappropriate. But men who have become socialized to accept certain objectives may be reluctant to change. Resistance to innovation then takes the form of preserving social objectives. The difficulties are magnified once we realize that objectives may be attached to the clientele – the poor, outdoormen, lumbermen – with whom organizational members identify. The objectives of the organization may have attracted them precisely because they see it as a means of service to people they value. They may view changes in objectives, therefore, as proposals for 'selling out' the clients they wish to serve. In their eyes evaluation becomes an enemy of the people ..... "

"The result of having evaluative studies that are carried on during the life cycle of a program is that evaluators and program personnel must live (uneasily, as we shall see) side by side. The result of periodic evaluation after the program has been established is that one group of men are making statements about the worth of activities to which another group of men are devoting their lives ..... "

"The assumption that objectives are known, clear, and consistent is at variance with all experience. Evaluation cannot ordinarily proceed, then, by determining the degree to which the unknown objectives of a particular program are being achieved at whatever cost. The first element of evaluation, therefore, which often proceeds simultaneously with program operations, must be a search for objectives against which to evaluate the program. Program personnel cannot be expected to take kindly to the suggestion that they do not know what they are doing (because if they did know they would presumably be able to specify precisely their current objectives) ..... "

It is easy to see that personal factors may act as a barrier to effective evaluation. There may be resistance to the very institution of critical evaluation within a programme; alternatively people may accept the institution of evaluation as a process but reject its findings and the implementation of change which might be suggested by this. People are naturally unwilling to accept any evaluation which demonstrates or suggests failure on their part.

It is also easy to see that personal factors on the part of either the evaluator or the evaluated may distort the process of evaluation and present false results. An evaluation which is not adequately reality-based may well be worse than no evaluation in that it can be used as a tool to perpetuate ineffective programmes or to destroy sound ones.

Having emphasized the inherent difficulties and dangers facing any programme seeking to establish evaluative processes it is now important to turn to practical questions about organizational arrangements.

2.2 EXTERNAL OR INTERNAL EVALUATION?

One solution to this problem has been to place evaluation in the hands of persons, or of an organization, which is completely external to the programme being evaluated. University Departments, individual researchers or consultants, or technical experts made available under international auspices, may be asked to carry out full evaluation of a programme. There are doubtless situations where this is a valuable strategy but many examples demonstrate that there are inherent difficulties in such an approach. The advantages and disadvantages of external evaluation can usefully be summed up as follows:

ADVANTAGES

1. A specialised organization or an individual expert can bring to bear upon the problem of evaluation, resources and knowledge which are not available to the agency whose programme is being evaluated.
2. An external evaluator can introduce a level of objectivity unlikely to be possessed by personnel engaged in the programme being evaluated.
3. The external evaluator will be much better able to bring to bear upon his evaluation a comparative experience of similar programmes in other organizations or other countries.

DISADVANTAGES

1. Those working within the programme and closely involved with it will find it easy to resist change to their programme – they will be able to claim, often accurately, that the external evaluator did not fully understand all factors involved. Even though this is sometimes a rationalization, it is nevertheless an effective one.
2. The reality is that the external evaluator will rarely be able to fully grasp all factors involved in the programme and may very easily overlook important elements.
3. The external evaluator will possess his own personal commitments to various viewpoints leading him to make certain basic assumptions and judgements upon which he then bases his evaluation. This will rarely be made adequately explicit and the evaluation will therefore often be considered in isolation from its basic assumption.

On the other hand, an organization may endeavour to structure itself so as to provide for continuing internal evaluation without reference to external assistance. This is implied in the first paragraphs quoted above from Wildavsky.

Unfortunately the processes of organizations and of bureaucratization work against the realization of the genuinely self-evaluated organization. To quote again from Wildavsky:

> "Evaluation and organization may be contradictory terms. Organizational structure implies stability while the process of evaluation suggests change. Organization generates commitment while evaluation inculcates skepticism. Evaluation speaks to the relationship between action and objectives while organization relates its activities to program and clientele. No one can say for certain that self-evaluating organizations can exist, let alone become the prevailing form of administration".

Thus internal evaluation tends to fall victim to the inevitable institutionalization of programme which occurs within an organization. Even where a separate section within an organization is specifically established at a high level of power to provide evaluative input to the administration of that body, the evaluation unit inevitably becomes part of and identified with overall goals and programmes of the organization.

On the other hand, there are obvious strengths in internal processes of evaluation. It is often much easier to gain acceptance of the results of such evaluation and to ensure implementation of appropriate action based upon these results. Furthermore, the evaluators are much more likely to have a full knowledge of the nature of the programme and the various factors which influence its direction and character. It would virtually be true to say that the advantages and disadvantages of external evaluation are a mirror image of the corresponding disadvantages and advantages of internal evaluation.

Within this framework it is now possible to look further at potential strategies for combining the strengths of these two approaches into an appropriate organizational process for evaluation. In this chapter we will look at what might be called the preconditions for evaluation and elaborate upon procedures in later chapters.

2.3 MORE ABOUT PRECONDITIONS FOR EVALUATION

We have already made some comments in the introductory chapter on the importance of establishing some common agreement about the carrying out of evaluation, its purposes, its uses and possible consequences. This chapter has served to elaborate the organizational problems involved and it is now possible to look a little further at the establishment of an appropriate organizational environment.

Although idealised, the philosophy and concept under-lying Wildavsky's picture of a self-evaluative organization (see above) are important. Political decision-makers and permanent administrators should do their best to ensure

that these concepts are firmly integrated into the philosophy underlying their policies and programmes. From this we can set down a first precondition:

PRECONDITION 1

Those responsible for the policy and administration of programmes must be fully convinced of the need for evaluation; must agree on the purpose of evaluation; must agree upon the uses and possible consequences of evaluation; and they must be fully involved in making the decision that evaluation will be a part of their programme.

However, as we have noted already, it is extremely doubtful whether the purely and genuinely 'self-evaluating organization' does or can exist. Evaluation also demands an element of objectivity which can best be provided from outside of the organization. It may also require resources and knowledge which are not readily available within the organization seeking evaluation. It may therefore be essential to involve external personnel in the evaluative process and so we suggest:

PRECONDITION 2

Organizational arrangements must be made to ensure objectivity together with appropriate resources and knowledge; this will normally mean the involvement of external persons in the evaluation process.

Merely on these two strategic statements it would be easy, once having decided upon evaluation, to hand the entire responsibility over to the external evaluator. Again, we have already outlined above that there are some clear disadvantages in doing this. The external evaluator may find it difficult to fully understand the complex factors underlying programme development, will doubtless have his own deficiencies in objectivity, and by producing a completely external view of the organization, is all too likely to find his evaluation rejected.

Close team work between the evaluator and the evaluated is called for. This means joint planning of the actual evaluation process, during which not only would the overall design be determined, but the responsibility for the various aspects of data collection and analysis would be defined. Those being evaluated should continue to participate fully in the evaluative process throughout its execution. Hence:

PRECONDITION 3

Where external personnel are involved in the evaluative process, all steps of evaluation including design, data collection and data analysis, should be shared between external and internal personnel so that any artificial distinction between evaluator and evaluated is diminished.

There is a particular difficulty inherent in evaluation of youth programmes. Young people are generally seen in terms of the old adage that 'children

should be seen and not heard'. The result is that many programmes for youth are paternalistic and the viewpoint of the service consumer, that is the young person himself or herself, is rarely considered. If evaluation is to be adequate then it must take into account the perspective of the service consumer and balance this against other viewpoints. We will discuss this in more detail in a later section of this handbook but for the time being:

PRECONDITION 4

In evaluating any service programme, the recipients of the service should be involved in the evaluative process as far as possible.

The extent of involvement is difficult to define in any general principles and will vary from one programme to another and from one culture to another. The question should be considered however of the extent to which the young people in receipt of a service might not only be asked for information but might actually share in the design of evaluation and in the development of recommendations for later action.

Finally, it is important to look briefly at the question of objectivity. It is generally agreed that the social scientist can never achieve perfect objectivity.[2]

Human perception is always conditioned by the beliefs, cultural values and opinions which are held. The external evaluator is just as prone to distortions in perception as the individual working within the programme being evaluated. His distortions will doubtless be different ones, many of them relating to his personal viewpoint and his academic experience.

One important safeguard against hidden assumptions underlying evaluation and distorting its results lies in teamwork between the evaluator and the evaluated. In the course of reaching joint agreement on the design and operation of evaluation, each party should become aware of the assumptions and 'hidden agendas' of the other. Naturally this will only occur if an atmosphere of frankness prevails in planning. In some situations it may be assisted by ensuring that all parties to the evaluation endeavour to write down their basic assumptions and philosophy so making these explicit and visible to all concerned. We come, therefore, to a last proposal:

PRECONDITION 5

Those who are involved in an evaluation process should share with each other their basic assumptions and values underlying their thinking so that the influence of these upon perceptions of data and upon action recommendations, arising out of the data, will be known.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. Wildavsky, Aaron, *Evaluation as an Organizational Problem,* (Centre for Environmental Studies, London: University Working Paper No. 13, 1972.)
2. Myrdal, Gunnar, *Objectivity in Social Research* (London: Duckworth, 1970).

CHAPTER 3

EVALUATION AND THE PLANNING PROCESS

3.1 CHANGING CONCEPTS OF THE PLANNING PROCESS

Organizations almost inevitably engage in planning of their activities. This process of planning may consist only of making a series of ad hoc decisions bearing little relationship to each other or to any explicit overall goals. At this extreme position, probably most people would consider that there is, in fact, a complete absence of planning and this kind of decision-making process might therefore be seen as non-planning.

To many people planning essentially involves some overall framework within which decisions are made in such a way that they have a rational relationship to each other and to the overall frame of the organization. A number of ideas about the nature of the planning process have developed and, before proceeding further, we need to briefly outline the changing nature of these concepts. Perhaps the simplest and most traditional view of planning is what might be called the straight-line process. This essentially consists of a series of sequential steps. Two simple examples of ways in which this process might be conceptualized are given in *Figure 1.*

Even a quick inspection of *Figure 1* compared with realistic experience indicates that planning is very rarely quite as simple as this. There is constant feedback from one step to another in the planning process, with adjustments taking place to each step in the process and with the various steps of the process proceeding concurrently rather than sequentially. A graphic illustration of this is shown in *Figure 2* indicating something of the complexity of what really happens in most well considered planning. *Figure 3* gives a hypothetical illustration of the way in which evaluation might be conceived within such a framework. An actual example taken from the Town Planning Report for the new city of Milton Keynes (U.K.) is given in *Figure 4.* It will be seen that in this example a variety of techniques for monitoring and evaluation are separately defined and built-in to the process.

Even this kind of formulation is seen by some planners as being unduly static. They emphasize that different things are desirable to different people; that planning must therefore accept that there is not common agreement upon individual and social goals; and that therefore planning must try to specify a diversity of goals held at the same time by different groups and individuals. This concept sees planning as a dynamic process which must evolve and adapt and within which constant modification takes place at every step of the process. *Figure 5* is one example of the way in which this concept can be perceived. It emphasizes even more than the feedback models shown in *Figures 2 and 4,* the extremely complex inter-relationship between various aspects of planning. Because of this complexity it may be a more difficult notion to understand and implement in practice. Furthermore, it becomes much more difficult to see evaluation as a definable function within this process. It postulates, in fact, the kind of planning process which might occur in Wildavsky's self-evaluating organization. As we have already discussed above (Chapter 2) this kind of organization probably does not exist in practice.

It is likely that most administrators will therefore find it much more useful to think in terms of the feedback models for planning which can be much more readily related to organizational structure and function. Within this very brief framework we have distinguished three different types of formulation – the "straight-line" process, the "feed back" process, and the "inter-active" process. It is now possible to look in a little more detail at the part which evaluation might play in each of these formulations.

3.2 EVALUATION IN AD HOC OR STRAIGHT-LINE PLANNING

Many organizations are in the position where planning has been on an ad hoc basis (non-planning) or where the general concept of planning has been according to the straight-line model. However, they are now faced with awareness of the need for evaluation or, alternatively, external pressures for evaluation as part of increasing accountability.

In this situation, it is, in fact, desirable that an overall evaluation of the agency programme as it stands should be carried out before endeavouring to move to a new kind of planning process. Even at the very simplest an organization in this position should undertake what might be called a descriptive stocktaking of its situation prior to any shift towards new arrangements for planning or development.

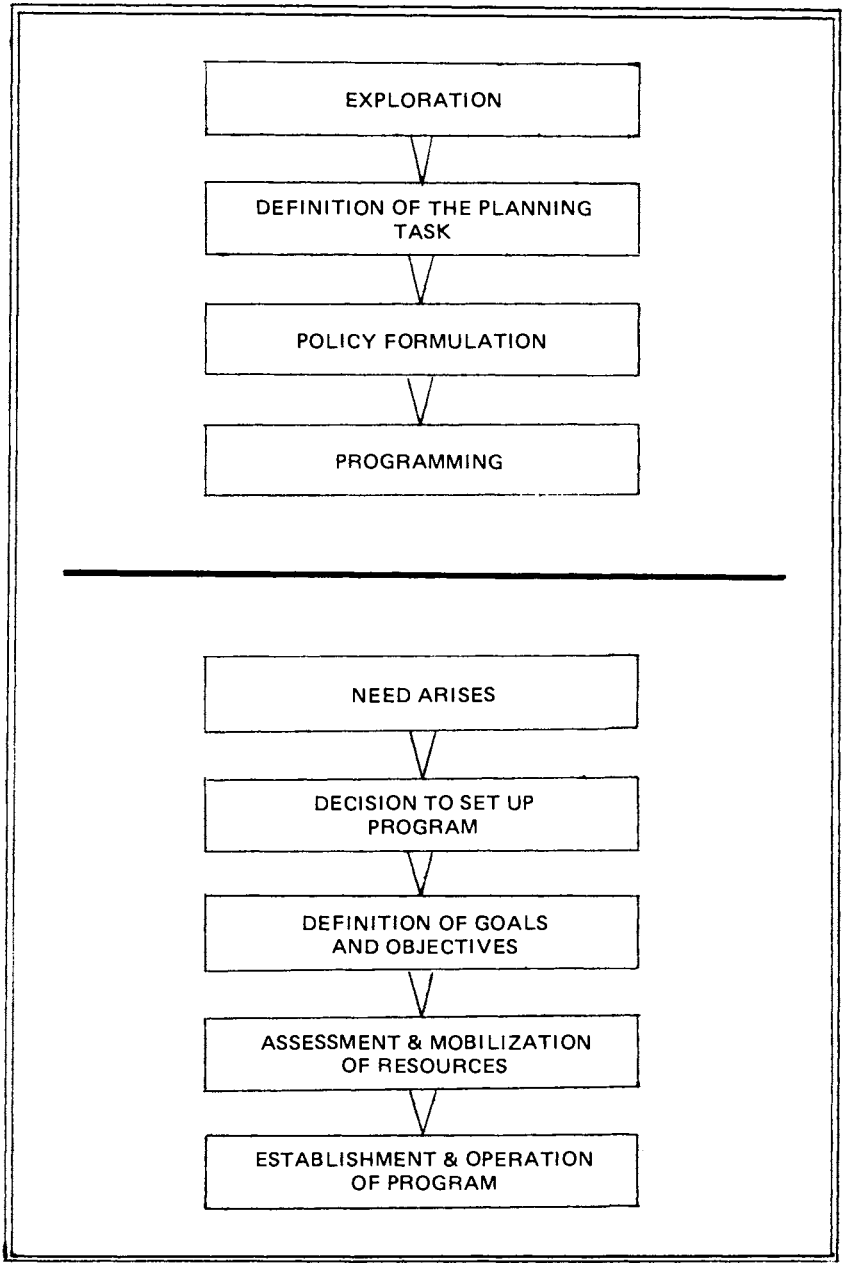

Fig. 1. Examples of straight-line formulations of the planning process.

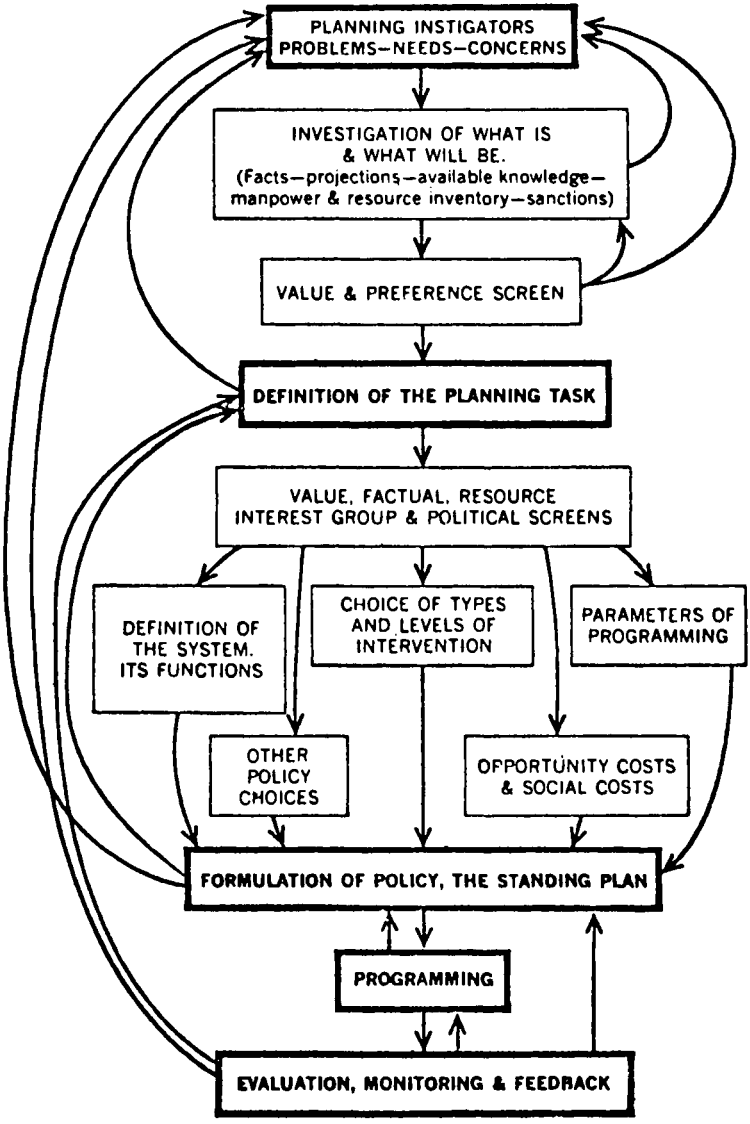

Fig. 2. The feedback conception of the planning process. (From Kahn[1], 1969).

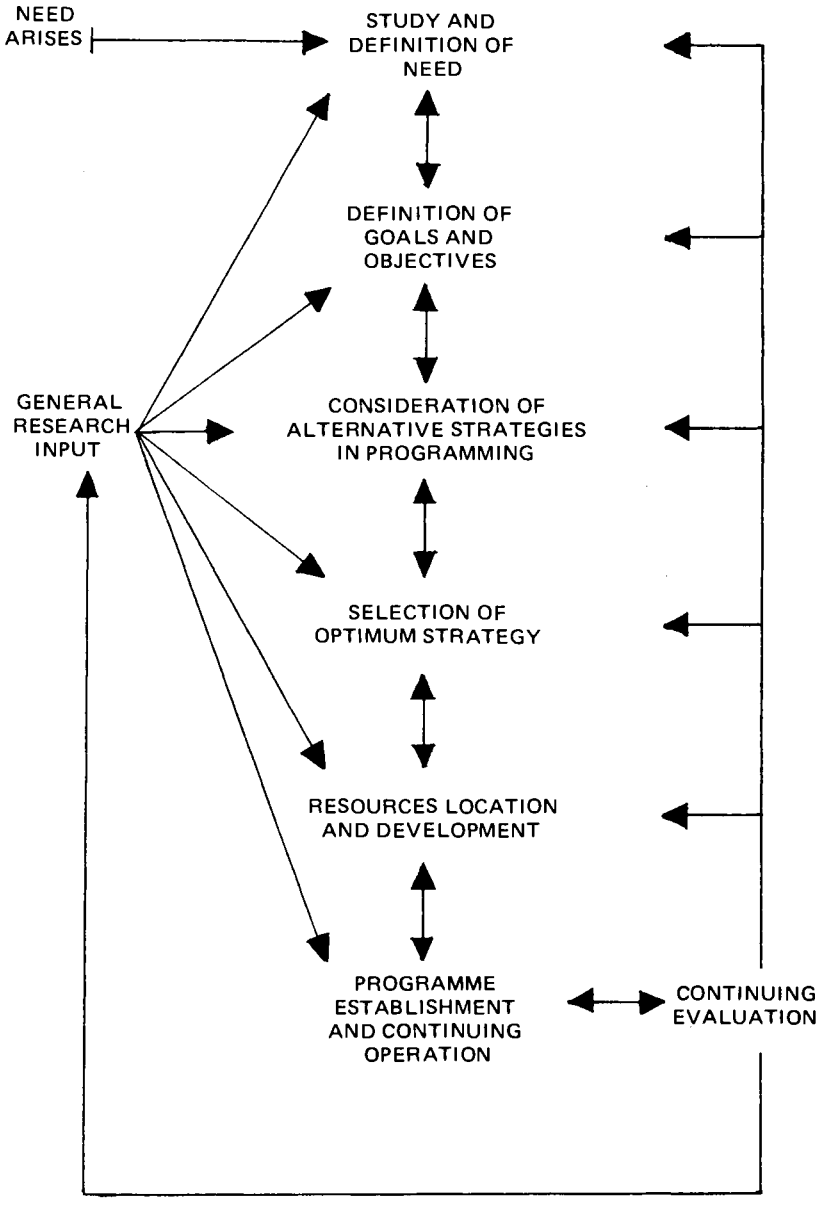

Fig. 3. Evaluation as part of the "feedback" formulation of planning.

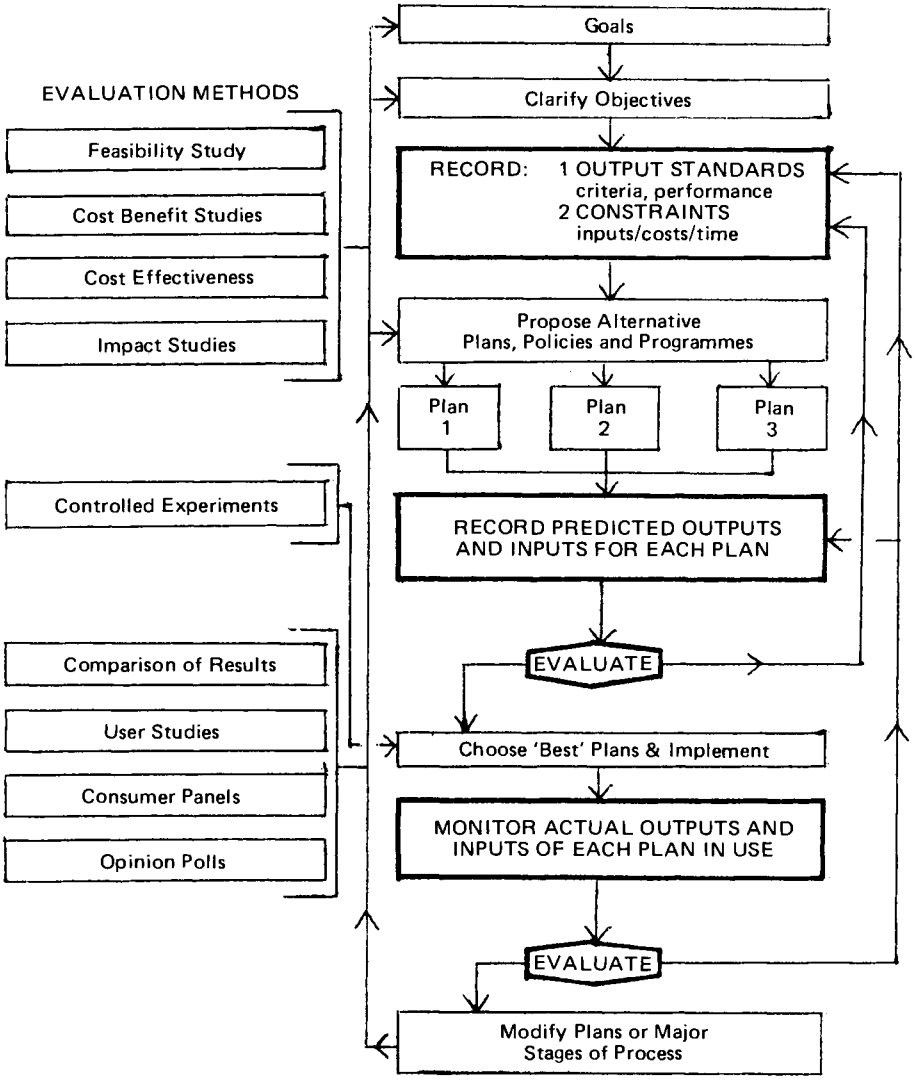

Fig. 4. *The practical example of the feedback approach to planning. (Milton Keynes[2]).*

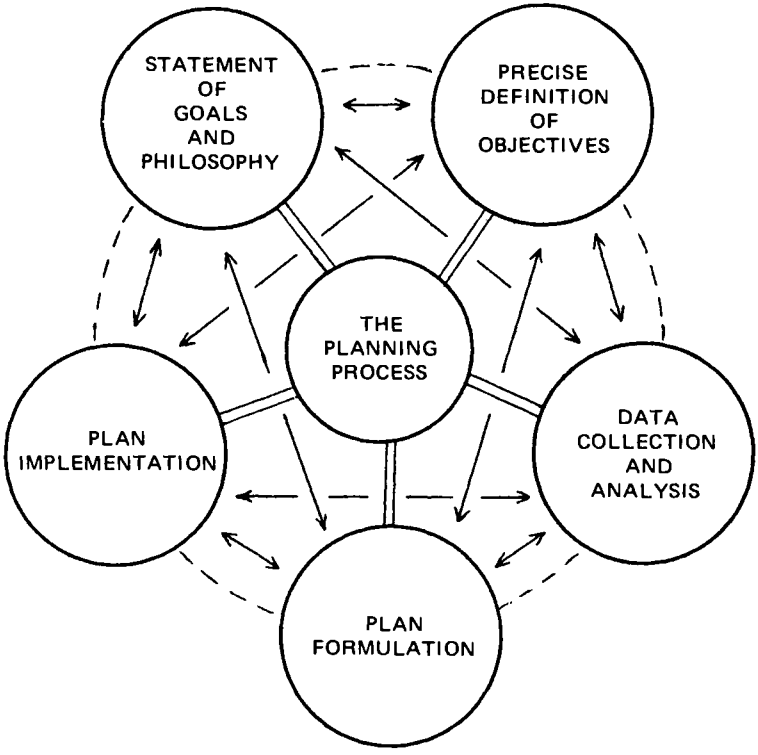

Fig. 5. Planning as an inter-active process. (As formulated by Burton[3]).

This brings us to the concept of what might be called cross-sectional evaluation. In this situation one is concerned with taking a look at the effectiveness of an organization at one specific point in its history. Ideally one would anticipate that having carried out an evaluation of this kind the organization will then be in a position to not only re-assess its goals, priorities and methods, but to re-formulate its approach to planning in such a way as to provide for future operation of a "feedback" basis.

3.3 MONITORING AND EVALUATION IN THE FEEDBACK PROCESS

It is useful to make a distinction between monitoring as a technique, or group of techniques, used within the overall process of evaluation, and the overall process in itself. Monitoring consists of collecting information in a systematic way which is relevant to the functioning of the organization. Evaluation involves using that information in order to make soundly based judgements about the effectiveness of the programme, the appropriateness of its goals or similar issues.

Monitoring is an essential part of evaluation within a "feedback" approach to planning. It demands careful determination of which data should be collected, the way in which it should be collected, and the way in which it can best be stored and analysed to provide usable information. The example illustrated above in *Figure 4* shows a preliminary definition of areas within which data should be collected, but in practice one would have to proceed much further than this.

The establishment of monitoring alone is, of course, not enough. The information which develops from monitoring must be communicated to those concerned with decision-making and with programme implementation. They must then assess it and use it to make better decisions or develop better programmes. This is the essential feature of evaluation within this concept of planning. Obviously this planning model can break down when there are interruptions in the communication process or barriers to utilization of the information which is being communicated.

3.4 EVALUATION IN INTER-ACTIVE PLANNING

We return now to the inter-active formulation illustrated in *Figure 5.* That component of the process shown with being concerned with data collection and analysis corresponds to the monitoring which we have discussed in the previous section. It will, at the same time, be collecting other

data as implied in the Milton Keynes model *(Figure 4).* More importantly, this component of the process will be in constant communication and interaction with all other components. Thus not only will the definition of objectives, the statement of goals and philosophy, the formulation of planning, and the implementation of planning be influenced by the information made available, but the very data being collected and the way in which it is analysed will, in turn, be constantly subject to changing demands from the other components of the process. This brings us face-to-face with one of the real dilemmas facing us in many practical situations.

Data collection analysis and evaluation is often a time-consuming process which must be pursued over a reasonably lengthy time to gain real confidence in its judgements. Perversely, the organization operating on the inter-active model is likely to be constantly shifting its emphasis creating considerable practical difficulty for those concerned with evaluation. To quote again from Wildavksy:

> "Evaluation requires a certain minimum amount of stability; changing the program month by month makes it impossible to get a fix on it of sufficient duration to perform any study. Yet social problems, which are supposed to adapt to rapid shifts in the environment, change frequently in time and in the substance of their orientation. So the evaluators become an interest group within the organization pleading for sufficient stability so that they can learn what is going on. If evaluators want to begin soon after a program has been established, the officials in charge may plead that insufficient time has elapsed for the program to take hold and its effects to be sufficiently distinctive to show up in measurements. By this time, however, the evaluators have learned that if they don't get in at the start, the program will have changed and they will again be told that not enough time has elapsed to study the new orientation."

We will return at a later stage to discuss this dilemma in more detail.

3.5 PLANNING AND EXPERIMENT

One often hears the term "experimental" programme used. A cynical commentator looking at a number of such programmes might very well conclude that "experimental" really means that the programme concerned is a little risky in that it might provoke negative reactions from political decision-makers, members of the public or others. Alternatively, he might decide that "experimental" was a potent bit of magic which facilitated the flow of funds.

On the other hand, the scientist, from whose realm the term "experimental" has been borrowed would insist that an experiment requires careful definition and control of the conditions within which it is carried out, accurate measurement of its results and full reporting of its outcomes.

The cynical viewpoint may well be justifiable as a realistic strategy in programme development – it is not for this manual to make judgements upon whether it is right or wrong to use the term "experimental" in order to protect or to gain support for a particular programme. However, it can be argued here that experiment only contributes effectively to evaluation and to an overall process of rational planning if it meets the scientist's criteria.

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CHAPTER 4

YOUTH: SOME SPECIAL ISSUES

4.1 THE CONCEPT OF GENERATIONS

Before proceeding further to discuss the methodology of evaluation it will be useful to look at some of the special issues which might relate to the evaluation of youth programmes.

In all societies there is a differentiation into generations, generally based upon age differences. However, the nature of this differentiation varies widely from one society to another. In some of the most simple societies, young people are perceived as children until they pass through the initiation ceremony admitting them to adulthood, whereupon they become full members of their particular society. This transition from child to adult may be a relatively brief process in a society where adult roles are clearly defined and not subject to continuing change.

In more complex societies, the notion of a formal transition from childhood to adulthood tends to disappear. The initiation ceremony is replaced by a lengthy process of learning about the complex diversity of adult roles which the individual may take and in achieving skills to fit these roles. In such a society the actual point of transition to full adult status will often vary from one sphere of social activity to another. Thus the individual may become an adult for purposes of voting at one age, for purposes of military service at another age, for purposes of entering into legal contracts concerning property at another age, and for purposes of defining responsibility within the criminal code of the country at still another age.

One result of this increasing complexity of the transition between childhood and adulthood is the recognition of a particular group, generally labelled "youth" and constituting young people who have an ambiguous status somewhere between the child and the adult. The Commonwealth Secretariat noted in a summary report for the Ministerial Conference on Youth held in Zambia in 1973 the following approach to definition:

> "For the purpose of the Secretariat's studies and seminars, 'youth' was understood to comprise in broad terms, the age range from 12 to 25 years. It was, however,

recognised that the age range and other characteristics denoting 'youth' would vary from country to country, and could well vary within a country over a period of time, especially in societies undergoing rapid change". [1]

One other result of this situation is that the age of entry to full adult status has tended to be further postponed during the recorded history of the developed countries. We will comment below on the approach of the Canadian Government to this issue.

A side effect of the differentiation by generation is the extent to which young people tend to be separated off from the rest of society. One increasingly hears such terms as "adolescent subculture" or "generation gap", The young person tends to be forced by society to become dependent upon his or her peers, to develop a separate pattern of social life from the rest of society, and to seek goals within that separate life which are at variance with the adult society as a whole.

This brings us to one of the key questions which must be asked in relationship to the design of youth programmes. Development and recognition of different generations is inevitable but the separation off of the youth generation which has occurred in many societies is not inevitable. We can devise programmes which will heighten the separation of the youth generation or we can devise programmes which will strengthen their integration with total society. In actual fact it is probably desirable that we reach a compromise in which the opportunity of young people to differ from and to challenge the position of their elders is perceived and yet, at the same time, young people maintain a loyalty to continuity with the historical traditions of their society.

On either side of such a balanced position, one finds conformity and stagnation of the total society at one extreme and revolution at the other. The striking of the compromise which maintains a stable but adaptable society is, in fact, the challenge which underlies the planning of all youth programmes.

Thus when we come to judge the goals and outcomes of a programme we must avoid falling into the position of judging the success of any programme by the extent to which it duplicates the values and characteristics of the older generation in those who will be responsible for the future. Essentially in a changing society one must ask how far the youth programme is succeeding in preparing young people not only to handle change but to provide responsible leadership for change.

This suggestion is extended and admirably expressed in the report of the Commonwealth Ministerial Meeting on Youth referred to earlier, in these words:

"Every participant agreed, for example, that means should be sought to establish an effective dialogue with the younger members of society and that procedures and

programmes should be devised to bring youth into active and responsible participation in national development. Ministers accepted the principle that provision for youth should form an integral part of national development plans and programmes and should not be seen as emergency or palliative measures separate from the overall development process.

"For these ends to be achieved positive attitudes must be engendered on both sides, mutual confidence has to be developed, the two-way generation gap bridged. These objectives will not be easily achieved; but to await the ideal moment before beginning to act means to delay action indefinitely."

4.2 THE IMPACT OF CHANGE AND DEVELOPMENT

It would be difficult to comment more concisely upon the impact of change and development on youth than in the words of two recent reports. Firstly we quote here from the Summary Paper to the Commonwealth Ministerial Conference on Youth referred to above. This quotation presents clearly and concisely the key problems facing the majority of Commonwealth countries:

"The place and status of youth within society varies a great deal between countries. Increasingly, disparities appear between the age at which physical maturity is attained and that at which young people are accepted as having reached adulthood. It is not unusual to find that young people are perceived by the older generation as unable to make a positive contribution to planning, decision-making or administration. They are often restricted, not only in their educational and economic opportunities, but also in their day-to-day life styles. These restrictions are commonly imposed by the traditional attitudes of older people. While a society remains largely free from outside influences, these restrictions often are accepted, but where a society is exposed to external forces hastening the pace of change, they are obvious sources of frustration and anger among the young.

Changes in the status of women

Changes in the status of women, which are coming about in countries throughout the world, also create tensions and difficulties for all young people, and especially for girls. Young women increasingly seek better work opportunities than in the past but are often frustrated by unhelpful attitudes and inadequate opportunities for education and training. At the same time, they are often accorded less opportunities than their male contemporaries to participate in community life or national development.

The heterogeneous nature of 'youth'

While Commonwealth and regional discussions can have a practical value they cannot take into account all the complexities of the situations prevailing in individual countries. When detailed plans are to be constructed, generalisations about 'youth' must be expanded into sufficient detail to enable particular groups to be identified. At this stage 'youth' can no longer usefully be regarded as a single homogeneous group.

Categories of 'youth' can be constructed in different ways to suit different purposes and, indeed, various systems of classification will be necessary when comprehensive planning is undertaken. For example, when considering questions of providing

facilities for training and employment it may be desirable to begin by classifying young people according to their educational background:

(a) those with no schooling:
(b) those with incomplete primary schooling;
(c) those with primary schooling only;
(d) those with secondary schooling;
(e) those with trade or technical training;
(f) those with tertiary education.

Other factors, however, will have to be taken into consideration if programmes are to be devised to meet the various needs of groups within these broad classifications. When establishing a programme for urban youth, for example, it may be important to take into account not only the educational background but the special needs of –

(a) those from families long resident in the city;
(b) those who have migrated from other cities;
(c) those who have migrated from rural areas;
(d) transients.

The population problem

It has been said that 'Youth are a problem primarily because there are so many of them.' At the present time, young people not only comprise at least 60 per cent of the Commonwealth population, but their number is continuing to increase. In the regional seminars, attention has been drawn to the urgency of establishing effective family planning programmes on a national basis. Obviously, family planning is a long-term programme in so far as its impact upon youth matters is concerned, and the very real political and social problems raised by proposals for population control must be appreciated. Nevertheless, unless the rate of population increase can effectively be reduced at an early date, many countries will face escalating problems of providing education, employment and adequate nutrition for their people.

Youth in distress

Young people who are frustrated by the lack of any means to achieve their aspirations, whether these are legitimate or unrealistic, can be a threat to the stability and social well-being of a society. If they do not merely seek refuge in apathy and dissociation from their community, they may retreat into drug-taking (including alcoholism), indulge in delinquency, vandalism and other anti-social behaviour, or become political dissidents and rebels. At the very least, such deviant behaviour represents wastage of human resources and distress to the young people concerned, and, in reality, nation building cannot be effected without these young people, who are an integral part of the future of their country.

Deviance may result from specific handicap and other individual factors. Most educational systems lack the resources to diagnose, assess and provide for those with learning difficulties and other personal problems. As a result, these young people are likely to 'drop out' of the education system and add to the number of young people in distress. Nor is deviance limited to those who have had some contact with the formal school system. The difficulties in organising preventive and curative facilities for out-of-school young people in distress are formidable but none the less real. The development of appropriate techniques and suitably trained personnel to meet this increasing problem presents a major challenge to Commonwealth countries severally and jointly.

Traditional practice has been to establish punitive, legalistic or welfare-oriented programmes for young people in distress, treating them separately from the general youth population. There is now a growing concern, however, that these programmes

often operate only to accentuate or to confirm the alienation of the young people concerned. More attention must be given to the prevention of deviance and distress among youth, and to developing new treatment patterns which will foster the re-integration of alienated youth. Programmes for such young people should be organised within the context of normal developmental programmes wherever possible.

The problems of alienation and deviance are indeed complex and it has not been possible within the framework of the Secretariat's youth study programme so far to devote adequate attention to this specific issue. It has become evident, however, that a substantial part of this problem arises out of the difficulties in generating enough satisfying employment opportunities, and that the provision of suitable jobs must be one major component of long term planning for the prevention of personal distress as well as the promotion of economic well-being.

Leisure activities

Leisure is an element of life in most societies and young people should be enabled to make use of their leisure time in an enjoyable and satisfying way. Throughout the Commonwealth many programmes have been designed with a wholly recreational emphasis; such programmes can, of course, play an important part not only in providing for positive use of leisure time but also in fostering wider interests and influencing attitudes. In rural areas programmes of this kind can be of especial value, since one of the reasons why young people abandon country life for towns and cities is the lack of social amenities in the villages. Some provision can be made at low cost, in the form of a meeting place and basic recreational and sporting facilities. In addition to its intrinisc value, this type of programme can help to make contact with the mass of the rural population who are often unaffected by development-oriented activities, and, indeed, who may regard such activities with suspicion. Apparently minor and purely social programmes can become growth points for subsequent activities with inbuilt elements of vocational training or cash-earning potential.

While recreational programmes can serve a useful purpose, in the overall planning of youth programmes the need must be born in mind for a balance to be established between those of a purely recreational nature and those aimed, for example, at training the individual in various skills, with a view to either personal development or more appropriate employment.

The need to influence changes in attitudes

The Challenge posed by the need to undertake planning for and with youth is immense. Not only must ways be found by which young people can enjoy relevant educational experiences and achieve an economically productive way of life; ways must also be found to help them develop a strong sense of national identity and international awareness which will enable them to find a secure and satisfying role in the life of their communities, reducing the possibilities of frustration and alienation.

Countries must face not only the need to provide services and resources, but also the more difficult tasks of influencing positive changes of attitude in people of all age-groups.

Among the major factors influencing changes in attitudes there may be included:

(i) changes in population size, age-distribution within populations, distribution of population as between rural and urban areas;

(ii) changes in the physical environment and nutrition;

(iii) the impact of instant communication, resulting in young people becoming aware of life styles different from their own and developing personal aspirations which are difficult to satisfy;

(iv) the increasing uncertainty of older members of the community about their established customs and beliefs which transfers itself to their successors,

contributing to the current problems of disillusionment, disengagement and delinquency, manifested in destructive actions (such as drug-taking, violence to self and others) and mental illness."

Next we turn to the report of the Canadian Committee on Youth. This Committee was commissioned by the Canadian Government to examine "the aspirations, attitudes and needs of youth, and the Government's present role in this area". This Committee was concerned with examining the place of the youth generation in a developed and affluent society – one in which the "generation gap" had become a major factor and the entry of young people to full adult status was being postponed for an undue period of their life. Their summary report expresses the situation and recommends a response to it in these terms:

"The attempt to 'define' youth is in many ways a pointless exercise, for this age group exhibits all the heterogeneity of any other age group within this country. However, it is evident that young people perceive themselves as a distinct group, not on the basis of age but rather on the basis of the commonality of their situation and attitudes; i.e., that they are facing for the first time a morass of institutions (educational, occupational, recreational, governmental) which they find unsatisfactory and unresponsive. And they are seriously challenging the traditional wisdoms and premises inherent in these institutions. Although, for example, students and young workers express their discontent in differing terms, the essence of their statements is sufficiently similar across the country to permit one to speak in a generalized way of 'Canadian youth'.

"However, if, as the report demonstrates, these dissatisfactions and new attitudes are not a function of age but of larger societal changes forecast first by the young, then the major objective must be to deal with their critique in terms of the whole society. For to treat their critique as a 'youth problem' and respond only by the formulation of a 'youth policy' or a 'youth department' would be to further isolate and frustrate youth by precluding their avenues to effect and change the whole society into which they are moving.

"Youth perceive social institutions differently from adults and this difference in perception is one of kind rather than of degree. For example, youth are questioning traditional family patterns while experimenting with other community relationships as is demonstrated by the growth of living co-operatives. Youth would like to find, somewhere in society, institutions capable of filling these and other roles as youth themselves define the roles. They are not necessarily rejecting society, but they are challenging the way society defines and treats them.

"There are several ways for the adult community to 'deal with' the gap between the perceptions of the adult and youth communities; it can insist that youth conform to its model, or ignore it, or provide outlets either real or token, or it can work with youth to transform the very basis of the relationship between the two groups. The first of these options has predominated to date, partially because of the unwillingness to change but also because attempts at change are often unco-ordinated ad hoc efforts which fail to bring youth closer to institutions. The results are visible: withdrawal of youth as a group into an artificial 'youth class' in which the peer group increasingly replaces the rest of society as the premise of learning, and withdrawal of individual young people into their own minds where psychic experimentation provides the freedom, flexibility and novel perception denied by society. The Committee believes that, unless changes are made, the trend towards separation will increase with force and rapidity over the next 10 years.

"What appears to be setting in among many young people in this country is a 'great refusal'. Their confidence in the existing order is being undermined on two fronts; not only are they challenging many of the values inherent in our society, but also the traditional motives for participation in the 'system' are increasingly unavailable, such as incentives for a good job through education. This 'refusal' which ranges all the way from disenchantment to rejection is manifested in the growing absenteeism in high schools, the decline in university enrolment (relative to predictions), and the increase in drug-use among all classes of young people.

"But this growing refusal by youth to participate in society on the predefined terms of that society is accompanied by the search for new styles of living and new working relationships with the rest of society. The separation of youth from society is not an imperative imposed by youth. There is a demand by young people for more integrated relationships between themselves, their immediate environment and the collective political and social goals and activities of Canadian society. For this closer relationship to be established, society must demonstrate a willingness and a capacity to change. Youth also demands a certain rationality in the way society relates to them, as a preliminary proof of willingness to change."[2]

4.3 THE QUESTION OF GOALS

One of the most difficult tasks in front of both planners and evaluators is in the area of decision about goals. The planner of a youth programme is faced with the problems of determining goals which are appropriate to the society in which he is operating and to changes which are taking place in that society. The evaluator has to ask the questions of how appropriate are the goals, how well do they relate to the present development of this society, and how far do they come to grips with the changes which are taking place.

In a society where change is extremely rapid, this problem becomes far greater. The goals which are appropriate for a youth programme in a developing country with massive unemployment will become quite inappropriate if that country becomes increasingly affluent and moves towards full employment. However the goals of a programme do become enshrined in the institutionalization of its organizational structures and resistance to change is all too common.

The programme which is out of step with the rate of progress in a country is a potential source of frustration and disillusionment on the part of young people. The importance of adequate evaluation and of responsiveness to the changes suggested by evaluation cannot be underestimated.

4.4 INDIVIDUAL GROWTH AND EVALUATION

One final point which must be stressed, even though it should be self-evident, is that young people are passing through a stage of life characterized by extremely rapid growth. This very process of growth means that individual

young people will be learning new knowledge and new skills, maturing both physically and emotionally, and gradually moving towards adulthood. This process will occur irrespective of whether young people are involved in any formal educational or other community programme.

Obviously the growth process will be accelerated, perhaps directed, and hopefully maximised by educational or other community programmes. Whenever one sets out to evaluate a youth programme one is almost inevitably examining the extent to which young people are being helped to grow as a result of the programme. It is therefore of importance that any evaluation we do distinguishes between that growth which takes part as a result of the programme being evaluated, and that which would have occurred as a result of other influences and which bears no relationship to participation in the programme under assessment.

This may mean applying a process of evaluation or measurement not only to the young people taking part in the programme but also to a similar control group. Two examples of evaluation studies of this kind are summarized in Section B of this volume (see under BRITAIN : Payne, Drummond and Lunghi; also Roberts and White).

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. *Commonwealth Youth Ministers' Meeting, Lusaka, Zambia, 1973.* (Commonwealth Secretariat, London, 1973).
2. Canadian Committee on Youth, *Summary – It's Your Turn* ..... (Information Canada, Ottawa, 1972.)

CHAPTER 5

EVALUATION PROCEDURES AND METHODS

5.1 SOME GENERAL APPROACHES

Various approaches to the planning process have already been outlined in Chapter 3. Before proceeding to further discuss the details of evaluation it may be useful to reiterate some points made in that Chapter and to outline the various approaches to evaluation which will arise.

Obviously the complexity of social programming is such that one cannot neatly compartmentalize the different approaches discussed here. Rather the evaluator must have a broad knowledge of the various approaches and tools available to him and be able to make an intelligent selection from his repertoire to meet the needs of any specific situation.

It will not be uncommon for the evaluator to find that planning has proceeded along what we have called either the ad hoc or straight-line approaches to planning. As suggested above, in this situation the evaluator must undertake a cross-sectional examination of the programme. In other words he will look critically at the operation of the programme at a particular point in time even though he will doubtless be using the available evidence on past happenings within the programme to carry out his evaluation.

On the other hand, in a feedback or inter-active planning situation the evaluator is concerned with ensuring that the right data is obtained and recorded so that the on-going programme can be monitored. The evaluator must then at intervals examine the significance of the information yielded by the monitoring process for programme operation.

These constitute the two basic approaches to the evaluative process. The cross-sectional approach is often used because of the lack of continuing monitoring and the lack of appreciation of the need for on-going evaluation. However, even where there is continuous monitoring and evaluation is built-in as part of the total planning process, there may be certain kinds of data best collected at occasional intervals by a cross-sectional approach. In other words, these two extremes of approach are not mutually exclusive and may even be used together.

There may also be questions which cannot be dealt with simply by examining existing programmes. For example, the evaluator may be asked which of two possible ways of providing services would be the most effective. This

kind of question often means setting up genuinely experimental projects so that alternatives can be put into action and tested on a short-term basis.

Similarly the evaluator may be called upon to measure the community need for a particular programme and relate his findings to assessment of the programme itself. Under the discussion of methodology below it will therefore be useful for us to devote some attention to experimental design and to the measurement of need.

5.2 DEFINING THE PROBLEM

The first issue facing any social researcher is to arrive at a satisfactory definition of exactly what it is he proposes to investigate. Problems are often posed by administrators and policy makers in broad and generalized terms which do not necessarily lend themselves to scientific investigation. Thus the first task of the evaluator, just as the social researcher, is often to analyse the problem and to identify those aspects or components which must be investigated.

Similarly social researchers will differ in the extent to which they may emphasize the need to have a fully formulated hypothesis which they can then proceed to test by research. The evaluator will very often find himself in the position where it is premature to construct a rigorous hypothesis and where, therefore, exploratory study must be undertaken to clearly define areas to which high priority must be given in more detailed investigation.

As an example, let us look at the kind of questions which will be involved in evaluating the effectiveness of a short-run training course for youth workers. The original question posed to the evaluator will probably be in such terms as "Is the course effective?"

Part of the analysis which must be undertaken is to examine the precise meaning in this context of the term "effective". It may mean any one or a number of the following:

How far does the course change the behaviour and performance of the trainees in tackling their chosen job?

How far does the course enable the trainees to better communicate with the organization for which they are working?

How far does the course ensure that trainees will remain in their chosen job for a longer period than those who are untrained?

How far does the course result in greater visible effects of the programme in which trainees are working upon the population being served? How closely do these relate to the goals of the programme?

These, of course, are but a few examples of the varying criteria by which effectiveness might be judged. However, there are many other questions which may be investigated among which are:

Are the trainees undertaking the course different from other workers who have not chosen to undertake training?

Is any difference in the trainees really due to the education received on their training course or is it due merely to the fact that they have been singled out for special attention and hence given recognition?

Does the training programme have negative as well as positive effects and, if so, what are these negative effects?

If one looks back to *Figures 3 or 4* in Chapter 3 these will serve to emphasize the extent to which evaluation should be related back strongly to the goals and policies of the programme being evaluated. Again, to take the example of a short-run training course, evaluation should relate to the programme for which workers are being trained and the task which they are being prepared to do. An examination conducted at the end of the training course cannot be seen as evaluation – it is merely a way to give some formal recognition to successful participants in the training experience.

5.3 THE USE OF AVAILABLE INFORMATION

The first task of the evaluator must be to examine existing records and other readily available information. Not only will this provide guidelines for the planning of any more elaborate methods of evaluation but it may in some cases provide sufficient information in itself.

This data may include the records kept by those concerned with the programme being evaluated; other recorded information about the programme; population statistics and other national statistical data; and the results of other research reports or studies which are relevant.

In particular, let us comment on the fact that such a first examination will probably reveal that the records currently being kept by the programme are either inadequate, irrelevant to evaluation, or do not lend themselves to systematic analysis. All too often record keeping in respect to social development programmes is carried out without proper planning as to the purposes and value of the information being recorded. It is a waste of time and resources to record information unless there is a clear purpose for this and established practice for making effective use of the recorded data.

We are aware of one programme where detailed records have been collected and entered into a computerized data file for the last ten years at a relatively high cost. However, this information has never been systematically examined;

there is apparently no plan for doing so; and one can only question the usefulness of further expenditure in supporting such a system. Another example which will be familiar to many readers is the way in which educational programmes focus their collection of data on such matters as attendance records and the results of internal examinations. Both of these are of little significance for real evaluation. Attention should be given to recorded detail about the socio-economic and other background of those participating in education and relating this to the age at which students "drop out" of the educational programme, their destination on leaving and their success in the labour market.

We would also emphasize that keeping records which will be useful for evaluative purposes is very little more difficult than keeping records for any other purpose or in any other way. Naturally the determination of what should be recorded must be related to each specific project but as a general guideline one must look particularly to those kinds of information which will help to measure the extent to which a programme meets its real goals.

Any such records kept over a long period of time should be planned so that those kept in any one year are directly comparable with those of previous years. Whenever a change is made in the system of recording, the pattern of comparability between the old and the new system of recording should be carefully recorded. We will comment a little further on this matter in the next chapter.

Keeping the appropriate records for evaluative purposes achieves nothing in itself. It only provides information which can be used as a tool in the planning and development of the present or a future programme. Just like any other tool it will be of no use unless it is taken up and put to work.

5.4 OBSERVATIONAL METHODS

The value of merely observing the operation of a programme should not be neglected. This may be disregarded because it is too simple and one may find evaluation by observation discounted because it is perceived as unsubstantiated information. However, simple observation of a programme can be valuable if:

The purpose of the observations and the question or questions which are posed to the observer are clearly defined.

The observation is systematically planned according to a particular pattern which will ensure overall coverage.

The results of observation are recorded in a systematic way and made as objective as possible.

Checks and controls are built in to provide for accuracy, validity and reliability.

In meeting these criteria a number of factors need to be considered while planning the observational approach. The units (individuals, groups, etc.) to be observed should be clearly defined and the times at which they are to be observed properly planned. The particular facets of behaviour or activity which are of concern must similarly be established. Standardised systems for recording observations should be developed and carefully used.

A very simple example which is widely used is the counting of traffic by individual observers. During a traffic study, the observers will be located at precise positions and asked to record all traffic movements of a particular character during specified time intervals. Their results will normally be recorded with the aid of mechanical counters. There is no reason why a similar pattern of operation might not be applied to many facets of human activity. Another example which will be familiar to many personnel in the youth work field is the use of systematic observational techniques in evaluation of group discussion. Many standardised forms have been developed for recording the nature and direction of individual contributions to discussion in order to provide the basic data from which the dynamics of discussion can be analysed by those participating.

5.5 SURVEY METHODS

It may often be necessary to make a survey involving asking questions and/or having printed questionnaires completed by individuals participating or who have participated in the programme. On some occasions it will be possible to use standardized tests or measurements (see, for instance, the study by Payne summarized in Part B under BRITAIN). However, the evaluator generally finds that there are no existing standardized tests which fit the requirements of his operation and it will then be necessary to design questionnaires or interview schedules to carry through the evaluation study.

The basic questions in planning a survey are: What information is to be sought? By whom should it be sought? In what way should the information be obtained? From whom can the information best be obtained?

It is not useful here to attempt to answer any of these questions as the answers will be specific to each project undertaken. General guidelines are readily available in the various text books on survey methods which we deal with in Chapter 7.

However, it is useful to point out that there are some kinds of questions which are not very useful ones to ask of respondents. One of these is the hypothetical question which basically asks "What would you do if .....?" or, alternatively, "Would you use ..... service if this was provided?" These sorts of questions become completely unreliable when the suggested change

in the situation or the new service is one which is completely unfamiliar to the previous experience of the respondent.

Similarly, it is not useful to ask people what their needs are. In the first place there is the limitation that none of us know what we want but can only want those things of which we know. In addition, any answers to such a question will be in terms of what is socially approved, fashionable, or which the respondent thinks the interviewer would most approve of. We will discuss further below the issues involved in trying to measure needs.

Equally, it is not useful to ask directly why people behave in any particular way. Human behaviour is a very complex matter and it is extremely difficult for any of us to really explain the motivation for any particular part of our behaviour. The answers given to the question of "Why did you .....?" will almost certainly be superficial and of little real value. Experienced social researchers might gain considerable insight into motivation through a complex study but this is beyond either the resources or the purpose of the usual evaluation programme.

Let us also comment briefly on some of the ethical issues involved. Whenever a survey type of investigation is conducted the persons questioned should be told who is carrying out the survey, what its purpose is, and what use will be made of the results. It should also be made clear to them the extent to which any information they give will remain confidential or otherwise. A study which preserves the anonymity and confidentiality of respondents will probably be more successful in obtaining frank answers, particularly where these imply any criticisms of a programme.

It must also be emphasised that every effort must be made to frame questions so that they are completely neutral and do not suggest particular lines of response. Equally it is important that questions are not open to a wide range of different interpretations. As a simple example, the question "Are you interested in politics?" will be of very little use to us unless we know exactly what each respondent means by the word politics. The word can cover an extremely wide range of interests from purely local matters or even international ones. Similarly the word "best" is a very common pitfall. Depending upon its context and upon the feelings of each respondent, it may mean most enjoyable, most educational, most interesting, most efficient, or any one of a number of other things.

5.6 EXPERIMENTAL PROJECTS

The term "experimental project" is an extremely familiar one. A cynical description of what often happens might be something like this:

> The people concerned with programme X find that their programme does not appear to be successful and they feel themselves open to criticism for failure. In looking

for ways to overcome this situation they set up a new programme either by slightly changing their existing programme or by copying something they have heard vaguely about as having been tried somewhere else. This new programme is then called experimental partly because the term suggests they are a progressive organization and partly because the new programme might also be a failure.

Although this statement may sound unduly cynical and negative we have seen exactly this approach on many occasions and fear it is all too common. We even notice in one recent report on such a project that the worker responsible stressed very clearly that the project concerned was not merely experimental, but was a repetition of an idea already widely tested, and that rather than having been financed as an "experiment" his work should have been accepted as a normal part of agency practice.

There are well respected traditions in scientific experiment which should be given attention just as much in matters of social organization as they are in the physical scientists' laboratory. We attempt here to summarize these.

Criteria of Experiment

(i) Any experiment should have a conceptual rationale which relates it to an existing or proposed new theoretical background. Good practice is dependent upon good theory and the two should be integrally related.

(ii) It should be possible to set down clearly the hypothesis which the experiment is designed to test.

(iii) The experimenter should make a thorough study of all previous research and theory relating to his proposed experiment and should establish that what he is doing is a genuine experiment in terms of testing a completely new hypothesis or replicating in a new situation an experiment already tested out in another context.

(iv) From this study of previous research and theory, the experimenter must develop an awareness of any constraints which must be introduced into his experiment in order to avoid the danger of distortion of experimental results.

(v) Similarly the experimenter must ensure that the methods used are appropriate to the hypothesis being tested.

(vi) The results of the experiment must be recorded in such a way that the success or failure of the experiment can be measured. It is essential that the record also includes precise details of the methods used.

(vii) The appropriate controls must be built in to the experimental design so that the experimenter can isolate the effects of the experiment from events which occur as a result of other influences.

On examining a number of recent reports on experimental projects we find that many of these are simply descriptive and impressionistic. Only one has endeavoured to provide some insights into the basis from which the description was written by asking each of those concerned in the experiment

to set down at the beginning a personal statement of their own attitudes and values entering into the experiment. Equally, very few have had any sort of established control against which changes in the young people served by the experiment can be measured.

However, many of those involved in practical matters will argue that insufficient funds or other resources are available to them to set up controls and that they must therefore rely upon impressionistic evidence. It seems to us that this has important implications for those concerned with the funding of experimental programmes. It would be far more useful to set up one experiment with appropriate methodology and control than to set up 25 without. Similarly any authority concerned with the funding of experiment should ensure that the results are fully reported and published in a form which makes them readily available to others concerned.

5.7 THE MEASUREMENT OF NEED

We have referred above to the difficulties in measuring need for services. This is a particularly difficult area of social research, but one which is increasingly being demanded by administrators and others. A recent paper by Bradshaw and at least two others based upon it, indicate some useful directions which might be followed.[1]

Briefly Bradshaw suggests that there are four kinds of statement which might be made about need:

(1) A particular standard for provision of services might be laid down by experts and then one can measure the extent to which any particular community, region or country measures up to this standard. For example, the standard might be laid down that all young people should have a minimum of six years full time education. Against such a standard one can then measure the extent to which any country falls short of achieving this level. In practice the standard setting approach has a number of disadvantages. There is no common agreement between experts about what is an acceptable standard; furthermore, even with such a standard laid down it is in fact only a target at which to aim, and in most cases once the target is approached or attained, it has lost its value.

(2) The next statement which might be made is concerned with what people say they want. We have already noted that on its own this is unreliable and of limited value, particularly where a specific kind of service is an unfamiliar one. At the same time, one must acknowledge the importance of a clear demand by people for a service.

(3) There is also the evidence which might be gained from human behaviour. If we find for instance that there is a vocal demand from a particular community for any one service, but that when the service is available it is not used — then there is obviously a need for re-assessment of the situation. Moreover, behaviour often gives us significant clues to underlying needs about which the people concerned will not necessarily be vocal.

(4) Finally one can make comparative statements about need. For instance, we might compare two regions and find that in one there is a teacher ratio of 1 : 20 while in another the same ratio is 1 : 35. Again it is relatively obvious that the second region is in need when compared to the first. This kind of data is widely and popularly used but we do note the warning that one must not assume that each service is equally relevant in any cultural situation. Comparisons of this kind are really only valid where the relevant features of the two situations being compared are similar.

The above is a very simplistic explanation and needs elaboration for a full understanding but this can be readily gained from any one of the three papers listed below.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. Bradshaw, J., The Concept of Social Need, *New Society,* 19 (496): pp. 640–643 (30th March, 1972).

Mercer, D. The Concept of Recreation Need, *J. Leisure Research,* 5: 37–50 (1973).

Hamilton-Smith, E., Issues in the Measurement of Community Need, *Australian Journal of Social Issues* in press, 1974.

CHAPTER 6

NOTES ON SOCIAL RESEARCH METHODS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Although social research is a tool used in evaluation rather than being essentially evaluative in itself, it is useful to draw attention to some aspects and issues in the planning and implementation of social research.

Much more practical detail will be found in some of the texts listed in the next chapter but we give here some guidelines which will be useful to the evaluator or to the administrator concerned with instituting or assessing evaluation.

6.2 POPULATIONS, SAMPLES AND CONTROLS

Any social research project and most evaluation projects will be concerned with examining a particular number of persons, or the effect of some activity upon that number of persons. It is important to be clear on the definition and boundaries of the population concerned. In general, our study population will be comprised essentially of persons and could be defined along any one of a large number of lines including the following examples:

All persons resident within a particular geographic area.

Ethnic or cultural groups.

All persons attending or who have attended a particular programme during specified periods of time.

Alternatively, in the case of evaluation, we may be concerned with a "population" comprised of institutions. For instance, one might be called upon to examine all primary schools within a country, or alternatively, all hospitals within a country.

This is again a place to stress the importance of existing information. Every country maintains a wide range of specific data and this data is often extremely valuable for purposes of population definition. Social planning and social

research will often be inadequate if the size of the population being planned for or studied is not clearly known and recognized.

In practice it is often quite impossible in a research programme to examine every unit of the population. For reasons of both practicality and quality of research, it is usually vital to have recourse to a sampling of the population.

The essential feature of good sampling is that the sample will consist of a representative cross-section of the total population so that, within reasonable limits of accuracy, the results obtained by studying the sample will be the same as they would have been for the total population. The second characteristic of almost equal importance is that the sampling must be of adequate size. The question of determining both representativeness and size is dealt with very adequately in many of the standard texts. We do stress, however, that the size of the sample required is much more a function of the complexity of the data being sought than of population size. If one is only seeking relatively simple information where there are few variables, then a relatively small sample will be adequate. On the other hand, where the data being sought is complex and highly variable then a bigger sample will be necessary.

The actual detail of various sampling methods will not be dealt with here as there are a variety of excellent text books available which might be consulted.

Less attention is paid in texts to the problem of establishing satisfactory controls in experimental projects or, where pertinent, in evaluative studies. Any experimental project or even any research project is likely to have effects upon the population under study. A fundamental principle is that we must isolate these effects if we are to develop satisfactory experimental design or measurement techniques.

One of the best known examples is the famous Hawthorne Experiment described in the excellent summary by Schofield, as follows:

> "A special group of workers assembling telephone parts was set aside from the other workers and the condition of their work situation was changed to see what effect it would have on their output. The lighting in the room was improved and the output went up. Then the ventilation was changed and this also increased output. Then they were given long rest breaks and the output still increased. Finally, the lighting and ventilation were changed back to their original state, the longer rest breaks were stopped, but the output still went up. The researchers were very puzzled, until they saw that it was not the improvement in physical conditions that had caused the output to go up. It was because this group was getting special attention. People were interested in what they were doing; a new spirit was engendered which gave them greater incentives and so the output continued to be high no matter what was done to the lighting and ventilation." [1]

In retrospect it would not be difficult to redesign the Hawthorne Experiment so that one could test out the effect of such changes as differing ventilation in isolation from the side effects resulting from the special attention

being given to the experimental group. This would mean, for instance, finding two groups of workers who could be closely matching in both personal characteristics and their work environment, treating both as experimental groups and giving them special attention but only, in fact, changing the real conditions of one such group at any one time. The research studies by Payne et al and by Roberts and White given under Britain in Part B of this volume both illustrate excellent use of control groups.

The use of controls is often particularly important in regard to young people. We have already stressed above *(4.4)* the extent to which young people are undergoing an inevitable and natural process of maturation. Many of the programmes which we will be called upon to evaluate are aimed at maximising or directing this process. If we are to evaluate them successfully we must compare the changes in participants with natural changes occurring in a group who did not participate in the programme.

6.3 OBJECTIVITY, RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

We have already referred in Chapter 2 to some of the problems in obtaining objectivity. However, this is not merely a matter of finding the right organizational structure for evaluation in order to ensure objectivity. It is also a matter of paying very careful attention to aspects of research design.

In designing a questionnaire or interview, questions must be framed in such a way that they will not suggest or lead to any particular response. Similarly, the questionnaires must be presented in such a way, or the interview conducted in such a way, that respondents are not influenced to give any specific pattern of answer.

The second notion which is fundamental to good social research is that of maximising validity, that is, the extent to which information obtained is accurate and truthful. There are many difficulties in attaining complete validity – the frailty of human memory, the repression of matters which people prefer to forget, the tendency to over-emphasize things that people have enjoyed, and the extent to which a respondent will tend to give the information which he feels is expected of him.

The adequately designed piece of social research will try to establish a series of cross-checks so that the researcher may judge the validity, or otherwise, of the data obtained. In addition, just as we must endeavour to retain objectivity through our research design, so every effort must be made to avoid giving cues which influence responses in any particular direction.

Reliability is the extent to which any particular research method will consistently produce the same result from the same people. Again, it is probably

impossible to retain 100 percent reliability. Individuals will feel differently from day-to-day and so may well respond differently to the same question asked at different times. Similarly their responses may vary depending upon the situation in which they are asked the question. Adequately designed research will endeavour to ensure that these variations are taken into account, cross-checked where possible, and limited to those factors over which the researcher has no control. Accordingly the actual detail of research method must be standardized so far as possible to avoid unreliability resulting from changes in interviewer or researcher behaviour.

Although it is theoretically possible to distinguish neatly between these three concepts, they will often be closely inter-related in practice. Complete standardization of research method in any one project although theoretically desirable must be balanced against the extent to which individual respondents are not standardized in the same way. Thus, if the population being studied covers a wide range of different levels of literacy and capacity to verbalize, one must allow for the need to ensure adequate communication to all individuals in the population. In practice, therefore, we must aim at a research method which achieves the greatest possible degree of objectivity, validity and reliability but which at the same time is sufficiently flexible to provide for maximum communication with all individuals in the study population.

This may well mean that the researcher will define as clearly as possible the exact nature of the data which he wishes to obtain; he will then spell-out in the clearest possible terms the questions to be asked to obtain this data, the order in which they will be asked and the method which will be used by the interviewer. He must then give particular attention to the selection and training of interviewers. These interviewers must understand the purpose of the overall study and of every question within it, they must appreciate the importance of standardization, but be able to adapt the standard format in order to ensure the fullest possible communication with and co-operation from each respondent. Again, further information will be found in many of the texts recommended in the next chapter.

6.4 COMPARABILITY AND REPLICATION

It will often be useful to analyse the results of any particular evaluation project in terms of certain characteristics of the population. Whenever this is done it is highly desirable that the characteristics chosen and the way in which these are described should be similar to the patterns used in other studies. It will very often be particularly useful to use the characteristics and the categorizations of variation within each characteristic which are used in the national census. This will enable direct comparability between the study population and that of other research or between the study population and that of the nation as a whole.

Recommendations regarding descriptive statistics on children and youth have been prepared and published by the United Nations.[2] This provides an extremely valuable set of guidelines for consideration but the guidelines must be examined in the light of the country's own prevailing practices. Where any conflict occurs between the United Nations' recommendations and the statistical practice of the researcher's own country then the choice must be made as to which of the two is the more relevant – in most cases it will be more useful to relate directly to prevailing practices within the country.

Similarly there is often value in developing research methods which can be related directly to those methods and patterns used elsewhere. Obviously this matter will more often be relevant in general social research e.g., in a study of patterns in child-rearing used in a particular culture, than it will be in evaluation projects. However, even in evaluation it will be useful to examine similar projects which have already been carried out, even if in another country, partly to seek clues for the most adequate research design and partly to see whether it might be useful to make direct comparisons of results between two or more such studies.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

1. Schofield, M., *Social Research* (Heinemann Educational Books, London, 1969) pp. 24.
2. United Nations – Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East, *Guidelines for Statistics on Children and Youth* (United Nations, New York, E/CN.11/995, 1971).

CHAPTER 7

FURTHER READING

7.1 ON EVALUATION

The literature on evaluation method is relatively sparse and much of it is not geared to the special needs of youth programmes in developing countries. We note here four works which we have found particularly useful:

Carter, Novia and Wharf, Brian, *Evaluating Social Development Programmes* (Canadian Council on Social Development, 1973). This publication is particularly valuable for its review of evaluation practice and extensive bibliography.

Hayes, Samuel, P. *Evaluating Development Projects* (UNESCO, second edition, 1966). An extremely useful handbook which is particularly geared to the needs and issues facing the researcher in a new nation.

Tripodi, Tony, Fellin, Phillip and Epstein, Irwin, *Social Programme Evaluation : Guidelines for Health, Education and Welfare Administrators,* (F.E. Peacock Publishers, ITASCA, Illinois, 1971). A book which pays particular attention to helping administrators determine what kind of evaluation should be undertaken and the ways in which it should be organized.

Wildavsky, Aaron, *Evaluation as an Organizational Problem* (Centre for Environmental Studies, London, University Working Paper 13, 1972). We have quoted extensively from this work. It is worth reading in full by any one interested in the organizational problems of establishing sound evaluation.

7.2 SOCIAL RESEARCH METHODS

Here we have the problem of making a useful selection from an extremely extensive literature. We would particularly recommend the titles given here as an excellent reference collection.

Belson, William A., and Thompson, Beryl-Anne, *Bibliography on Methods of Social and Business Research* (The London School of Economics and Political Science with Crosby Lockwood, London, 1973). A comprehensive and extremely well-indexed bibliography dealing with the methods and techniques of social research. Of little value unless one has access to a comprehensive library of journals in the sociology and business studies fields but indispensable when one does have access to such a library.

Goode, William J., and Hatt, Paul, K., *Methods in Social Research* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1952 and various later printings). An extremely useful comprehensive text dealing with all aspects of social research.

McCall, George, J., and Simmons, J.L., *Issues in Participant Observation* (Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1969). Deals entirely with observational methods and would be extremely valuable in any project where it was intended to use such methods.

Smith, Joan Macfarlane, *Interviewing in Market and Social Research* (Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1972). This is again a text concentrating on one particular area of social research methodology. Again, it would be invaluable to any one planning to use interview methods.

Moser, C.A., and Kalton, G., *Survey Methods in Social Investigation* (Heinemann Educational Books, London, 1971). This is the second edition of a well-known standard text and is an excellent overall treatment of survey methods.

Oppenheim, A.N., *Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement* (Heinemann Educational Books, London, 1966). This text concentrates entirely upon the design of questionnaires and similar research instruments.

Parten, Mildred, B. *Surveys, Polls and Samples* (Harper and Row, New York, 1950, and various later printings). Although this book covers much the same general ground as those by Goode and Hatt and Moser listed above, it does deal a little more fully and adequately with questions of sampling.

Schofield, Michael, *Social Research* (Heinemann Educational Books, London, 1969). An introductory text written in very clear and simple language. An excellent introduction but does not deal in depth with details of research design.

Social and Community Planning Research, *Technical Manual Series.* Social and Community Planning Research is one of the more experienced research instruments established in Britain and they have recently commenced publishing a series of Technical Manuals summarizing their own experience. Each Manual will deal with a specific area of social research method. These Manuals adopt a particularly pragmatic and practical approach and will be found extremely useful, particularly by practitioners forced to operate on a relatively limited budget. Titles published to date include:

1. Postal Survey Methods.
2. Sample Design and Selection.
3. Interviewer's Guide Book.
4. Depth Interviews and Group Discussions.
5. Questionnaire Design Manual.

These titles are available from Research Publications Services Limited , Victoria Hall, East Greenwich, London, SE10 ORF, United Kingdom.

United Nations – Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East – *Guide Lines for Statistics on Children and Youth* (United Nations, New York, E/CN.11/995, 1971). We have referred above to the importance of this manual. It should be examined by any researcher concerned with statistical analysis of data relating to young people.

SECTION B

SOME EVALUATION STUDIES

AUSTRALIA - ASIA : Hodgkin, Mary C., *The Innovators: The Role of Foreign Trained Persons in Southeast Asia* (Sydney: Sydney University Press, 1972)

"THE INNOVATORS explores the influence that graduates, particularly from Australia, are exerting on the economic growth of three very different areas: the sophisticated, commercial city of Singapore; Malaysia with its industrializing towns and rural hinterland; and Sarawak, Sabah, and Brunei which are in the early stages of development. It looks also at the impact of the returnees in terms of their cultural background, traditional roles, opportunities for leadership, and abilities and inclinations. It makes some critical comments on the future of this form of cross cultural training and the role which the industrialized nations must play if future educational aid to underdeveloped countries is to live up to the claims of the donors".

Dust Cover Abstract
of THE INNOVATORS.

At the outset of the study it was planned to interview in their own country persons who had been trained in all States of Australia, but it was found that no complete records of these students had been kept (until very recently) either by Australian authorities, the overseas government or by any other agency. Therefore in order to draw random samples of persons in the major professions, Hodgkin had to use only Western Australian records.

It was possible, however, to interview some graduates trained in other states with the help of the Australian and New Zealand Graduates Association of Malaysia and the Australian Alumni of Singapore.

The author spent eight months in mainland Malaysia, Singapore and Borneo between July 1968 and February 1969 and travelled extensively in these areas interviewing many Malay, Chinese and Indian graduates.

A thirty-item interview schedule was developed which sought data on the graduates – their study courses, current level of employment, attitudes to work and the impact they see themselves making, both professionally, culturally and socially now that they have returned home.

The major discussion firstly considers the effect that the historical and cultural milieu of the country has upon the role of these graduates as innovators. With this as background the discussion develops in terms of the adjustments students need to make on returning home.

Of the 163 subjects who were interviewed, most had spent more than four years studying in Australia. There is a growing tendency for students to begin their studies in Australia at an earlier age.

Occupational status was found to be influenced not only by the type of training undertaken but also cultural factors such as ethnic origin. For instance,

most non-Malays (Chinese, Indian) dominated in the scientific, technical and professional occupations, the Malays in occupations where non-professional education is required. Part of this pattern the author ascribes to divergent cultural backgrounds. Malays do not place emphasis upon achievement and independence but rather upon familiar and local community ties. The Chinese also emphasize the ideal of parental dominance and filial piety; however associated with this, achievement in terms of family is highly desirable. Being a minority group the Indians are in a difficult position; they are forced to accommodate to the demands of government bureaucracies since they have limited alternative employment opportunities with the Chinese monopolizing commerce and the Malays the public service.

Economic trends also effect how the potential of students trained overseas can be utilized. Unemployment of young people is increasing. Although attempts are being made to overcome this through industrialization and education programmes which assist rural Malays, this inevitably is increasing the competition for tertiary level education amongst non-Malays.

Having discussed the factors which influence the employment patterns of the graduates, attention is given to the ways in which the graduates experience their roles as innovators upon their return home.

Innovators communicate ideas and seek access to authority and it is only through establishing a network of social relationships that this becomes effective. Contact of ethnic groups is often difficult because of cultural barriers and a rigidly defined social structure.

Contact tends to be maintained between the graduates either informally or through graduate associations which cater for returned graduates. Professional institutions are now being established although they do tend to set unrealistic entrance qualifications relative to those found amongst graduates in Malaysia-Singapore.

Acceptance of these qualifications is essential if these graduates are to be employed in decision-making positions. Generally overseas qualifications are accepted although there is a slight bias towards the British, which creates barriers between people of training in similar knowledge and skills. Most students were employing their acquired skills and knowledge in their jobs with more than two-thirds being employed teaching or training others. However, it became evident that the graduates needed assistance in knowing how to communicate their ideas to others, that is, understanding the cultural barriers to change. Students generally do not take courses in the social sciences yet these disciplines are most relevant in transitional societies where technological advancement and cultural change are having such an impact.

Overseas training tends to favour the graduate of urban origin therefore creates difficulty when consideration is being given to innovation in rural areas.

In spite of this type of weakness in the programme the author suggests that overseas training generally heightens an awareness of the process of change and offers students knowledge and skills that will eventually be useful.

AUSTRALIA : Hamilton-Smith, E. and Brownell, D., *Youth Workers and Their Education* (Melbourne : Youth Workers Association of Victoria, 1973).

This study, commissioned by the Youth Workers Association of Victoria, originated in a period of "rapid growth and recognition of youth work for its contribution to community development which has awakened a new interest in the role of the professional youth and community worker in society".

The aim of this study is "to provide some of the objective evidence upon which some re-assessment may occur, both within the educational institutions and the professional associations. The terms of reference for the study were to provide information upon:

(a) The roles currently filled by salaried youth workers.

(b) The relationship of those roles to education for professional youth work.

(c) Identification of the factors likely to affect future youth work development and, in particular, professional education and practice.

(d) Conceptualization and practice in other countries and its possible implication for Victoria."

To get a satisfactory sample of all youth workers in the state, a list of youth workers was compiled from the Youth Workers Association records and from a number of agencies whose staff were involved in providing youth services. Organizations such as the YMCA, YWCA, Churches, Municipalities and various miscellaneous organizations were considered.

A list of 173 youth workers was obtained. This was stratified into different work categories to ensure equal representation in the final sample. The categories used were:

I Those responsible for overall administration of state or regional programs.

II Those primarily responsible for training, consultation, liaison and other field duties.

III Those primarily involved in direct service to groups of young people and in charge of other salaried staff.

IV Those involved in direct service to groups of young people, and not responsible for other salaried staff.

A final sample of 100 workers was drawn from the above categories. A number of research techniques were used during the survey of these youth workers:

- A structured interview schedule which focussed on two areas: employment and education.
- An attitudinal inventory.
- A work diary which contained a record of work activities for a week.
- Two psychological tests.

A questionnaire was also distributed to major youth work agencies and focussed upon prediction of future demand, official job descriptions and specific employment policies.

The results of the survey on youth workers and their education was presented in five sections:

Section 1 : Introduction
Section 2 : Emergence of a Youth Work Profession
Section 3 : Youth Workers Say
Section 4 : Youth Work Agencies Say
Section 5 : What of the Future?

A series of seven proposals were made in the final section.

BRITAIN : Evans, Alan: *Youth Exchange: The Way Ahead* (London: Europe House, 1970)

The terms of reference for this study were: "To examine the current provision of youth exchange facilities in Britain; to discover what information is available on youth exchanges between Britain and other countries, with particular reference to Europe; and to recommend whether any and, if so, what changes in the informational, structural and financial provision would bring about a more effective and comprehensive youth exchange programme between Britain and other countries."

The method used to implement the study was centred on the development of a self-administered questionnaire which was mailed to 50 organizations for completion and return over a two-week period in June 1969.

Completed questionnaires were returned by 12 of the organizations and, in addition, 17 British organizations were visited by the researcher "in order to discuss at length the issues that youth exchange policy raises". Nine of the 17 organizations were those which returned completed questionnaires, while the remaining eight organizations visited did not complete the questionnaires.

Fifteen of the 50 organizations approached did not fill in the questionnaire as part or whole of the questionnaire was not applicable to the youth activities of their organization; however, some did comment in letter form on those aspects of the questionnaire which were applicable to them.

The actual questionnaire was divided into six sections:

Section 1 : General identification of organization.

Section 2 : Sought details of membership, age, fees, etc.

Section 3 : Requested a table to be completed detailing the organzation's activity in conducting youth exchanges both to and from Britain.

Section 4 : Sought details of how exchanges are financed.

Section 5 : Sought details of the briefing and follow-up of youths involved in exchanges.

Section 6 : Sought details of the organization's own evaluation of their exchange programmes and sought indication of continued interest by the organization in the area of youth exchange.

The questionnaire provided information which supplemented data from an earlier mail questionnaire prepared and administered by the British Council. No detail of sample or response is given on the earlier questionnaire; however, the text is reproduced as an Appendix to the main report. The British Council questionnaire was divided into sections each containing three or more specific "points" upon which respondents were invited to comment. The sections were tabled:

A. Value of youth exchanges and visits.

B. Types of youth exchange and visits.

C. Future developments.
   1. Reception for incoming young people
   2. Travel
   3. Finance
   4. Dissemination of finance
   5. Recognition of bodies arranging exchanges
   6. Language courses
   7. Working holidays
   8. Centralization

The questionnaire also invited "further comments on the future development of youth exchanges and how public funds might be used".

THE RESULTS

There was no direct reporting in the text of the report of the compiled results of the 12 completed questionnaires.

The report was presented in 6 sections which consisted of:

Section 1 : Introduction

Section 2 : The present state of youth exchange provision in Britain

Section 3 : Some aspects of youth exchange provision in other European countries

Section 4 : Gaps in the existing provision

Section 5 : Towards a new structure

Section 6 : Conclusion

Within these 6 sections a series of 11 different recommendations were made, and these were described in a summary form at the front of the report.

In brief, the study recommended that:

- The British Government should make it legally binding on employers to extend to their employees under 30 years of age the opportunity for an additional two weeks absence from work on full pay to enable them to attend a "serious educational, cultural or vocational event".
- A National Office for Youth Exchanges (NOYE) be set up and be funded by a Treasury grant of £2 million per annum.
- Existing grants to organizations involved in Youth Exchange programmes be increased significantly.
- Existing organizations should concentrate their resources on leadership and highly specialized programmes, rather than contribute funds to existing programmes.
- A more adequate reception service for incoming visitors be established and operated by the Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges.

BRITAIN : Payne, J., Drummond, A. W. and Lunghi, M., Changes in Self-Concepts of School-Leavers who Participated in an Arctic Expedition, *British Journal of Educational Psychology,* 40: 211-216, 1970.

Fletcher, Basil, *The Challenge of Outward Bound* (London: Heinemann, 1971).

Roberts, Kenneth and White, Graham, The Impact of Character-Training Courses upon Young People: an Empirical Investigation, *British Journal of Social Work*, 2(3) : 337-354.

These three works demonstrate an interesting contrast in style of evaluation and also indicate the complexity of obtaining a clear picture in any complex situation.

Payne et al. studied a group of young men taking part in an Arctic expedition sponsored by the British Schools Exploring Society. Questionnaires designed to measure some aspects of personality and of self concept were administered to 35 members of the expedition both prior to their departure and on their return. The same tests were applied at the same time to a control group of equal size.

The results of this testing showed that those volunteering for the expedition were more extrovert than the general population. Secondly it was found that those who participated in the expedition reduced the discrepancy between their image of themselves and their ideals about the kind of person they would like to be. This change did not occur in the control group.

However, the nature of this change differed from one category of participants to another. Those who came from public schools showed a lessening of their ideal self image while those from grammar schools and from a police cadet college demonstrated a marked improvement in their perception of themselves as they really are.

Fletcher studied the work of the Outward Bound schools by asking young people who had participated in the schools to make their own assessment of changes which had occurred to them. They claimed that they had increased in self-confidence, maturity, job performance, ability to handle inter-personal relationships and in the quality of their leisure activities.

Roberts and White interviewed young people from the various establishments of a major company who had attended various character-training courses. One sub-sample were interviewed after completion of the course and the other sub-sample were interviewed after they had been selected to attend the course but prior to the actual attendance itself.

The interviews were designed on a number of hypotheses:

(1) That the social competence and achievement of trainees would be improved;

(2) the trainees would demonstrate greater self-awareness, reliance and initiative as a result of the course;

(3) that trainees' leisure time would be directly influenced and the quality of their leisure activities improved by the course;

(4) that the course will develop leadership qualities that will lead the young people concerned to seek and obtain career advancement;

(5) that young people would show an increased desire and capacity to use their talents in the interests of their fellows.

Of these hypotheses, only the third was found to be proven and no evidence was obtained to support the remainder.

It will be seen that of these studies, two have been based upon relatively small samples and have had limited resources available. They are suggestive but inconclusive as a basis for planning of character-training courses. That by Fletcher is insufficiently rigorous in its methodology to enable any conclusions to be drawn. This is clearly an area where more intensive and rigorous evaluation is urgently needed as considerable resources are invested in this type of youth programme.

BRITAIN: Thomas, Michael, *Work Camps and Volunteers* (London: PEP, 1971).

Three British groups involved in the organization of voluntary summer work programmes in Britain and Europe – the I.V.S., U.N.A. and Quaker Work Camps – saw the need for an assessment of their programmes with particular emphasis upon ascertaining the value of the work camps to the community, the effects of the camps upon volunteers and the relationship betwen camp organization and the overall success of the programme.

An initial analysis of the objectives of the work camp organizations, the volunteers and sponsors is presented. This is followed by a discussion of the four types of camps operating – manual, hospital, play scheme centres and holiday camps, assessing the effectiveness of each of their programmes in terms of their stated goals. This information was obtained in two ways, firstly by using a mailed questionnaire and secondly through an intensive study of 21 of the camps.

A questionnaire was sent to two volunteer samples in 1969. These two groups were selected proportionally from the three major camp organizations – the first being volunteers working in British camps, the second being volunteers based overseas. One-third of each group completed the questionnaire before attending the camp, the remainder when the camps had terminated. This provided data specifically related to the effects of camp experience upon volunteers.

Overall criticism of the programmes highlights inadequacies in preliminary planning, organization and selection of volunteers. This becomes most evident throughout the discussion of the work camps selected for intensive study. Within each category two camps were chosen, one to illustrate the features of a successful camp, with the second example highlighting the unsatisfactory aspects of the programme. Generally the manual work camps were successful

in spite of certain shortcomings within particular programmes while the play-scheme camps proved to be the most inadequate.

The study raised the question of the relevance of the work camps, as they are presently functioning, to the needs of the particular community they serve. It became evident that the contact with the community generally was limited. Official relationships with community bodies were established but beyond this liaison with local volunteer groups was not widespread. This problem was partly organizational. For instance, the availability and location of accommodation and financial support often dictated the nature of the camps. The desire to engender a group spirit and have volunteers working as a team often restricted the flexibility of the programme. The need to create group cohesion automatically placed limits upon the contact made outside the camp.

Most volunteers were single students of middle-class origin, reflecting a generalized awareness and interest in political, social and economic issues. This fact raised the recurrent issue of broadening the base of such programmes. The relevance of such programmes to people who presumably are aware and involved in matters of political, socio-economic concern is challenged. The work camp experiences did not alter their viewpoints significantly. There was some concern expressed about the quality of particular programmes; however, the ideal of the work camps was acceptable.

Preliminary camp organization and consistent support throughout the programme is posited as the determining factor in the success or failure of a programme. The major organizations are criticized here in several ways. Sponsors were often not given any idea of the type of volunteers to be allocated to their project, or the capacity of the camp site or the volunteers. The most effective projects had one representative from the sponsoring group liaising with the bodies organizing the camps.

The preparation and selection of volunteers was criticized. Effective recruitment of volunteers is hindered by the fact that volunteers select their own camps on a preferential basis. Little is known about the qualifications or interests of the group – which often leads to inappropriate placement of volunteers. In addition to this participants were poorly prepared for the task. Generally there was a lack of information about the types of camps and the nature of the work involved which therefore limited the extent to which the volunteers could orientate themselves to the task beforehand.

Camp routine suffered from the lack of organization too. Often leaders were supported by the camp organizations which reduced their effectiveness. When volunteers were not aware of the overall aims of the sponsor, or if work tasks were not defined the groups were confused. Social activities which were considered an integrated part of the programme were not always appropriate. Little account was taken of the fact that work patterns and the type of

accommodation had a considerable influence upon the type of organized social activity needed in any one project. Ongoing evaluation was rare, the communication between volunteers, sponsors and camp organizers generally being inconsistent.

BRITAIN: Bone, Margaret and Ross, Elizabeth, *The Youth Service and Similar Provision for Young People* (London: HMSO, 1972).

"The two broad aims of this enquiry which was commissioned by the Department of Education and Science were to describe the use made of Youth Service and allied facilities and to assess how far they met the needs of the young people for whom they were provided. It was therefore designed to yield a description of prevalence and style of use, and the differences between those young people who were involved and those who were not."

The survey was concerned with the 14 to 20 year-old range, since this is the range covered by the Youth Service at present. To get an adequate sampling frame for 14 to 20 year-olds on a national scale, a probability sample of 18,000 addresses was drawn from the Electoral Registers. A postal questionnaire was sent to each address asking for the name, date of birth and sex of each occupant aged between 10 and 25 years. A final sample of eligible young people was drawn from the information obtained from the postal questionnaire. A total of 3,849 young people and 2,592 parents were interviewed. The parents were selected primarily because of their relationship to the sampled young people.

Because it seemed likely that leisure activities and interests would vary with the season of the year, the field work was carried out in two stages. The first half of the sample was interviewed in the early summer (May – July) and the second in late autumn (October – December).

The results of the survey were presented in the general report under eight chapter headings:

Chapter 2 : Attachment to the youth service and allied activities.
Chapter 3 : Degrees of attachment.
Chapter 4 : Types of club and their attraction.
Chapter 5 : Ideal clubs – What young people want from voluntary social organizations.
Chapter 6 : Voluntary community service and residential courses.
Chapter 7 : Leisure activities of the young people.

Chapter 8 : Other differences between the attached and unattached and members of different types of club.

Chapter 9 : Differences within the main school leaving groups.

The final conclusions and discussion were presented in Chapter 10.

CANADA: Lucas A. and Dorais, Leo A., *Study of 1967 Youth Travel Groups* (Ottawa: Citizenship Branch (Social Development), Secretary of State Department, 1967.)

In an attempt to assess the overall effectiveness of a Canadian summer travel scheme with particular emphasis upon attitudinal changes in the participants, six groups of students were selected for this study. Three of the groups served as an experimental unit and the remaining three as the control unit. Groups were differentiated according to age and the type of community that the students would be visiting. Since all students resided in the same province and were allocated to the same host province during the scheme, language and regional differences were generally overcome. Therefore a reasonable degree of group homogeneity was established in the sample.

A range of research instruments were used throughout the study. A questionnaire was administered prior to and upon completion of the scheme. The preliminary questionnaire sought information about the respondents and their families, their knowledge and attitudes towards Canada, and their estimates of the difficulties and benefits of the travel scheme.

The second questionnaire was similar to the original interview schedule, with the additional questions probing the opinions of the participants on various aspects of the scheme such as the orientation programme, the return journey, the host province, and possible improvements. Items from questionnaires used in the study of the previous year were retained to facilitate comparability with the results of the preceeding groups studied.

Toward the end of the scheme a researcher visited each group in their host community. All local people involved were contacted and the researcher paticipated in group activities. The researcher also accompanied their particular group on their return journey home. During this time each group member was interviewed. The interview was informal but the areas of interest were — the attitudes each student expressed toward the host families and their particular group, the organizational aspects of the trip and their feelings about the overall benefits of the programme.

Finally the experimental group participated in an intensive orientation programme prior to the trip. Members of the control groups attended the standard orientation programme of one evening in their local community.

In concluding, five major areas are commented upon and this serves to highlight the weaknesses of the programme in the previous year.

The task of selecting both students and their escorts emerges as a most significant feature of the programme. Previous selection of students was narrow and consequently biased. In 1967 the project was given *wider* publicity throughout the schools with the result that a wider range and larger number of students showed interest in the project. Selection of escorts still reflected inadequacies. Many escorts were still uncertain of their role, with too much attention being given to the training of escorts rather than the initial selection of suitable candidates.

With regard to the organizational aspects of the programme, it became evident that a decentralized programme where local organizers were assisted by experienced co-ordinators was most effective. In this way allowances could be made for the diversity of social and educational needs. The selection of hosts was also more effective when operated locally.

An initial surprise was the fact that no significant differences arose between the experimental and control groups. The only major difference related to the assessment made of the group escorts. They were rated higher by both students and researchers in the experimental group. However this is attributed to the organizational features of the experimental groups rather than any incidental influences. It is suggested that differences do not emerge between the experimental and control groups because they had too much in common in terms of their regional origins and their experiences in their host province. The two provinces involved in this particular study allocated considerable resources to the organization and effective supervision of the programme. Other provinces did not give the same priority to these projects, therefore it was difficult to ascertain whether differences might have emerged in similar groups from other English-speaking provinces.

CANADA: *Evaluation of International Student Summer Employment Exchange Program — Outgoing Movement 1971* (Ottawa: Department of Manpower and Immigration, 1971.)

The Canadian Department of Manpower and Immigration launched an experimental programme during the summer of 1971 which aimed at placing Canadian post-secondary students in jobs overseas. Arrangements were made

with European volunteer agencies to collaborate in creating positions for the students in the 11 countries selected. This study attempts to evaluate the effectiveness of the programme and make suggestions about the areas that need improvement.

A telephone survey of the participants was conducted immediately following their return from Europe. The information collected related to these criteria of evaluation – student satisfaction with the programme, financial benefits, cultural benefits, perceived relationship between work experience and education, benefits of type of placement relative to provincial employment conditions.

The majority of students were satisfied with the programme. Criticism was levelled at the lack of detail given about the nature of the work, the conditions of employment, the type of accommodation available and the inadequate support available when in difficulties.

Financially the programme was not rewarding for the student relative to those students who worked in Canada during the summer. However, since the programme emphasized the socio-cultural benefits of change this was not a major issue. Yet the extent to which students participated in social and cultural activities was relatively small, either because students felt that the opportunity to participate was limited or their work-load was too demanding.

Since most jobs were manual, little was found that related to their academic training. In spite of the relatively high priority given to students from the central and western provinces who have economic problems, more students from the east coast participated in the scheme. This was probably related to the fact that students were responsible for their own travelling arrangements.

With minor adjustments it is concluded that the programme was successful and worthwhile continuing.

CANADA: *Evaluation of Canada Manpower Centres for Students 1971* (Ottawa: Department of Manpower and Immigration, 1971)

In 1967 the Department of Manpower and Immigration launches a summer programme to deal with student employment problems. These projects attempt to involve the local community in creating and placing students in employment, with students controlling the 119 employment centres established as referral points throughout the country.

In evaluating the programme two areas were considered – firstly the economic viability of such a programme with respect to cost of placement

of students; secondly, the benefit of these placements to the particular community generally.

In terms of these two criteria the programme was successful. Approximately 64,000 students of the 200,000 plus who registered with the centres were placed at a cost of $14 per student. Initial estimates of the cost of running these programmes was considerably reduced when the local communities provided many necessary amenities.

Generally the proportion of placements was actually higher than overall student unemployment with the exception of two provinces where employment conditions were not initially promising. The success of the centres themselves in involving students and the community in alleviating employment problems was most apparent. Generous assistance was given in the provision of physical facilities and publicity. Close liaison with local businesses, councils, federal bodies and local service organizations enhanced the creation of student projects in the community. Student employment officers by continually assessing the operational aspects of the programme provided invaluable information for future planning.

CANADA: *Student Summer Employment in Canada — 1971* (Ottawa: Department of Manpower and Immigration, n.d.)

In an attempt to utilize the tertiary student population for summer employment, the Canadian Government introduced an employment scheme in co-operation with the provincial and municipal governments, universities, student and community groups, as well as agencies such as the Canadian Chamber of Commerce.

Special student employment centres were established in selected areas in an attempt to involve the whole community in utilizing the local student labour potential. The Opportunities for Youth programme was launched and financial support was given to projects designed by and involving students. The Defence Department provided opportunities for placement of students in the armed forces. A variety of smaller supportive programmes were operating and included travel and exchange projects, an international summer employment scheme, language training, athletic scholarships and employment of students in the public service.

Apart from these indications of student employment patterns this report also utilizes information from the Department of Statistics September 1971 Labor Force Survey. Supplementary items were added to this standard questionnaire so that some assessment could be made of the summer employment

patterns of secondary students who returned to school the following year rather than entering tertiary institutions.

Each September the programme is evaluated by the Department of Manpower and Immigration with a view of assessing trends in the summer labour market and finding ways in which the programme of any particular year may be improved upon. Essentially the same sampling procedure is used. A stratified sample is selected and defined according to type of tertiary institution and number of enrolments. Questionnaires are then issued and completed by students during registration. Where it is not possible to survey students during registration mailed questionnaires are issued, although as expected the response rate is not consistent.

The major areas of assessment were the proportion of students seeking employment, the extent of employment and earnings, the particular areas in which students found work and the value of the work to both students and employers. Differences emerging with each of these areas were defined by sex, post-secondary institution attended, course studied and area of residence. Employment patterns of secondary school students are considered briefly along with a description of the monthly fluctuation in student employment throughout the summer.

By design the questionnaire accumulates a mass of quantitative data related to the employment patterns of students and provides extensive groundwork data for those bodies involved in evaluating specific features of the overall programme. Since the material serves as a resource there is no attempt to assess the implications of the emerging trends.

The major limitations of the study relate to the sampling framework and this has been acknowledged by the authors. Because the sample interviewed is restricted to students within a selected range of tertiary institutions, generalization to the total student population is limited because students returning to secondary institutions, or those who did not continue full-time education, were omitted from the study.

CANADA: *Report of the Evaluation Task Force to the Secretary of State: Opportunities for Youth 1971* (Ottawa: Department of the Secretary of State, 1972.)

The evaluation of the Opportunities for Youth programme used the goals of the programme as a basis for evaluation. These goals were as follows:

(1) Provision of summer employment for young people, and particularly for post-secondary students who are most in need of money to continue their education.

(2) Provision of employment which the participant-employees would see as "meaningful".

(3) Extension, through the projects, of some benefit to the communities in which the projects took place.

(4) The promotion of national unity.

An additional and over-riding concern was the method through which these goals were to be achieved, i.e., the structure and administration of the programme itself.

The research method used was a combination of interview and observation techniques plus documentary research and some special studies. The people interviewed included:

- a sample of project leaders.
- a sample of project participants who were not leaders.
- a sample of rejected applicants.
- a sample of community leaders in communities with Opportunities for Youth Projects.

Each interview schedule contained some pre-coded multiple choice questions and some open-ended questions. All accepted projects were interviewed in each community with the number of people interviewed varying with the size of the project.

The results were presented in the main report in three sections:

(1) Administration and selection

(2) Opportunities for Youth – In the field

(3) Opportunities for Youth and Community and National Response

There were 13 recommendations made in the conclusion of the report.

JAMAICA: Milson, Fred, *Youth Programmes in Jamaica* (Jamaica, 1969).

This assessment was made by Dr. Milson during a month visit to Jamaica. He visited a variety of youth organizations ranging from camps to youth centres, maintained contact with officials from these agencies and organized a three-day training programme for youth organizers, camp directors and administrators of the major youth agencies.

After a brief account of the socio-economic background and the historical development of youth services in the country, the report concentrates upon his observations of the youth camps and centres and focusses upon those areas needing improvement within the limits of the available resources.

The Jamaican Youth Camps provide young unemployed people an opportunity to live for 18 months in a camp where training in agriculture and related skills is provided. In spite of the difficulty with resources the author strongly suggests that the camps should begin to direct their training programmes towards industrial skills, although not at the expense of other skills. The author observed problems with graduates from those camps whose low literacy standards hindered their progress in the acquisition of these skills. He suggested that this could be overcome by raising the standards of teachers affiliated to the camps and reviewing the literacy standards for prospective candidates to the camps.

Clubs and youth centres generally suffered from a lack of resources — equipment and voluntary assistance. The author suggested that part of the solution would be to involve the clubs more with community life by enouraging the public to utilize the available facilities more often and more effectively.

With respect to the youth organizations two points were made — training programmes needed to be increased and greater emphasis to be given to interdepartmental co-operation and partnership betwen the statutory and voluntary organizations.

KENYA: Wilson, Gordon M., *Evaluation of 4.K Clubs — Influence Among Kenya Youth* (Nairobi, 1967).

To assess the effects of introducing 4.K Clubs into Kenyan schools two surveys were conducted in 1965. These clubs were organized by the Extension Youth Programme in Kenya and concerned with farm management and practice.

Eight groups of young people — 242 members and 391 non-members — were used in the sample. They were interviewed prior to the introduction of the clubs and the interviews then repeated one year later. Within the group as a whole there was a most definite improvement in their knowledge of agricultural practices. A difference between members and non-members of these clubs did emerge although this was not significant. During the study curriculum changes in the schools were emphasizing agricultural studies. Therefore to assess the increase in knowledge which could be directly attributed to those clubs rather than the curriculum changes, a new sample was drawn up. Two new groups were selected as control groups (353 students) from two provinces where the curriculum was similar to that of students in the original sample. Since clubs were not formally established in these areas their influence upon these two central groups was expected to be minimal.

The final results supported the original view that the introduction of these clubs not only improved knowledge of agricultural management amongst students in the clubs but also among non-members in the school. In addition the knowledge gained by non-members in a school was greater than in schools where no such clubs existed in spite of their similar curriculum. Wherever the clubs were established, members and non-members alike were aware of and made more use of the services provided by the agriculture ministry than similar groups in schools which did not have such clubs. Attitudes towards farming as a livelihood were generally far more favourable in schools where 4.K clubs were operating, thus providing conclusive evidence that the clubs were a valuable addition to the school programme.

KENYA: Mbithe, Philip M. & Olewe, Joshua, *Report to the United Nations on Youth Service Programmes in Kenya* (Nairobi: Institute for Development Studies, University of Nairobi, 1972.)

Recent socio-economic developments in Kenya have accentuated the problems of education and employment for school leavers. Young people are completing their schooling at a relatively early age. The labour force is growing at a rapid rate yet these people are not being readily absorbed within the existing structures.

Thus the study commissioned by the U.N. focusses upon the ways in which the existing youth organizations are deploying young people for direct service in the development of social and economic plans. Two major groups — the Kenya Government National Youth Service and the Kenya Voluntary Development Association were selected for intensive study since these two were the only organizations whose main aim was to mobilize young people for direct involvement in national work programmes. A total sample of 90 people were interviewed — 40 from the K.V.D.A. and 50 from the K.G.N.Y.S. Of those selected from the K.V.D.A. 10 were administrators-planners and 30 were volunteers. The 50 chosen from the K.G.N.Y.S. were randomly selected on the basis of companies (each comprising 100 volunteers) and task area. The remaining youth organizations included similar work programmes yet these were generally not given top priority — emphasis is given to providing services for young people.

The K.G.N.Y.S. is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Labor providing a voluntary work and educational programme for people between the ages of 16-30 years. The 4,000 volunteers are paid a monthly wage and are expected to serve for two years although there are no penalties applied if a

volunteer terminates earlier. Only projects which are recognised as part of the National Development Plan are embarked upon. The K.V.D.A. is a non-government voluntary organization with 200-250 registered members at any one time. The organization is most active during school holidays. Projects are of a localised nature and are generally the responsibility of a particular community or self-help group. During their assignment the volunteers live in a community, run their own camp and work with the local population.

Although the K.V.D.A. and the K.G.N.Y.S. are involved in mobilizing young people for national development, there are fundamental differences in their organization and the type of volunteer programmes developed, and hence differences in the way in which the volunteers perceive their controlling organization. The K.G.N.Y.S. is tightly organized with a definite status and command structure. The K.V.D.A. however is loosely organized, control is delegated to the volunteers and localised to the work camp situation.

Both recruit volunteers from different age groups and educational levels. The K.G.N.Y.S. attracts younger people from 19-22 years and those who have completed primary school education, suggesting that volunteers anticipate opportunities for further training and employment within the K.G.N.Y.S. programme. The K.V.D.A. attracts older people who have completed more schooling. This draws attention to the current recruitment policies of K.V.D.A. since this type of volunteer is essentially employable and perhaps denies those young people with less education the opportunity for further training and work experience. Most of the volunteers in both organizations come from rural peasant families. This trend is a reflection upon the problems emerging from mass migration to the cities. The evidence suggests that the K.G.N.Y.S. in particular is helping to alleviate the problem since it recruits from primary school leavers and the rural areas.

Volunteers in both the K.V.D.A. and the K.G.N.Y.S. felt that their work contributed to the development of Kenya. However the differences emerge with respect to the ways in which people felt that they contributed individually, what they felt was the value of their voluntary work, the skills they hoped to attain and the relationships between peer groups and staff within their respective organizations.

Apart from this detailed analysis of the two programmes the study also highlighted other features of the youth service field generally. Perhaps the most apparent feature is the extent to which these services are directed toward the school population. Virtually none of the voluntary organizations direct their programmes towards the young person who has completed schooling and is unemployed or unattached. In terms of the current trends in Kenya this is discouraging and is therefore given priority throughout the recommendations, with particular emphasis being placed upon the terms of reference and organizational role of the Youth Council of Kenya.

MAURITIUS: Admiraal, J.G.A., *Evaluation Report: Training Course for Agricultural Youth Club Committee Members* (Mauritius: Ministry of Youth and Sports, 1971)

Every six months the Agricultural Extension Service sponsors a training course for agricultural youth club committee members. Areas covered during the programme are leadership, general club work and administration. Of the 107 participants, only 19 were sent a mailed questionnaire upon completing the training programme. The questionnaire sought detailed opinions about the daily programming and general questions about the course.

The programme was evaluated in terms of five criteria -- the instructive and practical value of the course, the effect of the course upon group cohesion, the contribution made to the moral education of the participants and the recreational value. Each aspect of the programme is analysed in depth and provides some evidence upon which suggested improvements could be made. Participants saw the benefits of group discussion. They did not readily support the need for planning programmes in any depth, yet the authors place particular emphasis upon this area in their recommendations. Instruction in administrative skills was generally adequate and this is partly attributed to the fact that participants were already familiar with the material. The field work excursion which attempted to introduce participants to alternative recreational activities was less successful.

In conclusion the author makes an assessment of each programmed activity in terms of his five criteria by denoting "low", "reasonable", and "high" ratings and presents this in diagramatic form.

MAURITIUS: Admiraal, J.G.A., *Some Comments on the Third Training Course for Committee Members of Agricultural Youth Clubs* (Mauritius: Ministry of Youth and Sports, 1972)

This is a brief evaluation of the third training course organized for 128 committee members from 28 agricultural youth clubs in Mauritius. Objectives of the programme ranged from aspects of club organization to instruction in agricultural subjects and recreation.

Some preliminary detail is given about the setting, programme and organization of the course. During the last day of the camp each participant answered a seven-item questionnaire which sought opinions on the style of presentation, the time allotted to each activity, the nature of the activity and suggested improvement to the course.

After evaluating the preceding training course several alterations were made to the programme, but in spite of this difficulties arose because there were more participants in the programme. Therefore it was suggested that the number of courses needed to increase so that organizational problems would not become overwhelming.

Participants were positive about the instructive aspects of the programme. However, they preferred the lecture method rather than group discussion as a means to this end. The author suggests that the trainees were reluctant to participate in open discussion because of shyness or perhaps language difficulties. The sports programme suffered because of the limited participation of the trainees. Drama and song activities on the other hand suffered from a lack of structure and guidance.

Suggested improvements to the programme focus upon the methods of instruction and the organizational problems which emerge in response to increasing the number of participants.

NEW ZEALAND: *Recreation Patterns in Auckland* (Auckland Regional Authority, 1971).

The aim of this study was to identify Auckland's recreation patterns and the need for further involvement.

The method consisted of administering questionnaires to a cross-section of the population in five of Auckland's districts. A personal questionnaire was distributed to a sample cross-section in each district and a second questionnaire was completed by club officials and those responsible for administering recreation facilities in the districts concerned.

The personal questionnaire sought to establish the age group, sex, present recreational activities and desired recreational activities of the respondent. There were 2,942 questionnaires returned which represents 6.4 percent of the total population.

The results were presented in a tabular form, with the various recreational activities grouped under five main headings — sports and games, keep fit and personal grooming, social activities, the arts and hobbies. For each activity there were figures on actual participation and desired participation. There was also an age and sex breakdown for each group of activities.

On the basis of the above results, predictions were made about the current appeal and likely future demand for each activity in the survey.

NEW ZEALAND: *Survey of Membership Patterns of Three Auckland Community Centres* (Auckland Regional Authority, n.d.)

The purpose of this survey was: "To locate the distribution of the membership of three of Auckland's local authority community centres – Mont Albert, Manurewa and Onehunga – and the reasons for the particular distribution so that future community centre proposals may be assisted in regard to location, programmes and leadership."

The two areas looked at in the survey were the origin of the people who attended the activities at the community centres and their reasons for coming to a particular centre. In particular, it was suggested that there are a variety of factors which might affect the drawing power of a given community centre. The factors are:

- Distance from centres of population
- Range of alternative activities within the area
- Physical barriers to access
- The adequacy of the available public transport
- Age structure of the local community
- Socio-economic status of the local population
- Cohesion and integration of the local community
- Influence of local community leaders such as school teachers
- Variety of activities offered within the centre
- Drawing power of alternative activities within the area
- Structure of fees for the centre
- Permanent, professional management in the centre
- Parking availability
- Visibility of the centre from major transport routes
- Publicity in the local media

The method used to carry out this survey was centred around a spatial distribution on maps of the origin of members of the three centres. Differentiation of the various activities and classes of membership as well as residential locations were shown on the maps. The maps plus some sociological data on the relevant Auckland suburbs and open-ended interviews with the managers of each of the three centres formed the basis from which the conclusions were drawn.

The questionnaire consisted of 15 open-ended questions which were divided under the following headings:

- Age of centre
- Travel and distance

- Characteristics of local community
- Competition from alternative attractions
- Novelty effect
- Completeness of our information
- Publicity
- Fees
- Usage of centre

The results of the survey were divided into three sections, one for each community centre. The data was discussed under roughly the same headings used in the questionnaire. The conclusion described the effect on membership patterns of the 15 factors likely to affect the drawing power of a community centre. Trends where some of the factors like social cohesion and isolation affected membership patterns in the three centres were noted.

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