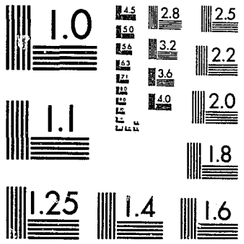

Proceedings of the Conference on Community Action and Accountability— Youth and Family Services

Kelowna, B.C.

March 23 to 25, 1981

Province of British Columbia
Ministry of Attorney General

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I.	Evening session 7:30 - 9:30 p.m.	Keynote Address - Jack Hest	
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III.	9:30 - 10:00 a.m.	Program Overview - Gary Sagar	Lecture presentation and exercise in examining the framework of an organization and approaches to change. Identification and priorization of issues
	10:30 - noon	Small Task groups assembled	
	Afternoon Session 1:30 - 2:30 p.m.	Feedback of issues to total group assembly	Discussion, questions and answers
	2:30 - 4:00 p.m.	Small Task groups reassembled	Discussion toward identifying solutions
IV.	6:30 - 10:00 p.m.	Dinner A Comment on Selected Issues: Mandate, State Intervention, and Labelling Theory - Sandra Edelman	Audience reaction and discussion
V.		Discussion paper distributed	
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VI.	9:00 - 11:30 a.m.	Program Evaluation - Wendy Rowe	Lecture presentation - concepts and techniques for evaluation and requirements for effective implementation
VII.	1:00 - 2:30 p.m.	Where do we go from here?	Conference overview. Discussion of Juvenile Crime Prevention Policy and proposed follow-up action

PURPOSE:

To bring together program staff of Youth and Family Programs, police, other professionals, Ministry of Attorney General Officials, representatives of the Solicitor General of Canada, and representatives of other provincial government ministries, to review current programs, examine evaluations presently being carried out, and to look to future ways to assist local communities interested in developing the Youth and Family Counselling concept.

Jointly funded by the Solicitor General of Canada and Ministry of Attorney General, B.C.

KEYNOTE ADDRESS .... S/Sgt. J.J. Hest

R.C.M.P., Victoria, B.C.

Good evening ladies and gentlemen. Welcome to Kelowna, the orchard city, apple capital of Canada - one of my favourite places, being fortunate enough to have been stationed here on two occasions.

I know many of you travelled a fair distance today and may be weary, but I'm sure you will find your accommodation here at the Capri suitable and relaxing. The Conference organizers have planned a brief social evening for you as a prelude to two days of stimulating discussion, brainstorming, evaluating, and just plain hard work.

Acknowledgements:

1. Program people - involved in delivery of early assistance

2. Police community - Municipal Chiefs and senior officers of R.C.M.P.

2. Ministries hosting the Conference:

Ministry of Attorney General

Solicitor General of Canada.

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Conferences such as this provide people the opportunity to clearly isolate problems and engineer the social changes from which solutions can be derived.

When I was asked to give the opening address for this Conference, I was flattered, not because I am a proponent of the resource we are gathered here to analyze, but because the list of delegates to this Conference contains many names of persons eminently more qualified than I in addressing the problem of delinquent behaviour.

In preparing this short dissertation, I have asked myself "how shall I speak?"

- as a police officer who has observed juvenile delinquency in most of its forms?
- as a taxpayer concerned over the seemingly endless costs in dealing with the problem?
- as a father of three children who have so far avoided those activities defined as delinquencies? Or,
- as a person who is concerned about a trend in society to change the attitudes of young persons only after they have committed a delinquency or a criminal act, and then only with the emphasis on punishment?

I will, I suppose, reveal my feelings and bias in each of those roles.

Is there a problem of juvenile delinquency in British Columbia?

- Ask a businessman who perceives the problem of vandalism as being out of control and who believes that young people are entirely responsible.
- Ask a probation officer whose caseload is such that he may have 10 minutes to spare with each juvenile probationer every two weeks.
- Ask a police investigator who has just apprehended a juvenile for 10 or 15 or more B & Es while awaiting trial on other offences.
- Ask a crime statistician. He will tell you that in 1973 there was a total of 847 juvenile prosecutions in the province, during that time no record was kept of the number of cases cleared informally. That is to say that those informal cases could have resulted in additional prosecutions. In 1980 there were 14,941 juvenile prosecutions in this province with an additional 10,050 cases handled informally for a total of 24,991 cases handled by the criminal justice system in one way or another.

- Some personal observations -

Bearing in mind that statistics alone do not tell the entire story and are to be used as an indicator, they are, I believe, a very good indicator that we are experiencing a very dramatic increase in juvenile crime behaviour, or we are becoming much more efficient at apprehending them, or we are using the criminal justice system as a substitute disciplinarian for parenting - schools - and even the religious establishments. By that I mean if we look back to a point in time not so long ago discipline and punishment were taught and administered in the homes, schools and churches of North America. With the lessening of eclesiastic influence, the liberalization of our educational institutions and the current fragility of the family unit, there remains only one institution to discipline and punish our youth with a view to altering their behaviour. The result can be predictable in a society who believes and practices the concept that criminal behaviour can only be deterred through consequence in the form of fines, imprisonment and capital punishment.

I would like to quote from Time, March 23, 1981.

"Alfred Blumstein of Carnegie-Mellon University, offers a thoughtful connection of the community idea with the criminal justice system when he says that "one reason the

courts are so overloaded is that family, church and neighbourhoods are weakened. The criminal justice system is very weak as a crime control agent. It does some good but not a lot. We've got to look and find other forms of social control than the remote, impersonal and inherently limited criminal justice system that now serves as a replacement for institutions so weakened; thus it's important that we try to find local forms of security that are more responsible and accepted. It would be interesting if ultimately the most useful reform of the criminal justice system turned out to be the reform of one's own block, of one's own house....."

What is a juvenile? The current legal definition is "child" and means any boy or girl apparently or actually under the age of sixteen or such other age as may be directed in any province. In British Columbia a child or juvenile is under 17 years of age.

At this point I would like to refer to the publication "Child at Risk" - a report of the Standing Senate Committee on Health Welfare and Science, published 1980.

"During the last decade in Canada there has been an alarming increase in violent juvenile delinquency. In 1974 6,908 juveniles were apprehended for offences

against the person. In 1978 10,277 were apprehended. The rate of apprehensions increased from 155 to 249 per 100,000 juveniles. In 1977/78 it cost $600,000 per day to run provincial correctional institutions in Canada. That same year it cost $295,000,000 to run federal prisons for a total cost of around $500,000,000 to the Canadian taxpayer.

After several years of hearings, the Senate Committee is convinced that there is no such thing as a natural born criminal. Pre-natal, perinatal, post natal, early childhood experiences combine to influence behaviour."

Social workers, health nurses, school teachers and police officers may agree that there is a distinct series of "flag raisings" during the life of a child that tend to indicate he or she is on a direct path from the play pen to the B. C. Pen.

It is the response or lack of response to these flag raisings that we will be examining over the next 48 hours; the concept of "preventive counselling"; "early identification and intervention"; "early recognition and assistance" or whatever terminology you prefer. The Langley Youth and Family Services and the Kelowna Youth and Family Services are

resources that were established to respond to the needs of juveniles and their families in conflict with the law, with the school system, and with each other, established and aligned with the police service to respond to those "flag raisings" in an attempt to prevent youth from progressing any further on the path leading to the criminal justice system.

During the next two days we will attempt to dissect these two programs and examine their components. As a group we will be making recommendations that will affect the future of preventive counselling in this province and will ultimately impact on the crime rate.

If I were to make a statement of conference objectives, or to state a goal, it would probably be "to reach a consensus as to the viability of early assistance as a means of reducing the number of young people entering the criminal justice system".

"Youth is disintegrating. The youngsters of the land have a disrespect for their elders and a contempt for authority in every form. Vandalism is rife and crime of all kinds is rampant among our young people. The nation is in peril".

Those were the words of an Egyptian priest spoken over 4,000 years ago.

I believe we have reached a stage of sophistication in our social sciences where we could have significant effect in guiding young people through their formative years. While parents have responsibilities they do or do not fulfill, the fact remains that our youth spend as much time or more with agency people such as nurses, teachers, guidance counsellors, and children in conflict spend considerably more time with other agency people, Ministry of Human Resources, police, probation, and so on....

We have the skills to correct, minimize, and to prevent problems. What we lack is an appropriate delivery system; one upon which the majority of us agree.

We can't wait another 4,000 years to act on a problem articulated by the Egyptian priest.

Now I would invite you to enjoy the refreshments provided and I hope you enjoy participating in this Conference.

- Thank you -

OPENING REMARKS

- Fern Jeffries
Regional Consultant
Consultation Centre
Solicitor General Canada

This Workshop is jointly sponsored by the Federal Government and the Provincial Government as part of an overall juvenile crime prevention strategy. We hear so much today about disagreements between Ottawa and Victoria, it is heartening indeed to see both governments working in close co-operation in their attempts to reduce the number of young people who come into conflict with the law.

Youth and Family Counselling Services are seen as an integral part of these efforts. The two other programs which are part of the overall strategy include:

School Liaison Programs which promote positive interaction between students and police; and

Community Action Groups where the local community is encouraged and assisted in taking responsibility for problem solving in the area of juvenile crime prevention.

The intent of government policy in all three program areas is to encourage local initiative and local responsibility. Most of the projects represented here today are for the most part funded by local levels of government. Experience tells us that this is the most effective way of ensuring that worthwhile innovations continue beyond a demonstration phase where start-up funds are granted by senior levels of government.

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The role for government within our current strategy then is twofold: first, to ensure that official senior government policy supports and facilitates positive community initiatives in juvenile crime prevention; and second, to provide technical assistance both to communities which are just beginning to take an active interest in providing services to young people who are experiencing difficulties which may lead them into conflict with the law.

This Workshop is part of our efforts in the area of Technical Assistance. We have here people from active counselling projects and from police departments which use and support this type of resource. The civil servants here are researchers, policy makers, and program workers who all agree that providing counselling to young people and their families is a vital part of a program of early identification and assistance.

The debate over the next two days will centre not on <u>whether</u> this approach is worthwhile, but on <u>how to</u> make it as effective and efficient as possible.

Tomorrow we will focus on the issues and concerns surrounding community support, e.g. funding, credibility, etc. The evening session will focus specifically on legal mandate. On Wednesday, we will be looking at evaluation and monitoring - the reasons for evaluation, the process itself, and a bit of "how to" evaluate. Background reading for this session is the recently completed report by Wendy Rowe, "Process Evaluation". Funding for that work was again a joint federal/provincial effort as part of the Technical Assistance role of the Juvenile Crime Prevention Program.

The final session on Wednesday afternoon will be a "where do we go from here?" session - what needs to happen and who should make it happen. This then is a working conference. It is our hope that your work will pay off, not only for your own community, but for others who will read the proceedings of this Workshop as groundwork in starting new preventive projects.

COMMUNITY SERVICES WORKSHOP

- Gary Sagar
Senior Research Associate
Policy Planning Division
Ministry of Attorney General

INTRODUCTION

I am pleased to have an opportunity to be here this morning. Last night Jack talked about the need for programs as a vehicle for providing services, he spoke of the pioneering efforts that some of you are making in developing and operating direct counselling programs. Jack also read a quotation about the need to work at the local level.

My intention for this session is to provide you with a couple of points of view about how to look at an organization. How can we tell the difference between an organization that can and does provide service, and one that could, but never does.

It is my opinion that how you plan, monitor and evaluate a service organization depends a lot on how you perceive any organization to operate.

When we consider each point of view the question I'd like you to ask is not is it right or wrong - rather ask under what conditions it is useful.

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We will look at an organization in terms of community support.

- what resources are needed
- what are the obstacles
- what are we willing to do.

This morning we will start with an introductory exercise that will help you to visualize an organization.

Then I will provide a framework that you might find useful as a filter for your examination of counselling programs.

This will be followed by small group sessions focussing on issues this morning and on solutions this afternoon.

OVERVIEW

Each of you work within organizations and each of you work with people. It is my point of view that the same tools that you use in understanding people can be used in understanding organizations.

1. If you see a boy committing a mischevious act. How do you decide if you decide the boy is on the road to delinquency or an enthusiastic prankster? It has little to do with the <u>action</u> but a lot to do with our beliefs about the action.

2. If someone kills another person, how do you decide if you should call for capital punishment, or decorate the person as a hero? It has little to do with the action and a lot to do with our beliefs about the action.

I take the position that my perspective on the problems and needs of an organization have a lot to do with how I define how an organization <u>should</u> work.

FORMAL RATIONAL ORGANIZATION

It is common in the management literature and in our "common sense" view of the world to have a normative definition of

an organization such as

- a group of people, resources and processes working to achieve a common objective.

This definition emphasizes purpose, cooperative effort and may be supported by a number of formal relationships.

- legal charter
- organization chart
- manual of standard operating procedures.

When I visualize this kind of organization, I get the image of a precision machine, efficient, humming with energy.

Value of this model.

This view of an organization has survived because it is useful. It is clear. It focusses all attention on a purpose. It is efficient in describing important relationships.

Shortcomings of machine model.

1. It does not describe much or our daily experiences with organizations.

2. It defines as problems many things that aren't happening by the book.

3. It makes other objectives and goals seem obstructionist if they interfere with the stated goal.

4. It often leads to the diagnosis that there is a problem to solve - and that if there was better information and more goodwill the problems will be solved.

5. The model doesn't explain the history of an organization - why it got the way it did, how it changes, how it sustains itself.

Organization as an open system

In the crime prevention field, most of you have experienced both the agony and exhilaration of operating programs at the razor's edge. Marshalling support, wondering whether your program will survive, and will it thrive.

Is this experience of constantly marshalling resources a problem or is it just how life is. If we look at a large corporation we may assume they don't have such problems but if you look more closely you see that they have a product or service base as well as networks of worker and supplier

relationships that are constantly requiring nurturing. We now have the term corporate welfare referring to large corporations that have misjudged their "free market" relationships and are now seeking new forms of support that at other times were almost unimaginable.

When you are living on the razor's edge, what are the kinds of resources that make a difference between survival and failure, what options do you have, and what prices do you pay? Think of these resources from the point of view of your position. Whether you are a program person, police or bureaucrat.

Dimensions of Community Support

1. Money
   - survival
   - resources - single patron versus broad support
   - is amount adjustable or fixed
   - what are the strings attached.

2. Management
   - is there a strong statement of mission
   - how are resources allocated
   - how are conflicts handled.

3. Professional Relationships
   - ability to get professional satisfaction
   - ability to recruit
   - conditions of employment
   - training resources
   - referral networks

4. Client
   - needs
   - sources
   - control over compliance

5. Political
   - is this a dirty word
   - is it a resource for marshalling resources

6. Administration
   - to what extent does administration facilitate service programs - to what extent does it interfere
   - how does it meet real needs

Prices we pay

Loss of control - power struggles
- empire building
- distrust

Flexibility

Professional freedom

Efficiency of administration

Ability to select clients

Ability to respond to population's needs

Stability

Ability to keep organization responsive.

Notice that these characteristics are dynamic. They have to be attended to day-by-day.

Notice that there is no <u>right</u> or wrong - in fact some characteristics appear in pairs,

e.g. flexibility - stability

professional freedom - ability of keeping organization responsible.

TASK

This morning we will break into four small groups. Each group includes one or more people who run counselling programs, as well as police and bureaucrats that interact in various capacities.

The program people were invited to write up brief descriptions of their programs - the format for the questionnaire was such to stimulate structuring the description in terms of the types of community support systems developed by the program. (see appendices)

1. I would like to ask those who run programs or work with programs to describe your programs and what are the critical issues that you are dealing with.

2. Dig beneath the surface to find out what is really happening
   - what does the counselling label really mean
   - who are you really dependent on
   - does it really matter if the unit is closed by lack of funding or by strike.

3. Get a full list of critical issues - discuss options but <u>don't go to solutions</u>

MONEY - who thinks money is important to running a program?

When your group gets on the topic of money I would like each group facilitator to spend time on that topic - get into it fully in all its dimensions - it has implications all over the program.

I want you to acknowledge the issue, deal with it. Then set it aside. I would suggest that money is necessary at some level but it isn't sufficient.

Just as money can't buy happiness, I'll suggest that it can't buy an effective counselling program either.

Coffee will be served in the small groups. By noon, the intention is for each group to develop a full list of critical issues and to be able to identify the most critical. Understand exactly what the people in your group mean by a counselling program and what it's objectives are.

Here is something for you to stay in touch with about your

own participation - keep in touch with how frequently you stop talking about issues and get anxious about proposing solutions - when we focus on solutions this afternoon, guess what you will want to talk about.

Work groups assembled to discuss issues.

NOTE:
For reporting purposes all major issues have been identified under five topics:

Policy
Goals
Communication
Credibility
Funding

Following each topic is a summary of the solutions identified during the afternoon workshops.

The process used to identify the solutions follows.

You were very creative this morning in your identification of a wide range of important issues. I want to live up to my promises and give you an opportunity to propose solutions or creative ways of handling the issues raised.

I would like you to develop solutions from a very specific perspective. If you start from the assumption that you wish to implement a Family and Youth Services program or to make an existing program more suitable, what would you be willing to do from your positions as worker, citizen, or as a member of a family to contribute to the development of such programs in your area of influence. It is easy to make statements about what other people might do - what I want each participant to consider is to what extent is he willing to make a personal statement about how he can be part of the solution.

This morning when I asked you to stick to issues, many of you wanted to rush to solutions. Now that I'm asking you to stay with solutions, just keep a mental note of how often you want to raise new issues to avoid having to commit yourself.

The products of these sessions are:

1. A list of major program (subprograms) you would include in your definition of a Youth and Family Services Program

2. How would you define, or go about defining the target client population?

3. What specific actions can each participant, working from his present position, take to create new programs?

POLICY

ISSUES:

The major policy issues raised by the delegates included:

a. The need for a mandate for early assistance which includes incentives, program viability, and a recognition of service limitations.

b. The need for a clear direction from the power structure (i.e. government) for both public and private agencies.

c. The need for a formalization of coordination and sharing information between Ministries (e.g. horizontal communication) and also to avoid duplication.

d. The program should be developed by local communities who are convinced of the need for prevention and its potential effectiveness.

e. The need for program guidelines, accountability, evaluation, and documentation to analyse and measure program effectiveness.

POLICY

SOLUTIONS :

Solutions proposed by the participants were as follows:

a. A philosophical and public statement from governments is required to demonstrate support for crime prevention (early intervention and assistance)
   - now available from the Ministry of Attorney General

b. An inter-Ministry involvement is essential to develop program credibility and facilitate a specific program focus for community groups, e.g., vandalism, drinking and driving, etc.

c. A constant effort to define and redefine target objectives, i.e. client groups service delivery to prevent duplication, and the starting point for intervention.

d. A policy supported by local, regional, provincial, and federal governments and backed up with long term funding, political, and professional staff commitment.

GOALS

ISSUES:

Many workshop participants commented that expectations, goals and program objectives in the area of juvenile crime prevention, youth and family services were vague and poorly conceptualized by police and social service personnel working in this area. It was also apparent that there was considerable disagreement among police and program staff about what should be the most important goals of this type of program. However, all individuals agreed that goals must clearly reflect the identified needs of the community and that these needs should be identified by the various community resources such as police, schools, health, government, parent groups, and those youth in need of services. There was a feeling that, too often, goals are not realistically based on the needs of a community and on the amount of support and resources that can be provided by the community for such kinds of services. It was also felt that, if the goals are not accepted and broadly endorsed by a large sector of the professionals in the social service and justice system, the program would cease to continue once the individuals, who have developed and implemented the program, leave. Another problem in the area of

program goals concerns the lack of built-in organizational flexibility in most programs to change goals when community needs change.

GOALS

SOLUTIONS:

It was felt that program goals should be directed to the problems of a particular target group; families and at-risk delinquent youth. At-risk youth were characterized as behaviour problem youth who have been identified as potentially delinquent and youth who have been apprehended by police for minor offences.

Intervention and assistance strategies presently operating within the other ministries should be examined in order to determine any commonality of goals. Cooperation and coordinated intervention strategies can then be promoted instead of incurring overlap and redundancy of service delivery.

Formalized interviews and surveys can be conducted and police juvenile statistics examined in order to identify community concerns and the problems and characteristics of a target population. Goals and objectives can then be formulated by a committee of representatives from the police, Education, Health, Human Resources and community persons to address these identified needs.

Ongoing surveys of community bodies as well as professional groups should be carried out to determine their degree of satisfaction that the program goals are addressing the community needs.

The Juvenile Crime Prevention strategy and subsequent projects should mesh with such concepts as the Ministry of Human Resources Family Support Model.

COMMUNICATION

ISSUES:

Agencies, both statutory and those directly involved with juvenile crime prevention at the project level, are unclear as to initiatives undertaken in this area, i.e.

a. There is little two-way communication concerning juvenile crime prevention between government agencies in the field.

b. In the area of confidentiality and information sharing, intergroup committees, provincial governments, and local governments are not directly tied in to juvenile crime prevention philosophy and activities.

c. Cross Ministry communication is critical at local, regional, and provincial levels and must be maximized if juvenile crime prevention strategies are to succeed. This involves cooperation and information sharing concerning subject areas such as general youth programming, confidentiality issues, and case ownership and mandate questions.

COMMUNICATION

SOLUTIONS:

That a constant process of inter-agency consultation is necessary at both policy and working levels:

a. Use agencies which span the community to introduce and/or spearhead juvenile crime prevention activities, i.e. inter-ministerial committees, service clubs (Rotary, Lions, Kiwanis, Chamber of Commerce) R.C.M.P. and local police departments.

b. Establish local communication system with local agencies whether directly or indirectly involved, including volunteer community groups.

c. Provide proper information to local agency and governmental officials on juvenile crime prevention programs in their area and seek assistance from interagency groups about local problems and issues including difficulty in delivery services, securing resources, and getting community support.

d. Educate community people, local politicians, system people about the working of the criminal justice system through

news releases, cable t.v. presentations, brochures and community presentations from groups such as the Ministry of Attorney General, B.C. Police Commission, Justice Institute, Solicitor General of Canada, R.C.M.P. and local police.

e. By promoting community development and awareness (including strategy marketing) through attendance and participation at conventions involving both private and public groups, council meetings of local government, and agency meetings, both internal and cross ministry.

f. The Juvenile Provincial Crime Prevention Committee should set up a communication network for youth services (i.e. newsletter). Information should not only be shared between operational projects but from projects back to appropriate government ministries and departments.

CREDIBILITY

ISSUES:

When a new service program is established it lacks trust and credibility with other agencies in the community. Without credibility with police, professionals, clients and members of the community, there will be a lack of support for new programs and the program may be unable to achieve or sustain its results.

It was felt that the initial staffing criteria and selection process is critical in building and maintaining credibility. Staff criteria must address counselling competence and styles, salary levels and standing of staff in the professional community, and the ability of staff to handle program administration to develop credibility with the significant elements in the community.

CREDIBILITY

SOLUTIONS:

It was recommended that programs establish a Board of Directors to act as a buffer for funding sources. The selection of the Board is important as a means of obtaining broad base support and it was suggested that members be recruited from businesses, municipal council, police, legal professions, churches and concerned community members.

Program promoters should identify ways in which counselling programs meet the objectives of other agencies (police, service clubs, etc.) and make these common areas known.

Program promoters must recognize the importance of fund raising in the organization and select staff or outsiders who will raise funds and sell the program.

Hire professional staff who will be credible with other community agencies so that agencies will make referrals and accept referrals.

FUNDING

ISSUES:

Funding continues to be one of the major issues facing communities wishing to implement preventive counselling. Several programs such as Langley and Kelowna Youth and Family Services are funded locally through realignment of municipal budgets. This method of resourcing is still not accepted by many communities and is not available to rural areas who have no local budgeting for social programs.

Concern was expressed over funding provided from a higher level. There exists the possibility that "program ownership" would become a side issue and that program flexibility may be inhibited. Higher level funding creates risks in that a shift of priorities at that level may result in the demise of a critical resource at the community level. There are numerous past examples where this has in fact been the case.

Short-term vs long-term funding was viewed from the potential for impact on the program planning. Short-term, grant-type funding creates difficulties in establishing long-term objectives relative to crime prevention and precludes the possibility of attracting high quality programs. There is inevitably a self-destruct factor associated with short-term

funding as it does not provide sufficient time to demonstrate effectiveness to the point where an evaluation process could ensure program survival.

FUNDING

SOLUTIONS:

Local funding, through realignment or as a new resource, was viewed as the most stable source. Whether this be through an existing budget, such as police or some other agency or in the form of a contract with a private society would depend on the needs of the particular community.

Various sources of funding were explored:

1. Inter-ministry funding
2. Client funding - fee for service in some cases
3. Private agency funding and service delivery
4. Corporate/Industrial funding sources as yet unapproached
5. Autonomous funding sources
6. Multiple funding and multiple program delivery (combination of several sources)

In addressing the issue of funding for rural (unorganized) areas it was felt that a system of lateral communication throughout various ministries and agencies held the most promise. The success of this approach depends, to a great

extent, on the quality of effort put into the problem identification and marketing process. Community agencies and organizations play a vital role in pursuing this means of funding.

EVENING SESSION

PRESENTATION: - Sandra Edelman
Research Officer
Policy Planning Division

Three issues were outlined for discussion:

1. implications of the labelling perspective
2. whether and when the state has the right to intervene in the lives of individuals
3. whether youth and family counselling programs have a legal mandate and within this topic, are referrals by the police coercive and are the programs compulsory?

The paper which follows was prepared in advance of the conference as background material which provided the guidelines for the above issues. (The paper itself was not read to the conference participants but has been included in the proceedings for interested readers).

DISCUSSION:

Program managers responded:

- their programs are voluntary; coercion plays no role
- they are not impinging on civil liberties; parents come for help

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- children come to the program on their own free will
- programs do not intervene into the lives of stable families; the families, for the most part, are broken up already
- in Kelowna, one-quarter of the children are self-referrals or referrals from parents
- most of the children referred by the police have already committed a delinquent act.

Police responded:

- they feel they are trying to respond to youth problems on their own; they want programs to respond to these problems
- police feel badly when intervention could have occurred at an early stage to assist the child and his family and it doesn't take place; therefore they are the ones who try to do something about it.

The discussion brought out concerns about the "heavy - hand" of the state being brought down upon children which will perhaps influence the child in a negative sense. Responses to these concerns included that social workers would consider it unprofessional to be coercive; they have professional

ethics, and they do not want to see such programs becoming bureaucratized.

The general consensus at the end of the session was that police, program personnel, and bureaucrats be aware, if they are not already, of the potential for abuse. The issues raised may not have been of concern to program personnel prior to the evening session, simply because they are not problematic to the program or to the client populations. But because they are of concern to others, and because the issues can be potentially destructive to program operations and support, it was conceded that we ought to be aware of and openly debate these issues.

Youth and Family Services Programs:

A Comment on Selected Issues

The Ministry of Attorney General recently endorsed a policy outline paper about a delinquency prevention project. Within the paper "community action" was highlighted as the general orientation. And, two types of program activities; namely, police/school liaison and youth and family counselling services, were identified as promising approaches. The police/school liaison program has not received any critical feedback simply because, at face value, a program which is aimed at educating the general population of school children about law and the justice system is inherently good. On the other hand, the youth and family counselling program which advocates the early identification of "pre-delinquent", "troublesome", or even first offender youth for intervention purposes has received some criticism. The purpose of this paper is to address the following concerns which have been raised about this type of program:

1. It has been argued that intervention by a youth and family services program "labels" a youth delinquent and thus contributes to a delinquent self-image and delinquent behaviour.

2. Libertarians, some members of the legal profession, and others argue against state

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intervention into the lives of individuals particularly if the state has no "legal mandate" for intervention, and even in instances where legislation has been passed it may be criticised for infringement on civil rights. In the case of youth and family services two related arguments are put forth: a) state intervention is unwarranted, and b) the state, in the form of the Ministry of Attorney General, has no legal mandate for intervention.

At this point, an observation should be made about the reasons for the emergence of these criticisms. It seems that both the labelling and the intervention controversy arose in relation to what was outlined in the original policy paper on youth and family counselling programs. The statements in the policy outline were addressing such programs as "ideal types"; that is, no operational program was described in any detail; basic principles, not actual programs, were highlighted. It is not surprising then that once an established program (its procedures and policies) is described, many of the issues raised seemed to lose credence. Notwithstanding this, the issues of labelling and intervention are important and are addressed in the remainder of this paper.

1. Labelling Theory

There is a great deal of confusion about the concept of labelling. First, "despite the fact that no labelling theorist seems to espouse the 'label creates behaviour' view, it is very often developed by critics" (Plummer, 1979:104). It is then "a gross misreading....of labelling theory to impute the initiation of deviant careers to labelling" (Plummer, 1979:104). In other words, it is believed wrongly that the label itself initiates deviant behaviour. And, it is also believed, wrongly again, that direct, formal labelling by the courts in particular is enough to create a commitment to deviance where this commitment prior to court contact would not have existed. These beliefs are misleading for two reasons:

1) Underlying such beliefs is a "man on his back" bias. The assumption is that people are wholly determined, passive and malleable; no sensitivity to the individual's own consciousness, intentions, or choices exists. Nor could these assumptions accommodate voluntary disavowal of a label.

2) These interpretations of labelling consistently ignore that labelling is not a one-shot affair solely applied by formal control agents. It denies that deviants may contribute to their

> own labelling, and that labels are applied indirectly by informal means and by other social institutions. In other words, persons may have delinquent self-images without any contact with the police, courts and institutions or long before contact with these formal control agents.

Whether or not the concept of labelling is correct, it has had a powerful influence (Parsloe, 1978). Ironically, the introduction of a juvenile justice system at the turn of the century in Canada was justified as a move away from labelling youths as criminals. Then diversion at the pre-trial level was advocated as a means to avoid formal court processing and the application of labels. Further movement away from the justice system including plans for community absorption of deviants and possibly some police "preventive diversion" (police intervention is seldom included in traditional theories on labelling) has been promoted recently, again in the name of avoidance of "labels". It seems that the concept of labelling can be seen more as a means to justify informal processing than as a valuable theory about the negative implications of formal processing.

This leads us to an examination of the empirical validity

of the labelling theory. Here, there is even less that can be conclusively stated because research is often based on faulty reasoning about the labelling theory. Because it is more manageable to examine a simple proposition about the predicted consequences of labelling, studies often are based on a crude model of labelling (i.e. no deviance $\longrightarrow$ slam label $\longrightarrow$ deviance). This model is then tested without consideration of all the factors which confound such an investigation. As a result, evidence concerning the implications of labelling are scarce, inconsistent, and often wholly contradictory (Jensen, 1980).

One empirical critique and review of the research concluded:

> The evidence reviewed consistently indicates that it is the behaviour or condition of the person that is the critical factor in causing someone to be labelled deviant (Gove, 1975, p. 295 in Plummer, 1979, p. 117).

Another review of the same evidence concludes "that of the eighteen systematic studies of labelling theory available, 'thirteen support the theory, and five fail to'" (Scheff, 1975 in Plummer, 1979, p. 117). In other words, empirical testing is so inadequate it can support both the arguments for and against the consequences of labelling.

None of this is to say, that there should not be an awareness of the possible unintended effects of intervention, at any stage, into a child's life. But, clearly we need further research into the validity of the labelling theory.

2. State Intervention

Another issue of concern is whether and when does the state have the right to intervene into the lives of individuals. Libertarians speak to the issue, often on a philosophical basis, and argue against a variety of activities as depriving individuals of freedom of choice. For example, the seat belt legislation, we are all familiar with, has initiated grand debates: legislation which aims at saving the lives of vehicle drivers and passengers and reducing the society's costs for such accidents is scorned because it is claimed seatbelt use should be left to individual discretion. The debate focusses on those who argue the individual should have the right to decide and those who argue seatbelt usage should be enforceable because it saves lives and reduces costs. In this instance legislation, obviously beneficial to life and limb, is criticized as the unnecessary wielding of state power; telling people in a democratic society how to behave.

We do, of course, have seatbelt legislation now but the

debate continues and people still consciously defy the legislation. If nothing else, this debate does identify that the issue of state intervention is not easily resolvable even in cases where intervention seems reasonable. And, when it comes to intervention into other aspects of social life, particularly the sanctified family unit, no matter how "good" the intentions, the debate will grow even hotter.

It may be, however, a misconception to consider the question about state intervention in terms of what the correct answer entails or in terms of which side we are on; there are good reasons to be on both sides. All too often the avoidance of conflict and controversy is regarded as a virtue; to invite it - boorish and uncultured (Radelet, 1980). In fact, however, conflict and debate is the essence of a free and open society.

3. Legal Mandate

Nevertheless, when it comes to a discussion of the legal mandate of an organization or group, this issue requires some form of resolution and should not be confused with debates about philosophical or moral issues. Inquiries about mandate are simply a question of whether the terms of reference for a group exist and are recognized, not whether

this is good or bad, right or wrong. In this section, then, I will discuss only the youth and family services programs.

It seems that when we introduce arguments that these programs should be under the auspices of the Attorney General, or the police, or Human Resources we miss the point. We start arguing about which formal state agent has the "turf" to control a program which emerged through the local initiative of communities. It is perplexing that we can pay lip service to community responsibility, argue against state intervention and then in the same breath argue about which state agency gets control of the local program. In other words, there should not be a question about who controls local programs; they are the community's programs, and the support of, or assistance to, such programs can and should be provided by any interested party.

Therefore, the issue really is not one of who has the legal mandate to support youth and family services programs. Instead, it has to do with the fact that the police are involved in the programs (at least to the point of referring some youths) and therefore questions about compulsion arise. The question is easily investigated and resolved. First, we need to accept that one of the goals of such programs is community action and this requires, in part, good police

relations with the community. Second, to overcome "fears of coercion", we must ask whether police referrals are made with the condition that if the families and children do not cooperate further action will be taken. Third, if the referral does not go back to the police, and it is my understanding that it does not, then there really is not a problem. However, we may need to determine the most prudent course of action so police referrals will not appear coercive. For example, the police could advise the program staff about a family or recommend the program to the parent and child. At no time, however, should there be a threat that charges will be laid if the family does not comply.

The program staff will then take over. Apparently, in the area of counselling, the law does not "impose specific rules and regulations such as the obligation to obtain consent from a client" (Wilson, 1978:275). In fact, "(i)f treatment by cousellors is confined to 'counselling' or advising', then children may be so treated without parental consent...." (Wilson, 1978: 275-276). Still, it may be prudent that the parents and child understand the nature and consequences of the treatment (even a consent form may be useful). It could also be made clear that the counsellors are not an arm of the state although they work with the

police, schools, and the community in general to assist, on a voluntary basis, youths and their families.

To the program manager or counsellor,of course, the whole issue of compulsion is probably ridiculous simply because their program objectives could not be attained by coercing families to participate. Counselling, to be effective, requires active cooperation.

Granted, discretionary abuses may emerge in any voluntary program, and we should be aware of and control for this. At the same time, the protection of the sanctity of the family will not solve a behavioural problem. Again, it seems the answer lies in a continuous debate in which those involved recognize and balance the competing demands of a child's rights and a child's needs: a far more useful, and possibly even innovative, activity compared with that engaged in by critics when their only tool appears to be a hammer and every problem looks like a nail.

A final, and more general comment, seems necessary. At no time has the proceeding discussion dealt with the issue of whether youth and family counselling programs are effective. This was not the purpose here, but a few words of caution may be appropriate about these types of programs and for that matter most "treatment" programs. The state-of-the-art of research studies about the effectiveness of these programs

is without doubt inconclusive. This is as much a statement about the inadequate research methods used as it is about the programs. We simply do not know whether we can predict who will become delinquent or whether early prevention programs will be effective in reducing future delinquency.

A recent study of a local program has concluded that the youth and family services program is in fact aimed at the resolution of family problems and the program on the face of it appears "successful". But, the methods used to arrive at this conclusion were largely descriptive and the report does not claim to be definitive. What does seem to have emerged, however, is that when it comes to measuring success or failure of a particular treatment program it is highly questionable whether recidivism should be considered an adequate criterion.

The general ineffectiveness of programs should be a warning that extreme caution should be exercised in recommending any form of treatment as a response to the problems of youthful misbehaviour. Jeffery Wilson, an Ontario lawyer and author, suggests that negative program findings can have important implications for lawyers in juvenile courts; if the findings are accurate it can serve as "a sound basis for the serious challenge and criticisms of proposed treatment plans" (1978:342).

With these warnings in mind, a program should not be sold as delivering what it cannot possibly deliver. Thus, when so little is known but when it is clear "that something must be done with the child", the least restriction of a child's freedom; "the least 'tinkering' with his mind and person should be preferred" (Wilson, 1978:342). And, again, quality research should accompany the program's implementation.

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Seminar on Evaluation for Police, Social Workers, Policy Planners and Research involved in the Planning of Delinquency Prevention, Youth & Family Counselling Programs

- Wendy Rowe
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Purpose of Seminar:

1. To promote awareness among program managers, the police and government funders that evaluation is a very important and necessary part of program planning and implementation.
2. To make program staff, police, and funders aware that evaluation can serve all of their individual needs, although they might differ considerably; that evaluation is not simply a tool for funders to decide allocation of funds.
3. To familiarize police, program managers and funders with some basic evaluation concepts, issues, and methods.
4. To familiarize police and program managers with the tasks involved in planning for evaluation, particularly with the usefulness of negotiating a research contract between program manager, researcher and funder.
5. To provide police and program managers with some 'hands-on' experience with formulating program objectives and planning an evaluation of a program presently in existence or a proposed program.

MAIN PRESENTATION

I. Introduction

Q. With regards to police-based social service programs such as the Youth and Family Services program, what does 'evaluation' mean to you?

elicit answers from audience

(probe - what do you mean by success/ effectiveness?)

(1) a police officer (constable)
(2) a social worker
(3) a government policy planner
(4) a police administrator
(5) a community representative (administrator/funder)

The responses that you have given me illustrate the differences that exist between police, social workers, community planners, administrators and funders in their conception of what 'evaluation' research can do and most of all in their beliefs about what is important about the existence of this program to them in their job. Most of you indicate that you conceive of evaluation research as some sort of means by which one can assess whether the program is doing what you want it to be doing. For some of you, what you want the program to be doing is reducing juvenile crime in your community. Others of you are not so concerned with a long term goal such as reducing juvenile crime as with having some place to refer young children that have become a problem for you to handle by the fact that they have committed some disruptive or delinquent act. Typically police are concerned that the program prevent or inhibit youths from committing further delinquent offences. Social workers or program counsellors may be more concerned with resolving youth and family problems that may be causing or precipitating the youth's involvement

problems that may be causing or precipitating the youth's involvement in delinquent or problem behaviour. Administrators and funders, however, may not be worried about whether the program is significantly changing the behaviour or attitudes of delinquent youths but rather with whether the program is operating as it was mandated to do; for example, whether the program is focusing on youths in the 10-14 year old age range or whether it is directing its services to older 16 and 17 year old youths. An administrator may be concerned that counselling is in fact being provided to the referred clients, or that referrals to the program are being accepted and dealt with in some fashion. Some individuals may feel that as long as the community is happy and feels that their needs are being satisfied then as far as they are concerned the program is successful.

One commonly hears the complaint that evaluation studies are useless or irrelevant and even possibly dangerous, because the evaluator and the program administrators do not have a clear understanding about the purpose for the evaluation and about how the results are to be used. It is argued that evaluation studies are often useless because the evaluator failed to collect the most relevant and important information about the program, or the evaluation design and research methodology was poor, or because there wasn't enough time to collect all the data properly, or because the program administrators couldn't understand the report and thus couldn't use it.

However, I think the most fundamental problem affecting the usefulness of a program evaluation has to do with the fact that

program success means many things to many people. Evaluators tend to take the position that program success must be evaluated in terms of changes in the client's behaviour, but, as we have shown, the program administrators, the police, and counsellors may be more concerned with more immediate and visible indicators of program success such as whether services are being delivered to the target or problem population.

Evaluation studies, thus, must be planned taking into consideration the different perspectives and concerns of the various audiences affected by or influencing the program.

Next, evaluation studies must be planned and conducted with a clear understanding of its role in the planning and operation of established social service programs.

II. Role of Evaluation in Program Planning and Implementation

In the past, evaluation studies were often conducted as one-shot experimental studies to determine, in some definite overall manner, whether or not the program was effective. Funders often used such results as a means to justify cutting off funds to a program. In actual fact the allocation of funds to a program are usually decided on political grounds rather than on program effectiveness. Thus, evaluation research should not be viewed as a method for deciding allocation of funds, but rather as a method for finding out what is happening with a program and with identifying critical factors affecting or influencing program effectiveness. This information can be used to maintain existing procedures or to correct problem areas in

order to maximize program effectiveness.

With this purpose in mind, evaluation research should be viewed as an on-going process, part of program planning, implementation and modification. By measuring program activities and program outcomes, evaluation provides the means to determine if program goals and objectives have been achieved. Rapid feedback of the evaluative data can be used to change program procedures and staff activities.

Figure 1 shows a simplified model of a program and of the role of evaluation. A program unit is identified in terms of a particular client population, resources, administrative structure, program activities, operational (or process) objectives and program outcome objectives. The needs and characteristics of the client population determine the program outcome objectives. Specific program services and activities are identified as operational objectives (e.g. responding quickly, within a couple of days, to a referral) critical to the achievement of the program outcome objectives (e.g. identifying and resolving the underlying causes of the youth's delinquent behaviour). The administrative structure, financial resources, number and characteristics of the staff, and amount of community support are factors that not only define the program structure but affect the achievement of operational and outcome objectives. Evaluation is plugged in to test whether procedural objectives are being achieved, and that program outcome objectives are being achieved. This information is fed back to management subsequently leading to a modification or re-definition of the program structure.

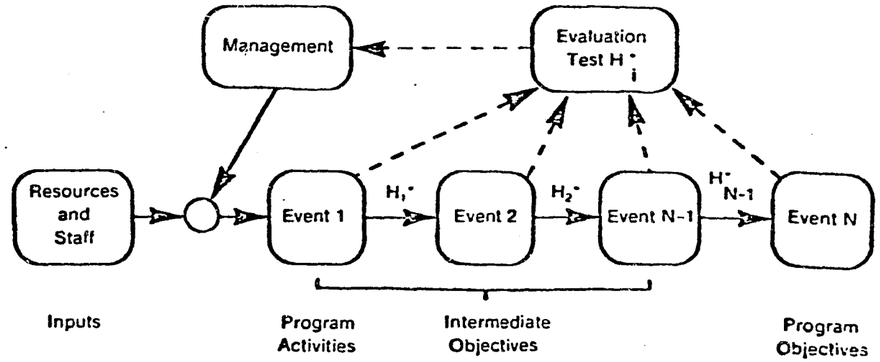

FIGURE 1 TYPICAL PROGRAM MODEL

* H_i = The assumption that Event i *causes* Event i + 1 or that Event i is a *prerequisite* for Event i + 1

KEY:
- - - - - - Information Flows
——————— Hypothesized Causal Link
◯ Allocation of Resources

III. Types of Evaluation

It is useful to distinguish among four important classes of evaluation research: research for program planning, program monitoring, impact assessment, and research on project efficiency. A comprehensive evaluation of a program would involve at least monitoring, impact assessment, and efficiency calculations. In the case of new programs and major modifications of long-standing programs, evaluation should also include research for planning.

Essentially, there are four sets of questions that one is concerned with in doing evaluations, corresponding to the four types of evaluation activities:

1. Program Planning Questions:
   - What is the extent and distribution of the target population?
   - Is the program designed in conformity with its intended goals, and are chances of successful implementation maximized?
2. Program Monitoring Questions:
   - Is the program reaching the persons, households, or other target units to which it is addressed?
   - Is the program providing the resources, services, or other benefits that were intended in the project design?
3. Impact Assessment Questions:
   - Is the program effective in achieving its intended goals?
   - Can the results of the program be explained by some alternative process that does not include the program?
4. Economic Efficiency Questions:
   - What are the costs to deliver services and benefits to program participants?
   - Is the program an efficient use of resources compared with alternative uses of the resources?

a) Evaluation for Program Planning and Development

The ultimate origin of a social program is in the statement of some desired goal or policy. A policy or general goal ordinarily does not specify methods or objectives in any detail, giving rise to a need for project planning. A program plan usually would specify the participants, describe the intervention methods, and estimate costs and staffing needs.

Evaluation at the planning stage may include the following: First, how much of a problem there may be and where it is located? For example, in the case of juvenile delinquency prevention programs, this may mean finding out how many problem children and first-time delinquent offenders are in your community and how many of them come to the attention of the police for a second and third time. One needs to know something about these children, their ages, sex, family life, and some of the problems that these children are having at home, at school, and in the community that may be contributing to their involvement in delinquent activities. In addition, one needs to know what is the severity of the delinquent activities in which the children are involved. Shoplifting activities reflect quite a different type of problem than breaking and entering offences.

Next, one needs to know whether the propcsed intervention or treatment is a suitable way of remedying the problem to which it is directed. It may be that 90% of the first-time delinquent offenders in your community are young children apprehended for very minor offences such as shoplifiting or minor vandalism. Once apprehended and confronted by police, it may be that most of these children and

their families are able to resolve their own problems and the child never again comes to the attention of the police. It may also be the case that there are adequate family and youth counselling resources in your community but for some reason they are not being utilized by police attempting to deal with juvenile offenders. In this case, it may be more appropriate to develop a youth and family assessment and referral service for the police rather than a short-term counselling service.

Thus, the first step in planning and implementing a particular type of program in your community is to thoroughly assess what are the characteristics and needs of the target population, and to assess what kind of services are needed by the social service and police community.

b) Project Monitoring Evaluation Research

The monitoring of programs generally is centered on two questions:

- Is the program reaching the specified target population or target area?
- Are the various practices and intervention efforts undertaken as specified in the program design?

The reasons for monitoring programs are obvious. First, proper administration of human resource programs requires empirical evidence that what presumably was paid for and deemed desirable was actually undertaken. Second, there is no point in being concerned with the impact or outcome of a particular project unless it did indeed take place, and that it was received by the appropriate participants.

Many programs are not implemented and executed in the way originally designed. Sometimes personnel and equipment simply are not available; sometimes project staffs may be prevented by political or other reasons from undertaking what they intended. Some project staff members may not have the motivation or know-how to carry out their tasks as outlined. There are also instances in which the intended project participants do not exist in the numbers required, cannot be identified precisely, or will not be cooperative.

For example, funds may be allocated to develop and operate a counselling program for 10 - 12 year old behaviour-problem, potentially-delinquent offenders in order to prevent further involvement in delinquent activities. However, it may be that the counselling staff are unable to provide counselling to youths of these characteristics because they are unable to persuade or teach police and school principals to identify these type of children and refer them to the program. School principals may argue that the counselling program is simply an 'arm of the police' and has no business labelling behaviour problem children as potentially-delinquent.

A monitoring evaluation provides a systematic assessment of whether or not a program is operating in conformity to its design, and whether or not it is reaching the specified target population.

c) Impact Evaluation

An impact evaluation gauges the extent to which a program causes change in the desired direction. It implies that there is a set of pre-specified, operationally defined goals and criteria of success; a program that has an impact is one that achieves some movement or

change toward the desired objectives.

These objectives may pertain to changes in client behaviours or attitudes, such as resolution of parent-child communication problems or elimination of the youth's defiance of school rules; or they may be community-related changes, such as a reduction in delinquent crimes, a decrease in the amount of time a police officer spends on juvenile cases or increasing cooperation and coordination of all social service agencies in the community in dealing with particular youth and their families.

To conduct an impact evaluation, a plan for the collection of data is required - a plan that allows the investigator in a persuasive way to demonstrate that the changes which occurred were a function of the particular program, intervention, or treatment and could not be accounted for in other ways. Specific impact assessment plans may vary considerably. Sometimes it is possible to use classic experimental designs in which there are control and experimental groups that receive different treatments and are constructed through randomization of the client population. For practical reasons it is often necessary, however, to employ statistical approaches rather than true experiments, and to use other designs employing comparisons over time, statistical adjustments, or constructed control goups. There is agreement that randomized experimental designs are ideally the most appropriate and reliable way of measuring impact, since they provide the best means of controlling for a variety of potential biases. However, under most actual field conditions, it is usually difficult, impossible, or too expensive to employ randomized experimental

designs. For these reasons, non-randomized experiments and non-experimental methods are commonly employed in impact assessments. With proper safeguards and appropriate qualifications, such non-experimental designs can function adequately in providing firm estimates of program effects.

Impact evaluations are essential when there is an interest in either comparing different programs or testing the utility of new efforts to ameliorate a particular community problem.

d) Economic Efficiency Evaluation

In the world of social programs, resources are always limited. Programs compete with each other for funds from government, foundations, and international organizations. Similarly, specific interventions within programs often compete for funds and resources. Choices continually must be made whether or not to fund, continue or discontinue, or expand or contract one program as compared with another.

At least some of the considerations that go into such choices concern economics. Is a program producing sufficient benefits for the costs incurred? Is a program intended to produce a particular benefit more or less expensive per unit of outcome than other interventions designed to achieve the same goal? The techniques for undertaking evaluations to answer these types of quesitons are found in two closely related approaches, cost-benefit and cost-effectiveness analyses.

e) Choosing the Most Appropriate Evaluation Design

Evaluation should be viewed as an incremental process, where implementation is examined first, then impact, and then, if it is feasible, a cost-benefit or cost-effectiveness analysis. Clearly, it would not be practical to invest in an impact evaluation if the program was not operating in the manner that it was intended.

Impact evaluation without knowledge of what took place can fault a vital program and result in poor policy decisions. Too often, impact evaluations without prior evidence of implementation conclude that programs are ineffective. Yet, in fact, the real reason for lack of impact is that the program was not implemented fully, or at all. Thus, the intended program has not been tested and properly evaluated, and the possibility that the intended program may offer significant solutions to human problems remains unexamined.

There are cases, of course, where programs are either clear and straightforward or there is ample evidence available on their implementation, either from previous studies or reliable records. When substantial knowledge about implementation exists, then resources can be devoted mainly to impact evaluation.

Questions of economic efficiency should be properly raised only if a program has been found to be effectively achieving its goals, and if there is some reason to believe that the intervention is overly costly to deliver, given the magnitude of benefits achieved.

IV. Evaluation Methodologies

a) Complexity of Research Methods

Associated with the preceeding types of evaluation are a variety

of analytic and research methods. The implementation of each of these research methods, (or some combination of each), has considerable implication for the type of evaluative questions that can be addressed and the amount of evaluator and program resources (staff time and funds) required to conduct the study. Implementation of these research methods is also highly dependent on (1) the kind of information available on clients and program operations, (2) on administrator and staff attitudes and their degree of cooperation, (3) the amount of time available to collect and report results, (4) the amount of funds available to conduct the study, and, (5) on the stage of development and implementation at which a program is presently operating; that is whether they are presently in flux, instituting new operational procedures every day or whether a stable program unit can be defined.

Evaluation research methods can be characterized in terms of the extent to which the evaluator controls the conditions to which a target population will be exposed. For example, a retrospective analysis of client files would involve little evaluator manipulation. Allocating a client population to a treatment and non-treatment population and taking before and after measurements of the client behaviour expected to change involves a high level of evaluator manipulation.

Evaluation research methods also vary in terms of the degree to which measurement of behaviour or attitudes is structured. Measurement of behaviour or attitude can range from unstructured observation, through open-ended interviews, and forced-choice response questionnaires to standardized tests such as intelligence tests.

Research methods can also vary in terms of the intensity of measurement; that is, in terms of the time span of data collection and the frequency of data collection. For example, measuring changes in a delinquent youth's behaviour before and immediately after treatment is a less intense evaluation study than one in which the youth's behaviour (particularly any involvement in delinquent activities) is monitored for several years following termination of counselling provided by a youth and family services program.

Evaluation research methods generally vary from single to complex along all three of these dimensions. In addition, in any one study, several methods that vary considerably on all three dimensions may be employed for different aspects of the evaluation. Some of the more commonly adopted evaluation methods that vary along all three of these dimensions in terms of increasing sophistication are as follows:

(1) no review of performance	Monitoring Evaluation
(2) desk monitoring of project reports	
(3) occasional on-site monitoring	
(4) frequent on-site monitoring with on-going data collection	
(5) assessment of goal achievement with before/after comparisons	Impact Evaluation
(6) time-series analysis	
(7) control groups with random selection	

As one moves along this continuum, the comprehensiveness of the evaluation increases from a simple monitoring study to an evaluation of the impact of the program. This continuum of methods also reflects increasing control of extraneous or intervening variables other than the program services that might be responsbile for the observed changes in client behaviour or attitudes. For example, it may be that delinquent offenders not referred for counselling are just as likely

to cease their involvement in delinquent activities as youth who receive short-term counselling. Increasingly sophisticated evaluation studies are also more costly and time-consuming to conduct.

b) Program Monitoring Evaluation Methods

As stated previously, a monitoring evaluation asks the question: Is the program operating according to its conceptual plan. Subsumed under this question is the question: What is the conceptual program plan in terms of goals, impact objectives, operational objectives, services, target population, the administrative structure and available program resources.

i) desk monitoring

At the minimum level of data collection conducted to answer these questions, the evaluator/administrator may review quarterly progress reports provided by the program staff. This means if monitoring a program is called 'desk' monitoring, a more comprehensive report which includes an internal assessment by project staff may be used as additional data for performing desk monitoring. Although it is the most commonly used technique for collecting data, review of project-generated narrative reports frequently does not provide adequate levels of monitoring.

ii) occasional on-site monitoring

On-site visits are often required for collecting monitoring data, both the frequency of on-site visits and whether or not "unannounced" visits will be made should be agreed upon with the project staff. Observation of processes, sampling of case files, and interviews of staff are data collection methods relevant to on-site monitoring.

iii) frequent on-site monitoring with on-going data collection

The use of formalized data collection instruments or questionnaires (client-related or incident-related) provides a means of on-going data collection for monitoring purposes. At pre-defined stages in the life of a project, this routinely collected data can be analyzed to monitor progress. Surveys by telephone or mailed questionnaires administered to recipients of project services provide another means of collecting monitoring data.

Several issues relative to the collection and handling of data must be resolved as part of the monitoring process. Data constraints must be recognized. Relevant data may not be available at a reasonable cost. In other instances, available data may not be accessible due to lack of cooperation by criminal justice agencies or confidentiality considerations. Client records, for juveniles in particular, are not always accessible to the monitor.

c) Impact Evaluation Research Methods

In attempting to determine the program 'impact', that is, the achievement of client social-behavioural objectives and community objectives, one must also show that the program effects result from the delivery of program services and not other factors in the environment. Documenting program effects and controlling for extraneous factors governing client behaviour or attitudes requires a much more sophisticated data-collection procedure than is necessary for a monitoring study.

Four common evaluation designs will be discussed. Each vary in

feasibility, costs, and levels of confidence that a project produced a specific result. The degree to which external factors are controlled varies with each technique. The first three of these techniques provide a less than optimal control of extraneous variables, and so are referred to as "quasi-experimental" designs. The last technique presented is a true experimental research design and provides the highest degree of confidence in the evaluation results.

(i) single case before/after comparisons

This evaluation design involves the comparison of conditions prior to and subsequent to program implementation. Rates are calculated for a target population or target area with the assumed effect of the program equivalent to the change in the rates between the two periods. This technique assumes that other factors did not affect the rate. If this is true and if the rate does not fluctuate over time, before/after comparisons may be valid. Although the weakest of the four designs for intensive evaluation, this approach is probably used most frequently. It is easy to implement and understand as well as having the advantage of being the least expensive.

An example of this method is when before and after recordings of the number of delinquent offences committed by a youth are obtained. However, a change in number of delinquent offences may occur because of factors other than the counselling. For instance, the youth may simply become smarter at not getting caught or the fact that he was apprehended even once was enough to deter any further delinquent involvement.

(ii) time-series analysis

This evaluation design involves the analysis of trends prior to implementation of the program and the projection of an expected rate had the project not been implemented. The difference between the expected rate and the actual rate is assumed to be the effects of the project implementation. Through adjustments for seasonal factors and random fluctuations, this evaluation design takes into account variables which could result in short-term variations in the data. A major weakness of before/after comparisons is its failure to control for changes over time. This technique is particularly useful when no comparison or control group is available, but requires reliable data for prior time periods. In many instances, sufficient historical data is not available to the evaluator to conduct this type of analysis.

(iii) external comparison group

This design involves the comparison of results of a target population, that is receiving program services, to a similar population or area which is not receiving services or treatment over the same time period. The differences are then attributed to the project. Recidivism reduction projects frequently involve the use of this evaluation design. Baseline data will be collected for a target population not provided special services or treatment. For a similar population group who become project participants, recidivism rates for a comparable time period will be collected. If, in fact, the change is a decrease, a statistical test will usually be applied to determine if the change is significant at a given level of confidence. If

significant, the favourable outcome will be attributed to the project activity. Since this technique does not involve prior random selection to the groups being compared, it is not a true experimental research design. However, it does provide some control over external factors and may be more valid than the other two evaluation designs discussed. Although this design is usually more practical than a control group approach, it is often difficult to identify a comparison group with similar characteristics.

(iv) control groups

This evaluation design requires random assignment of the target population to served and not served populations with pre- and post-measures for both groups. This design is most likely to tell you if project activities caused the results obtained. Random assignment permits the assumption that any peculiarities within groups occur with equal probability between groups. In practice, however, seldom is random selection feasible to implement. It is often considered unethical to exclude certain individuals or target groups from a program. The other disadvantage of this approach is that it is usually more expensive. However, this design does provide more conclusive results and is particularly useful for demonstration projects which may have considerable impact on policies and procedures of criminal justice agencies.

V. Steps Involved in Planning and Conducting Evaluations

In summary, during the initial planning and implementation of a program the program director or administrator must decide on the role and purpose for evaluation, different audiences that will be affected

by or will want to make use of the evaluation results must be considered and a decision must be made whether to conduct a simple monitoring evaluation or to conduct an impact evaluation. If it is decided that evaluation of the effect of the program on clients and community must be conducted in addition to a monitoring of the program's operations, then decisions must be made about the types, and amount of information to be collected, when measurements or data collection will be taken and whether or not to measure and monitor a control group of youths who have not received counselling. These are all steps involved in designing and implementing an evaluation study.

a) Formulate Program Mission and Specify Program Goals:

Regardless of the design and complexity of the evaluation study, the first steps in conducting an evaluation are procedures germane to the planning and development of the program. A statement of the program mission and the program goals must be formulated. The mission statement should provide a broad philosophical description of the program mission. For example, the youth and family counselling program was developed on the philosophical position that there are underlying family and personal problems causing or precipitating destructive or delinquent behaviour in youths. It is assumed that by resolving these problems the youth's problematic or delinquent behaviour will cease.

Goals are general statements of the specific aims of the program. The changes intended to occur as a result of the program's intervention must be identified. A goal need not necessarily be measurable nor fully attainable, but its realization should be

possible. For example, a goal for Youth and Family Services is to reduce or prevent juvenile delinquency in the community. While it is possible that this goal will be achieved, one should not take the position that by achieving a specific program objective such as eliminating a youth's acting-out behaviour and defiance at home, that this will necessarily result in prevention of a global, multi-faceted state such as juvenile delinquency. There are many other factors other than family and youth personal problems that contribute to youth's involvement in juvenile delinquency. In addition, there are many factors that affect the apprehension of youths for delinquent offences, such as the tendency of store security officers to release young shoplifters as opposed to reporting the incidence to the police.

A program generally has several goals. These must all be identified. The possibility that these goals will be achieved may vary considerably. For example a goal to promote cooperation among social service agencies in a community in dealing with problem and delinquent children may be more attainable than the goal to reduce juvenile crime.

For each program goal, specific, concrete program objectives must be identified. These objectives must be observable and fully attainable as a result of program activities.

b) Specify a Target Population

Formulating program goals and objectives is part of the process of defining the program unit. In addition the target population must be specified. This includes both the client population and the community groups or individuals that have been specified in program

goals and objectives. The needs and characteristics of the client population should be articulated.

c) Specify Program Services and Staff Activities

Program treatment services and other staff activities relevant to the achievement of program goals must be specified.

d) Specify Operational Objectives

While most program operating procedures exist only to maintain the program services and information recording system, some program procedures become specified as operational objectives because they are identified as important and critical to the attainment of program goals and objectives. For example in the youth and family counselling programs, counsellors believe that responding quickly to a referral so that attention can be brought to a youth within one or two days after the occurrence of the delinquent offence is important for achieving counselling effectiveness.

c) Hierarchically Organize Objectives and Services

Once program goals and objectives have been specified, the target populations identified, services and program activities listed and operational objectives specified, it is important that objectives and services are organized in terms of a hierarchical structure. This hierarchical structure must represent both the interrelationship of these objectives, the priority of each objective and the immediacy of each objective. Objectives may be highly related and similar to each other, or unrelated and dissimilar. For example, an objective to increase police knowledge about family problems and juvenile delinquency is related to the objective of increasing police

identification and referral of potentially delinquent youth. However both of these objectives are unrelated to the objective of increasing parent-child communication. Objectives also differ in importance. This is not a big problem affecting the evaluation of program objectives if everyone agrees on the priority of program objectives. However as we have previously stated, different audiences utilizing the evaluation results often disagree about the importance of each objective. For example, program counsellors consider resolution of family and youth problems to be a much more important goal than preventing or inhibiting any further involvement by the youth in delinquent activities. Objectives also differ in terms of their immediacy or level of abstraction. For example, improving a youth's sense of self-worth may be a more immediate objective for the counsellor than resolving the parent-child communication problems. Or, as another example, making an assessment of the underlying causes of the youth's acting-out behaviour is a more immediate program objective than resolving youth and family problems. An even more immediate objective may be to encourage both youth and family to willing participation in counselling. The program can have little effect on a family or youth resistant or hostile toward counselling. Many immediate objectives are specific to individual clients only and thus cannot be specified in the list of overall program objectives except as "achievement of individual client objectives". However, client files should contain a listing of each individuals specific objectives.

f) Issues Affecting the Formulation of Program Objectives

A number of other issues must also be considered in formulating program objectives. One issue concerns the nature or content of the objective. Is the program intended to produce changes in information, opinions, attitude, or behaviour. For example, some components of a program are primarily designed to change people's behaviour, (such as a program for reducing a youth's frequency of truancy from school), other components are designed to change attitudes, (increasing parent-child self-worth) and other components of the program are designed to change a traget group's level of knowledge or information about an issue (such as increasing police knowledge about treatment approaches to juvenile delinquency).

Another issue in formulating objectives concerns short-term versus long-term effects. How quickly is the program intended to produce effects? For example, is The Youth and Family Services Program intended to eliminate a youth's acting-out behaviour in the home after one counselling session, or after twelve counselling sessions over a period of three months, or after a year of counselling. How large an effect is expected? For example, is the program intended to eliminate involvement in delinquent activities completely or will the program be considered successful if it reduces the youth's involvement in delinquent activities from six incidences in the previous year to two incidences in the year following counselling. Another very important point to consider concerns the durability or stability of program effects. How long are the effects produced by the program intended to last? For many programs, the

effects are meant to be permanent, but for others, particularly programs involving changes in one's behaviour, it is recognized that additional retraining or re-exposure to the program is necessary. In terms of The Youth and Family Services program, is the program intended to resolve family problems permanently or for some specified period of time? Is the youth's involvement in delinquent activities intended to be controlled permanently or maybe just for the next six months following counselling? The intended or expected stability of program effects can have considerable implications for when measurement of program effects should take place. If the objective of the program is to produce a permanent change in behaviour or in attitudes, then measurement that this change has occurred must take place immediately following intervention and then possibly one and two years, and hypothetically five and ten years, down the road. However, if it is expected that a change which occurred as a result of the program will remain only six months, then measurements of the behaviour should occur immediately following intervention, three months following intervention and six months following intervention. For most programs, it is generally believed that some changes may only be temporary but that these changes while in force may produce other changes that may be permanent. For example, while family counselling may have only temporarily had the effect of increasing the amount of attention that a father gives to his son, this may have had the permanent effect of reducing the amount of time the youth spends on the street, permanently improving his performance at school, permanently increasing the amount of positive attention given to the

youth at school and eliminating his involvement in vandalism of school property. While it is difficult to anticipate or measure this kind of 'snowballing' of program effects, still it is important to attempt to be realistic about the stability of program effects on clients' behaviour.

This example brings us to another issue concerning program objectives. The program may produce a number of unintended but anticipated 'second order' consequences or even unanticipated effects. For example, one of the unintended but anticipated effects of The Youth and Family Services program is a reduction in the amount of time a police officer needs to spend investigating and processing a file on a juvenile offender. It is important to differentiate those program effects that are unintended side-effects of the program from those that are specific program objectives related to the program's mission. But every attempt should be made to anticipate these program side-effects as there may be side-effects of the program that will have serious negative repercussions for the continued existence or effectiveness of the program.

g) <u>'Operationalize' Objectives</u>

After a consideration of all these issues in formulating and defining program objectives a final step is to operationalize them. This means defining program objectives in terms of 'what actions' (program services) must be taken on 'what particular target population' for what 'length of time' to achieve 'what effect' for 'how long'. For example, an objective of The Youth and Family Services program could be operationalized in the following manner:

"The objective of the program is to provide short-term (three months) family and individual counselling to youth under thirteen years of age who have been referred for committing a delinquent offence, to permanently improve parent-child communication."

h) Establish 'Performance Measure'

Once a program objective has been 'operationalized'; the next step is to define a 'performance measure' by which the achievement of the objective can be measured. For example, it may be decided that the objective of improving parent-child communication is measurable in terms of the frequency of conversations between parent-child over a period of a week. Or it may be decided that improvement in parent-child communication will be assessed in terms of a higher score on a standardized instrument, such as 'The Ittelson Family Interaction Observation Schedule'. To measure improvement or change on any of these measures, a measure of the communication behaviour between parent and child must be taken prior to the beginning of treatment or intervention and then immediately following termination or completion of treatment.

For each program objective, there may be several methods by which performance (and consequently change) can be measured. These different measures however are not equally good indications of the behaviour that is expected to change. For example, achievement of the objective of reducing or preventing further involvement of youth in delinquent activities is typically measured in terms of number of previous offences and number of recidivisms. However, recidivisms, that is, number of apprehensions for a delinquent offence following

program treatment may not be a very reliable measure of the actual number of delinquent incidences in which the youth has been involved. It might be more appropriate to measure the delinquency behaviour of a youth in terms of total number of police contacts with the youth regardless of whether there is sufficient information to apprehend the youth. Or it might be more appropriate to measure the delinquency behaviour of a youth in terms of a self-report delinquency questionnaire. In addition to this concern with the reliability of various performance measures the selection of one method over another is influenced by constraints such as limited funds, limited staff time, the obtrusiveness of the measurement to the client and lack of staff knowledge about the various methods available for measuring behavioural or attitudinal change.

(i) Select Evaluable Objectives

Many evaluation researchers emphasize that all program objectives must be operationalized in the manner just described and that standards or measures of performance on each of the elements of each of these operaionalized statement of the program objectives must be specified. However, for most social service programs it is completely inappropriate to operationalize and measure the attainment of all program objectives. In many cases, it may not be worthwhile to operationalize and measure some objectives because they are not important enough to justify the expense of this evaluation activity. In other cases, it may be very difficult, if not impossible, to operationalize and measure the attainment of some objectives.

For most social service programs it would be far too expensive and obtrusive to measure the attainment of all program objectives. Therefore, a decision must be made regarding which program and operational objectives should be measured. Generally, the wisest decision is to select only those objectives that are most important for overall program effectiveness and to define performance measures that can be utilized within the limits of staff time, are not disturbing to clients, and do not interfere with the goal of providing treatment to clients.

j) Design an Efficient Information System

A final task in planning an on-going evaluation of your program concerns the design of an efficient information system for the program. The design of a program monitoring and evaluation plan specifies the collection of certain biographical client data, the collection of information on implementation of program procedures, and measurement and collection of client behaviour on specific dimensions, before and after the program. Each specific data element, whether it is a behaviour, attitude or event must be clearly defined, recorded at the appropriate time and updated, if necessary (e.g., recidivisms). It is necessary, therefore, to install a record-keeping system to collect this information in a comprehensive, efficient, systematic and accurate manner. In addition, the information must be collected in an organized and standardized format such that retrieval and use of this information for analysis and decision-making later is economical and effortless.

VI Development of a Contract for Evaluation

Throughout the course of this workshop, you have been hearing much about the development and implementation of an evaluation research strategy. Implicit in these discussions is the need for collaboration among funder, program staff, and researcher. Collaboration should be based on a formal agreement, or contract, which is derived through a process of negotiation. In any evaluation project, each party has needs, direct and indirect, which they want to satisfy. The anticipation and satisfaction of these needs is central to the negotiation of any evaluation strategy. (The following discussion is a summary of Margo Sanderson's paper on 'Negotiating Strategies for Evaluation' presented at the conference 'Evaluation as a Tool for Management, Jan. 1979.)

"The history of program evaluation contract development has all too often excluded input from the program being evaluated. It is my contention, however, that the negotiation of a successful research contract must involve the participation of all parties to the research, with particular emphasis on participation from the program staff. Lack of involvement by the program almost guarantees that no change will follow once the evaluation is completed.

Negotiation of a contract should be thought of as a cooperative enterprise. If all parties enter the contract negotiation phase on a cooperative basis, there is a strong likelihood that they will strive for common goals. This does not mean that every goal will be of the same value to each participant. But it does mean that there is a greater possibility for each participant to reach successful agreement on goals."

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Negotiation of an evaluation contract is especially important when the research is being conducted externally either by a private consultant hired by the program or by a researcher hired by the government funders of the project. This discussion on contract negotiation will proceed on the assumption that the evaluation effort will not be in-house but rather requested by an external agency.

"When there is lack of collaboration among funders, researchers, and program staff in planning evaluation research, problems are likely to be encountered. These problems concern the objectives of the research, the results, the utilization of data, and the organization and conduct of the research. For example, under objectives, there is often lack of clarity and agreement around the program's objectives, making it impossible to decide on research objectives, as those must in part fall out of program's objectives. Concerning results, there is often lack of understanding or agreement about what the results are going to be used for. Results which are useable by the program must be derived from evaluation questions which are posed by the program itself. However, in order to do a comprehensive evaluation, the researcher may have specific research questions as well. There is a need for both to understand the needs of the other, and to reach a successful agreement. An important question here is: what will the collected information be answering after the study is complete? Lack of understanding of the utilization of data is another problem area. For example, is the data to be used by decision makers in programs, or for policy planning, or both? Often there is a lack of research focus

on the actual decision-making and information using behaviour of decision-makers. Other related problems include the distribution of research results, and the ownership of data. Regarding the organization and conduct of the research there are a host of problems. Common among these problems are: lack of researcher understanding of the program environmental context; unrealistic research time and resource assessment; lack of attention to issue of confidentiality of client records; unreasonable program demands on involvement of researcher in program functioning; and inconsistent or lack of periodic feedback to the program staff and the funder."

Many of these and other problems can be avoided and adjustments can be made if they are identified early in an evaluation contract negotiation stage.

An evaluation contract negotiation should begin after a researcher has been selected and prior to any formal evaluation commencing. The objective of this phase is to decide whether an evaluation is appropriate at this time, and if so, to produce a formalized, written research contract, signed by the agency manager, researcher, and funder.

"Since the contract negotiation phase involves a great deal of attention to defining the research questions and appropriate research methods, it may become apparent that an evaluation is not appropriate at this time, or that the original choice of researcher was an inappropriate choice. These decisions should be apparent to the researcher, funder and program agency. The ideal model for the

contract development phase would involve a funding agreement whereby the funder would pay the researcher a contract development consulting fee. The two main factors to be considered here are: the actual consulting fee and the time allowed for the contract development phase. The fee schedule would be determined in part by going rates, the complexity of the task, research experience, and so on. In establishing a time period, it would be desirable to set the number of days for paying the researcher within an elapsed time period. For example, within an allowable two month elapsed time period, it may be agreed that two weeks billable time will be paid by the funder. This would allow the funder, the reasearcher, and the program manager time to understand the complexity of the research issues and to give careful consideration to funder and program research needs. The following outlines the steps to be followed in the contract development phase.

1. Make explicit the political context of this evaluation research. Some important questions here are: Who funds the program, and what constraints are they imposing on the research? Who is funding the evaluation, and why is an evaluation being done at this particular time? What events outside the program are presumed to affect program operations? What are the power relationships involved in the operation of this program? When research is in progress, what political pressures could alter or undermine the study?
2. Describe the environmental context in which the program operates. It is essential that the researcher understand the

environmental context of the program. It is the responsibility of the funder and the manager to explain the situation.

3. Clarify and specify program objectives and goals. This task has been previously described. As you must be fully aware now, there can be considerable disagreement about program objectives; objectives that are the basic for determining program success.
4. Establish research objectives and goals. This involves the development of the research objectives. Presumably the research ojbectives will be based on some or all of the stated program objectives, depending on the scope of the evaluation. Research objectives should refer specifically to the type of information which is to be collected, the reasons for collecting it, and how it will be used to illustrate, prove, disprove or conclude something about the program. Selecting specific issues for study and formulating researchable questions are initially the tasks of the researcher and the program administrator together. However, if the agency is to learn anything from the research, the researcher should be allowed some latitude in reformulating specific research questions or adding new ones in the course of data collection and analysis. If the research is of sufficient scale time-wise, it should consist initially of an exploratory or descriptive phase, and the contract should

provide for research question review and reformulation at the appropriate stage.

5. Identify sources of information which will be available to the researcher. There are essentially three categories of information: people, occasions, and documents. People include clients and their significant others, program manager and personnel, and staff of other agencies. Examples of occasions are staff and board meetings, client intake sessions, therapy sessions, and case conferencing. Documents include client records, diary records, financial records, and minutes of staff and board meetings.

6. Select the methods which should be used to collect information from these sources. Once the evaluator knows what he is going to study, the next step is to decide how to study it. Some possible methods include: interviews, questionnaires, observation, ratings, attitude tests, analyzing agency records, and the use of experimental design for random assignment of clients into standard treatment, no treatment, or experimental treatment, or some variation of this design. The methods which the researcher recommends may consist of any combination of the above. While research funders may attempt to be economical and use only one research method, it has become a recognized and recommended practice in evaluation research to employ a number of research methods, thus improving the reliability of the findings.

7. Researcher presents the anticipated effects of the proposed research methods on agency operation. Evaluation research always involves some change or disruption to agency operation. While the researcher would recommend the most appropriate methods to meet the research objectives, given the available sources of information, the final decision about which methods to use should be a joint agreement bewteen the researcher and the agency, and the funder if necessary. In reaching this decision, the agency must be made aware of the impact of the proposed research methods on agency operation. To reiterate, some of these effects include: imposition on staff and client time, random assignment of clients, change in program reporting, and access to program records. This decision may involve the researcher presenting alternative ways to collect the information. In fact, wherever possible the program negotiator should encourage the researcher to present alternative ways of meeting the research objectives. This gives the program manager greater flexibility and control over the research focus, time commitment, and cost.

8. Specify research resources necessary to carry out the research. The researcher requires certain resources to carry out the research. These resources may include: office space, secretarial assistance, research assistants, e.g. interviewers, materials, photocopying, travel expenses, and computer assistance.

Regarding computer assistance, the researcher should examine the accessibility of data processing and if necessary, bring in a computer analyst to review data requirements, time, and cost. The contract should include a contingency statement covering possible delays in data processing, and inaccessibility to other essential resources.

9. The program manager, and in particular the research funder, should be able to guarantee in the contract that the resources required to implement the proposed research are currently available.
10. Having reserved the right to make a final decision regarding the design and implementation of the research, cost, and time-frame, the program manager, funder, and researcher should decide whether they have the basis on which to finalize a contract. If so, a contract should be drafted according to the preceding steps.

Summary: Contract Development Phase

1. Initial contract negotiation begins.
2. Funder provides researcher contract development consulting fee.
3. Make explicit the political context of this evaluation research.
4. Describe the environmental context of the program.
5. Clarify and specify program objectives and goals.
6. Establish research objectives and goals.

7. Identify sources of information which will be available to the researcher.
8. Select the methods which should be used to collect information from these sources.
9. Researcher presents the anticipated effects of the proposed research methods on agency operation.
10. Specify research resources necessary to carry out the research.
11. Program manager and funder guarantee that research resources are currently available.
12. Establish project duration.
13. Specify research review periods.
14. Establish cost of research according to research components.
15. All parties sign contract.

WORKSHOP PRESENTATION PLAN AND EXERCISES

Task 1: Formulate a mission statement for juvenile delinquency, youth & family services

a) Define what is a mission statement: (Write definition on flip chart for audience.)

MISSION STATEMENT: It is a broad philosophical description of the overall purpose of your agency. It describes the reasons you are in business. It should indicate:

a) what you want to achieve in the long run

b) your target consumer population

c) the problems, concerns or opportunity to be addressed

d) the general approach to be taken

b) Extract three or four mission statements from the 'program descriptions' and write on a flip-chart or overhead projector.

c) Elicit comments from the audience on which mission statement best represents the philosophical purpose of the program. Maybe a new statement will have to be drafted.

Task 2: Formulate program goals

a) Define a program goal. In the case where there is only one program goal, it will be the same as the mission statement. Goals are general statements of program aims - the desired end results.

b) Extract six or seven statements about program goals from program description and write on flip chart.

c) Examine each program goal in terms of the following questions:

i) Does it identify a desired outcome?

ii) Does it identify a target population?

iii)Does it include general methods to be used?

iv) Is it realistic, given the program resources?

If necessary, rewrite goal statement.

d) Ask the audience to select which statement is most important, the next most important and so on. Have the audience reject goal statements that do not represent the program's mission.

Task 3: Formulate Program Objectives

a) Define a program objective: statement of intended results of day-to-day activities engaged in by program staff. Compared to goals, objectives must be specific and concrete, time-limited and measurable in some way. (Write definition on a flip chart for audience.)

OBJECTIVES are specific statements of intended results of day by day activities . Objectives must be:

a. more specific and concrete

b) time-limited

c) measurable in some way

d) can be impact (end results) or operational objectives

e) consistent with goals

f) hierarchically organized in terms of:
i) importance
ii) immediacy
iii)stability

b) Elicit examples of program objectives from audience. Write them on flip chart. (Try to get 10 or so.)

c) Examine each objective in terms of whether it is specific and concrete, time-limited and measurable.

-- Rewrite any objectives that do not satisfy this requirement.

d) Explain difference between operational and impact objectives.

e) Examine objectives presently on board. Which ones are operational objectives? Which ones are impact objectives? Reorganize them.

f) Elicit more objectives from audience to satisfy the different types of objectives.

g) Examine objectives in terms of their relationship to the goals. Are they related? Do one or more of the goals lack specific program objectives? Rectify that problem. Elicit more objectives from the audience.

h) Next, take each objective, examine it in terms of:

(i) its importance

(ii) its priority of occurrance (other objectives depend on the achievement of higher priority objectives)

(iii)when can it be achieved

(iv) how stable or long-lasting is this effect

(Scribe will attempt to record crudely the judgements expressed by the majority of the group.)

(i) Finalize a hierarchical list of objectives.

Task 4: Selection of performance measures on three or four of the listed objectives (the most important ones)

a) Examine each objective and decide what is the desired effect. Is it,

(i) the occurrence of an event;

(e.g. action is taken within two days to any referral)

(ii) a change in behaviour;

(iii)a change in attitude; or

(iv) an increase in knowledge.

b) What kind and how big a change is expected to occur?

(elicit answers from audience)

c) What are some indicators that the desired change has occurred. Do you need to identify and establish the pre-program level? For example, the number of previous delinquent offences, or severity of behavioural problems, or the degree of lack of communication between parents and child.

d) Record objectives and performance indicators

Task5: Operationalize Objectives

a) Take two or three of the objectives and operationalize each of them in terms of 'what action is to be taken' on 'what population group' to achieve 'what effect', by 'what time frame' for 'how long'.

b) Break large group into four smaller groups to continue operationalizing the program objectives.

C. Small Group Workshop Session:

(Because of time limitations it was not possible to go into small groups and complete the evaluation planning exercises. However, they are described below.)

Task 1: Continue Operationalizing Program Objectives

a) Record each 'operationalized objective'

b) Examine each operationalized objective in terms of the feasibility of collecting data to measure its attainment.

→ if necessary, modify the performance indicator.

Task 2: Select a set of 'evaluable objectives'

a) Select a few objectives that not only are highly relevant to the program goals and program mission, but can be measured given the data-collection, time and monetary constraints on the program's operation.

b) List other types of problems that could affect the measurement of these objectives.

c) Decide when these measurements will be made: before and immediately after intervention, after intervention only, or before, immediately after and long-term after intervention.

Task 3: Define program services and staff activities

a) List a number of program services. Examine each in terms of who will receive them, how long and how often they will be provided to any one client, and how many clients will receive that service.

b) List all other staff activities. (Some may be administrative duties, others may be related to non-client objectives.)

c) Estimate amount of time staff intends to spend in providing direct services to clients in general, and to individual clients in contrast to the amount of time he or she will spend on other services (as previously listed).

Task 4: Is the program operating as planned?

a) What kind of data would you want to collect to determine whether the program is operating as planned. List data elements.

b) Does it matter whether the program is operating as planned?

Task 5: Identify some side-effects of the program

a) List positive and negative side-effects of the program as they pertain to police, to youth, to families, to the community, and to social service agencies operating in the community.

b) Discuss negative side-effects of an evaluation.

ISSUES THAT EMERGED FROM WORKSHOP SESSION

1. Many of the workshop participants stressed the point that an evaluation of youth and family counselling services should begin with an evaluation of client and community need for the program. A concern was expressed that these programs were being planned and implemented without firm evidence that there was a problem with juvenile crime in the community; specifically, it was questioned whether first-time juvenile offenders would necessarily commit further crimes if no intervention or treatment occured.

2. In response to the first concern, the workshop leader emphasized that determination of the extent of juvenile crime in a community and an assessment of the psychological, social and service needs of juveniles and their families should be undertaken prior to any committtment, planning, and implementation of a particular treatment, intervention, or assistance strategy. Standardized methods, in the form of questionnaires, surveys and examination of juvenile crime reports exist to conduct child behaviour and community need assessments.

3. Several participants raised the second concern, whether it was possible that most behaviour-problem and first-time delinquent offenders would commit no further delinquencies and therefore require no intervention in the form of family and youth counselling. The workshop leader stated that an answer to this type of question was unknown at this point in time and could only

be addressed through quasi-experimental research methods - a monitoring or a single case before/after treatment evaluation study could not answer this type of question.

4. The first exercise in the workshop session involved establishing a program mission statement, such that it provided the rationale and philosophical basis for youth and family counselling programs. It was required that the mission statement specify a target population, a problem that needed to be addressed, an end result to be achieved in the long run, and an approach or treatment strategy to be taken in the program. The workshop participants seemed to have little difficulty formulating and reaching agreement on a mission statement.

5. The next exercise involved formulating program goals. It seemed to be the general consensus of the participants that there was only one program goal - a goal similar to the program mission statement.

6. Cooperation and agreement among workshop participants disintegrated when it came to the task of formulating program objectives. Workshop participants had considerable difficulty formulating outcome or impact objectives; that is, behavioural, attitudinal, or increased knowledge changes in the client or community persons. However, they had no difficulty formulating operational or procedural objectives. For example, conducting assessments on all referred clients; responding quickly to a referral, etc.

7. There was little agreement on the relative importance of each of the objectives previously listed. Police individuals were adamant that preventing delinquent activities among the referred clients was the most important objective. Program people were adamant that psychological, emotional or social changes among the youth, such as increased life skills, or completion of a high school education were the most important objectives of a social service youth program.

8. When it came to the task of deciding whether these objectives were measurable and how they were measurable, responses ranged from "of course" to "they can't be measured". Finally, one individual expressed the concern; that even if it is possible to measure achievement of a particular objective, does that necessarily constitute "program success"? This comment has two implications. First, it may be that measurement of changes in client behaviour and attitudes, pre and post treatment, represent true client changes but these changes may not be the most important objectives of the program. For example, if the objective of the program is to reduce recidivism then it may be unimportant or irrelevant whether clients acquire a sense of well-being as a result of the individual and family counselling provided in the program. The second implication of this statement concerns the validity of the assumption that the behavioural or attitudinal changes occurred as a result of the program intervention or treatment strategy. It may be that

reduction or cessation of youth involvement in delinquent activities occurred spontaneously, or can be attributed to maturation or because police apprehension "scared him half to death" and under no circumstances would he engage in that act again.

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WRAP-UP SESSION

WHERE DO WE GO FROM HERE? - D. McComb
Special Projects
Ministry of Attorney General

1. Conference Proceedings

These will be circulated to all participants and other interested parties after review by the planning committee. This report will contain identified issues and proposed solutions.

Two specific areas addressed were:

1. The Ministry of Attorney General, Juvenile Crime Prevention Committee should set up a communications network for Youth Services, i.e. newsletter, etc.

   - referred to the committee for follow-up and action.

2. Education - Justice system people should develop an educational package about the working of the criminal justice system for community education.

   - this will be referred to the Justice Institute through the Ministry's Policy Planning Division.

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2. Evaluation

Conference participants suggested that a guide for program planning be developed as a follow up to the conference workshop on evaluation.

- referred to the Consultation Centre for action.

3. Juvenile Crime Prevention Policy and Program Development

Don McComb gave a brief historical sketch on the Juvenile Crime Prevention Policy and outlined the current budget and future priorities.

A copy of the Policy Statement and information on the current policy emphasis on juvenile crime prevention to further involve the community is available upon request from the Special Projects Branch, 5th Floor, 609 Broughton Street, Victoria, B.C. V8V 1X4

4. Reaction to the Kelowna Experience

- would like a more direct picture of some of the programs now in operation
- more interpretation and contact with other provincial ministries is required, particularly if funding from them is sought

- representation could have been broader to include: schools, judiciary, Health, Corrections Branch, and Criminal Justice Division
- community people must do more to connect their programs with provincial ministries interested in their services.

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Jim Smith	Langley Youth and Family Services 5649 204th Street Langley, B.C. V3A 1Z4 Tel. 533-3030

Community Diversion/Mediation Services
610 Gorge Road East
Victoria, B.C. V8T 2W6

The Community Diversion/Mediation Services program focusses on reconcilation and restitution. An individualized program is developed from referrals received from police or Crown Counsel. Services include:

- alternate response to many types of offences
- conflict mediation
- assessment and referral to community resources
- victim services

Penticton Youth and Family Services Preventive Counselling

1103 Main Street
Penticton, B.C. V2A 5E6

A Youth and Family Counselling Service administered by the R.C.M.P. in conjunction with local agencies.

The service works with youth who are too young to refer to the court system, "potential" delinquents, and with families who feel their child may be exhibiting potentially delinquent behaviour.

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Richmond R.C.M.P. Youth Intervention Program
690 Minoru Boulevard
Richmond, B.C. V6Y 1Y3

This program focusses on the early identification of pre-delinquent and delinquent youth (early stages of their development) in an attempt to divert them from a criminal career.

The program provides police and other agencies in the community with a resource which is free to deal directly with these youths by providing preventive counselling.

Youth and Family Services

Saanich District Municipal Police Department
760 Vernon Avenue
Victoria, B.C. V8X 2W6

The broad objective of the program is to provide counselling services to both youth and families who are experiencing difficulties.

Specific objectives include:

- assisting police officers in making referrals
- providing consultation regarding counselling of youth and families
- working directly with a clearly defined segment of youth and families where special difficulties are encountered
- assisting in a more effective coordination of service
- assisting in training, in assessment of needs, or assessing existing programs.

Burnaby Youth Services
The Corporation of the District of Burnaby
4949 Canada Way
Burnaby, B.C. V5G 1M2

Administered by the Corporation of the District of Burnaby, the program objectives are:

a. to offer an early identification to problem youth and to respond quickly and effectively to alleviate these problems

b. to coordinate and to cooperate with other statutory and non-statutory agencies wthin the Municipality of Burnaby with regard to the early identification of youth problems.

Campbell River Youth Centre Society

P.O. Box 528
Campbell River, B.C. V9W 5C1

The Society provides facilities and programs to young people in assisting them to achieve their full potential. The program provides positive alternatives to the use of alcohol and other drugs.

Kelowna Youth and Family Services
36 - 436 Bernard Avenue
Kelowna, B.C. V1Y 6N7

Under the direction of and in consultation with the Officer in Charge, Kelowna Detachment, R.C.M.P.

and in liaison with other statutory social agencies provide a preventive counselling service under a division of the police detachment known as the Youth and Family Services Division with authority to intervene in juvenile delinquent and pre-delinquent cases and with problem families upon referral from the police, schools, social agencies or from private sources such as stores, parents, doctors and Parks and Recreation.

Langley Youth and Family Services
5649 204th Street
Langley, B.C. V3A 1Z4

A short-term family counselling program located in the community of Langley, B.C. and is attached to the Langley R.C.M.P. The Langley program provides counselling for families with youths who are committing delinquent acts or are exhibiting problem behaviour in the home, school or community. The Langley Youth and Family Services also acts as a referral and social services coordination agency for youths having problems.

END