

## xxviii. Transactional Evaluation

It aims at drawing attention to the effects of disruption in an organization on incumbents in the roles in the system undergoing change. It is used as a strategy for managing dysfunctions that occur within an organization in the midst of change.

### 9.7 Evaluation Paradigms

When considering evaluation, most of the experts think about a particular approach/model depending upon their past experiences and their beliefs about evaluation. Guba and Lincoln (1989) have reported four paradigms of evaluation considering its historical perspective which are as under:

1. Measurement—Evaluator as technician
2. Description—Evaluation as describer
3. Judgement—Evaluator as judge
4. Responsiveness—Evaluator as collaborator and negotiator

A brief description of these four paradigms is presented below:

#### *9.7.1 Measurement - Evaluator as Technician*

In the measurement paradigm, the evaluator is essentially a technician. Measurement, evaluation and assessment are terms that have been used interchangeably and still are in some contexts. The assumption underlying the 'measurement' paradigm is that if farmer do not perform well, it is due to some lackness on their part. Most experts are now well aware of the limitations of this view, and know there are many factors, human and non-human, which can affect farmer/ learners performance.

#### *9.7.2 Description - Evaluator as Describer*

As reported by Guba and Lincoln (1989, p 28) this "approach was characterised by description of patterns of strengths and weaknesses with respect to certain

stated objectives". Here the evaluator is describer. However, because this approach merely described events after they had occurred.

### ***9.7.3 Judgement - Evaluator as Judge***

During the 1960's, evaluation processes began to adopt not only a measuring and describing role, but also a judgemental role with the evaluator as judge. Evaluators were required to evaluate programme objectives and to exercise judgement against the particular standards they had developed. Hence evaluation was based on the values of the evaluator, rather than on the multiple values of stakeholders.

### ***9.7.4 Responsive - Evaluator as Collaborator and Negotiator***

Here the key point to note with each the approaches briefly described above is that evaluation is carried out by an outside evaluator rather than by practitioners themselves. While each approach has contributed to the development and improvement of evaluation as a process, Guba and Lincoln argue that there are flaws with each of them; a reliance on the scientific approach, management of evaluation by 'outsiders' and a tendency to disregard multiple values and viewpoints. Therefore, they argue for the need to move towards a more encompassing approach, a fourth paradigm of evaluation which they refer to as responsive evaluation. Now a days, it is named as participatory evaluation. Guba and Lincoln(1989, p 253-256) outline seven characteristics of responsive evaluation. To them it is:

- a sociopolitical process,
- a collaborative process
- a teaching/learning process
- a continuous, recursive and highly divergent process
- an emergent process
- a process with unpredictable outcomes
- a process that creates reality.

Participatory evaluation -- what is it

Participatory evaluation is not just a matter of using participatory techniques within a conventional evaluation paradigm. It is about radically rethinking who initiates and undertakes the process, and who learns or benefits from the findings. It ensures the conscious involvement of all the stakeholders.. Participatory evaluation is based on following four broad principles:

- 'Participation' - which means opening up the design of the process to include those most directly affected, and agreeing to analyse data together;
  - The inclusiveness of PM&E requires 'negotiation' to reach agreement about what will be monitored or evaluated, how and when data will be collected and analysed, what the data actually means, and how findings will be shared, and action taken;
  - This leads to 'learning' which becomes the basis for subsequent improvement and corrective action;
  - Since the number, role, and skills of stakeholders, the external environment, and other factors change over time, 'flexibility' is essential.
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## Difference between Conventional and Participatory Evaluation

| Indicator  | Conventional Evaluation                            | Participatory valuation  |
|--|--|--|
| Planning process:                                  | Senior managers, or staff, outside experts         | Local people, project staff managers, and other stakeholders, often helped by a facilitator.       |
| Primary stakeholders (the intended beneficiaries): | Provide information only                           | Design and adapt the methodology, collect and analyse data, share findings and link them to action |
| How success is measured:                           | Externally-defined, mainly quantitative indicators | Internally-defined indicators, including more qualitative judgements                               |
| Approach:  | Predetermined                                      | Adaptive   |

### 9.8 Participatory Techniques

A wide range of methods and tools have been developed to carry out participatory evaluation. They all seek to compare the situation before and after a particular project, considering a set of events. Some the methods commonly used for participatory evaluation include:

| Method            | Description  |
|-------------------|--|
| Maps:             | to show the location and types of changes in the area being monitored          |
| Venn diagrams:    | to show changes in relationships between groups, institutions, and individuals |
| Flow diagrams:    | to show direct and indirect impacts of changes, and relates them to causes     |
| Diaries:          | to describe changes in the lives of individuals or groups                      |
| Photographs:      | to depict changes through a sequence of images                                 |
| Matrix scoring:   | to compare people's preferences for a set of options or outcomes               |
| Network diagrams: | to show changes in the type and degree of contact between people and services  |

## 9.9 Steps in Evaluating Extension Programmes

Following are the steps to be followed while evaluating an extension programmes.

### 9.9.1 Object Description

..... An object description is used to better understand the thing that is  
 ..... to be evaluated. It helps in planning the evaluation and is the part  
 ..... of the final evaluation report generally covered under the titles:  
 ..... "Introduction". Elements of effective object descriptions include  
 ..... the following:

Rational/Philosophy?

What is the logic for the programme's existence?

- **Objectives**

What are the programme's specific intended outcomes.

- **Setting**

Describe the physical and/or the socio-psychological environment in which the programme takes place.

- **Staff**

Who are the people responsible for the programme's operations? What are the characteristics and qualifications of their positions?

- **Organization**

What is the structure of the programme? Are there any specific arrangements that are important for the object's success?

- **Activities**

Describe in detail what actions, techniques or procedures are used to accomplish programme objectives.

- **Participants**

Who are the participants and what are their characteristics and /or selection criteria?

- **Budget**

Itemize the intended or actual costs of implementing this programme.

The object description helps the evaluator as well as the readers (audience) clarify just what it is that will be/has been evaluated. The description is generally based on interviews with the key project personnel, document review, direct observations of the project in action, and conversations with participants. The best object descriptions are those which avoid judgmental language on the part of the evaluator.

### **9.9.2 Planning Evaluation**

- **Clarify the Evaluation Request**

Interview the client-----the specific agency or individual who requests the evaluation and the sponsor ----the agency or individual who authorizes the evaluation and provides necessary financial resources for its conduct and to clarify the reasons for wanting to evaluate the object.

- **Identify the Intended Audiences and Their Concerns**

Audiences include individuals, groups, and agencies who have an interest in the evaluation and receive its results. Sponsors and clients are usually the primary

audiences and may occasionally be the only audiences. Generally an evaluation's audiences will also include all participants and stake holders -----those who may be directly affected by evaluation results. Audience concerns/views may be identified through face to face interviews, telephone interviews or by mail.

• **Identify and Select the Evaluation Questions**

Based upon the interviews conducted and information received from the client, sponsor, stakeholders, and the audience, identify the evaluation questions and decide upon the questions to be addressed in the evaluation. Involve all concerned taking such decisions. Decide what evidence is needed to determine that the extension programme is reaching its goals in terms of **(a) number of accomplishments, or (b) changed behaviour of the people.**

Which are the most important indicators of changed behaviour? A hierarchy of the levels of evidence is presented in Table. 1. Suppose an organization runs a project of five years duration to educate farmers of Faisalabad District regarding farm forestry. The examples of the types of evidence needed for evaluation at various levels are given in Table. 1.

Table 1. Hierarchy of evidence for programme evaluation

| Level of Evidence  | Examples  |
|--------------------|---|
| 7. End results     | - Changes in the quality of life and standards of living of farmers.  |
| 6. Practice change | - Adoption of innovations in Farm Forestry by farmers on their farms.   |
| 5. KASA change     | - Changes in knowledge, attitudes, skills and aspirations of farmers regarding farm forestry.   |
| 4. Reactions       | - Opinions and reactions of farmers regarding extension programme and activities. Interested or not, like or dislike, useful or not useful. |

|                        |   |   |
|------------------------|---|---|
| 3. People involvement- |   | Percentage of farmers attending extension meetings.<br>Frequency and intensity of their involvement type and quality. |
| 2. Activities          | - | No. type and quality of extension meetings conducted.   |
|                        | - | No. of demonstrations conducted.  |
|                        | - | Subject matter taught   |
|                        | - | No. of trees planted on farm lands.   |
| 1. Inputs              | - | Time invested   |
|                        | - | Money invested  |
|                        | - | Resources used such as plants distributed among farmers.  |

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### 9.9.3 *Preparing the Evaluation Design.*

The evaluation design includes: the evaluation questions, information needed to answer these questions, sources of this information, sample, recommended strategies/methods for gathering the information and analyzing data.

- ***Statement of Evaluation Questions***

Evaluation is possible only if there are clear statements of the evaluation questions.

- ***Information Needed***

Identify clearly the information needed to answer evaluation questions.

- ***Source of Evidence***

Identify the source(s) from which the needed information can be achieved.

- ***Sample***

Sometime to becomes very difficult to study all those people/things, which are considered as source of evidence of the needed information. In such cases a sample may be studied.

A carefully drawn but representative sample (where each has equal chance of being drawn---such as "every tenth name") can provide essentially the



same evidence as the total group. A purposeful sample may be drawn for in-depth understanding of the context in which the evaluation object exists.

A brief description of various types of samples is given below:

| Sample                                    | Description  |
|---|--|
| A Random Probability sampling             | Representativeness: Sample size a function of Population size and desired confidence level.  |
| A.1 Simple random sample                  | Permits generalization from sample to the population it represents.  |
| A.2 Stratified random and cluster samples | Increases confidence in making generalizations to particular subgroups of areas.   |
| B. Purposeful sampling                    | Selects information-rich cases for in-depth study-Size and specific cases depend on study purpose.   |
| B.1 Extreme or deviant case sampling      | Learning from highly unusual manifestations of the phenomenon of interest, such as outstanding successes/notable failures, top of the class/ dropouts, exotic events, crises.  |
| B.2 Intensity sampling                    | Information-rich cases that manifest the phenomenon intensely, but not extremely, such as good students/poor students, above average/below average.  |
| B.3 Maximum variation sampling-           | Documents unique or diverse variations that have (Purposefully picking a wide range emerged in adapting to different conditions. Of variation on dimensions of interest)Identifies important common patterns that cut across variations. |
| B.4 Homogeneous sampling                  | Focuses, reduces variation, simplifies analysis, facilitates group interviewing.   |
| B.5 Typical case sampling                 | Illustrates or highlights what is typical, normal, average.  |

- B.6 Stratified purposeful Illustrates characteristics of particular sampling subgroups of interest; facilitates comparisons.
- B.7 Critical case sampling Permits *logical* generalization and maximum application of information to other cases because if it's true of this one case it's likely to be true of all other cases:
- B.8 Snowball or chain sampling Identifies case of interest from people who know what cases are information rich, that is, good examples for study, good interview subjects.
- B.9 Criterion sampling Picking all cases that meet some criterion, Such as all children abused in a treatment facility.
- B.10 Theory-based or operational Finding manifestations of a theoretical Construct, construct sampling of interest so as to elaborate and examine the construct.
- B.11 Confirming and disconfirming cases Elaborating and deepening initial analysis, seeking exceptions, testing variation.
- B.12 Opportunistic sampling Following new leads during fieldwork, taking advantage of the unexpected, flexibility.
- B.13 Random purposeful Adds credibility to sample when potential sampling purposeful (still small sample size) sample is larger than one can handle. Reduces judgment within a purposeful category.
- B. 14 Sampling politically Attracts attention to the study (or avoids important cases attracting undesired attention by purposeful eliminating from the sample politically sensitive cases).
- B. 15 Convenience sampling Saves time, money, and effort. Poorest rationale; lowest credibility. Yields information-poor cases.