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## Evaluating for Public Value: Clarifying the Relationship Between Public Value and Program Evaluation

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# Evaluating for Public Value: Clarifying the Relationship Between Public Value and Program Evaluation

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*This article presents a framework that integrates the concept of public value, known primarily in public administration and public sector economics circles, with program evaluation. We identify four components of this Evaluating for Public Value (EPV) framework. These are: (1) the “publicness” of the participant and the participant’s goals; (2) organizational credibility, which incorporates participant and stakeholder perceptions of the program, as well as the delivery organization; (3) program outcomes, with an emphasis on the value gained by program participants; and (4) broader impacts. The notion of measuring a program’s publicness is perhaps the most novel aspect of this framework. Extension professionals tend to think about who they are serving when they design programs, but often do not revisit these issues as part of program evaluation. This paper also provides guidance on strategies for measuring broader impacts, such as use of the community capitals framework or measurement of social capital creation.*

*Keywords:* program evaluation, public value, measurement strategies, outcomes, impacts

## Introduction

Thanks largely to the pioneering work of Kalambokidis (2004, 2011) and more recently Franz (2011, 2013), the idea of public value has taken hold in Extension. Training has been provided in numerous states in how to both write public value statements for programs, as well as how to create public value stories and templates that communicate public value messages to stakeholders. Despite these advances, there is little conceptual clarity about the role of program evaluation (and program evaluators) in linking evaluation to notions of public value. The most frequent assumption about the relationship between public value and evaluation is that public value is closely related to long-term impacts in social, economic, environmental, or civic conditions. For example, Kalambokidis, Hinz, and Chazdon (2014) used the Community Capitals Framework and Ripple Effect Mapping to document the public value impacts of a

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“bridging” community leadership program in Minnesota, and Majee and Maltzberger (2013) focused on the civic aspects of public value resulting from the Great Northwest Day at the Capitol program in Missouri.

This article takes a step back from the specific focus on long-term impacts and presents a framework and tools to further flesh out the connections between public value and program evaluation. Based on the authors’ experience evaluating Extension community development programming, the Evaluating for Public Value (EPV) framework contains four measurement components that integrate public value with evaluation. It should be noted that we do not intend our EPV approach to be the single measurement framework for the public value of a program. Organizations may find that different approaches to understanding the public value of what they do may be more appropriate. Our framework is meant to be a flexible tool. The program evaluator should develop metrics that are applicable to the program being evaluated and the public preferences that the program evaluator seeks to understand.

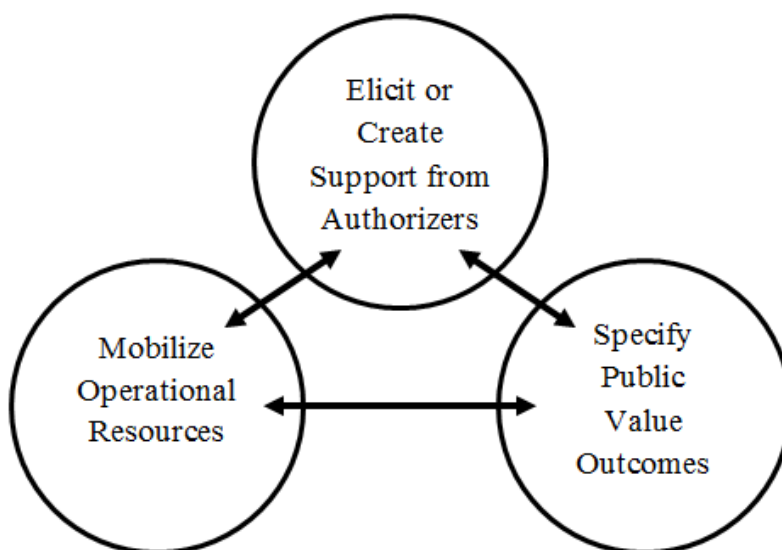
We also note that our emphasis on public value and evaluation highlights the political uses of evaluation much more than its personal or programmatic uses (Lamm & Israel, 2013). We believe, however, that integration of all the dimensions of our framework can produce professional growth, program improvement, and accountability for Extension professionals engaged in evaluation.

### **Public Value’s Strategic Triangle**

Harvard professor Mark Moore popularized the public value concept in his book, *Creating Public Value* (1995). Moore defines public value as the public sector equivalent of shareholder value in for-profit organizations. While *customers* define value in the private sector, in the public sector, the *collective* uses taxes and regulation to determine what is important to produce in society (Moore, 1995).

Moore notes that managers of public organizations must simultaneously address three key questions in assessing whether their programs have public value: “whether the purpose is publicly valuable, whether it will be politically and legally supported, and whether it is administratively and operationally feasible” (Moore, 1995, p. 22). These questions direct the public program manager to employ three distinct types of management processes: 1) identify the public purpose of the program; 2) manage upward, toward the political arena, to gain legitimacy and support for their purpose; and 3) manage downward, toward improving the organization’s ability to achieve its desired purposes (Moore, 1995, p. 23).

**Figure 1. The Public Value Strategic Triangle**



Note: Figure 1 is adapted from Moore, 1995; Moore & Khagram, 2004; and Benington & Moore, 2010

Moore developed a “Strategic Triangle” (see Figure 1) to depict these three processes. The first of these processes, *Specify Public Value Outcomes*, requires defining how the program contributes to the good of society. Programs that are oriented towards ends that are authorized by program participants and stakeholder groups create public value. Therefore, the key distinguishing factor between public value and private value is the presence of an authorizing environment and its public preferences that determine the public value of a program. Economists writing on public value, such as Kalambokidis (2004), emphasize a normative “market failure” approach that defines a program’s public value based on the satisfaction of well-known criteria for public sector involvement in public sector economics, such as cases where consumers have imperfect information or there are externalities present.

Our approach to defining public value is less normative and more of a social constructionist approach (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). In this social constructionist approach, the definition of public value is understood as subjective and malleable and comes as a result of negotiation between the public and authorizers. Program managers may be able to change how public value is defined through their engagement with authorizers. For example, community leadership development programs have recently begun to see that mobilizing social capital offers a key public value from their programs (Apaliyah, Martin, Gasteyer, Keating, & Pigg, 2012; Rasmussen, Armstrong, & Chazdon, 2011). This insight may then influence authorizers’ understanding of the importance of these programs.

Our approach to distinguishing between public and private value also differs slightly from the better known distinction drawn by Kalambokidis (2004), which identifies public value only in cases of market failure. In Kalambokidis’s (2004) view, private value is the value of a program

for direct participants, while public value represents the value for those not directly served by a program. Our approach does not draw the distinction between public and private value as sharply. As noted by Moore (1995), users of public programs are not only consumers, they are citizens. The user-as-consumer notion captures the value of a program to the program participant, while the user-as-citizen notion captures the potential for public-oriented action on the part of participants. This is often the case, for example, in Extension leadership or civic engagement programs, such as the Missouri Great Northwest Day at the Capitol program (Majee & Maltzberger, 2013), that provide opportunities for participants to build relationships with policy makers, strengthen social networks that can be used to influence policy, and gain civic skills.

The second of Moore's (1995) processes, *Elicit or Create Support from Authorizers*, requires attention to the political environment that ultimately oversees the program. Public and non-profit organizations are set in a social context with stakeholders placing demands on the organization. Important stakeholders include actors who fund or make policies affecting the organization. Examples include city councils, school boards, foundation boards, boards of regents, or state legislatures. All of these stakeholders form the "authorizing environment," because they give the organization social and political legitimacy. They have an interest in what the organization does and some capacity to shape its activities. In effect, these stakeholders form the public interest, and public value is created whenever this public interest is advanced.

The third process, *Mobilize Operational Resources*, requires the program manager to harness financial resources, staff, skills, and technology that both elicit support from authorizers and achieve desired public outcomes. The delivery organization must possess "sufficient know-how and capability" (Benington & Moore, 2010, p. 198) to achieve the desired results. Sometimes delivery organizations lacking sufficient resources may need to collaborate with other organizations to deliver an effective program or intervention.

### **The Strategic Triangle and Program Evaluation**

How does this idea of a public value strategic triangle relate to program evaluation? The triangle suggests that evaluators should pay attention to 1) the definition and measurement of the larger collective good that the program is intended to address; 2) the "fit" of the program with the goals and objectives of authorizers in the political arena; and 3) the ability of the delivery organization to harness the resources that sustain support for the program and reach the intended outcomes. Program evaluations often touch upon aspects of each of these three public value challenges, but not always in an explicit fashion. Below we briefly summarize the degree to which program evaluation pays attention to these challenges.

## Public Purpose

Program evaluation is often aware of the larger collective good, but not as often able to address it, in part because of resource constraints. The influential Kellogg Foundation's logic model resource guide defines impacts as "the fundamental intended or unintended change occurring in organizations, communities, or systems as a result of program activities within seven to ten years" (W. K. Kellogg Foundation, 2004, p. 3). The logic model published by University of Wisconsin Extension and used nationally as a guide for Extension, features a right-hand column labeled "Long-term Outcomes/Impacts," defined as changes in social, civic, economic, or environmental conditions (Taylor-Powell & Henert, 2008).

Yet, most program evaluation limits itself to identification and analysis of the intended outcomes of a program, and often these are at the level of the individual. In a recent meta-analysis of four decades of university Extension program evaluations, Workman and Scheer (2012) found that only 6% of evaluations explicitly addressed long-term outcomes or impacts.

The link between these individual outcomes and collective impacts is often perceived as one of attribution. To draw causal connections between specific program outcomes and societal impacts can be a big stretch. Program theories of change or program logic models often identify long-term outcomes or impacts and specify the causal pathway leading to them, but the actual measurement of these impacts often does not happen.

## Fit with Authorizers

How are authorizers in the political environment typically brought into the evaluation process? Usually authorizers are seen as the audience for evaluation. Savvy evaluators know they must organize and present evaluation findings in a manner that is accessible to policymakers, but, even then, evaluators are often dismayed to discover that politics often outweighs reason in public decision-making processes (Patton, 1997).

If the mission of an agency or program reflects a public priority, evaluation must address the degree to which a program or organization's work is "on point" with that mission. Stakeholder participation and utilization of evaluation has been identified as a means to maximize the utilization of evaluation findings and the legitimacy of the organization (Greene, 1988:112). The decision to involve stakeholder groups and the choice of stakeholder groups represent value judgments, and "insofar as we are dealing with evaluations that have been sponsored and are intended to be used in the political environment," the choice of stakeholder groups and judgments about the fit of the program's work with its mission emerges from a political process (Chelimsky, 1987, p. 25).

Values inquiry is a crucial component for documenting the success of a program or organization in reflecting the interests of authorizers. Mark, Henry, and Julnes (1999) suggest that values inquiry involves “measurement of the extent to which various stakeholder groups, and the public, value various possible outcomes or attributes of the program or policy” (Mark et al., 1999, p. 183). Evaluation that employs values inquiry has more potential to shape how the public judges a program and influence the authorizing environment.

### **Organizational Capacity**

If evaluation methods are used to judge a program’s trueness to mission, with an eye toward the authorizing environment, evaluation methods can also be used to judge a delivery organization’s capacity to produce public value outcomes. Assessing organizational capacity is not often part of evaluation, however. Usually, the operational capacity of the organization is taken as a given, yet most logic models include columns about “resources” or “inputs” used for program delivery. Are these the right resources? Is there is a sufficient amount of these resources? Is this delivery organization the best suited to deliver this program? These questions are often left unanswered, while most of the evaluator’s attention focuses on the substance of the program.

Evaluation designs that explicitly include “input” and “process” components come closest to addressing questions of organizational capacity. Input evaluation, part of the original CIPP (Context, Input, Process, Product) model (Stufflebeam et al., 1971), is used to assess whether organizational staffing plans, action plans, and budgets can address targeted goals. Process evaluation, also part of the CIPP model, typically focuses on the internal dynamics and operations of a program, often incorporating the perceptions of people close to the program about how things are going (Patton, 1997). To the degree that values inquiry is an important tool for examining the degree to which a program reflects the interests of stakeholders, it is also useful for examining the perceptions of organizational insiders about the adequacy of the organization’s resources to deliver a program that reaches the intended impact.

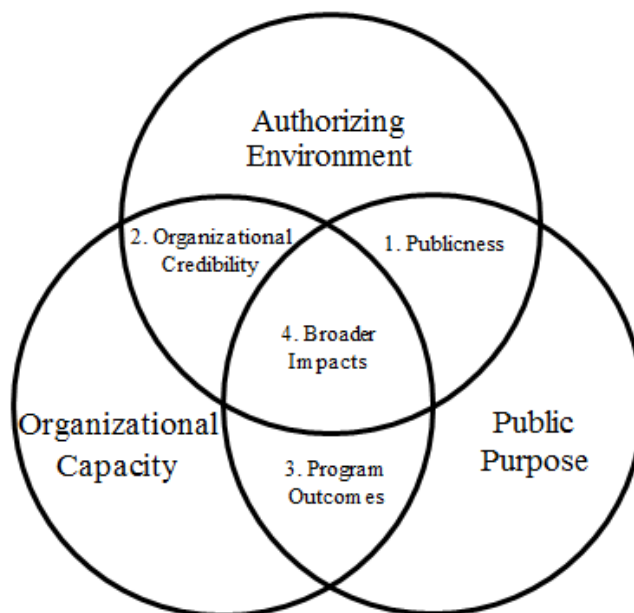
### **Evaluating for Public Value**

In the remainder of this article, we propose an Evaluating for Public Value (EPV) framework and present ideas to get an EPV evaluation started. The heart of the proposed evaluation strategy is informed by the three challenges described above: defining and measuring the larger collective good, identifying the fit of the program with authorizer interests, and assessing the capacity of the delivery organization to produce public value.

Each of these challenges is represented as a circle in Figure 2. We created our EPV framework based on the intersection of these challenges. The four components of EPV are 1) the “publicness” of the participant and the participant’s goals; 2) organizational credibility, which

incorporates participant and stakeholder perceptions of the program, as well as the delivery organization; 3) program outcomes, with an emphasis on the value gained by program participants; and 4) broader impacts, with an emphasis on changes in conditions beyond direct participants. In the discussion below, we further describe each of these four components and highlight some measurement strategies for each.

**Figure 2. The Four Components of Evaluating for Public Value (EPV)**



### Publicness

At the intersection of Public Purpose and the Authorizing Environment is a criterion we label “Publicness.” Following the work of Antonsen and Jørgensen (1997), we define publicness as the degree to which the *program participant* is oriented to public sector values, which may include fairness and justice issues and the production of public goods. The concept of publicness compels us to ask “Who is receiving the program?” and “What is their motivation for participating in the program?” Publicness is a highly subjective concept, but rather than avoid this subjectivity, program evaluators need to ask questions about the perceived publicness of program participants in order to gauge the fit of the program with its authorizing environment.

The first aspect of publicness that can be measured is the *characteristics* of program participants. In thinking about participant characteristics, it is helpful to keep the more normative, public economics approach to public value (emphasizing market failure) in mind. Public value is created by giving underserved participants access to vital services they would not otherwise be able to afford to access in the private sector. For example, Extension programs nationwide offer



nutrition education to Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP; formerly known as Food Stamp) program recipients. These participants would not typically have access to high quality nutrition information from private sources.

Beyond a focus on underserved audiences, public programs can increase their effectiveness by recruiting participants strategically to maximize public benefits. A recent study comparing different types of community leadership programs found that programs with a strong mix of representatives from different social sectors, or fields, of community life, have stronger community impact than programs with a weaker participant mix (Chazdon & Winchester, 2011).

Selecting which participant characteristics to measure will depend on the program's mission and the authorizing environment. Participants can be individuals, groups, or organizations. In the case of individuals, relevant participant characteristics may be whether the participant represents an underserved population based on income, race/ethnicity, gender, age, or other attributes. In the case of organizations, one could explore ownership, funding sources, and mission statements. These variables are intended to capture multiple aspects of the publicness of an organization, including the legal structure and ownership and the extent to which political authority influences the goals and operations of an organization (Bozeman & Bretschneider, 1994).

A second aspect of publicness is the *motivation* of the participant. The motivations and mission of program participants can vary, even if the participants are fully public organizations. For example, the Economic Development Authority of the City of Monticello, Minnesota, hired University of Minnesota Extension to measure the economic impact of constructing and operating a Veteran's nursing home in the community. Extension's Economic Impact Analysis program was intended to help community leaders make more informed decisions about economic development. In this case, Monticello was merely using the information to support its bid for a development project. The decision had already been made to pursue the Veteran's Home effort prior to hiring Extension to do the study. In this case, the motivation of the participant was not a good match with the program's intended public benefit to *inform* decisions. Instead, it *justified* decisions already made.

We argue that effective program delivery is more likely to develop when program staff and potential program participants understand each other's motives. Effective co-production of value is also more likely to occur when the motives of the program participant align closely with the motives of the public program. Therefore, publicness is concerned with the partnership formed between the delivery organization and program participants, and the public benefits that accrue from those partnerships.

By taking the participant's purpose into account, we assume that program participants exhibit different degrees of publicness (Antonsen & Jørgensen, 1997). A framework that is based solely

on the characteristics of the organization is inadequate for mapping the relationships between publicness and the public benefits.

Table 1 displays the two aspects of publicness and potential sources of data, evaluation methods, and sample evaluation questions that can be used to measure publicness.

**Table 1. Publicness Measurement Strategies**

Publicness Concept	Potential Data		Publicness Questions
	Sources	Potential Methods	
Publicness of Participant	Program data, participant organization's documents (e.g., budget and mission statement)	Individual interviews, group interviews, surveys/ questionnaires, secondary data collection	-Is the program reaching underserved populations? -Would the participant not have access to the program services through the private market? -To what extent is the organization funded by public dollars? -To what extent does the organization have a public serving mission?
Publicness of Participant's Purpose	Program data	Individual interviews, group interviews, surveys/questionnaires	-What does the participant hope to gain from the program? Is there potential for public benefit? -To what degree is the participant's purpose for participation aligned with the program's intended public benefits?

### Organizational Credibility

At the intersection of Organizational Capacity and the Authorizing Environment is Organizational Credibility. We define the concept of organizational credibility as participant and stakeholder perceptions of the quality of the public program, as well as the reputation of the delivery organization.

Program quality includes abilities of program staff, level of participant satisfaction, trust of program staff, and the responsiveness of the program to participant needs. These aspects of program quality are often included in program evaluation activities.

The reputation of the delivery organization is less often measured and is based on perceptions of the integrity of the delivery organization. To some extent, this reputation is malleable and stakeholders can change their perceptions based on performance of the organization. In some cases, however, reputations are less malleable and are highly influenced by past events or cultural norms. The 4-H program has a long history and is often revered in rural communities. It is likely that some of the public value resulting from this program is derived from this reputation, but this reputation must be carefully safeguarded and cannot always be taken for granted. Moreover, public universities often benefit from a perception that they offer unbiased analyses and reports that hold up to public scrutiny better than analyses or reports produced by for-profit companies. Yet, even prestigious research universities may lose this reputation as the result of a breach of integrity.

These two factors are not mutually exclusive. Perceptions of quality influence the reputation of the delivery organization. Table 2 presents some strategies for measuring these aspects of organizational credibility.

**Table 2. Organizational Credibility Measurement Strategies**

<b>Organizational Credibility Concept</b>	<b>Potential Data Sources</b>	<b>Potential Methods</b>	<b>Organizational Credibility Questions</b>
Quality of the program	Program participants; Other stakeholders, such as funders, community leaders or residents, sector leaders	Individual interviews, group interviews, surveys/questionnaires	-How confident are you in the accuracy of work performed by program staff? -How confident are you in the ability of program staff? -Do you trust program staff?
Organizational reputation	Program participants; Other stakeholders, such as community leaders	Individual interviews, group interviews, surveys/questionnaires	-To what extent is the delivery organization a trusted resource? -To what extent is the delivery organization a credible resource? -To what extent is the delivery organization more trusted or credible than other organizations offering similar services?

## Program Outcomes

At the intersection of Organizational Capacity and Public Purpose are Program Outcomes. Outcomes refer to the benefits that the individual participant directly gains from consumption of the program. Outcomes are based on the goals and objectives of the program *and* the capacity of the organization to deliver a program that meets these goals. We contrast *outcomes*, focused more on results for the individual participant, with *impacts*, focused more on results for the larger society, but we believe many aspects of program outcomes still fall under the umbrella of public value.

Following Bozeman (2002), Kelly, Mulgan, and Muers (2002), and Moore (1995), we consider program outcomes to be an important component of public value. When outcomes are achieved, public value is created for individuals as participants and for the public as a whole. In the example of Extension education, participant outcomes can have public value if the outcomes relate to authorizer-determined priorities. For example, teaching a farmer to properly use pesticides may have private value in producing a bigger yield for the farmer, as well as public value in reducing environmental damage and increasing crop yields. Financial literacy educational outcomes for participants from historically underserved populations may produce private gain for participants but also address public concerns for fairness and justice and reduction of public expenditures for welfare benefits or health care.

Outcome measurement is the most common and well-understood form of evaluation activity, and our proposed EPV framework does not add new insights into how to conduct outcome evaluation. Our framework, however, suggests that outcome measurement should only be considered as one component of a more complete strategy for Evaluating for Public Value. In the Extension education context, Bennett (1975) identified seven levels of evidence for evaluation. Levels five and six of Bennett's levels of evidence refer to changes in Knowledge, Attitudes, Skills, and Aspirations change (KASA) and Practice, respectively. Many programs do not adequately define their outcomes, and outcome evaluation is impossible as a result. Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwahl, 1956) is a particularly helpful tool for defining learning outcomes and for distinguishing outcomes related to more complex thought processes, such as analysis or synthesis, from simpler thought processes, such as knowledge or comprehension. Another useful tool for defining outcome measures is the SMART criteria (Doran, 1981). The SMART criteria compel evaluators and program designers to think about outcome indicators that are Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic, and Timely.

There are a wide range of strategies for measuring program outcomes. In Extension contexts, the methods most often used for measuring KASA change are the postprogram survey and the retrospective pretest. In both cases, evaluators need to work with program staff to identify the

most important learning objectives and to tease out if there are intended attitude, skill, or aspiration outcomes in addition to learning gains. While evaluators have debated the merits of the retrospective pretest (Hill & Betz, 2005), it is simpler to administer than a pre-post survey and is effective at identifying change in subjective experiences of program participants.

As compared with KASA change, measurement of practice change often requires a time lag between the actual intervention and the evaluation. In the case of Extension Community Economics programming, we routinely wait six months or longer to measure practice changes. One promising strategy has been to ask program participants about intended practice changes at the end of a program and follow-up with them about their achievement of these intended changes at a later date. Table 3 presents suggested outcome measurement strategies for the different types of individual educational outcomes in Bennett's hierarchy. As noted earlier, most evaluators are quite familiar with outcome measurement activities, but many programs operate without clear KASA or behavior change objectives.

**Table 3. Outcome Measurement Strategies**

Outcome Concept	Potential Data		Outcome Questions
	Sources	Potential Methods	
Knowledge, Attitude, Skills, and Aspiration Change (KASA)	-Program participants	-Individual interviews	-Based on the intended KASA changes of the program.
	-Content experts	-Group interviews	-May be helpful to consult Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives to write SMART outcome indicators for the program.
	-Documents	-Surveys/questionnaires	
	-People who know program participants	-Observation	
	-Pre-existing data (secondary data)	-Document analysis -Secondary data analysis -Pre-post comparison -Retrospective pre-post comparison	
Behavior Change	-Program participants	-Surveys/questionnaires	-Based on the intended behavior changes of the program.
	-People who know program participants	-Observation  -Pre-post comparison	-SMART criteria are particularly relevant for behavior changes. -Follow-up some period of time after program delivery may be required to allow time for the behavior change to occur.

## Broader Impacts

At the intersection of all three EPV challenges are Broader Impacts. Impacts, measures of the benefits created for society as a whole, are dependent on the public purpose of the program, the capacity of the delivery organization, and the intent of its authorizers.

Impacts represent the value generated indirectly for nonparticipants, i.e., value accruing to nonparticipants who nonetheless benefit from the public program. It will often be the case that the program and its impacts are sufficiently complex so the public at large will not be aware they are the recipients of public value creation. Thus, impact evaluation activities identify what nonparticipant impacts were made and serve as opportunities to shape the value positions of the public and aid the public in their natural valuation of the program (Mark et al., 1999).

Quantitative approaches to impact evaluation often strive to pinpoint a program's contribution to the intended outcome. For example, experimental designs can help rule out alternative explanations for a program's success. Benefit-cost analysis can highlight the specific financial return on investment of a program. These quantitative approaches, however, rarely take broader impacts of an intervention into account. As noted by Patton (1997), impact evaluation may also be understood as "direct and indirect program impacts, not only on participants, but also on larger systems and the community" (p. 193).

Impact evaluation is challenging. As noted in a recent review of Extension evaluation articles in the *Journal of Extension* by Workman and Scheer (2012), very few (6%) of published evaluations obtained the highest "condition change" level of evidence from Bennett's hierarchy. However, impact measurement is possible, especially if qualitative methods are considered. To measure broader impacts, the evaluator may wish to employ the Community Capitals Framework (CCF) developed by Flora and Flora (2008) and applied to evaluation of community development programs by Emery and others (Emery & Flora, 2006; Emery, Fernandez, Guiterrez-Montes, & Flora, 2007). Seven community capitals were originally described by Flora and Flora (2008) – cultural, human, social, political, financial, built, and natural capital. Evaluations based on the CCF can employ individual or group interviewing methods. For example, Rasmussen and colleagues (2011) used a protocol based on the Community Capitals Framework to individually interview former participants in leadership development programs, as well as community stakeholders identified by these participants. Including nonparticipant stakeholders in the evaluation process increases the capacity to capture more evidence of public value beyond the direct benefits to the program participant.

An innovative group interviewing method, known as Ripple Effect Mapping (REM), may also be used to document the impacts of a program or intervention. REM is a form of mind mapping that helps a group reflect upon the broader impacts resulting from a program (Kalambokidis et

al., 2014; Kollock, Flage, Chazdon, Paine, & Higgins, 2012). In a mapping session, a facilitator asks a group of program participants and nonparticipant stakeholders a series of questions based on the Community Capitals Framework to explore individual, organizational, and community changes that have taken place as a result of a program. The recorder types items into mind mapping software as the conversation unfolds. The mind map is projected so that all group members can see, edit, and add to the map to identify and detail activities and impacts of their program. After the session, the facilitator and recorder review the map to sort items into categories with thematic likeness. In addition, they conduct follow-up conversations with participants, program staff, and other stakeholders as needed to clarify and add additional detail to the mind map. Mind map data are then exported into a spreadsheet program, and each reported “ripple,” or program effect, is coded according to the Community Capitals Framework.

Social capital is a particularly important component of broader impacts. Social capital is defined as the “features of social organization, such as networks, norms, and trust that facilitate coordination and cooperation for mutual benefit” (Putnam, 1993, p. 35). Thus, programs that create new or deepened relationships in an organization or community, and are strategic about the cross-sector nature of these relationships, are often more impactful than programs that do not emphasize social capital creation. In addition to the more qualitative methods noted above that can be useful for measuring changes in social capital, tools such as Social Network Analysis (Fredericks & Durland, 2005; Bartholomay, Chazdon, Marczak, & Walker, 2011) can be employed as a pre-post tool to document changes in organizational networks over time.

Table 4 highlights some strategies for measuring broader impacts. The sample questions included here are those asked of program participants in an Extension community leadership program (Rasmussen et al., 2011).

**Table 4. Impact Measurement Strategies**

Impact Concept	Potential Data		Impact Questions
	Sources	Potential Methods	
Social Capital	Program participants, community stakeholders, secondary sources	Surveys, individual interviews, group interviews, Social Network Analysis, Analysis of secondary data	-To what extent did your experience in the program help expand or deepen your personal, social, or professional connections within your community? -To what extent did the program strengthen networks among organizations in your local community and the county as a whole?

<b>Impact Concept</b>	<b>Potential Data</b>		<b>Impact Questions</b>
	<b>Sources</b>	<b>Potential Methods</b>	
Civic/Political Capital	Program participants, community stakeholders, secondary sources	Surveys, individual interviews, group interviews, Social Network Analysis, Analysis of secondary data	-Since the program, to what extent are you more comfortable voicing your opinion to political or public leaders? -Since the program, to what extent have you increased your participation in organizational or community decision-making?
Cultural Capital	Program participants, community stakeholders, secondary sources	Surveys, individual interviews, group interviews, Social Network Analysis, Analysis of secondary data	-Since the program, to what extent have you become involved or increased your participation in community cultural events, such as celebrations, museum exhibits, festivals, or county fairs? -Since the program, to what extent have you become involved in or increased efforts to promote diversity in your community or organization?
Financial Capital	Program participants, community stakeholders, secondary sources	Surveys, individual interviews, group interviews, Social Network Analysis, Analysis of secondary data	-Since the program, to what extent have you become involved or been more successful with fundraising efforts or grant-writing projects for the benefit of your community or organization? -Since the program, to what extent have you become involved or increased your participation in economic development activities in the county, including agricultural and tourism projects?



Impact Concept	Potential Data		
	Sources	Potential Methods	Impact Questions
Built Capital	Program participants, community stakeholders, secondary sources	Surveys, individual interviews, group interviews, Social Network Analysis, Analysis of secondary data	-Since completing the program, to what extent have you become involved or increased your participation in projects that focus on enhancing or preserving building and infrastructure projects that benefit the public?
Natural Capital	Program participants, community stakeholders, secondary sources	Surveys, individual interviews, group interviews, Social Network Analysis, Analysis of secondary data	-Since the program, to what extent have you become involved or increased your participation in conservation efforts?
Human/Health Capital	Program participants, community stakeholders, secondary sources	Surveys, individual interviews, group interviews, Social Network Analysis, Analysis of secondary data	-Since the program, to what extent have you become involved in or increased efforts to promote the physical and mental wellbeing of youth or adults in your community or organization?

## Conclusions

While the public value concept has gained influence in Extension, much of the attention to the concept has been focused on writing of public value statements and templates that help us explain the value of our programs to key audiences. This effort has largely occurred parallel to the work of program evaluators. It is our hope that this parallel work can begin to intersect more purposefully.

We argue that EPV is a conceptually appropriate framework for measuring the public value of public programs, and it is especially relevant in the Extension context. The framework we propose focuses on four factors: publicness, organizational credibility, program outcomes, and broader impacts. The notion of measuring program publicness is perhaps the most novel aspect of this framework. Extension professionals tend to think about who they are serving when they design programs, but often do not revisit these issues as part of program evaluation. Public programs always need to attend to questions of who they are serving, and these questions need to be brought systematically into program evaluation. More purposeful dialogue on the audiences

our programs serve and the best ways to serve these audiences will help strengthen Extension's credibility and legitimacy with stakeholders in state and federal government. It will also strengthen Extension's programs by helping ensure that the maximum possible public benefit is produced by our efforts.

The measurement of broader impacts of public programs is often overlooked as well. While the time horizon for impact evaluation is longer, the importance of providing authorizers with evidence of impact has never been greater. This paper provides some guidance on strategies for measuring impacts, such as use of the Community Capitals Framework or measuring development of social capital, that will help public managers document impacts and identify which programs offer the most productive impacts. It is our belief that stakeholders are increasingly open to both qualitative and quantitative forms of evidence. Systematically collected qualitative data, such as the information produced by Ripple Effect Mapping, can be highly effective for communicating impact messages to Extension's key funders and stakeholders. In addition, impact evaluation is an important professional development activity which can become scholarly when carefully documented, presented, and reviewed by peers.

Together, we believe these four factors represent the main drivers behind the creation of public value. Further work is needed on developing both quantitative and qualitative indicators of each of the components, applying the framework to programming in other content areas of Extension beyond community development, and developing rubrics that could potentially aggregate the four components so comparisons of public value production can be made within content areas or even within whole state Extension programs. We hope this EPV framework sparks further conversation about the integration of public value with evaluation.

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