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THE EFFECTS OF PROGRAM CHANGE ON THE SOCIAL CLIMATE AT BOYS TOWN

A Thesis

Presented to the

Department of Psychology

and the

Faculty of the Graduate College

University of Nebraska

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

University of Nebraska at Omaha

by Loren E. Brooks

November, 1978

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THESIS ACCEPTANCE

Accepted for the faculty of the Graduate College, University of Nebraska, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Master of Arts, University of Nebraska at Omaha.

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ABSTRACT

An attempt was made to determine what the effects of implementing a child care program, the Teaching-Family Model, would be on the social climate of a midwestern youth care institution, Boys Town. The Community Oriented Programs Environment Scale (COPEs) was implemented four times over an 18-month period to assess if changes in the social climate at Boys Town were taking place and, if changes were occurring, what they possibly were due to. The results of the study were fourfold. First, the data suggested that changes in the social climate were occurring. Next, it was determined that these changes were more similar to other programs that were experiencing programatic change than they were to programs that were not experiencing such change. Thirdly, the data seemed to suggest that these changes probably were not due to staff or youth turnover rates, general staff youth care experience, or merely the passage of time. Finally, the results suggested that the changes probably were greatly effected by a Teaching-Family Model training sequence in addition to staff selection. These results imply that staff training can effect social climate. They also suggest that the Teaching-Family Model training sequence may be one example of an effective training method.

Introduction

Purpose of the Study

Social science programs often are developed, implemented, and continued based upon the "professional judgement" of administrators. Typically, these administrators use subjective criteria to determine if a program is successfully approaching its goals. Periodically, though, close inspection of a program indicates that certain program components are stagnated or even declining in quality. This may be an unavoidable reality, given that it is difficult for an administrator to monitor all aspects of a program. On the other hand, such stagnation or decline could be avoided if program administrators received frequent and accurate updates on program operations.

This project was designed to serve two functions. First, an applied research function was the provision of feedback to program administrators concerning the effects on social climate of implementing a youth care program. This information then also could be used to aid in making decisions about future program directions.

The other function was of a more theoretical nature. The style of youth care evaluated in the study had been in existence for approximately eight years. However, during this time the program had been implemented exclusively in community-based group homes. While the effects of implementing the program in group homes have been tested in a number of ways, the effects of implementing the program in an institution have not been determined. More specifically, the effects the program might have on social climate have not been explored in any setting. Recognizing the relative importance of social climate indicators, it was hypothesized

that positive social climate changes would occur as the program began operations.

In sum, the project was an evaluation of the effects of implementing the Teaching-Family Model at Boys Town on the youth's perceptions of the social climate in the homes in which they resided. Therefore, four areas of literature seem relevant for description and review. First, since the study was an evaluation project, the reader is provided with an overview of literature relevant to social science program evaluation. Evaluation categories are described and rationales for utilizing more than one type of program evaluation are provided. How the present study fits into these categories also is discussed. The next section describes the Teaching-Family Model and its development. The Model provided the framework for the program that was evaluated. This section precedes another that details how the Teaching-Family Model was adopted for youth care at Boys Town, where the study took place. The final section of the literature review is reserved for an overview of the evolution of social climate measurement.

Program Evaluation

The determination of the effects of social science programs has been drawing a greater amount of attention with each passing year. Indications of this growing concern over program evaluation can be found in recent publications on the topic. For example, Psychological Abstracts in 1967 had eight articles indexed under "Mental Health Program Evaluation" and/or "Treatment Effectiveness Evaluation," which contained the phrase "program evaluation." Ten years later, in 1977, 252 such articles were documented in Psychological Abstracts under these headings.

The increase in the number of books recently published with program evaluation as a theme is another example. A survey of the Library of Congress "MARC" cataloging system indicated there were no books cataloged under the subject heading, "Evaluation Research (Social Action Programs)" in 1968. However, under the same heading, there were 14 books listed in 1972 and 21 in 1977.

One can only speculate what the reasons may be for this increased interest. Perhaps it is due to budgetary reasons (Adams, 1975). Possibly it is because the public has started to realize that continuing to pump money into unsuccessful programs "will not necessarily cure the ills of the program" (Franklin & Thrasher, 1976). Or it may be due to growing social concerns, with ever shrinking resources to satisfy these concerns. This position was stated clearly by Bennet and Lumsdaine (1975):

Massive resources have been utilized in attempts to ameliorate all these social concerns. Yet the resources are limited and the problems are large. As a result, those who must determine how resources are to be employed in support of programs and institutions to solve social programs need a rationale for efficient allocation of the resources. Developing such a rationale necessitates information on the relative effectiveness of alternative solutions in order to plan for the use of scarce resources" (p. 1-2).

Regardless of the causes behind the increased interest in program evaluation, it clearly appears that the demand for such evaluation will grow. As this demand grows there will be a continual need to develop tested, cost-efficient, and methodologically adequate, evaluation strategies.

Evaluation strategies in the social sciences traditionally have been defined according to two categories. These categories are labelled as "outcome" and "process" evaluations (Fox & Rappaport, 1972; Sarri & Selo, 1974; Kiresuk & Lund, 1976). McLean (1974) also has included cost

effectiveness and systems evaluations as a part of this classification system. However, McLean's areas appear to be extensions of the other two categories rather than independent additions.

Outcome evaluations. Outcome evaluations help determine whether a program is meeting its long term goals. For example, a major program goal in a juvenile setting may be to help youths to stay out of trouble with society. Measuring whether this goal is being met would constitute one phase of an outcome evaluation. A problem with many outcome evaluations is that only one measure is used to determine success. Referring to a juvenile setting again, if any outcome data are collected they are usually recidivism rates. This measure is used to infer whether the youths are staying out of trouble. The rationale behind this measure is that if the youths begin to display socially inappropriate behaviors after leaving the program, they will be returned to it (Sarri & Selo, 1974).

It has been suggested that there are problems with recidivism as an outcome measure when it is used as the sole indicator of program success. One problem that has been reported in the literature is the nature of the record from which the information is gathered. For example, Seidman and Couzens (1972) found in several cities where crime rate data were collected from police records, the reductions in crime were more a function of reporting procedures than an actual reduction in crime. Since changes in recidivism rates may be related to a change in police and court reporting policies, such records may be inaccurate sources of evaluation information. Finally, it has been reported that a youth who is known to have participated in a juvenile corrections program may be watched by

authorities more closely than others, thus distorting outcome data (Sarri & Selo, 1974).

It is not the purpose here to advocate or to discredit any one particular measure of program success. However, the point is stressed that if outcome is assessed on a number of dimensions, greater confidence can be placed in the accuracy of the conclusions. Furthermore, the likelihood that program success is merely an artifact of some confounding variable is reduced.

Process evaluations. Process evaluations measure and describe the nature and quality of ongoing treatment. Process evaluations attempt to assess the type of population participating in the program or how well the immediate short-term goals of the program are being met. Many programs keep fairly good records of population descriptions such as age, length of stay, and race distribution. Unfortunately, however, this is as far as many programs go in implementing process evaluations. Such programs usually fail to assess short-term goal achievement. Such an approach is less than optimal for a comprehensive process evaluation since many potentially important program aspects are not monitored. Even when measurement of program implementation is included, information often is collected on only one or two additional variables. Common measures reported by some youth care facilities are the number of program runaways and the academic grades of the youths. This is not to suggest that these variables are not important process evaluation measures, but often there are other goals of the program that are simply ignored. Depending on the program, these goals could range from such things as improvement in staff training, enhancement of the physical environment, or reduction of the relative program costs (Zusman & Slawson, 1972) to improvement in the

program's social environment (Moos, 1974) or increased client satisfaction (Braukmann, Kirigin & Wolf, 1976).

Multiple measures. As with outcome evaluations, the use of multiple measures to adequately assess the broad array of program goals is important for process evaluations. This is important because a program could be successful in meeting one goal yet be less successful in meeting others. Therefore, to obtain a comprehensive picture of the overall program the evaluator must utilize multiple measurement techniques (Jayarantine, Stuart & Tripodi, 1974; Weiss, 1972).

If multiple measures are important, why have there been so few multiple measure evaluations reported in the literature? Perhaps it is because of a lack of staff to collect the information in most programs, or because of prohibitive costs involved with data collection. It is also conceivable that many program administrators do not see the utility of multiple measurement evaluations. However, it is more likely that technologies have not been developed, tested, and/or disseminated to allow such measurement. One goal of program operations at Boys Town is development, testing, and/or dissemination of evaluation strategies that can be easily utilized by other youth care facilities. The measures used in the present study serve as examples of but a few of the techniques that are included in those strategies.

The Teaching-Family Model

The Boys Town youth care program is based upon a style of youth care called the Teaching-Family Model. The Model was started in 1967 with one group home for delinquent and pre-delinquent youths and a staff dedicated to developing a replicable program that could provide quality services to

its clients. Since that time, it has grown into one of the major styles of youth care utilized in the United States today. A survey conducted in 1977 indicated that there were one hundred and twenty-five Teaching-Family homes in operation during that year (Collins, Maloney, Maloney & Fixsen, 1977).

Family-style living. One central aspect of a Teaching-Family home is the staffing pattern. The home is typically staffed by a married couple and an assistant. The married couple lives in the home and has complete responsibility for the residents. This staffing pattern is contrasted with the traditional hierarchy group home staffing system which may have a psychiatrist or psychologist as a consultant in addition to a number of social workers that actually have responsibility for the youths in the home. Typically, traditional homes hire untrained child care workers who have little responsibility but the most contact with the youths. In contrast with the Teaching-Family Model, this pattern places the least trained staff in the most direct contact with the clients.

It appears that operation of homes by husband-wife teams is accompanied by a number of advantages over the multiple staff pattern. First, responsibility for the youths in the home rests with two people. This increases accountability and reduces the chances of a youth being caught between bureaucratic firing lines. Secondly, the staffing pattern tends to more closely approximate a family-style living arrangement. Therefore, the couple can be a positive model for a child who often comes from a broken or fragmented family.

Professional staff. The staff in Teaching-Family homes typically have a B.A. or M.A. degree, although, their degree is just the beginning of professional training. Soon after the couple decides to become a part

of the Model, they start a year-long training sequence. It is during this sequence that they learn to implement the components of the program. The training sequence starts with an intensive sixty-hour Preservice Training Workshop. During the Workshop, the couple is instructed in some of the basic skills they will need to effectively operate a home. In addition to lectures, they participate in a series of behavioral rehearsals to enhance learning these skills. Research examining the Preservice Workshop has suggested that it is successful in teaching staff specific program components (Maloney, Phillips, Fixsen & Wolf, 1975; Kirigin, Ayala, Braukmann, Brown, Phillips & Wolf, 1975).

After the couple completes this initial workshop they are assigned a consultant who is familiar with the Model. The couple then lives in their new home for a four-month inservice practicum. During this time they are continually in very close contact with a consultant who acts as an advanced trainer. At the end of the four months, independent evaluators come to the home and conduct a Major Evaluation. This evaluation takes about four hours, during which time the experimenter assess in a variety of ways how well the program is being implemented.

If the couple passes the Major Evaluation, they have overcome another hurdle, but the training sequence is not yet finished. The sequence continues for another eight months with more consultation and follow-up workshops. Finally, one year following the Preservice Workshop the couple is eligible to participate in a Certification Evaluation. It is similar to the Major Evaluation, although it is more extensive in order to assess the couple's advanced skill level. If the couple passes the Certification Evaluation, their training is considered complete except for annual reviews.

Teaching. Another major component of the Model is teaching. An underlying assumption of the Teaching-Family Model is that children often act in a deviant or disruptive manner because they have not been given the opportunity to learn the skills necessary to act socially appropriately. Therefore, the couple in the home is responsible for teaching the youths a variety of social, academic, self-help, vocational, and family-living skills.

Extensive research has been conducted to determine if the program is effective in teaching youths social skills. This research has included negotiating parent-child conflicts (Kifer, Lewis, Green & Phillips, 1974), problem solving and decision making (Fixsen, Phillips & Wolf, 1973), improving conversation skills (Minkin, Braukmann, Minkin, Timbers, Fixsen, Phillips & Wolf, 1976; Maloney, Harper, Braukmann, Fixsen, Phillips & Wolf, 1977) and the reduction of aggressive statements (Phillips, 1968). The research suggests that the program is indeed effective in improving the youths' social skills along these dimensions. Since many youths go on to independent living after departure from the program, it also is essential that they learn self-help skills. Such skills as home maintenance (Phillips, 1968) and money management (Phillips, Phillips, Fixsen & Wolf, 1971) have been shown to be successfully taught in Teaching-Family homes.

It is typical for delinquent, pre-delinquent, and dependent-neglected youths to have an array of problems. However, one very prevalent problem involves academic performance. Procedures have been developed in Teaching-Family homes to improve youths' study habits (Bailey, Wolf & Phillips, 1970; Kirigin, Phillips, Timbers, Fixsen & Wolf, 1975), improve homework performance (Phillips, 1968), increase awareness of current

events (Phillips, Phillips, Fixsen & Wolf, 1971), improve grammar (Phillips, 1968) and improve articulation of words (Bailey, Timbers, Phillips & Wolf, 1971). Research conducted by Maloney and Timbers (1975) suggested that grades improved and truancy was reduced for youths who resided in a Teaching-Family home. Similar improvements in grades have been found by Kirigin and Fixsen (1974).

Motivation. At times a delinquent or pre-delinquent youth is characterized as being unmotivated. According to the stereotype they have an average I.Q., but are two to three years behind in school, or their parents just cannot handle them. One way to overcome this motivation problem is to structure the environment in a way that enhances learning. With some youths this may involve implementing a short-term token economy. In Teaching-Family homes, if a token economy is needed with a youth it is designed to be as positive as possible, while allowing the child to receive immediate feedback about his/her behavior. Usually within a few months the token economy is phased out and the child learns to live within a more normally structured environment.

Self-government. Self-government is an extremely important aspect of a Teaching-Family home. This is particularly true since it provides children with the skills necessary to function in a democratic society such as ours. This process occurs throughout the day, with an elected manager taking on many responsibilities, and culminates at the day's end with a group discussion meeting. At this meeting all members of the household have input into the rules of the home and jointly decide on consequences for infractions of these rules. This helps the program run smoothly because everyone has a commitment to a program they directly

help to refine. Much of the research and the Teaching-Family self-government system was conducted by Kifer, Ayala, Fixsen, Phillips and Wolf (1974), Fixsen, Phillips and Wolf (1973), and Wolf, Phillips and Fixsen (1973).

Interpersonal relationship building and counseling. Another key component in the success of a Teaching-Family home is the couple's ability to build positive interpersonal relationships with the youths in the home. The assumption behind building positive relationships with youths is that the youths will be more likely to be receptive to feedback and will be more likely to model positive adult skills if a good relationship exists. The youths also are more likely to come to the couple with their problems instead of running away. It has been suggested that one way to improve the relationships in a home is to teach staff youth-preferred social behaviors. Attempts have been made to identify many such youth-preferred behaviors (Willner, Kirigin, Fixsen, Phillips & Wolf, 1977; Kuehn, Kuehn, Minkin, Barnaby, Wolf & Fixsen, in press).

Counseling is considered a vital adjunct to relationship building. Many staff behaviors fall under the category of counseling. They range from helping a youth solve a personal problem to just listening and letting the youth know there is concern for the youth's feelings. Counseling also helps the youths know they can confide in the staff.

The Boys Town Program

Prior to 1975, Boys Town had a youth care program much like many institutions in the country. Within the youth care program there were a number of specialized subunits or departments, each providing its clients

with a unique style of treatment. To exemplify, a brief description of the bureaucratic structure will be provided.

The children lived in dormitories or cottages with approximately 19 other youths. Those living units were staffed by multiple shift workers. These child-care workers were on duty eight hours a day for five days each week. Therefore, it was necessary to have six to eight child-care workers "living" with the youths at various times throughout the week.

There were also a number of other program staff who had major responsibility for the youths' day-to-day functioning. To name a few, there was a recreation department, a transportation department, a social services department, a laundry, a centralized dining hall, etc. All of these subunits of the youth care program had some degree of control over a child's life. This fragmented system seemed to create sufficient bureaucratic complexities that the youths sometimes did not receive the kind of help they needed.

In the fall of 1975, the Teaching-Family Model was initiated on the Boys Town campus. As was indicated in the previous section, the Model had been developed originally to be implemented in a community-based setting. However, it was determined that since Boys Town was actually a small community, the same style of youth care could be successfully implemented in the institution. At the same time it became apparent that some reorganization would have to occur to enable the institution to become even more like a natural community.

First, steps were taken to improve the physical structure of the living units. This entailed remodeling the old cottages, building sixteen new ones and closing down the dormitories on campus. This change in physical structure was intended to make the living units more like the

structure of a natural home in contrast to an institutional structure. Much like a regular home, there were one to two youths per bedroom and the youths had the opportunity to individually decorate their room. Each home also had its own kitchen, dining room, living room, recreation room, laundry, and so forth, all very similar to a natural home.

Since the initiation of the Teaching-Family program, twenty-four hours per day, seven days per week live-in staff were phased into the homes. The new staff usually consisted of a married couple aided by one assistant. In some homes, though, a single live-in person was responsible for the program and was aided by two or three assistants. The staff or "Family Teachers," as they were called, participated in a year-long training sequence that was similar to the training provided to staff in the community-based Teaching-Family homes. Thus, Family Teachers participated in an initial workshop and several follow-up workshops, received continuous professional consultation and participated in numerous program evaluations throughout the year of training. This training sequence had to be implemented gradually in the institution due to the number of people that had to be hired and the limited size of the training staff. Therefore, at any one given point in time the staff in the homes were at various stages of training.

Since the trained Family Teachers were well versed in all aspects of the treatment program, they were given complete responsibility for the youths in the homes. This created a need for some further reorganization within the institution. No longer was there a need for a centralized laundry since the youths learned how to wash their own clothes in the homes. The need for a centralized transportation pool disappeared because each home purchased a van. A large social services department

became less necessary since the direct care staff were given responsibility for youth progress in the program. Hence, the salient aspect of reorganization was to make as many services as possible available within each home, and thereby decentralize services. Decentralization appeared to be more cost efficient and provided the youths with a variety of learning experiences that were not available with the more centralized system.

Thus, over two and one-half years Boys Town was converted from a centralized, departmentalized, and institutionalized youth care facility to the decentralized, family-style Teaching-Family Model. This transition naturally raised a question. Was this new program actually any better than the old program? As suggested earlier in the evaluation review section, the question should be answered via a variety of evaluation measures. At the time of the study, there were a number of evaluation measures being developed and/or tested at Boys Town. These included developing systematic procedures to collect youth runaway data; information about maintenance of the homes; youth grades in school, and absenteeism rates; rates of youth campus detention; consumer satisfaction; and long-term follow-up data, to name a few. However, there also was interest in determining the effect of the program changes on the social climate in the homes on campus. The naturally occurring changes taking place on campus appeared to provide an excellent opportunity to determine what the effects of implementing the new program had on the institution's social climate.

Social Climate

As used in this discussion, the social climate concept is based upon the "personology" theory developed by Murray (1938). Murray suggested that individuals have primary and secondary needs that comprise their personality. These needs are assumed to be the basis of motivation since the organism is continually trying to satisfy the needs. The environment contains the stimuli required to fulfill these needs, but it also has stimuli that frustrate achievement of needs. The organism tends to "press" toward fulfilling stimuli and away from frustrating stimuli. This process is referred to as an environmental press. The power an environmental situation has in this press depends on the organism's perception of the potential effects the stimulus may have on the organism. Hence, Murray suggested that behavior is a result of an interaction between personality needs and the environmental press. He developed the Thematic Apperception Test to measure personality needs, but he did not attempt to assess the environmental press.

Initial development of a tool designed to measure environmental press was conducted by Pace and Stern (1958). They asked college students questions about their perception of the general climate or atmosphere of the university the students attended. Pace and Stern did this via the College Characteristics Index, on which the students responded either true or false to statements regarding "student-faculty relationships, rules and regulations, classroom methods and facilities" (Moos, 1974, p. 36). The logic behind this approach was that the student consensus of the college environment was a good indication of the environmental climate. This climate theoretically, in turn, exerted influence on the students. Furthermore, test construction logic suggested that a number

of different statements regarding one general aspect of the environment could be aggregated to provide an accurate representation of the environmental press (Stern, 1970). For example, the environmental concept Order was formally defined on the College Characteristics Index as "a prevailing trend towards the compulsive organization of the immediate physical environment, manifested in a preoccupation with neatness, orderliness, arrangement and meticulous attention to detail." For example, three of the ten true-false statements that were aggregated to measure Order included "in many classes students have an assigned seat," "attendance is usually taken in each class" and "students' papers and reports must be neat."

Many subsequent scales have been developed for a variety of environments since the College Characteristics Index was published. For the university setting, the Organizational Climate Index (Stern, 1970), the College and University Environment Scale (Pace, 1969), the Institutional Functioning Inventory (Peterson, Centra, Hartnett, & Linn 1970), the Learning Environment Inventory (Walberg, 1969) and the Organizational Description Questionnaire (Halpin & Croft, 1963) have been developed. In industry such environmental assessment scales as the Agency Climate Questionnaire (Schneider & Bartlett, 1970) and the Climate Questionnaire (Litwin & Stringer, 1968) have been used. The Dimensions of Group Processes (Fairweather, 1969) and the Group Atmosphere Scale (Silbergeld, Koenig, Manderscheid, Meeker & Hornung, 1975) have been developed to measure group processes. In institutional settings popular social climate assessment instruments have included the Opinions About Mental Illness Scale (Cohen & Struening, 1962), the Custodial Mental Illness Ideology Scale (Gilbert & Levinson, 1957), Characteristics of the Treatment

Environment (Jackson, 1969) and the Perception of the Ward Scale (Ellsworth & Maroney, 1972). All of the above scales had the same theoretical basis for construction, but comparisons were not made easily across environments. This was because each scale differed too dramatically from the others on the various dimensions.

Rudolph Moos and his colleagues attempted to overcome this lack of consistency by developing a number of scales that could be implemented in many environments, yet also could tap various common environmental characteristics. Nine similar scales were developed to assess the social climate in community settings, educational environments, total institutions and treatment environments. Each of these scales assesses three broad dimensions of social climate. These include relationship dimensions, personal development dimensions, and system maintenance and change dimensions.

Hypothesis

Research regarding the Teaching-Family Model reviewed thus far has suggested that the program has been effective in improving program participants' social, academic and self-help skills. Outcome research has shown that post-release institutionalization occurred less often for a sample of youths from Teaching-Family homes, in comparison to a sample from a state industrial school (Wolf, Phillips & Fixsen, 1974). The same study also indicated that police and court contacts were fewer for the Teaching-Family sample. Finally, consumers of six Teaching-Family homes (e.g., youths, parents, court officials) were more satisfied with the Teaching-Family home than they were with six other homes in the same locale that served similar populations (Kirigin & Fixsen, 1974).

However, information regarding the social climate in Teaching-Family homes has not been collected. Even more specifically, the results of implementing the Model in an institution have yet to be explored. As one way of determining whether the Model could successfully be implemented in an institution, it was decided that assessing the social climate as the program was implemented would be one acceptable process evaluation measure. Specifically, it was hypothesized that as the program was implemented over an 18-month period, there would be significant changes in the youths' perceptions of their home's social climate.

In order to test this hypothesis, five subhypotheses were formulated. First, it was predicted that there would be change in the overall social climate of the Boys Town youth care environment as the Teaching-Family program was being systematically implemented on campus. Next, it was hypothesized that this change would more closely resemble a comparison group, whose programs also were changing, than it would a comparison group whose programs were not overtly being prompted to change. Then it was predicted that homes whose Family Teachers were at higher levels of training would tend to have different scores than homes at lower levels. The fourth subhypothesis was that the social climate scores would be sensitive to changes in individual Family Teachers' level of training. Finally, it was predicted that the amount of general youth care experience Family Teachers had would not relate to the social climate in their homes.

Method

Classification of Homes

The study was conducted in all of the homes on the Boys Town campus that were available for any one administration of the questionnaires. Some homes were not operational during a given administration. The number of homes that participated in a given time period ranged from 36 to 41. There were two types of homes in the study. The home type was determined by the amount of progression the Family Teachers had made in the training sequence at the time of the test. In the first type of home the Family Teachers had not received any formal Teaching-Family training. In the other, the home's Family Teachers were at various stages of the training sequence. Therefore, this second type of home was divided into three subtypes. These levels of training included successfully participating in an initial Preservice Workshop, passing a Major Evaluation, and passing a Certification Evaluation.

Population

Each living unit on campus was home for six to ten youths. These youths were in need of some type of help that could not be provided in the child's natural community. Often the help was needed because the youth displayed behaviors that were disturbing to other members of the community. These behaviors resulted in the child being labeled as delinquent or pre-delinquent. Other youths came from homes where family life was in such disarray that the family could no longer provide the child with a healthy living and growing environment.

Demographic data were available to describe the population being admitted to Boys Town for the first four months of 1976. The data

indicated that 85% of the youths admitted during this period had come from broken homes and 37% had at least one court contact. The age range was reported to be between 8 and 18 with 56% of the youths admitted being between 13 and 15 years old. The academic achievement level for 94% of the youths was at or below the sixth grade level (Evans, Dowd, Schneider, Wallace, Fixsen, & Phillips, 1976).

Definitions and Assessment

The Community Oriented Programs Environment Scale (COPEs) (Moos, 1974) was adopted as the most appropriate measure of social climate at Boys Town. A number of factors were weighed in making this decision. First, the COPEs was selected instead of other scales designed more for institutions because the existing program was more of an integral part of the greater Omaha community than many traditional institutions. For example, homes were replacing the traditional dormitories or wards found in many institutions. These homes were utilizing area services for food, clothing and medical needs instead of the centralized approach used by many institutions. Therefore, in many respects the existing program was more like the types of programs the COPEs was designed to assess than it was like the programs for which more institutional oriented scales were developed. Also, the wording of the questions regarding the program seemed to be more relevant to the existing program than did the questions that comprised many other scales. Finally, pilot work with the COPEs had been conducted previously in other facilities. This precluded the need to again conduct many of the traditional test development statistics.

The COPEs measures the social climate within a living environment with one hundred items that are marked true or false by the respondent.

These statements reduce to ten variables or subscales which further collapse into three broad dimensions. These include the relationship dimension which is comprised of the subscales "Involvement," "Support," and "Spontaneity;" the personal growth dimension which has the "Autonomy," "Practical Orientation," "Personal Problem Orientation," and "Anger and Aggression" subscales; and the systems maintenance dimension subscales include "Order and Organization," "Program Clarity," and "Staff Control." These ten subscales are defined by Moos as follows:

1. Involvement measures how active members are in the day-to-day functioning of their programs, i.e., spending time constructively, being enthusiastic, doing things on their own initiative.
2. Support measures the extent to which members are encouraged to be helpful and supportive towards other members, and how supportive the staff is towards members.
3. Spontaneity measures the extent to which the program encourages members to act openly and express their feelings openly.
4. Autonomy assesses how self-sufficient and independent members are encouraged to be in making their own decisions about their personal affairs (what they wear, where they go) and in their relationships with the staff.
5. Practical Orientation assesses the extent to which the member's environment orients him towards preparing himself for release from the program. Such things as training for new kinds of jobs, looking to the future, and setting and working towards goals are considered.
6. Personal Problem Orientation measures the extent to which members are encouraged to be concerned with their personal problems and feelings and to seek to understand them.
7. Anger and Aggression measures the extent to which a member is allowed and encouraged to argue with members and staff, to become openly angry and to display other aggressive behavior.

- | | | |
|-----|------------------------|---|
| 8. | Order and Organization | measures how important order and organization is in the program, in terms of members (how do they look), staff (what they do to encourage order) and the house itself (how well it is kept). |
| 9. | Program Clarity | measures the extent to which the member knows what to expect in the day-to-day routine of his program and how explicit the program rules and procedures are. |
| 10. | Staff | assesses the extent to which the staff use measures to keep members under necessary controls, i.e., in the formulation of rules, the scheduling of activities, and in the relationships between members and staff. (Moos, 1974, p. 231) |

Development of the COPES. The evaluation of the COPES is described in Moos (1974, Chapter 10). Its development directly paralleled the Ward Atmosphere Scale (WAS), another social climate scale developed by Moos. The basic assumption of both of these scales is that a positive social climate is an important part of any treatment process. Moos indicates that support for this assumption is provided by consistent emphasis by theoreticians and researchers on the importance of social climate and by evidence that suggests the importance of environmental factors in determining individual behavior.

Most items of the initial COPES form were adaptations by Moos from the WAS. Additional items were derived from interviews with patient and staff in community-oriented programs. Many of the items that were retained from the WAS were left in their original form, although some were reworded to obtain better true-false item splits (i.e., number of statements scored true or false) within a scale. Individuals then were asked to answer either true or false to each item.

On the first form there were 130 items. These items were "rationally" sorted into 12 categories or subscales by three independent judges. The categories were the same as those that had been previously used with

the WAS. The 130 items were then pilot tested with 373 program members and 203 program staff of 21 programs. Ten scales, each with ten items, made up the final version of the COPES. The four criteria used to reduce the scales were as follows:

1. Each subscale and each item should correlate more highly with its own than with another subscale.
2. Insofar as possible, not more than 80% nor less than 20% of the subjects should answer an item in one direction.
3. There should be approximately the same number of items scored true and scored false within each scale to control for acquiescence response set.
4. Items should not correlate significantly with the Halo Response Set Scale, which assessed both positive and negative halo in program perceptions and was also given to members and staff.

(Moos, 1977, pp. 229-230)

Reliability and stability. Since the COPES is very similar in content and structure to the WAS, the author felt that reliability of the COPES could be inferred from WAS statistics (Moos, 1974, p. 245). The test-retest reliability of individual scale scores of 42 patients was determined for a one week interval. Reliability of the scales ranged between .68 and .79, with a mean coefficient of .75. From these data, Moos suggests adequate reliability can be inferred for the COPES.

In the present investigation, it was deemed important for the experimenter to be as unobtrusive as possible. Therefore, adequate one week interval test-retest reliability data could not be collected. However, an experimenter was requested to return to four homes to again give the COPES to the youths in those homes. These retest data were not used in

the rest of the analysis, but provided an opportunity to assess one- to two-month interval test-retest reliability for 25 youths.

Using Cronbach's alpha as an estimate, the average reliability coefficient for the ten scales was .64. The coefficients for seven of the ten scales were very similar to that reported by Moos for the WAS. The range for these scales was between .64 and .82. However, for three scales the reliability was fairly low with a range between .24 and .44. These three scales included Practical Orientation, Anger and Aggression, and Order and Organization. Considering that the sample was probably somewhat unique with regard to the total population, since the Family Teachers requested a retest and considering the relatively long test-retest interval, the reliability of the seven scales was very high. It is hard to interpret the low coefficients for the other scales.

Profile stability of the scales also has been inferred from the WAS. These coefficients were computed by calculating individual unit profile intraclass correlations (Haggard, 1958) of ward scores at various time periods. The intraclass correlation statistic was used to determine stability because it is sensitive to both level and position differences of scores. The stability results indicate that in programs not experiencing overt program change, COPES profiles were very stable for up to 40 months, even with virtually complete patient turnover after about six months. Correlations for these programs averaged .92 for a one week interval, yet remained relatively high at .73 over a forty month period. Again, since the COPES is so similar to the WAS, it can be inferred that the treatment environment does not necessarily depend on the specific patients in the program.

The stability of the environmental scales also has been replicated in a correctional setting. Using the Correctional Institution Environment Scale (Moos, 1974), it has been shown that after two years individual unit profile intraclass correlations remained fairly stable, at about .91, if there were no overt program changes. In these stable environments, there were high staff and resident turnover rates. In environments in which new programs were being introduced and which had similar turnover rates, the average unit profile intraclass correlation was .37 (Moos, 1974). This further confirms that the Moos series of social climate scales are sensitive to environmental changes.

Procedures

COPES implementations. The COPES was implemented at Boys Town four times over an 18-month period. Each implementation lasted four to six weeks. One purpose of each implementation was to get a cross-sectional overview of the campus social climate at these intervals. The start of the implementations were in February, 1976 (T_1); September, 1976 (T_2); March, 1977 (T_3); and October, 1977 (T_4). During implementations there were data collected in 36 homes in T_1 , 41 homes in T_2 , 40 homes in T_3 , and 41 homes in T_4 . This included all operational homes on campus at the various implementations with the exception of one home in T_3 . An adequate time could not be scheduled for that home.

The total number of youths on campus that responded to the COPES were 266 in T_1 , 263 in T_2 , 297 in T_3 , and 321 in T_4 . This was a sample of approximately 85% of the youth population during the four implementations. Approximately 13% of the youths responded to the questionnaire in all four implementations, whereas 14% responded in three implementations,

20% responded in only two implementations and 47% responded in only one implementation. These data were not available for 6% of the youths that answered the questionnaire.

Approximately two weeks prior to the start of administering the instrument, the homes were contacted to arrange an hour and a half appointment. The staff were requested to select a block of time in the evening in which the greatest number of youths would be available. Appointments only were made for Monday through Thursday.

The COPES normally was implemented by one experimenter who came to the home. At times, though, there were two basic variations to this. During the first implementation, two experimenters were used because it was assumed that smaller groups of youths would lead to fewer disruptions. It was decided before the second implementation that one experimenter was virtually as effective as two. The other variation was in the location of the implementation. In a few cases, someone from the home requested to have the youths respond to the items in an administrative office rather than having the experimenter come to the home.

In order to reduce "experimenter bias" (Barber, 1976) a relatively tight protocol was provided to the experimenters. They were trained to use a standard set of procedures that covered such issues as rationales to provide respondents, confidentiality of information, respondent frame of reference, and clarification of questions. In training the experimenters the principle investigator first gave them a guide to read which detailed these procedures (see Appendix A, Guide to Administering the Community Oriented Programs Environment Scale). After the experimenters read the guide, they typically had a meeting with the principal investigator to review the procedures.

A packet containing the questionnaire and appropriate forms were provided to the experimenters before they went to the homes. Typed on the front of the packet was the home's address, the names of the staff in the home and the date and time of the appointment. The packet contained enough materials for ten youths. These materials included the Intended Use Form (see Appendix B), the COPES Questionnaire with clarification statements (see Appendix C) and the youth answer sheet (see Appendix D).

After the initial introductions and rationales were given, the Family Teachers were asked to leave the testing area to reduce staff influence on the youths' answers. Pencils and answer sheets then were distributed to each youth. After the youths provided the information requested at the top of the answer sheet, the experimenter read each statement as well as any clarification that was appropriate. Each statement was read out loud by the experimenter, instead of having the youths independently read each statement, to reduce the chances of error due to reading levels of some youths below that required to accurately respond to the statements.

This section merely outlines the procedures followed by the experimenters in collecting COPES data. A more detailed description is contained in the Guide to Administering the Community Oriented Programs Environment Scale (see Appendix A).

All youths in a given home were requested to respond to statements regarding their home's general environment. They were not answering to how they personally responded to that environment. Therefore, it was deemed appropriate to conduct data analyses on aggregate home scores rather than individual youth scores.

Length of stay. Family Teachers length of stay data also were collected for each home. Length of stay was defined as the number of months

the head Family Teacher or Family Teachers had been employed at Boys Town as of the implementation period. This information was collected from an institutional record. For most homes there were more than one head Family Teacher. In these cases, the mean length of stay was computed for each home. In most of these cases the head Family Teachers had been in the home for the same amount of time. However, in 11% of the total number of implementations, the head Family Teachers had been at Boys Town a different number of months. Length of stay information was not available for one home in T_1 .

Results

The general hypothesis of the study, that the social climate of Boys Town's youth care program would change as the Teaching-Family Model was implemented over an 18-month period, was tested via five subhypotheses. First, it was hypothesized that there would be overall change in the social climate at Boys Town. The next prediction was that the change would be more similar to the change found in a similarly changing environment than it would be to a stable environment. If change was occurring, it was deemed possible that this change may be due to a Family-Teacher training sequence that was part of the new program. Therefore, the third hypothesis was that homes with Family Teachers at higher levels of training should have different social climate scores than homes at the lower levels of training. It was predicted in the fourth hypothesis that individual Family Teacher shifts in training level should change the social climate of their homes in the same direction as the level shift. Finally, it was hypothesized that the amount of general youth care

experience the Family Teachers had would not significantly relate to their homes' social climate scores.

Hypothesis 1. The youths that reside at Boys Town will see change in the campus social climate over an 18-month period during which time the Teaching-Family Model is being systematically implemented.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for matched groups was used to statistically test this hypothesis (Specht & Holin, 1976; Wike, 1971). The groups included each of the four COPES implementations on campus (i.e., T_1 , T_2 , T_3 and T_4). Since there were four administrations of the scales in 85% of the homes and three administrations for the remaining 15%, the matched groups ANOVA was deemed the appropriate statistical tool to use to assess if statistical differences emerge between repeated measurements of a dependent variable. The matched groups ANOVA is similar to the more commonly used independent groups ANOVA. However, an error term is computed with the matched groups ANOVA for repeated measurements that accounts for the correlated effects that may occur because of the repeated measurements of a given case.

The matched groups ANOVA assumes that there are an equal number of observations for each measurement. Since data were available for each implementation for only 85% of the homes, the 15% with missing data within one implementation were slightly problematic. An acceptable solution seemed to be to insert the sample mean of the entire implementation into the missing data cells for these cases. This would not change the overall means. However, it would reduce the within group variance. In effect, this reduction in variance would make the test slightly more liberal.

One matched groups ANOVA was conducted for each scale. Therefore, since ten matched groups ANOVA's for repeated measurement were used, the statistical significance was set at .02 rather than the traditional, but less strict, .05. The former was chosen over the latter to counterbalance a potential increase in Type I errors that could result from performing multiple tests.

Figure 1 and Table 1 indicate that over the four repeated measurements there were increases recorded for many of the social climate scales. The scales with the biggest increases, which were statistically significant at the .02 level, included Involvement, Practical Orientation, and Order and Organization. The hypothesis was clearly confirmed for these scales. Some of the other scales that had relatively large consistent increases which were not statistically significant. These included Support, Autonomy and Program Clarity. There was a nonsignificant decrease in the amount of Anger and Aggression on campus.

The Bonferroni t-test was used with the three scales that reached statistical significance. As previously indicated, these scales included Involvement, Practical Orientation, and Order and Organization. The Bonferroni t was selected to make pair-wise comparisons in order to determine which of the implementations significantly differed (Wike, 1971). The significance level of the test was set a little more liberally than it was for the matched groups ANOVA to insure that significance would be found with the Bonferroni t if the matched groups ANOVA suggested differences did exist. The Bonferroni t was chosen over other pair-wise comparison tests, such as the Tukey B, because it accounts for correlated effects that may result from repeated measurements.

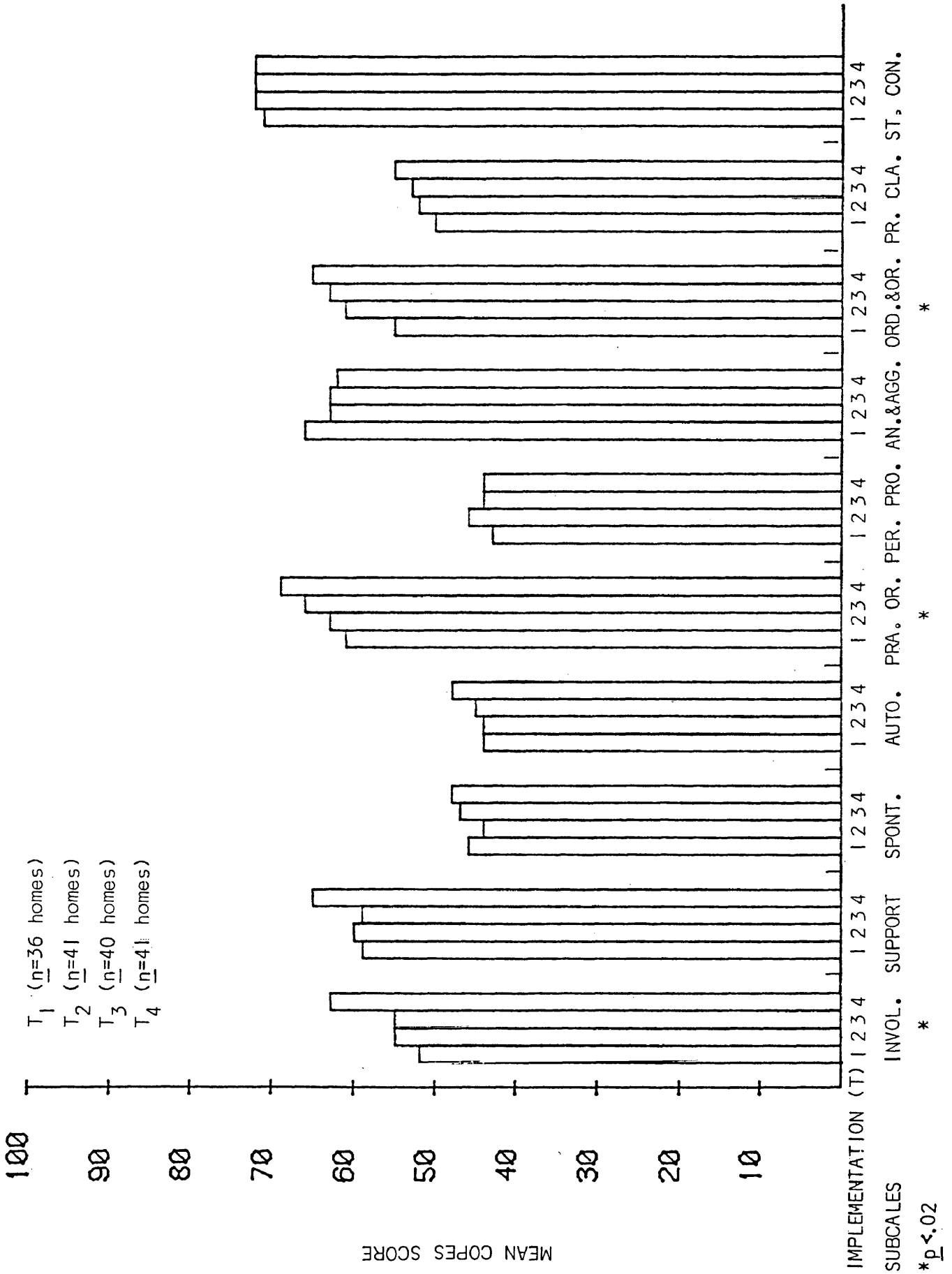


Figure 1. Social climate scores for the ten subscales over four implementations.

Table I

Means and standard deviations for ten subscales
over four implementations

| Subscale | T ₁ | | T ₂ | | T ₃ | | T ₄ | |
|------------|----------------|------|----------------|------|----------------|------|----------------|------|
| | \bar{x} | s | \bar{x} | s | \bar{x} | s | \bar{x} | s |
| Invol. | 52.0 | 18.5 | 55.3 | 17.8 | 54.8 | 20.5 | 62.9 | 18.7 |
| Support | 59.4 | 16.1 | 59.9 | 16.0 | 58.7 | 20.1 | 64.6 | 17.8 |
| Spont. | 45.6 | 13.4 | 44.1 | 12.0 | 46.9 | 11.3 | 47.7 | 11.6 |
| Auto. | 43.8 | 10.3 | 44.3 | 9.3 | 45.1 | 10.5 | 48.1 | 11.1 |
| Pra. Or. | 60.6 | 10.6 | 63.5 | 13.3 | 66.3 | 12.8 | 69.3 | 12.1 |
| Per. Pro. | 42.9 | 10.3 | 45.6 | 9.9 | 44.0 | 10.8 | 43.7 | 9.8 |
| An. & Agg. | 66.0 | 10.9 | 62.8 | 10.3 | 63.4 | 14.0 | 61.8 | 14.1 |
| Ord. & Or. | 55.4 | 15.4 | 61.3 | 18.0 | 62.8 | 14.9 | 64.7 | 13.0 |
| Pr. Cla. | 50.5 | 16.4 | 52.1 | 16.4 | 53.1 | 16.0 | 55.3 | 15.5 |
| St. Con. | 71.3 | 8.0 | 72.3 | 7.2 | 71.6 | 6.9 | 71.6 | 7.1 |

The critical differences for the Involvement, Practical Orientation and Order and Organization subscales were 9.4, 6.61 and 8.62 respectively ($c = 4$; $df_F = 120$; and $p = .05$). When pair-wise comparisons were made using this critical difference level, the first and fourth implementations were statistically different for each of the three scales. The rest of the comparisons yielded homogenous subsets.

Hypothesis 2. The overall change in home profiles over an 18-month period will more closely resemble a comparison group that was changing its program than it will resemble a comparison group in which no program change was being prompted.

This hypothesis was tested by comparing the mean profile intraclass correlation (Haggard, 1958) of the 36 homes in which data were available for T_1 and T_4 , with the mean profile intraclass correlations of two comparison groups (Moos, 1974). Data were collected in the comparison groups for a 24-month interval, whereas the interval in the present study was 18-months. If the shorter interval would bias the comparison, it should have made it more difficult to show change than the inverse. Therefore, the comparison groups were deemed acceptable. One of the comparison groups consisted of programs in which program changes were not being administratively or overtly prompted. The other comparison group consisted of programs like Boys Town, in which administrative policies were prompting program change. Also, like the Boys Town program, both groups consisted of milieus that were experiencing high rates of staff and program participant turnover.

The intraclass correlation coefficient is based upon the analysis of variance model. It compares the within group mean squares to the between group mean squares. The resulting ratio is the correlation between the

classes being compared (see Appendix E for the full formula and an example computation). It was used in the present study to determine how stable the profile of each home was for the 18-month period. The ten subscales were considered a class with two observations per class (i.e., two implementations). The mean of the profile intraclass correlations for the 36 homes was computed to determine the overall stability of the homes at Boys Town. In computing the coefficient mean, the individual coefficients were first transformed into Radians (Wike, 1971, p. 204). Then the mean of the Radians was computed. This mean then was transformed back to the normal coefficient. This procedure was conducted to adjust for the potential of non-normally distributed coefficients.

As previously reviewed, it has been shown that in treatment environments which had virtually complete staff and program participant turnover, but were not experiencing any discernible program change, the social climate was relatively stable over a two-year period. The mean intraclass coefficient for these programs was .91. In similar programs in which administrative policies were promoting program change, the mean profile intraclass correlation was .37. However, a large coefficient variability was reported for this group. Nevertheless, it was hypothesized that since the Boys Town youth care administrative policies were prompting program change, the mean profile intraclass correlations for the Boys Town homes should be closer to the .37 comparison group than the .91 comparison group. The mean coefficient should be less than .64.

The mean profile intraclass correlation for the Boys Town sample was .41. As in the changing comparison group, the individual coefficients did greatly vary. However, the results clearly suggest that the stability of the environment was more similar to the environment in which

program change was being prompted, than it was like the other comparison group.

Hypothesis 3. Homes at different levels of training will tend to have social climate scores that are different than those at other levels.

As previously indicated, the homes were divided into two groups. These groups were based upon the level of training of the head Family Teachers as of the first day of testing for a given implementation. One group consisted of the homes in which the Family Teachers had not received any Teaching-Family training. The other group included homes in which the Family Teachers had at least started the Teaching-Family training sequence. A t-test (Nie, et al., 1970) was used to compare the groups on each scale for T_1 and T_2 . The significance level was set at .02.

During the T_1 , with 23 homes in the Untrained group and 13 in the Training group, no statistically significant differences existed between the levels of training. Even though the differences were not statistically significant at the .02 level, Figure 2 and Table II show that the Training group tended to have slightly higher scores than the Untrained group for eight of the ten subscales. The Anger and Aggression and Staff Control subscales were slightly lower for the Training group. For three of the eight subscales in which the Training group was nonsignificantly higher than the Untrained group, the p value was very close to the .02 level. These subscales included Involvement, Support and Program Clarity.

In T_2 a greater number of Family Teachers had started the training sequence. Only 16 homes remained in the Untrained group, whereas 25 at

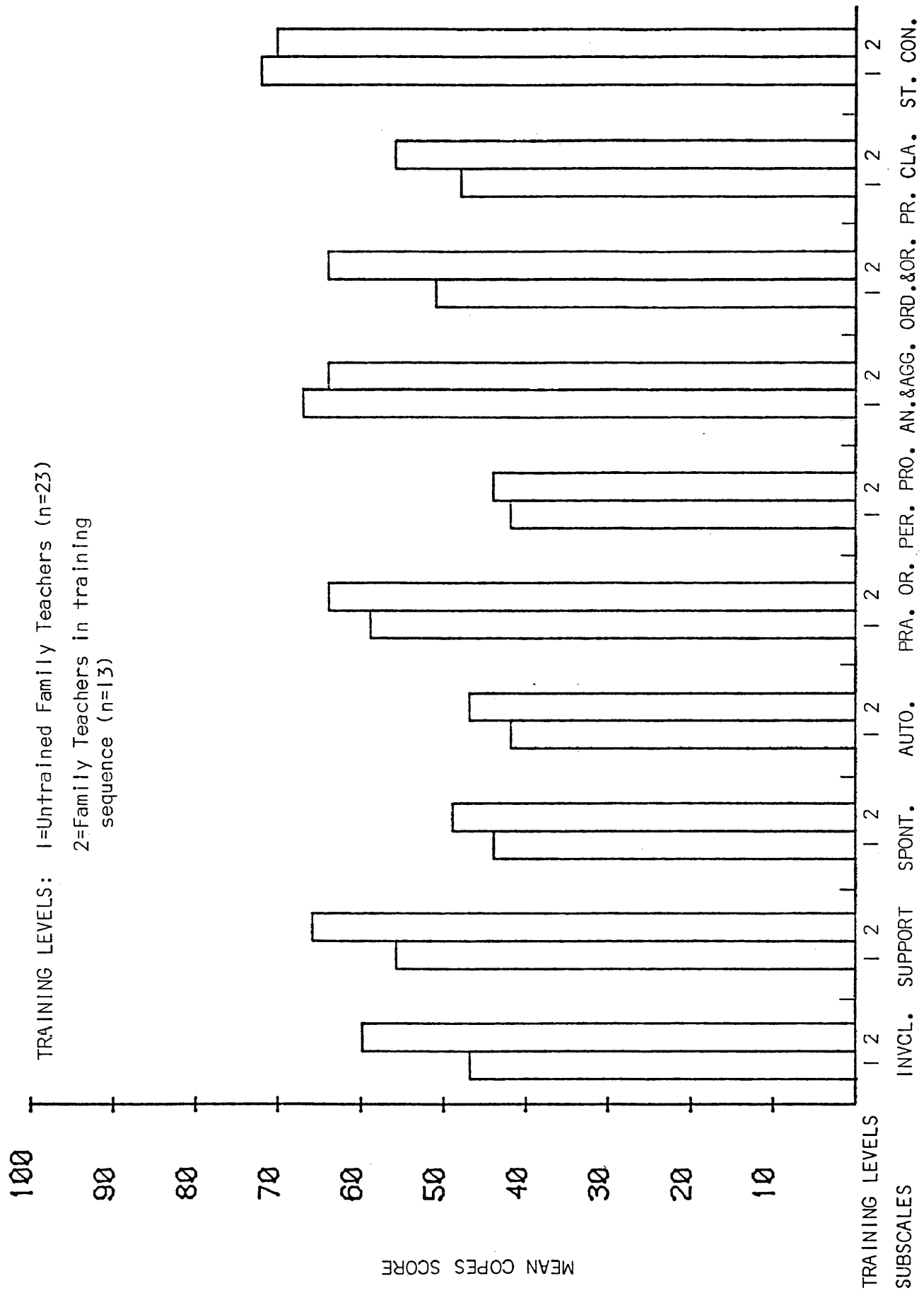


Figure 2. Social climate scores for the ten subscales in T₁ by the Family Teachers' level of training.

Table II

Social climate score means and standard deviations
for the ten subscales in T₁ and T₂ by the
Family Teachers' level of training

| Subscale | T ₁ | | | | T ₂ | | | |
|-------------|----------------|------|-----------|------|----------------|------|-----------|------|
| | U.T. | | T.S. | | U.T. | | T.S. | |
| | \bar{x} | s | \bar{x} | s | \bar{x} | s | \bar{x} | s |
| Invol. | 47.2 | 17.6 | 60.4 | 21.2 | 45.5 | 11.9 | 61.6 | 18.3 |
| Support | 55.7 | 14.1 | 66.0 | 20.5 | 52.3 | 9.1 | 64.7 | 17.7 |
| Spont. | 43.5 | 8.8 | 49.3 | 20.8 | 40.8 | 6.9 | 46.3 | 14.1 |
| Auto. | 42.0 | 10.3 | 47.2 | 11.9 | 45.2 | 5.4 | 43.7 | 11.2 |
| Pra. Or. | 58.7 | 9.3 | 63.8 | 14.1 | 57.9 | 8.6 | 67.0 | 14.6 |
| Per. Pro. | 42.3 | 7.7 | 44.0 | 15.6 | 43.0 | 8.6 | 47.3 | 10.5 |
| An. & Agg. | 67.4 | 10.7 | 63.5 | 13.2 | 68.4 | 5.7 | 59.3 | 11.2 |
| Ord. & Org. | 50.9 | 16.0 | 63.5 | 14.6 | 48.0 | 10.5 | 69.8 | 16.8 |
| Pr. Clar. | 47.6 | 13.4 | 55.6 | 22.8 | 46.8 | 8.4 | 55.5 | 19.4 |
| St. Con. | 72.2 | 8.9 | 69.7 | 8.2 | 69.7 | 8.7 | 73.9 | 5.7 |

U.T. = Untrained Family Teachers

T.S. = Family Teachers in training sequence

least had been through the Preservice workshop. Figure 3 and Table 11 indicate that with this shift some of the differences suggested in the first implementation were magnified in the second implementation. In T_2 the differences between the two groups reached the significance criterion for five of the ten scales. Youths in the homes in which the Family Teachers were receiving training perceived more Involvement, Support, Practical Orientation, Order and Organization, and less Anger and Aggression in their environment than did the group in the Untrained homes. Also, close to the significance level was the difference between the two groups on the Program Clarity subscale. The youths perceived the Training homes to be approximately nine points higher on the Program Clarity dimension than did the youths in the Untrained homes. However, for this scale the t-test was not significant at the .02 level.

During the last two COPEs implementations (i.e., T_3 and T_4) even more Family Teachers had started the Teaching-Family training sequence. For example, in T_3 only one home had Family Teachers that had not started training. This would be problematic for analysis purposes if the Untrained-Training classification of the groups was retained. Since the n was small for the Untrained group, it was dropped from analysis. The group that had started the training sequence was subdivided into three ordinal levels, which were used for analysis purposes. The levels included homes whose Family Teachers had participated in the Preservice Workshop; had passed the Major Evaluation; or had passed the Certification Evaluation, which marked the end of the training sequence. Given that this mode of analysis left three groups rather than two, the one-way analysis of variance for independent groups was used to determine if

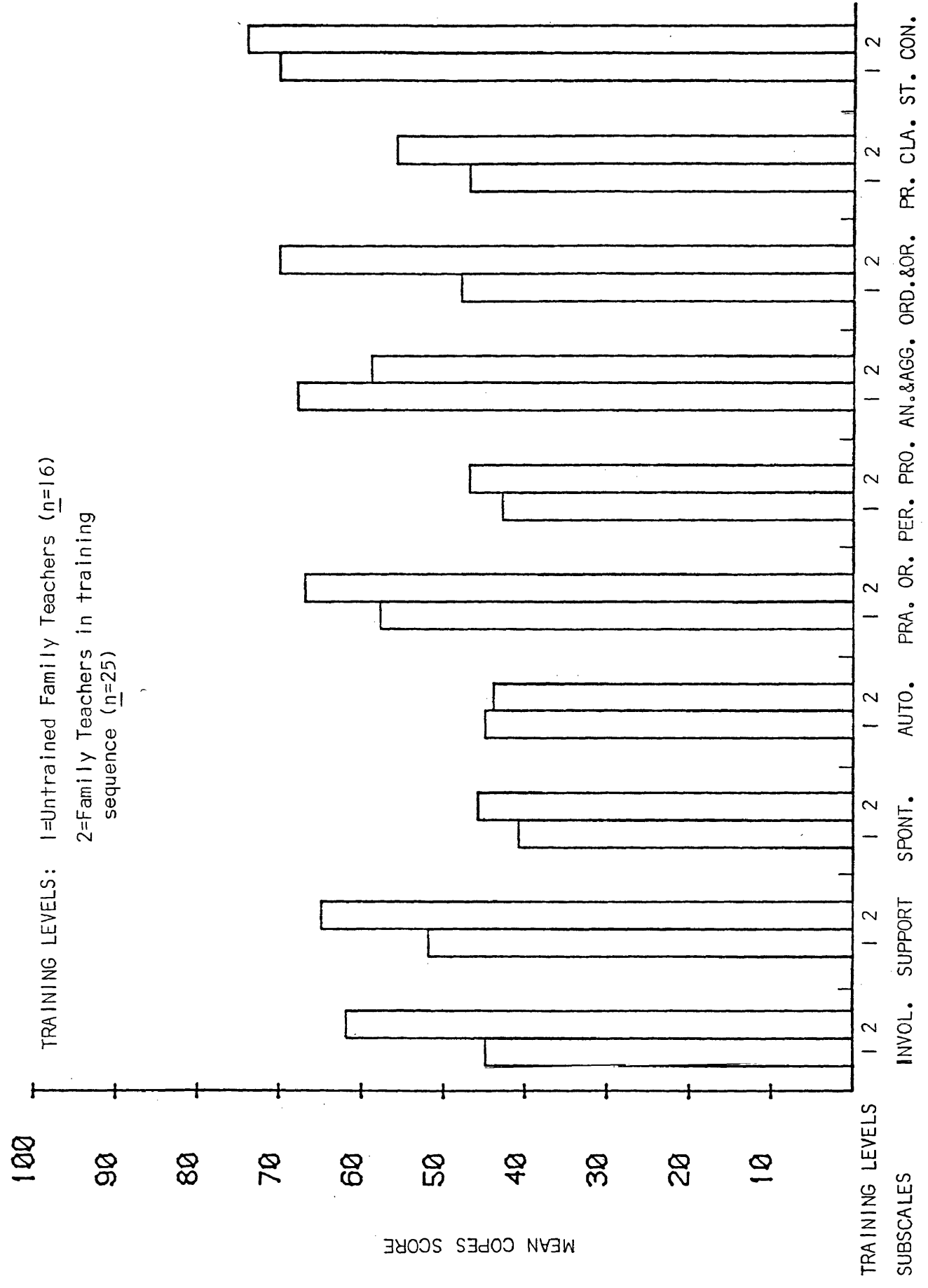


Figure 3. Social climate scores for the ten subscales in T₂ by the Family Teachers' level of training.

statistically significant differences existed between the three groups (Nie, et al., 1970). The statistical significance level was set at .02.

The n's in T_3 were 20, 14 and 5 respectively for each group. Referring to Figure 4 and Table III for seven of the ten subscales significant differences existed between the social climate of homes whose Family Teachers were at different levels of training. These subscales included Involvement, Support, Autonomy, Practical Orientation, Anger and Aggression, Order and Organization, and Program Clarity. Spontaneity nearly reached the .02 significance level. For most of the scales the scores tended to closely follow the training sequence. The youths that resided in homes with Family Teachers at higher levels of training tended to perceive their home's social climate to be higher than youths in homes with Family Teachers at lower levels of training. The notable exception was the Anger and Aggression subscale which indicated a reversed trend.

A posteriori contrasts were made between the three groups to determine which of the three levels of training had social climate scores that significantly differed. The Tukey B was utilized to make the contrast with the rejection criteria set at .05 (Nie, et al., 1970). To use the Tukey B test with the statistical package employed the rejection criterion had to be set at either .01 or .05. In order to ensure the test did not fail to find differences when the one-way ANOVA suggested difference existed, the .05 criterion was utilized. Even though the one-way ANOVA indicated differences existed between the three levels of training for seven subscales, the contrasts indicated that the group whose Family Teachers had participated in the Preservice Workshop and the ones whose Family Teachers had passed the Major Evaluation were statistically homogeneous subsets. Both of these groups had scores that differed from the

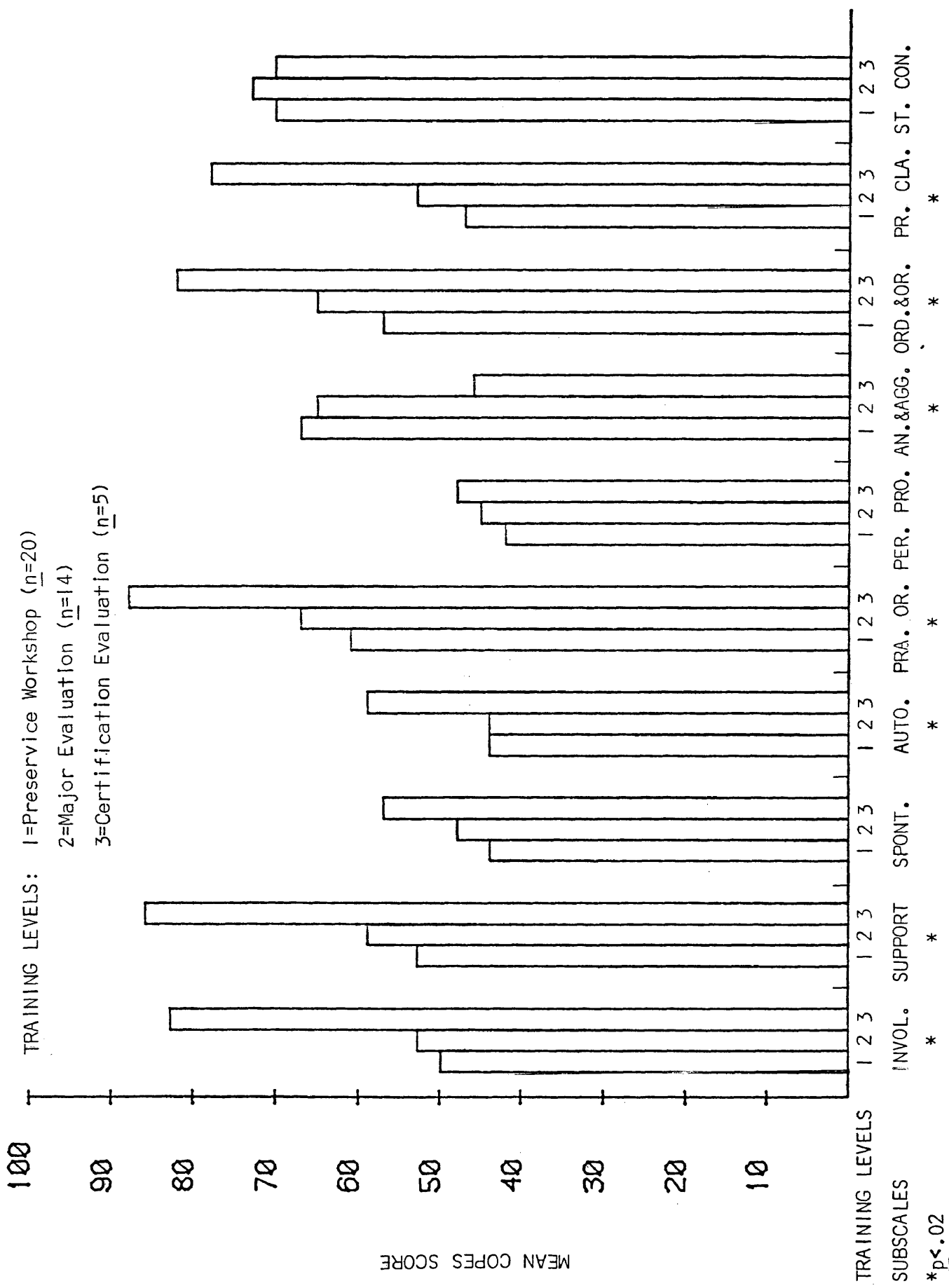


Figure 4. Social climate scores for the ten subscales in T₃ by the Family Teachers' level of training.

Table III

Social climate score means and standard deviations
for the ten subscales in T_3 by the
Family Teachers' level of training

| | T_3 | | | | | |
|-------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|
| | P.W. | | M.E. | | C.E. | |
| | \bar{x} | s | \bar{x} | s | \bar{x} | s |
| Invol. | 49.8 | 16.9 | 53.9 | 19.8 | 83.9 | 13.5 |
| Support | 52.7 | 17.8 | 59.0 | 18.8 | 86.2 | 11.7 |
| Spont. | 44.0 | 10.1 | 48.3 | 10.4 | 57.0 | 14.9 |
| Auto. | 43.7 | 9.1 | 43.9 | 9.8 | 58.9 | 5.6 |
| Pra. Or. | 60.6 | 10.3 | 67.1 | 10.0 | 88.0 | 7.2 |
| Per. Pro. | 42.5 | 10.1 | 44.9 | 11.7 | 48.1 | 13.9 |
| An. & Agg. | 66.6 | 11.5 | 65.0 | 11.2 | 46.1 | 21.9 |
| Ord. & Org. | 56.7 | 12.5 | 65.2 | 14.2 | 81.8 | 12.5 |
| Pr. Cla. | 47.2 | 13.2 | 52.6 | 14.5 | 77.7 | 11.1 |
| St. Con. | 70.5 | 6.6 | 73.4 | 7.6 | 69.8 | 6.9 |

P.W. = Preservice Workshop

M.E. = Major Evaluation

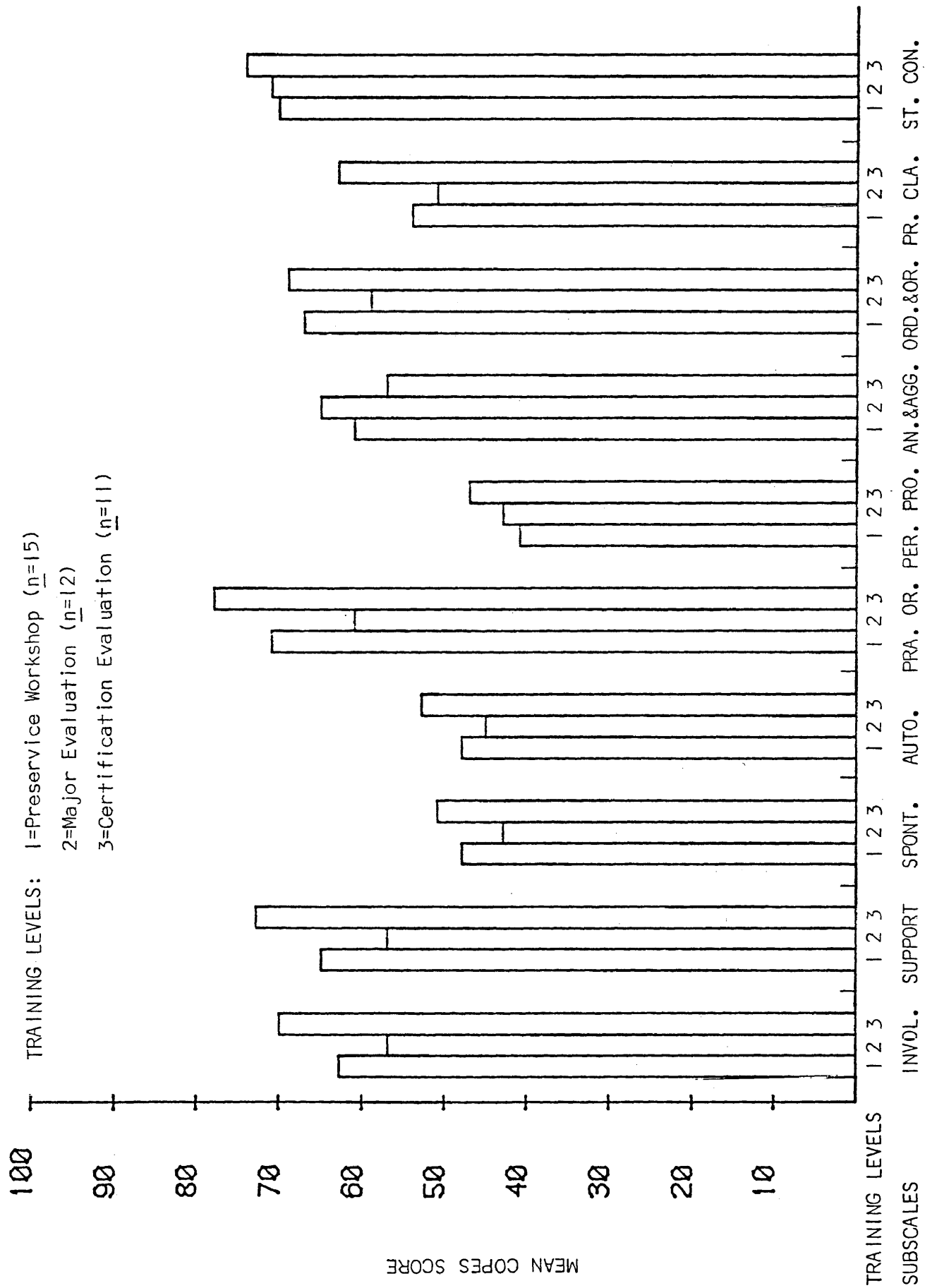
C.E. = Certification Evaluation

scores of the homes whose Family Teachers had passed the Certification Evaluation. This was this comparison that caused the significant ANOVA's.

In T_4 the same type of analyses were conducted as in T_3 . There were 15, 12 and 11 homes in each respective group for this implementation. This change in n further reflected the higher level of training of the Family Teachers in general. In this implementation significant differences existed between levels of training for only the Practical Orientation subscale as shown in Figure 5 and Table IV. A posteriori contrasts of the groups on the Practical Orientation subscale indicated that the Preservice Workshop homes and the homes whose Family Teachers had passed the Major Evaluation were a homogenous subset. The homes whose Family Teachers were at the upper two levels of training also were homogenous subsets. However, the statistical differences in Practical Orientation existed only between the Major Evaluation group and the Certification Evaluation group. For all of the other scales, with the exception of Personal Problem Orientation and Staff Control, similar patterns existed. However, the scores that were used to formulate the rest of these trends statistically were not significantly different.

Hypothesis 4. Family Teacher shift in training levels from T_x to T_y will correspond to changes in social climate scores.

This hypothesis suggested that as a given home's Family Teachers either shift upward, downward or remain unchanged with regard to level of training over two implementations, the youths should perceive similar directional changes in the social climate of their homes. The purpose of this hypothesis was to determine if much of the differences between the training levels variable were actually due to training or due to other



*p<.02

Figure 5. Social climate scores for the ten subscales in T₄ by the Family Teachers' level of training.

Table IV

Social climate score means and standard deviations
for the ten subscales in T_4 by the
Family Teachers' level of training

| | T_4 | | | | | |
|-------------|-----------|------|-----------|------|-----------|------|
| | P.W. | | M.E. | | C.E. | |
| | \bar{x} | s | \bar{x} | s | \bar{x} | s |
| Invol. | 63.1 | 19.1 | 57.7 | 17.2 | 70.2 | 19.3 |
| Support | 64.6 | 20.0 | 57.2 | 16.6 | 72.7 | 15.8 |
| Spont. | 48.2 | 13.9 | 43.6 | 10.0 | 50.5 | 10.6 |
| Auto. | 47.6 | 11.0 | 44.7 | 11.8 | 52.7 | 11.2 |
| Pra. Or. | 70.8 | 10.5 | 61.9 | 11.0 | 78.2 | 9.3 |
| Per. Pro. | 41.0 | 6.6 | 42.7 | 14.3 | 46.9 | 5.5 |
| An. & Agg. | 60.6 | 15.1 | 65.1 | 12.6 | 57.2 | 15.2 |
| Ord. & Org. | 66.9 | 13.5 | 58.6 | 12.7 | 68.9 | 13.1 |
| Pr. Cla. | 54.5 | 16.2 | 50.7 | 14.5 | 62.5 | 15.6 |
| St. Con. | 70.3 | 6.8 | 71.0 | 7.5 | 73.9 | 7.6 |

P.W. = Preservice Workshop

M.E. = Major Evaluation

C.E. = Certification Evaluation

confounding factors, such as hiring procedures. If training did have a major influence on the social climate of the homes, over two implementations (Tx to Ty), homes whose Family Teachers shifted upward at least one level of training should have had increasing scores. Correspondingly, homes whose Family Teachers remained at the same level of training should have had relatively unchanged scores for Tx to Ty. Finally, from Tx to Ty, homes whose Family Teachers shifted downward in level of training should have had decreases in social climate scores. Homes could have had Family Teachers that shifted downward in level of training only as a result of Family Teacher turnover.

Figure 6 indicates that generally there appeared to be very few differences in change scores between the three groups. For one group, the homes whose Family Teachers shifted upward in level of training, there were increases of 5 points for Practical Orientation and Staff Control. On the rest of the scales for this group there were either no increases or very small increases. At the same time, the group that did not change a level of training generally had small changes very similar to the Upward training group. On the other hand, the group that went down a level of training did show a relatively large decrease in Program Clarity. For the rest of the scales there was very little change for this group.

Based upon this overall analysis of change scores, at first glance the hypothesis would be rejected. Thus, it suggested other factors, such as Family Teacher selection, were probably influencing the change in social climate more than training. However, before the hypothesis was rejected, further analyses were conducted. It was postulated that the lack of change possibly was due to an averaging effect. For example, the No-change group, the group that remained in the Untrained category over

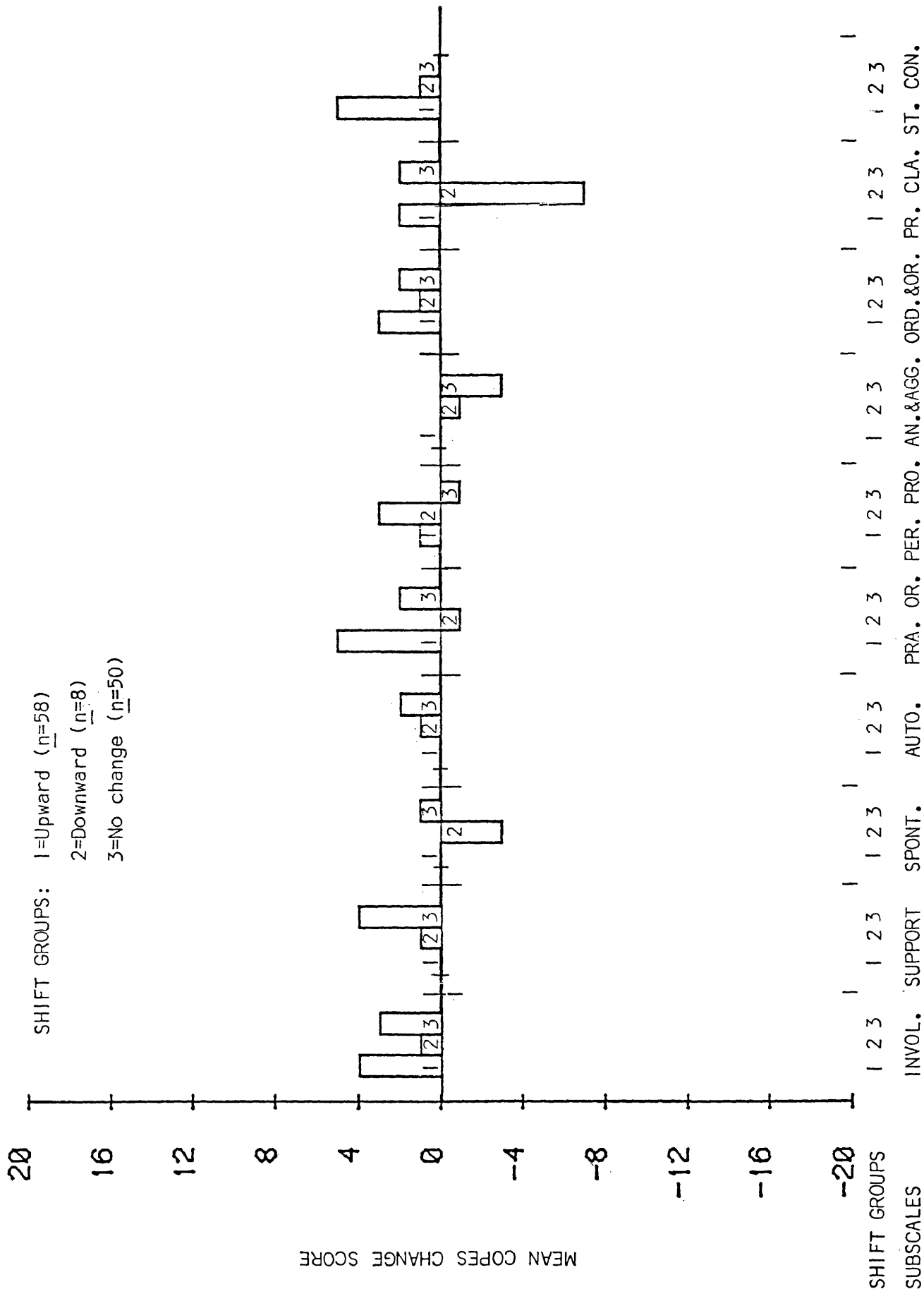


Figure 6. Social climate change scores between Tx and Ty for the ten subscales by shift in training groups.

Tx to Ty, were averaged together with the homes whose Family Teachers had passed the Certification Evaluation for both Tx and Ty. If one of these groups had decreasing scores from Tx to Ty while the other's scores increased, the mean of both groups would indicate no change in social climate was occurring for either group. Therefore, to test for this potential problem, the scores of the group whose Family Teachers had shifted upward in level of training from Tx to Ty and the group whose Family Teachers had remained at the same level for two implementations were broken down by level of training. The group whose Family Teachers decreased in level of training were not included in this portion of the analysis because of the small n .

Figure 7 shows the social climate change scores from Tx to Ty for each group whose Family Teachers shifted upward in level of training. The groups were defined by the Family Teachers level of training in Tx. The first group ($n = 23$) included all the homes whose Family Teachers were totally untrained in the Teaching-Family Model at Tx. In these, the Family Teachers had started the training sequence at Ty. The second group ($n = 26$) included those homes whose Family Teachers had been through the Preservice Workshop at Tx and had at least passed the Major Evaluation at Ty. The third group ($n = 9$) consisted of homes whose Family Teachers had passed the Major Evaluation at Tx and had passed the Certification Evaluation at Ty.

The results indicated that there was very little change in the social climate of the homes from Tx to Ty for any of the groups on the Spontaneity, Personal Problem Orientation and Staff Control subscales. For the Untrained group, the youth perceived slight increases in Involvement and Practical Orientation after the Family Teachers were trained. However,

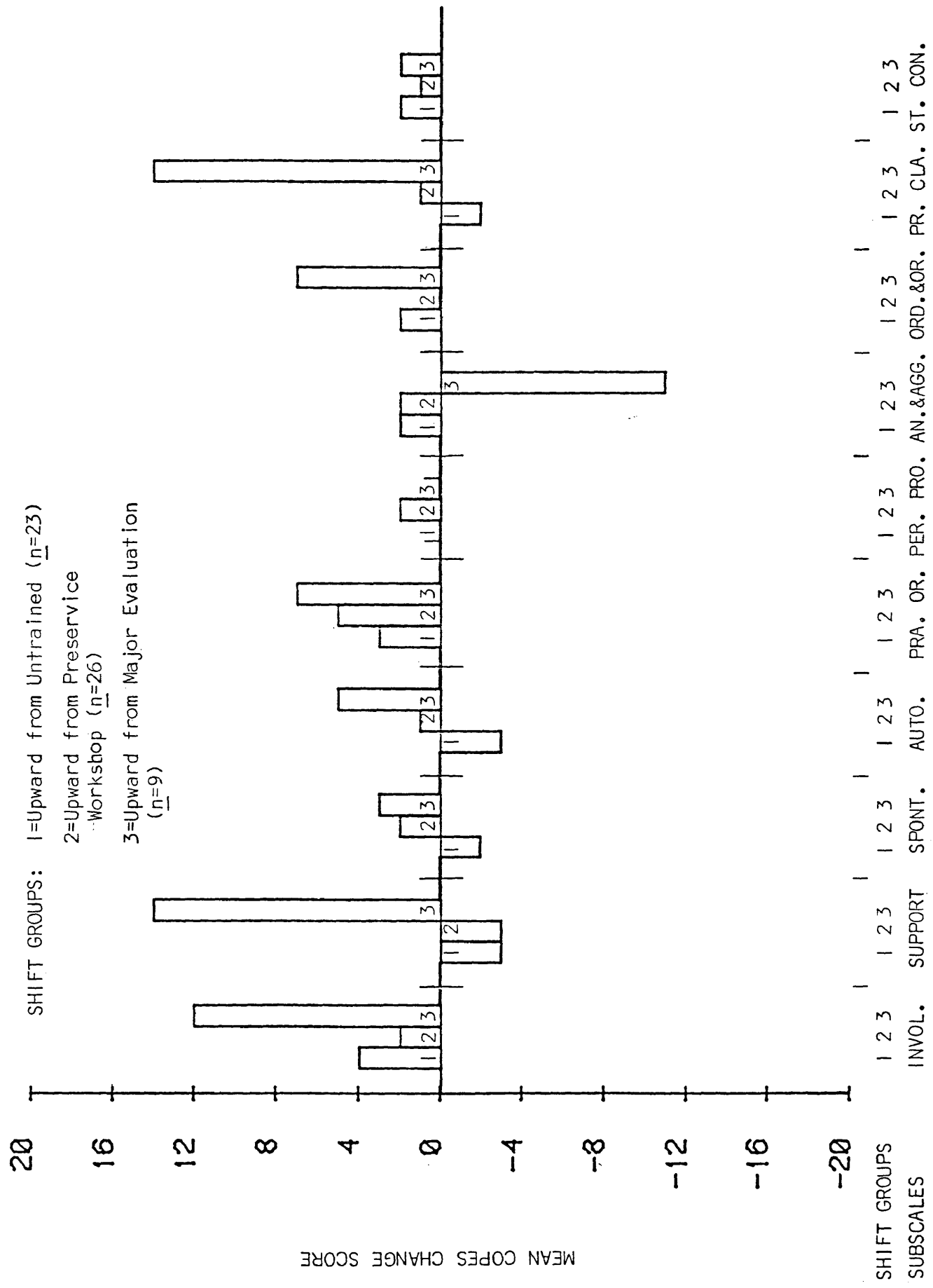


Figure 7. Social climate change scores between Tx and Ty for the ten subscales by upward shift in training groups.

there were similar decreases in Support and Autonomy. The youths in the Preservice Workshop group also perceived a slight decrease in Support after their Family Teachers shifted upward in training, but indicated a larger increase in the Practical Orientation of their environment. The other scales showed very little change. The Major Evaluation group had the largest increases in social climate scores after their Family Teachers passed the Certification Evaluation. The homes that went from the Major Evaluation to the Certification Evaluation level of training from Tx to Ty had large increases in Involvement, Support, Autonomy, Practical Orientation, Order and Organization, and Program Clarity. To a lesser extent, the youths also perceived an increase in Spontaneity. At the same time, the youths in these homes indicated that there was a rather large decrease in the amount of Anger and Aggression in their homes.

The same issue was addressed for the homes whose Family Teachers did not change levels of training from Tx to Ty. The data for these homes were broken down by the four levels of training. Group one consisted of the homes whose Family Teachers remained at the Untrained level from Tx to Ty ($n = 17$). Group two consisted of the homes whose Family Teachers remained at the Preservice Workshop level ($n = 19$). The third and fourth groups were comprised of homes whose Family Teachers were at the Major Evaluation ($n = 8$) or Certification Evaluation ($n = 8$) level of training respectively from Tx to Ty.

The results of the change scores, shown in Figure 8, indicate that the Untrained group had very little change from Tx to Ty. There was a slight increase in the Autonomy subscale and a slight decrease in the Anger and Aggression and Staff Control subscales for this group. The

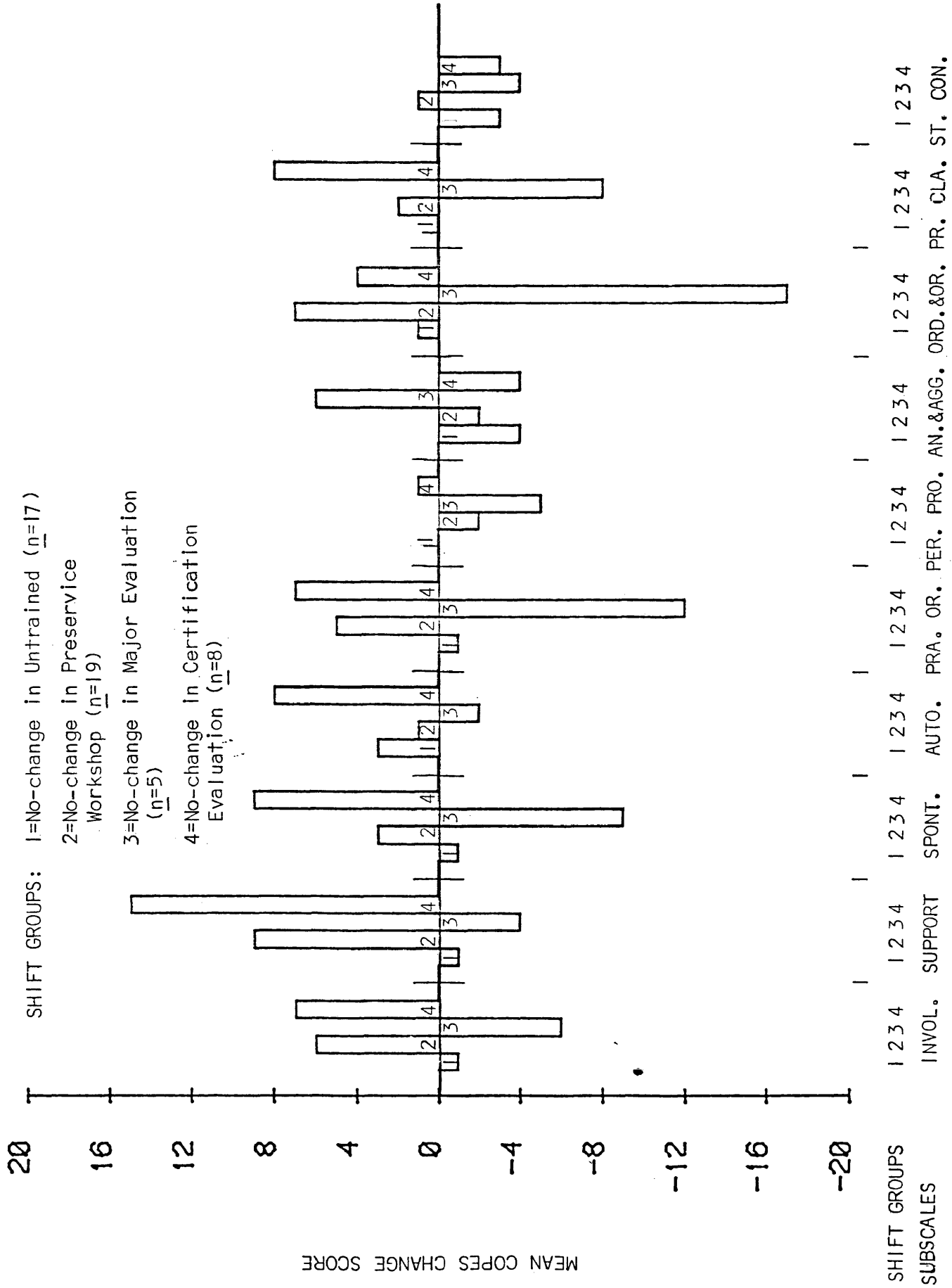


Figure 8. Social climate change scores between Tx and Ty for the ten subscales by no change shift in training groups.

group that remained at the Preservice Workshop level had relatively large increases in Involvement, Support, Practical Orientation, and Order and Organization. They also had a slight increase in Spontaneity. The third group, those homes whose Family Teachers remained at the Major Evaluation level of training, had large decreases in Involvement, Spontaneity, Practical Orientation, Personal Problem Orientation, Order and Organization, and Program Clarity. For Support and Staff Control, the decreases were not quite as large. Conversely, there was a rather large increase in the amount of Anger and Aggression in these homes. The group that remained at the Certification Evaluation level had relatively large increases on the greatest number of scales. The Involvement, Support, Spontaneity, Autonomy, Practical Orientation, and Order and Organization subscales all had large increases from Tx to Ty. A smaller increase was recorded for the Order and Organization subscale with slight decreases indicated on the Anger and Aggression and Staff Control subscales.

In sum, when all the levels of training were collapsed and the homes' social climate scores between Tx and Ty were broken down based only upon direction of shift in Family Teacher training, very few differences existed between Tx and Ty. However, when the groups were further broken down into levels of training some distinct patterns emerged. First, the Teaching-Family training sequence seemed to have very little affect on Personal Problem Orientation and Staff Control. For the homes that had Family Teachers who changed levels of training between Tx and Ty, the biggest changes occurred in the group that shifted upward from the Major Evaluation level to the Certification Evaluation level. The other shift groups had some change on many subscales, but these changes were not quite as large. Of the No-change homes, the only training level that

closely fit the hypothesis was the Untrained group which had very little or no change for all of the ten subscales. Both the Preservice Workshop group and the Certification Evaluation group had relatively large increases in many scales. In contrast, the group whose Family Teachers remained at the Major Evaluation level had decreases in most scales, with increases in Anger and Aggression. The group whose Family Teachers decreased in training level only had slight decreases in social climate scores on a few scales. The rest of the scale remained virtually unchanged. Appendix F contains graphs of the actual scores that the change scores were based upon.

Hypothesis 5. The amount of general youth care experience the head Family Teachers have will not relate to the social climate of the homes in which they reside.

To test this hypothesis two analyses were performed. First, for each of the four implementations the length of stay at Boys Town of the head Family Teachers were correlated with the ten social climate subscale scores of the homes on campus. The Pearson product-moment correlation (Nie, et al., 1970) was the tool used to determine the relationship between the two dependent variables. The significance level was set at .02, since the analysis involved multiple correlations.

Table V indicates that the length of stay failed to correlate with any of the scales in all four implementations. However, it was deemed possible that within any given level of training, the longer the length of stay the higher the social climate scores may be. For example, a positive correlation in the Untrained group and a negative correlation in the group that had at least started training in aggregate would yield no relationship when, in fact, one existed. An attempt was made to partial

Table V

Correlations over implementations between social
climate scores and length of stay.

| | T ₁ | T ₂ | T ₃ | T ₄ |
|----------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| <u>n</u> = | 35 homes | 41 homes | 40 homes | 41 homes |
| <u>x</u> <u>Length of Stay</u> = | 43 months | 28 months | 34 months | 36 months |
| <u>Subscales</u> | | | | |
| Invol. | -.10 | -.19 | -.12 | -.09 |
| Support | -.22 | -.23 | -.10 | -.19 |
| Spont. | -.18 | -.01 | .11 | -.03 |
| Auto. | -.04 | -.07 | -.04 | -.17 |
| Pra. Or. | -.06 | -.04 | .05 | -.14 |
| Per. Pro. | -.10 | -.20 | -.04 | -.01 |
| An. & Agg. | .14 | .03 | -.06 | .03 |
| Ord. & Or. | -.19 | -.05 | -.14 | -.19 |
| Pr. Cla. | -.27 | -.18 | -.01 | -.11 |
| St. Con. | .03 | .22 | .15 | .10 |

*p < .02

out these effects. A Pearson product-moment correlation used was to determine within the various levels of training if length of stay of the Family Teachers related to the scale scores. Since 100 correlations were run, the significance level was set at .02.

As shown in Table VI, the results indicate that 99 out of the 100 coefficients were not significant. The one that was significant, a negative relationship for Personal Problem Orientation within the Certification Evaluation group, reached significance only in T_4 . Inversely, this relationship was slightly positive in T_3 . Some of the other scales did have relatively high nonsignificant positive coefficients in T_3 . However, in T_4 those relationships were not replicated. In sum, the length of stay of the head Family Teachers did not tend to relate to the youths' perceptions of their homes' social climate.

Discussion

The present study attempted to determine if a youth care model, which had already been shown to be relatively effective in a community-based setting, could have an influence on the social climate of a community-style youth care institution. Specifically, it was attempted to determine if changes in the social climate of Boys Town would occur as the Teaching-Family Model was being implemented on campus. Also, if the changes were occurring, the study was designed to help determine what some of the possible causes of those changes might be. It was determined that if some of these issues could be resolved, the youth care profession would be in a slightly better position to judge what types of programs can provide quality services.

Table VI

Correlations over implementations by level of training
between social climate scores and length of stay

| Implementation | T ₁ | | T ₂ | | T ₃ | | | T ₄ | | |
|---|----------------|-------|----------------|-------|----------------|-------|-------|----------------|-------|--------|
| | Ut. | Tr. | Ut. | Tr. | P.W. | M.E. | C.E. | P.W. | M.E. | C.E. |
| <u>n</u> (homes)= | 22 | 13 | 16 | 25 | 20 | 14 | 5 | 15 | 12 | 11 |
| <u>\bar{x}</u> Length of Stay= | 44 m. | 41 m. | 26 m. | 29 m. | 34 m. | 45 m. | 25 m. | 23 m. | 64 m. | 33 m. |
| <u>Subscales</u> | | | | | | | | | | |
| Invol. | .09 | -.33 | .05 | -.29 | -.09 | -.17 | .59 | -.19 | -.08 | .09 |
| Support | -.06 | -.38 | .06 | -.31 | .17 | -.31 | .54 | -.33 | -.07 | -.11 |
| Spont. | -.07 | -.26 | -.31 | .03 | .04 | .16 | .57 | .20 | -.02 | .08 |
| Auto. | -.06 | .00 | .25 | -.12 | .01 | -.05 | .71 | -.29 | -.11 | -.13 |
| Pra. Or. | .09 | -.19 | .44 | -.15 | .06 | .11 | -.22 | -.50 | .20 | -.48 |
| Per. Pro. | -.12 | -.08 | .04 | -.28 | .13 | -.16 | .14 | -.21 | .17 | -.77 * |
| An. & Agg. | .01 | .28 | -.45 | .13 | -.12 | -.13 | .11 | .13 | -.08 | .10 |
| Ord. & Or. | -.03 | -.45 | .16 | -.18 | -.09 | -.25 | -.22 | -.23 | -.04 | -.28 |
| Pr. Cla. | -.11 | -.41 | .39 | -.28 | .24 | -.13 | -.05 | -.35 | .12 | -.28 |
| St. Con. | -.02 | .12 | .28 | .24 | -.08 | .26 | -.43 | -.24 | .28 | .19 |

*p .02

^aLevel of Training codes: Ut.=Untrained
Tr.=Started Training
P.W.=Preservice Workshop
M.E.=Major Evaluation
C.E.=Certification Evaluation

The first two hypotheses involved determining if change in the social climate actually was occurring as the Model was being systematically implemented. The results suggest that change was occurring. The scales that had the largest changes included Involvement, Practical Orientation, and Order and Organization. The score increases for these three subscales were statistically significant. Other subscales, such as Support, Autonomy, and Program Clarity also had relatively consistent increasing scores, while Anger and Aggression consistently decreased. However, for these subscales the changes failed to reach the predetermined statistical significance level over the four implementations.

For all of the scales, the trends that emerged seemed to be consistent with the components of the Teaching-Family Model. The data seem to suggest that the program had very little effect on the amount of Spontaneity, Personal Problem Orientation, and Staff Control in the environment. These results would seem very reasonable given the emphasis of the Model. For example, Personal Problem Orientation "measures the extent to which members are encouraged to be concerned with their personal problems and feelings and to seek understanding of them" (Moos, 1974, p. 231). Considering that the Model does not attempt to get every youth "to seek understanding" of their personal problems and feelings, it is not surprising that there were not increases on this scale. However, even though personal problem orientation is not explicitly stressed in the Model, the present program seemed to be as effective as the previous program at generating this social climate variable since the social climate scores did not decrease for this scale.

In the same light, many times programs that utilize token economies are characterized as being more controlling than those programs that do

not use token economies. Again, that data seem to suggest that there were no increases in Staff Control as a result of implementing the program. Perhaps this was because the amount of Staff Control on campus was already high. However, it also might be because the token economy of the Model is not structured to be highly punitive. Too, it might be due to the fact that there is much youth, as well as Family Teacher, input into the program. Therefore, the program can stress Order and Organization but not leave total responsibility for this with the Family Teachers.

The scales in which at least some change seemed to occur were reasonable given the emphasis of the Model. The Model strongly emphasizes relationship building (i.e., Involvement and Support), individualism, (i.e., Autonomy) and teaching (i.e., Practical Orientation). There also is much emphasis on running a smoothly operating program (i.e., Order and Organization), on explicitly defining the program (i.e., Program Clarity), and on not allowing verbally or physically abusive acts (i.e., Anger and Aggression).

In drawing these conclusions, the researcher may be criticized for making more inferences than the data actually suggest. After all, only three of the scales were significantly different according to the statistics used to test the hypotheses. Given the consistent trends for many scales and the fact that all individual responses were collapsed into home scores, thus, substantially reducing the degrees of freedom and the probability of finding significance, one may be justified in slightly stepping out of the statistical bounds. Possibly the duration of the study was not long enough to allow statistical significance to emerge on some scales. If more repeated measures were taken, based upon the trends obtained for the Support, Autonomy, Anger and Aggression, and Program

Clarity subscales, significance may have been reached in another implementation or two. Perhaps it has been issues very similar to these that have prompted the field to start judging both visual and social significance as well as statistical significance.

The second issue addressed in the study was to determine whether these changes were merely an artifact of some confounding variable, such as the environmental maturation (i.e., passage of time) or Family Teaching and/or youth turnover. In laboratory research, where the experimenter has virtually complete control over the subjects and the environment, this issue is easily resolved. The experimenter randomly assigns a portion of the subjects to a treatment condition, while another portion of the subjects are assigned to a no treatment or placebo group. Unfortunately, many times in field research such assignment is virtually impossible because of ethical, financial, and/or administrative considerations. Therefore, a reasonable alternative must be developed to resolve the problem.

One common technique used to overcome the problem is to compare the data set collected in the experiment with a similar previously collected data set. This similar set of data then is used as a comparison group rather than a control. This technique was employed with the second hypothesis to help determine if certain confounding variables were affecting the change in social climate scores. Clearly, the data suggested, as would be expected, that the profiles of the present sample of homes were more similar to those obtained from a changing environment than they were to those from a nonchanging milieu. Given that in both comparison groups, there were a number of confounding variables occurring that should have been equally affecting both groups (e.g., environmental

maturation, participant turnover, staff turnover), these factors alone probably were not influencing score changes. However, when program change was overtly prompted, the scales were sensitive to these programmatic changes. The results of the present study suggested that the change at Boys Town was much more similar to the changing comparison group than the nonchanging comparison group. Therefore, the changes probably were not due to the confounds that were similar for both comparison groups.

This issue also was addressed as a subcomponent of the fourth hypothesis. In this analysis, a comparison was made between two implementations for the homes whose staff had not yet started the Teaching-Family training sequence. If confounding variables other than training were affecting the social climate, the scores in these homes should have had changing scores. The results indicated that the mean of the scores remained virtually unchanged. These results were similar to what would be expected of a nonintervention comparison group. The results are only tentative, though, because the groups' nonintervention status was not continued throughout the duration of the study.

The first analysis seemed to suggest that there were consistent changes in the social climate scores over time. The second series of analyses suggest that the changes probably were not due to confounding variables such as passage of time or Family Teacher or youth turnover. In the third and fourth analyses, it was hypothesized that these changes possibly were due to the training of the Family Teachers. The results of these analyses generally supported the hypothesis. However, the results were not totally conclusive.

In the third major analysis, the youths in homes whose Family Teachers were at higher levels of training generally did tend to perceive their environment as stressing greater amounts of most of the social climate variables. Of course, the inverse was true with Anger and Aggression. However, the statistical significance of these trends yielded mixed results. For example, the highest level of training tended to yield the homes that had the highest social climate scores for the relationship dimensions of Involvement, Support, and Spontaneity; the treatment program dimensions of Practical Orientation and Personal Problem Orientation; and the systems maintenance dimensions of Order and Organization and Program Clarity. Even though these trends were consistent, the differences between the groups failed to meet the predetermined statistical criteria for every replication. The replication that seemed the least consistent with the prediction was T_4 . During this implementation, the Preservice Workshop group consistently had higher social climate scores than the group that had passed the Major Evaluation. The only exceptions to this trend were Personal Problem Orientation, Anger and Aggression and Staff Control. Also, with the scales that did reach statistical significance, the differences were between the Major Evaluation and Certification Evaluation levels of training. The Preservice Workshop group was statistically similar to both levels.

Why were there differential training effects between implementations? Perhaps the groups were not all treated the same during the training sequence. Maybe there were confounding events occurring in the Major Evaluation homes in T_4 that were not accounted for. Possibly the results were spurious and would not occur again if further administrations of the COPES were conducted.

Even though the level of training of the Family Teachers did seem to have at least some effect on the social climate of the homes, possibly staff selection had an equally powerful influence. This was of particular concern since the means between the groups tended to shift closer together as more Family Teachers progressed through the training sequence and in T_4 the level of training variable was not consistent with the other implementations.

The fourth hypothesis specifically addressed the staff selection issue. If training actually was having a large effect on the social climate scores, as homes' Family Teachers shifted levels of training corresponding changes in social climate scores should have occurred. If training was not having much effect, in which case staff selection probably was, there should have been no changes in social scores from T_x to T_y .

The results suggested that training did tend to have an effect on home scores over two implementations for Involvement, Support, Practical Orientation, Order and Organization, and Program Clarity. The largest influences seemed to occur when the Family Teachers went from the Major Evaluation level to the Certification Evaluation level of training.

Also of interest was the group whose Family Teachers did not change level of training from T_x to T_y . As would be expected, the homes in which the Family Teachers had received no Teaching-Family training had relatively unchanging scores across two implementations. However, for the No-change homes whose Family Teachers had received at least the Preservice Workshop, the results were somewhat different. Both the No-change Preservice Workshop group and the No-change Certification Evaluation group had relatively large increases on a number of scales. This

would be problematic if the Untrained group had shown similar increases. However, since there were no increases for the Untrained group, the results would probably suggest that the training was a continuous process and not discrete as the ordinal categorization might suggest. Even though these groups had not officially shifted levels of training, they still were progressing through the sequence.

The No-change Major Evaluation group had changes on many scales that were just opposite the other two groups whose Family Teachers had started the training sequence. Again, there is no concrete evidence that would explain why this trend occurred. However, it is worth noting that there were only five homes in this group. Without a large sample, it would be hard to determine if it was a substantial trend. One possible reason that these homes did not progress to the Certification Evaluation level was a decline in the quality of the homes' program, whereas in the Untrained group and the Preservice Workshop group, administrative decisions may have hindered progress. Or perhaps homes that remained at that stage hit a growth lag, which also effected the social climate. Regardless of the potential reason for this decline, the small n makes interpretation of the results rather difficult.

The final analysis attempted to ascertain if merely the amount of staff youth care experience, regardless of the type, affected the homes' social climate. This was tested by correlating the Family Teacher length of stay at Boys Town with the social climate scores. Even when controlling for Family Teacher level of training, a relationship was not consistently found for any of the scales. It is possible that averaging the Family Teachers' length of stay for each home had an effect on reducing the correlation. However, in most homes the length of stay was very

similar for all of the head Family Teachers. Another valid criticism might be that length of stay may not have been the best indicator of staff experience. Although it seemed to be the best barometer for the present study, another measure of experience may have yielded different results.

Conclusions

The results generally suggest that implementation of the Teaching-Family Model have an influence on many aspects of the social climate of the youth care residences at Boys Town. As the Model was being systematically implemented, the trends seemed to suggest that the interpersonal relationships within the homes were improving; the youths were becoming slightly more autonomous; they were acquiring more practical skills; the environment was becoming more orderly and organized; and finally, the program was becoming a little clearer to youths. While all of this was occurring there was a slight decrease in the tendency for the environment to allow the occurrence of anger and aggression. All of these changes would be expected when assessing the Teaching-Family program components. The present study also suggests that these trends probably were not due to Family Teachers or youth turnover, the amount of general Family Teacher youth care experience, or merely due to the passage of time. The data do suggest that the training sequence, possibly in combination with a staff selection factor, did have a substantial impact changing the environment.

The implications of the study seem to be threefold. First, the study shows that the quality of youth care can be assessed. Much valuable information was gathered in a fairly unobtrusive manner. These data can

in turn be used by administrators and youth care practitioners to improve the quality of their programs. Secondly, these results independently replicate previous research of Moos (1974) which suggested that intervention can effect the quality of a milieu's social climate. This implies the necessity of developing intervention strategies in a number of social science areas--possibly not just youth care. Finally, the data suggest that staff training probably can affect the environment for which those staff are responsible. The training sequence considered in the present study is but one example of innovative training techniques. Certainly, similar training could be developed and tested in other environments.

Suggestions for Further Research

While the present study seems to provide indications regarding the effects of implementing the Teaching-Family Model in a youth care institution on that organization's social climate, it does not address every related issue. This would seem to be the task of future research. For example, the level of training variable was, at best, a rough estimate of how many program components the Family Teachers could display competence in implementing. Moreover, the level of training also was only a rough estimate of how many of the program components were actually implemented on a regular basis by the Family Teachers. The training data seem to suggest that the four ordinal levels of training utilized in the present study were not necessarily discrete landmarks of Family Teacher training. The divisions probably were somewhat arbitrary. Possibly a more appropriate mode of analysis would have been more direct observations of the Family Teachers implementing the program components or having the Family Teachers record their daily activities in a log (Jones, 1976). Perhaps

this would help to assess if the Family Teachers actually used the various components in contrast to determining if they had acquired the skills. However, when conducting applied research, methods need to be utilized that are the least obtrusive or the subjects may not be willing to participate. Possibly assessing degree of implementation would be too obtrusive.

Another related area in which further research is needed could involve isolating training components that affect specific dimensions of social climate. In the present study, the results of implementing the entire Model were assessed. When other youth care organizations do not want to change all aspects of their social climate or cannot adopt the entire Model, it would benefit these organizations to be able to train their staff only in the areas in which social climate change is desired. Along the same line, the data seem to suggest that further refinement of the Teaching-Family training sequence may be needed. The biggest indication of this was the decrease in social climate scores at the Major Evaluation level.

Design issues in developing practical evaluation strategies for social action programs also need to be further addressed. Many times in evaluating these programs the researcher is not afforded the convenience of a control group. It appears that the comparison group design is the next best alternative. However, for many programs there is a mandate to change the entire approach, not one segment of it, and/or funds are not provided to collect comparison data. One logical alternative would be to establish a group whose purpose would be to catalog data and results from social science studies. Comparison group data would then be readily available for many social science researchers.

The amount of staff experience also should be investigated in more detail. The results indicated that the amount of general youth care experience the Family Teachers had did not seem to relate to social climate scores. However, possibly the amount of time the Family Teachers had been involved with the Model, regardless of the level of training, may have a large influence on social climate scores. Future research may want to relate this amount to Teaching-Family Model experience with social climate scores.

Finally, further research needs to be conducted to determine if a positive social climate makes any difference in the long run and if it does, on what dimensions. This could be accomplished by relating social climate variables to other process evaluation variables such as grades, number of runaways, and satisfaction, as well as by relating social climate to outcome evaluation measures such as quality of life indicators. If such relationships can be determined, measurement of social climate will certainly become a commonly used indicator of program quality in future evaluation research.

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Appendix A

Guide to Administering the Community Oriented
Programs Environment Scale

This guide has been developed to standardize the administration of the COPES. It is a result of problems and questions raised after initially pilot testing the instrument on the Boys Town campus. One should try to follow its protocol as closely as possible.

There will be one person giving the COPES. It should take about one hour per home to administer. After arriving at the home the implementer should tell the Family-Living Teachers they are there to administer the COPES. State that an area with writing space large enough for all the youths present will be needed for the period. Continue by telling the Family-Living Teachers to come with the youths for a brief explanation of the procedures involved in filling out the questionnaire and further potential uses of the information. Thereafter, they will be asked to go to another room.

Start by telling the group why they are being asked to respond to the questionnaires. The rationales should be given as follows:

1. People in programs like Boys Town often do not have the opportunity to give administrators feedback. At Boys Town, the administrators want to encourage feedback and this is one opportunity to participate in it. The feedback can consequently be used to improve Boys Town.
2. Programs at Boys Town have been changing over the past few years. To assess whether these changes are good, the effects of them must be measured. For instance, being able to measure the

social climate of a home can help answer questions about what kinds of programs make the best living situations.

3. In the future, someone may be coming back to the home to give the questionnaire again. This may aid in showing how Boys Town is improving over time.
4. Group results will be given back to the Family-Living Teachers who in turn can relay the information to the youths. They both can see how their impressions of their home compare and discuss the results.

After all the questions are satisfied, begin to explain the mechanics of marking the questionnaire. State that the youths are not being analyzed or evaluated. Instead, they are in the role of the evaluators. For this reason, they must answer the questionnaire as accurately as possible. Stress that the individual results will be kept confidential and only how the group answered as a whole will be reported. Names need to be put on the COPES because we need to be able to separate the answers of youths who are new to Boys Town from the answers of those who have been here for some time. In this way, we can tell if the youths who have been here for a while see any changes in their home at Boys Town.

Next, pass out the Intended Uses of the Information form. Read it to the youths and answer any questions they have. After all of their questions are answered, have them sign the last page and return it to the implementer.

NOTE: THIS IS NOT AN INFORMED CONSENT BUT MERELY AN EXPLANATION OF SOME POTENTIAL USES OF THE INFORMATION.

After the youths' questions have been satisfactorily answered ask the staff to go to another room. Indicate that this is to reduce staff influence on youth responding.

Remain with the youths to implement the questionnaire. Start by saying there are a few points about the questions that need to be clarified. For the COPES, the respondents should answer the questions for the home they are living in at the present time. Do not answer questions of the COPES for other homes or for Boys Town in general. Also, make sure the answers reflect how the program is now, not how it used to be or how it is thought it may be in the future.

State that the COPES questionnaire was developed for a wide range of programs, so it uses words like "members" and "staff." When the word "members" is used it means all the youths living in that home--not other youths at Boys Town. The word "staff" in the questionnaire means only the adults who live and work in that home--not other Boys Town staff. Also, the word "here" means only this home--not Boys Town in general or other homes.

The implementer should start with the top third of the Youth Answer Sheet for the Copes. The youth's name should be filled in first--using his legal name. Suggest that they refrain from using nicknames. Next, the home's address should be entered (e.g., 582 Zamboango Blvd.). The third question asks how long the youth has lived with his Family-Living Teachers. This means the head Family-Living Teachers and not the assistants or associates. If exact dates cannot be remembered, estimates should be made. In the fourth question, the youth should mark the satisfaction level that is most representative as of present. Only one satisfaction level would be indicated.

When all the youths have filled out the information sheet, tell them to find number one on the answer sheet. Explain that you will read each statement out loud and you want them to respond to these by answering

whether it is true or false in reference to their home here at Boys Town. If a statement is true, circle the t. If the statement is false, circle the f. If a youth is not sure whether a statement is true or false, have them make their best guess.

State that some of the statements may be worded in a manner which makes the appropriate answer unclear. Continue by saying you will try to explain all of these statements, however, they should not hesitate to ask questions if they are not sure of what any statement means. (Questions the implementer must be particularly sensitive to are the subtle double negatives. These, along with other confusing statements, are redefined on the questionnaire and the implementer should utilize these definitions if the need for further explanation arises.)

Be sure not to read more into a question than is there. For example, when talking about criticism do not state whether you mean positive or negative criticism.

If minor disruptions occur during the period ignore them, but if the youths become too disruptive wait until quiet is resumed before continuing.

After the questionnaire is done, collect the answer sheets from the youths and thank them for their time.

NOTE: BE SURE TO INFORM THE FAMILY-LIVING TEACHERS BEFORE LEAVING.

Appendix B

Intended Uses of the Consumer Evaluation, Copes, and Associated
Background Information by the Boys Town Research Center

The following will describe the way three sets of information may be used by the Teaching-Family Program at the Boys Town Research Center.

The first set comes from the Consumer Evaluation questionnaire, which asks questions regarding your satisfaction with various areas of Father Flanagan's Boys' Home. The second set of information comes from the Community Oriented Programs Environment Scale (COPEs), which asks for your responses to statements about the social climate of the home in which you live and/or work. The last set is background information. This may include information about your age, how long you have lived or worked at Boys Town, how long you have lived with your present Family Living Teachers (for the youths), or how long you have been at your present position (for the staff).

These three sets of information are collected under the supervision of the Boys Town Youth Care Department, although they may utilize the Boys Town Research Center for data collection and analysis services. The Boys Town Center may in turn participate in public presentation or publication of the information. Nevertheless, every effort will be made to ensure the confidentiality of the information collected. In a public presentation or publication, the information will usually be presented in group form and will not identify any individual or single home. If any individual data are presented, they will be coded in a form so that the name of the individual will not become publicly known.

The information may be used to improve youth care at Boys Town by providing feedback about the quality of youth care on campus. It could also prove beneficial on a national level by showing administrators in other institutions that the quality of youth care can be measured and improved.

If you have any questions regarding this information or its use, you may write or call Loren E. Brooks at the Boys Town Center or Joseph H. Evans at the Boys Town Youth Care Department.

The signature of this document indicates that you have read it and have had any questions regarding the collection or use of the information satisfactorily answered.

(date)

(signature - participant)

Appendix C

Copes Questionnaire

1. Members put a lot of energy into what they do around here. (The members are actively involved in this cottage.)
2. The healthier members here help take care of the less healthy ones. (If someone is sick, everyone who isn't sick helps take care of them.)
3. Members tend to hide their feelings from one another.
4. There is no membership government in this program. (Members don't have any say about the rules, consequences, and activities of the home.)
5. This program emphasizes training for new kinds of jobs. (This program tries to teach members jobs that they did not know how to do before coming to the program.)
6. Members hardly ever discuss their sexual lives. (T = There is not much member discussion about their sexual lives. F = Members do discuss their sexual lives.)
7. It's hard to get people to argue around here. (T = People don't argue around here. F = People do argue around here.)
8. Members' activities are carefully planned. (What members do throughout the day is carefully planned.)
9. If a member breaks a rule, he knows what the consequences will be.
10. Once a schedule is arranged for a member, the member must follow it. (Once it is decided what a member is to do during a day, the member must do it.)
11. This is a lively place. (There is always something going on.)
12. Staff have relatively little time to encourage members. (Staff do not have much time to praise, help, approve, reassure, etc. members. T = Staff do not have much time to encourage members. F = Staff have quite a bit of time to encourage members.)
13. Members say anything they want to the staff.
14. Members can leave here anytime without saying where they are going.

15. There is relatively little emphasis on teaching members solutions to practical problems. (There is relatively little emphasis on teaching members how to solve concrete everyday problems. T = No emphasis on teaching members how to solve practical problems. F = There is emphasis on teaching members how to solve practical problems.)
16. Personal problems are openly talked about.
17. Members often criticize or joke about the staff.
18. This is a very well organized program.
19. If a member's program is changed, staff always tell him why. (If the things or goals a member is working on are changed, the staff always tell him why.)
20. The staff very rarely punish members by taking away their privileges. (T = Staff do not punish members by taking away their privileges. F = Often staff punish members by taking away their privileges.)
21. The members are proud of this program.
22. Members seldom help each other.
23. It is hard to tell how members are feeling here.
24. Members are expected to take leadership here.
25. Members are expected to make detailed, specific plans for the future.
26. Members are rarely asked personal questions by the staff. (T = Members are not asked personal questions by the staff. F = Staff do ask members personal questions.)
27. Members here rarely argue. (T = Members do not argue. F = Members argue quite a bit.)
28. The staff make sure that this place is always neat.
29. Staff rarely give members a detailed explanation of what the program is about. (T = Staff do not give members a detailed explanation of what the program is about. F = Staff do give members a detailed explanation of what the program is about.)
30. Members who break the rules are punished for it.
31. There is very little group spirit in this program.

32. Staff are very interested in following up members once they leave the program. [Staff are interested in knowing what members are doing once they leave the program. (If no members have left the program since the staff have come to that program the youths should respond for how they think the staff would be if someone did leave.)]
33. Members are careful about what they say when staff are around.
34. The staff tend to discourage criticism from members. [T = Staff do not allow criticism from members. F = Staff allow criticism from members. (NOTE: Do not define criticism as being negative or positive.)]
35. There is relatively little discussion about exactly what members will be doing after they leave the program. (T = There is not much discussion about exactly what members will be doing after they leave the program. F = There is quite a bit of discussion about what members will be doing after they leave the program.)
36. Members are expected to share their personal problems with each other.
37. Staff sometimes argue openly with each other.
38. This place usually looks a little messy.
39. The program rules are clearly understood by the members.
40. If a member fights with another member, he will get into real trouble with the staff. (NOTE: fights = verbal or physical fights.)
41. Very few members ever volunteer around here.
42. Staff always compliment a member who does something well.
43. Members are strongly encouraged to express themselves freely here. (Members are strongly encouraged to say what they want here.)
44. Members can leave the program whenever they want to. (NOTE: This would include leaving Boys Town.)
45. There is relatively little emphasis on making specific plans for leaving this program. (T = Not much emphasis in the program on making plans for leaving the program. F = A lot of emphasis in the program on making plans for leaving this program.)
46. Members talk relatively little about their past. (T = Members do not talk much about their past. F = Members talk a lot about their past.)
47. Members sometimes play practical jokes on each other.

48. Members here follow a regular schedule every day.
49. Members never know when staff will ask to see them.
50. Staff don't order the members around.
51. A lot of members just seem to be passing time here. (A lot of members don't seem to be accomplishing anything here.)
52. The staff know what the members want.
53. Members spontaneously set up their own activities here. (Members go ahead and set up activities on their own here.)
54. Members can wear whatever they want.
55. Most members are more concerned with the past than with the future.
56. Members tell each other about their intimate personal problems.
57. Staff encourage members to express their anger openly here. (Staff want members to express their anger openly here.)
58. Some members look messy.
59. The members always know when the staff will be around.
60. It is important to carefully follow the program rules here.
61. This program has very few social activities. (Group activities, e.g., going on outings, to dances, having parties.)
62. Staff sometimes don't show up for their appointments with members.
63. When members disagree with each other, they keep it to themselves. (When members disagree with each other, they don't tell others about it.)
64. The staff almost always act on members' suggestions.
65. Members here are expected to demonstrate continued concrete progress toward their goals.
66. Staff are mainly interested in learning about members' feelings.
67. Staff here never start arguments.
68. Things are sometimes very disorganized around here.
69. Everyone knows who's in charge here.
70. Members can call staff by their first names.

71. Members are pretty busy all of the time.
72. There is relatively little sharing among the members. (T = There is not much sharing among members. F = There is a lot of sharing among members.)
73. Members can generally do whatever they feel like here.
74. Very few members have any responsibility for the program here. (Very few members have any say in the program here. T = The members in general do not have much responsibility for the program. F = The members do have quite a lot of responsibility for the program.)
75. Members are taught specific new skills in this program. (Members are taught things they didn't know before coming to the program.)
76. The members rarely talk with each other about their personal problems. (T = Members do not talk with each other about their personal problems. F = Members talk with each other about their personal problems quite a bit of the time.)
77. Members often gripe.
78. The dayroom or living room is often untidy.
79. People are always changing their minds here.
80. Members may interrupt staff when they are talking. (NOTE: Do not re-define interrupt in terms of an appropriate or inappropriate interruption.)
81. Discussions are very interesting here.
82. Members are given a great deal of individual attention here.
83. Members tend to hide their feelings from the staff.
84. Members here are very strongly encouraged to be independent.
85. Staff care more about how members feel than about their practical problems.
86. Members are rarely encouraged to discuss their personal problems here. (T = Members are not encouraged to discuss their personal problems here. F = Members are strongly encouraged to discuss their personal problems here.)
87. Staff here think it is a healthy thing to argue.
88. Members are rarely kept waiting when they have appointments with staff. (T = Members usually are not kept waiting when they have appointments with staff. F = A lot of the time members are kept waiting when they have appointments with staff.)

89. Members never quite know when they will be considered ready to leave this program.
90. Members will be transferred or discharged from this program if they don't obey the rules. (NOTE: "This program" means the living unit they are in and Boys Town.)
91. Members often do things together on weekends.
92. The staff go out of their way to help new members get acquainted here.
93. Members are strongly encouraged to express their feelings. (The staff really try to get the members to express their feelings.)
94. Staff rarely give in to pressure from members. [If the staff want to do one thing and the members another, the staff normally get their way. (T = Staff usually do not give in to pressure from members. F = Staff usually give in to pressure from members.)]
95. Members must make detailed plans before leaving this program.
96. Staff strongly encourage members to talk about their pasts. (T = Staff really try to get the members to talk about their past. F = Staff do not want the members to talk about their past.)
97. Members here rarely become angry. (T = Members do not become angry very often. F = Members get angry quite a bit.)
98. The staff strongly encourages members to be neat and orderly here.
99. There are often changes in the rules here.
100. The staff make and enforce all the rules here.

Appendix D

Youth Answer Sheet for the Copes

NAME: _____ ADDRESS: _____
 HOW LONG HAVE YOU LIVED WITH YOUR PRESENT FAMILY LIVING TEACHERS?
 YEARS _____ MONTHS _____

HOW SATISFIED ARE YOU WITH YOUR LIFE IN THIS HOME? (CHECK ONE)

- _____ COMPLETELY SATISFIED
- _____ SATISFIED
- _____ SLIGHTLY SATISFIED
- _____ NEITHER SATISFIED NOR DISSATISFIED
- _____ SLIGHTLY DISSATISFIED
- _____ DISSATISFIED
- _____ COMPLETELY DISSATISFIED

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|-----|---|---|-----|---|---|-----|---|---|------|---|---|
| 1. | + | f | 21. | + | f | 41. | + | f | 61. | + | f | 81. | + | f |
| 2. | + | f | 22. | + | f | 42. | + | f | 62. | + | f | 82. | + | f |
| 3. | + | f | 23. | + | f | 43. | + | f | 63. | + | f | 83. | + | f |
| 4. | + | f | 24. | + | f | 44. | + | f | 64. | + | f | 84. | + | f |
| 5. | + | f | 25. | + | f | 45. | + | f | 65. | + | f | 85. | + | f |
| 6. | + | f | 26. | + | f | 46. | + | f | 66. | + | f | 86. | + | f |
| 7. | + | f | 27. | + | f | 47. | + | f | 67. | + | f | 87. | + | f |
| 8. | + | f | 28. | + | f | 48. | + | f | 68. | + | f | 88. | + | f |
| 9. | + | f | 29. | + | f | 49. | + | f | 69. | + | f | 89. | + | f |
| 10. | + | f | 30. | + | f | 50. | + | f | 70. | + | f | 90. | + | f |
| 11. | + | f | 31. | + | f | 51. | + | f | 71. | + | f | 91. | + | f |
| 12. | + | f | 32. | + | f | 52. | + | f | 72. | + | f | 92. | + | f |
| 13. | + | f | 33. | + | f | 53. | + | f | 73. | + | f | 93. | + | f |
| 14. | + | f | 34. | + | f | 54. | + | f | 74. | + | f | 94. | + | f |
| 15. | + | f | 35. | + | f | 55. | + | f | 75. | + | f | 95. | + | f |
| 16. | + | f | 36. | + | f | 56. | + | f | 76. | + | f | 96. | + | f |
| 17. | + | f | 37. | + | f | 57. | + | f | 77. | + | f | 97. | + | f |
| 18. | + | f | 38. | + | f | 58. | + | f | 78. | + | f | 98. | + | f |
| 19. | + | f | 39. | + | f | 59. | + | f | 79. | + | f | 99. | + | f |
| 20. | + | f | 40. | + | f | 60. | + | f | 80. | + | f | 100. | + | f |

Appendix E

Formula and sample computations for the intraclass correlation statistic when used to compute profile stability.

Formula:

From: (Haggard, 1958, p. 11)

$$R = \frac{BCMS - WMS}{BCMS + (k-1)(WMS)}$$

Computations:

$$R = \frac{659.8 - 15.8}{659.8 + (2 - 1)(15.8)} = .95$$

$$R = \frac{248.4 - 101.3}{248.4 + (2 + 1)(101.3)} = .42$$

$$R = \frac{445.5 - 398.9}{445.5 + (2 - 1)(398.9)} = .05$$

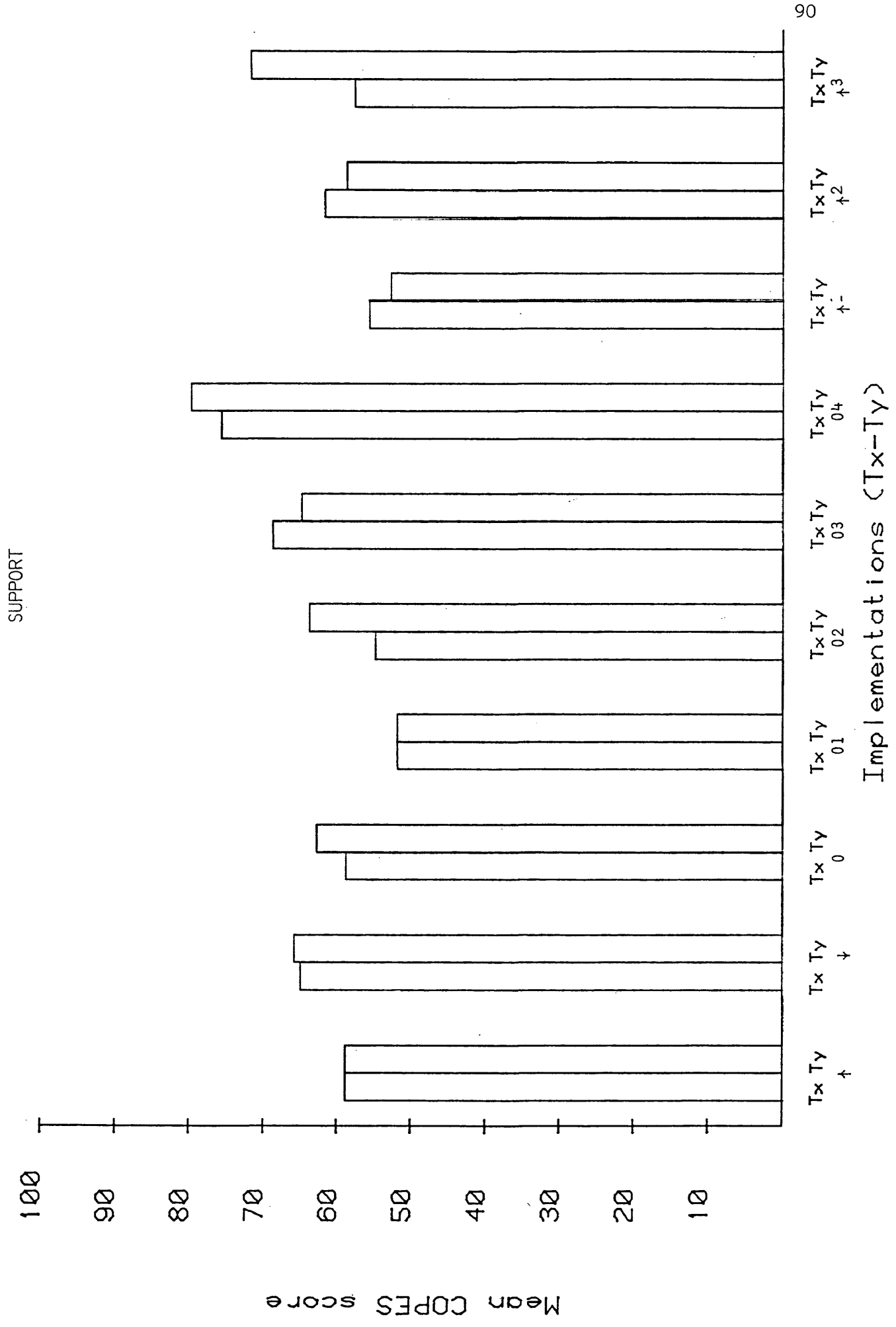
$$R = \frac{88.7 - 142.1}{88.7 + (2 - 1)(142.1)} = -.23$$

Appendix F

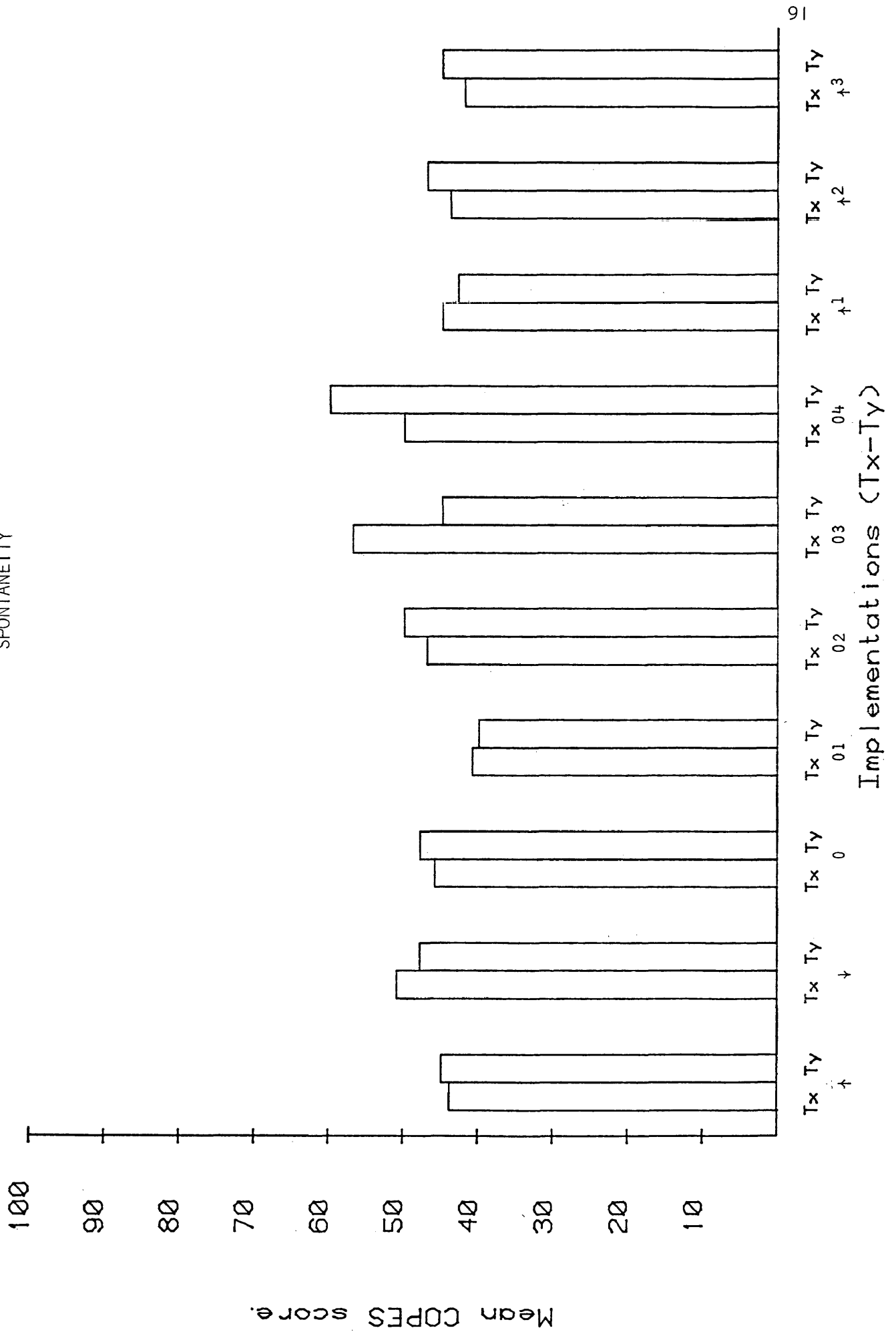
Graphs of actual mean scores for Tx-Ty
comparisons by shift groups.

Family Teacher training shift group code:

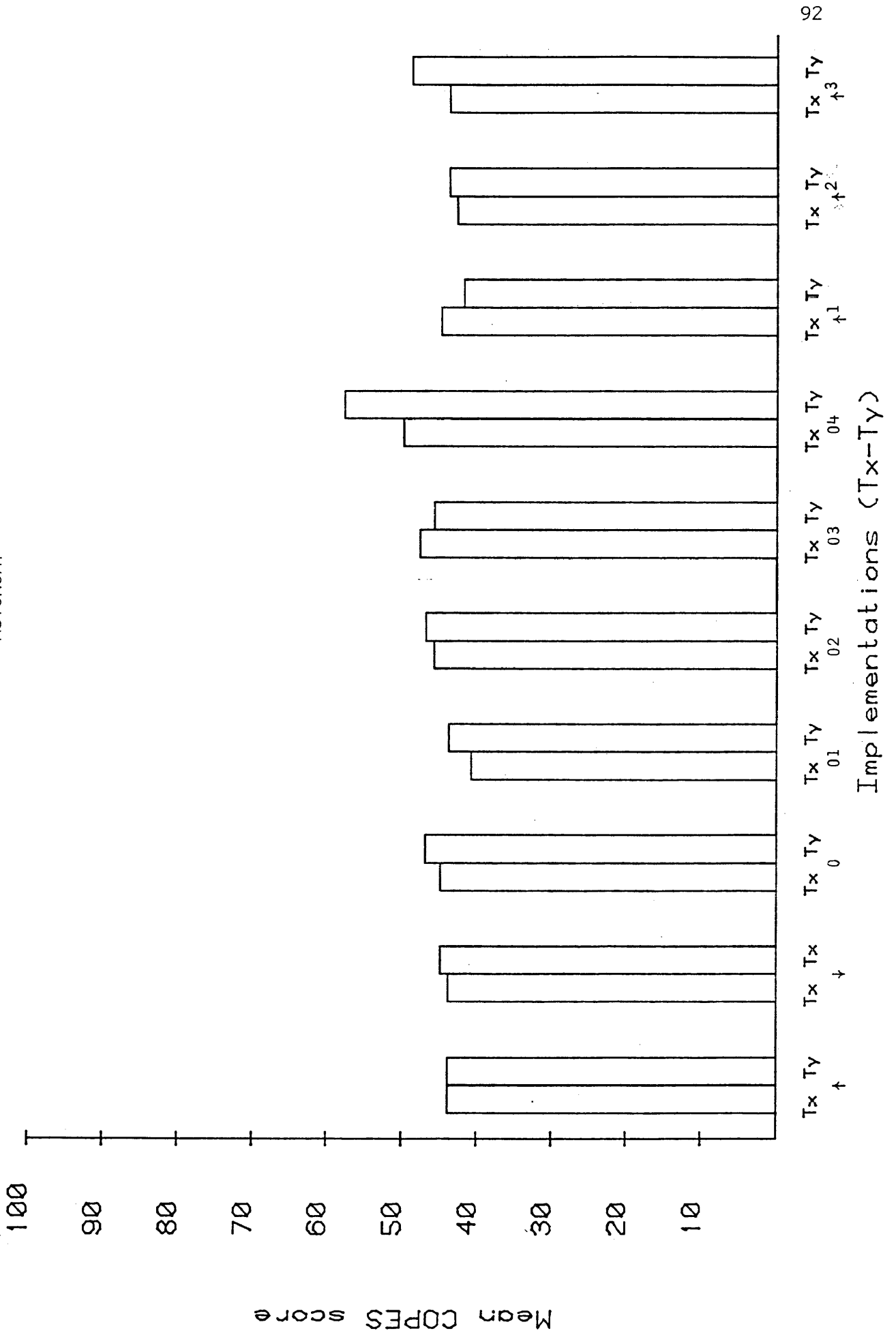
- ↑ = Shifted upward
- ↓ = Shifted downward
- 0 = Remained at the same level
- 01 = Remained at the Untrained level
- 02 = Remained at the Preservice Workshop level
- 03 = Remained at the Major Evaluation level
- 04 = Remained at the Certification Evaluation level
- ↑¹ = Shifted upward from the Untrained level
- ↑² = Shifted upward from the Major Evaluation level
- ↑³ = Shifted upward from the Certification Evaluation level



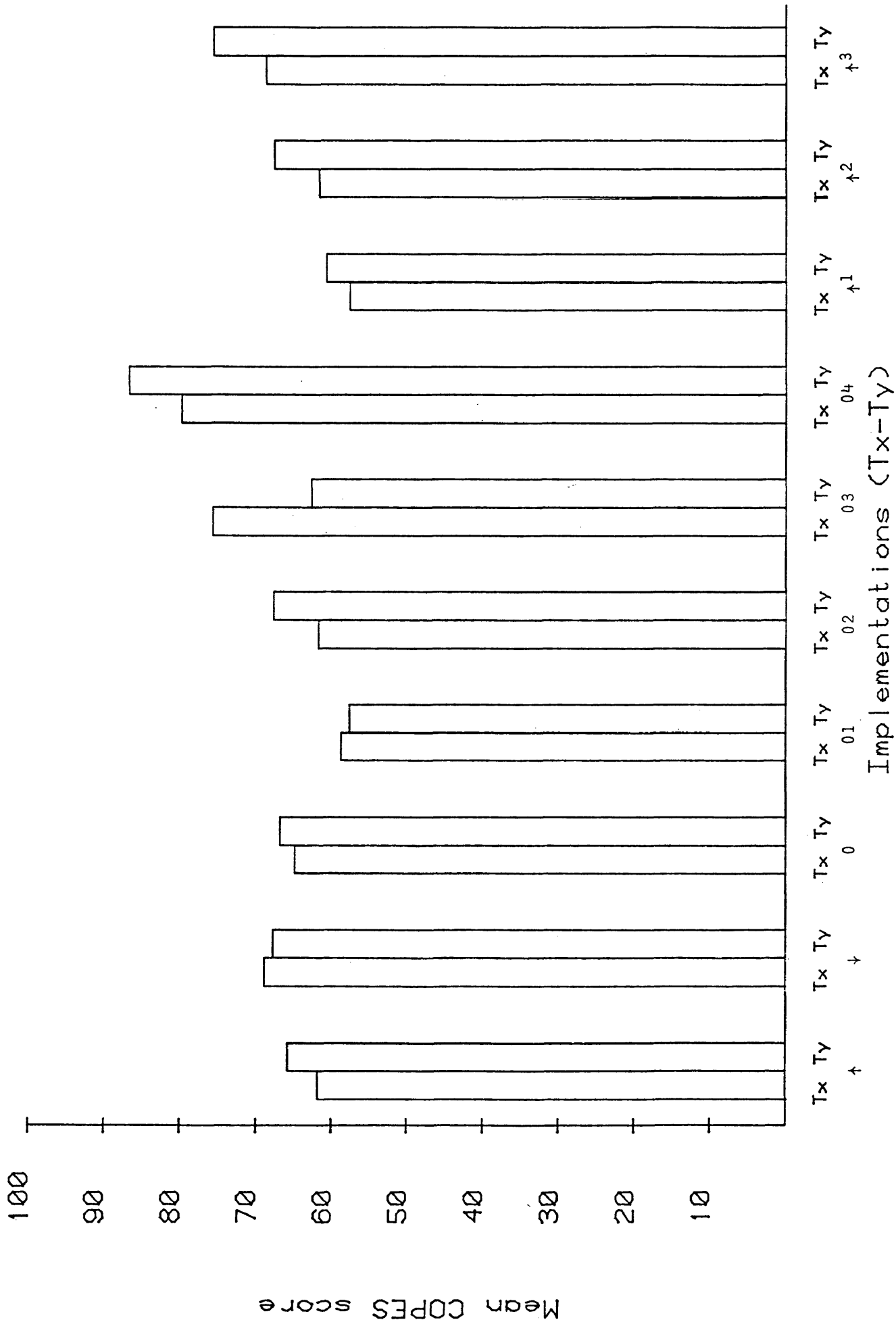
SPONTANEITY



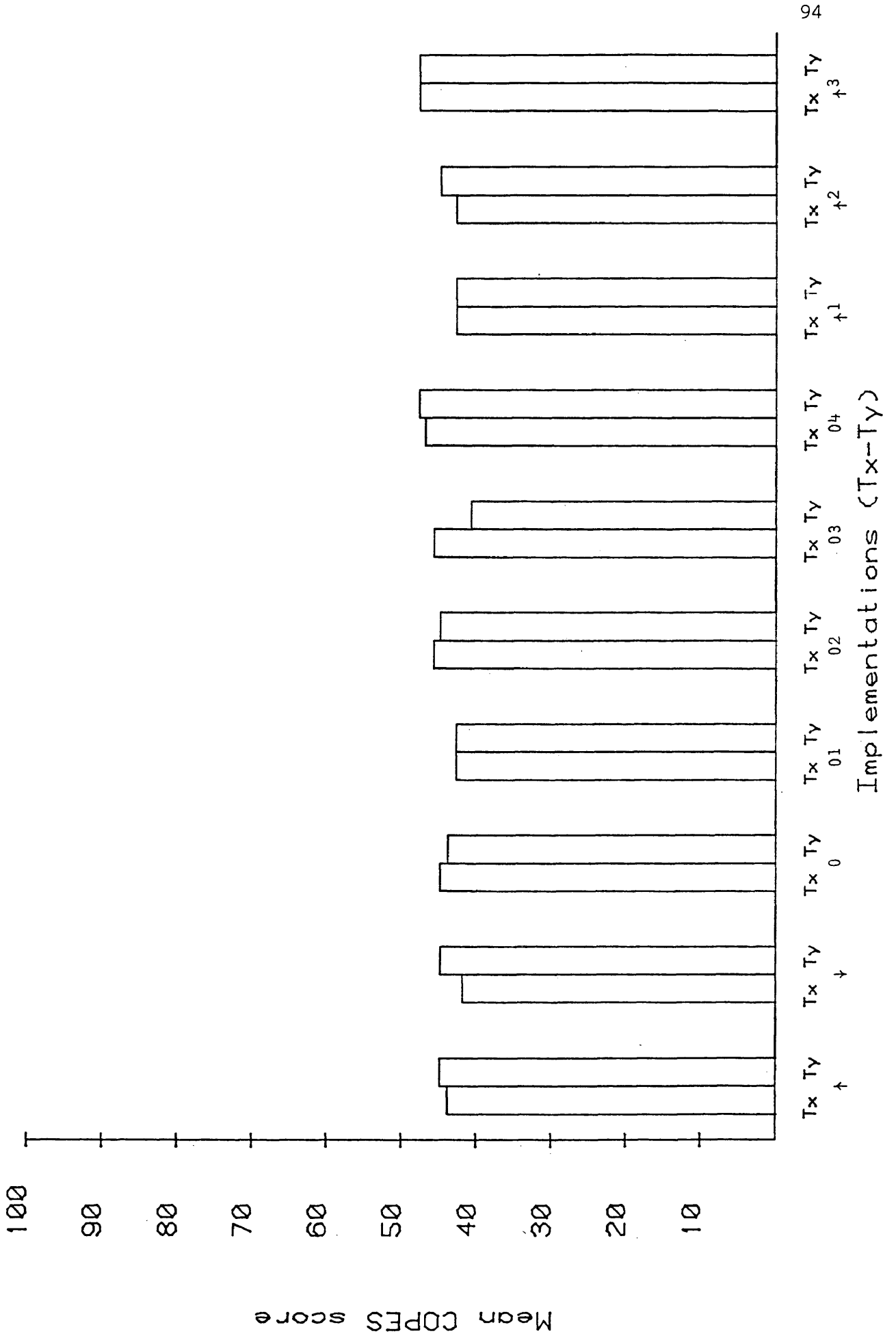
AUTONOMY



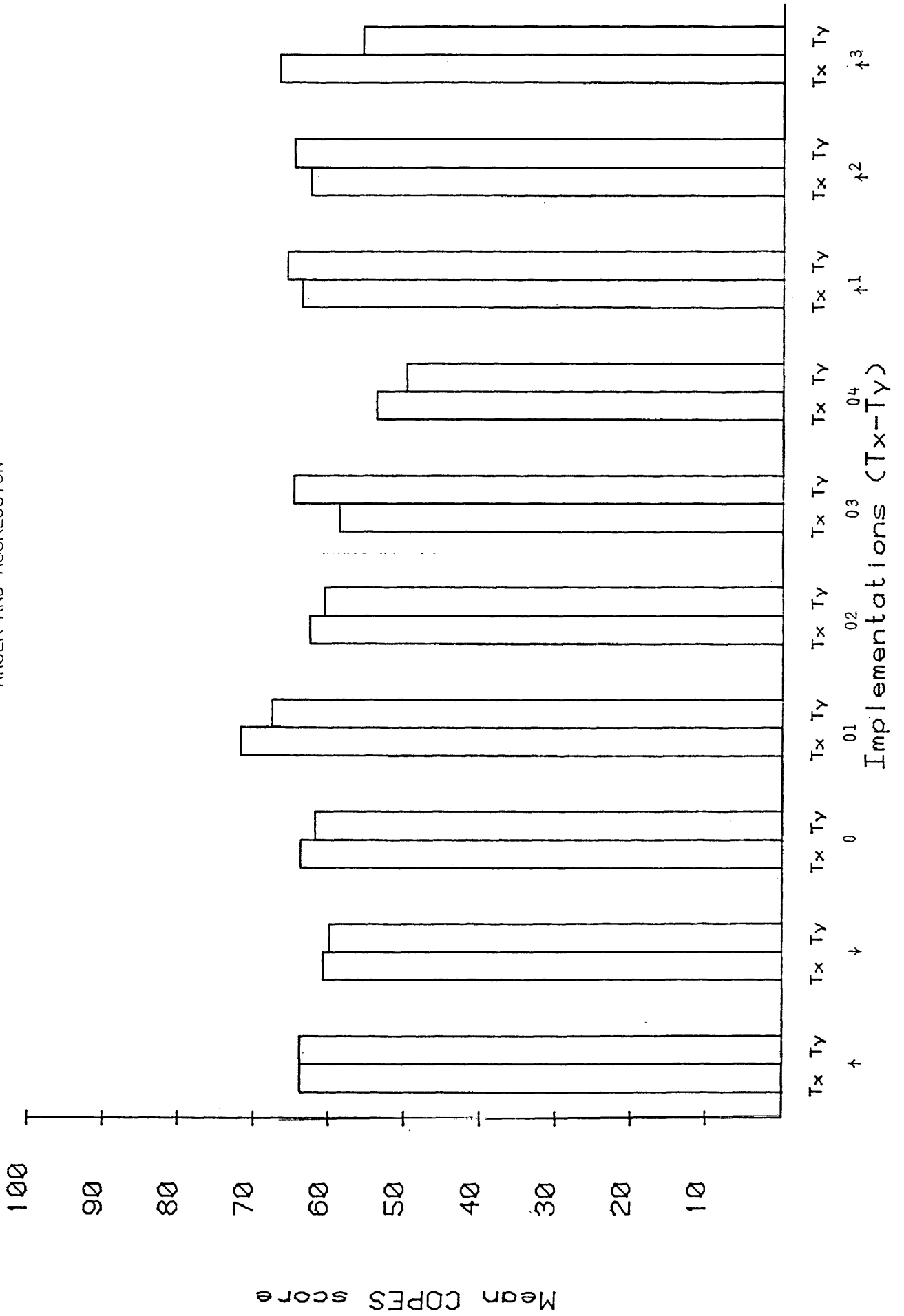
PRACTICAL ORIENTATION



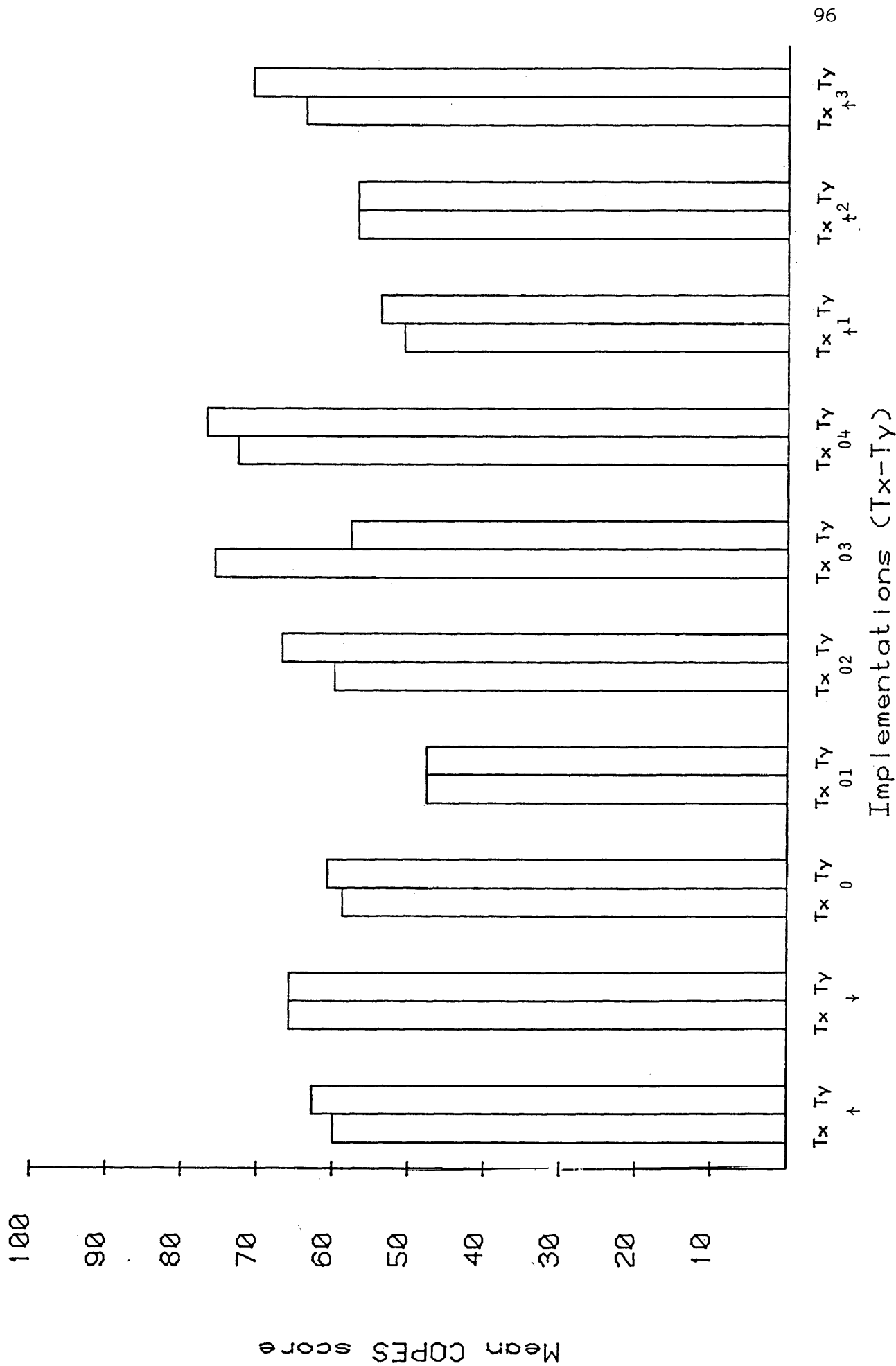
PERSONAL PROBLEM ORIENTATION



ANGER AND AGGRESSION

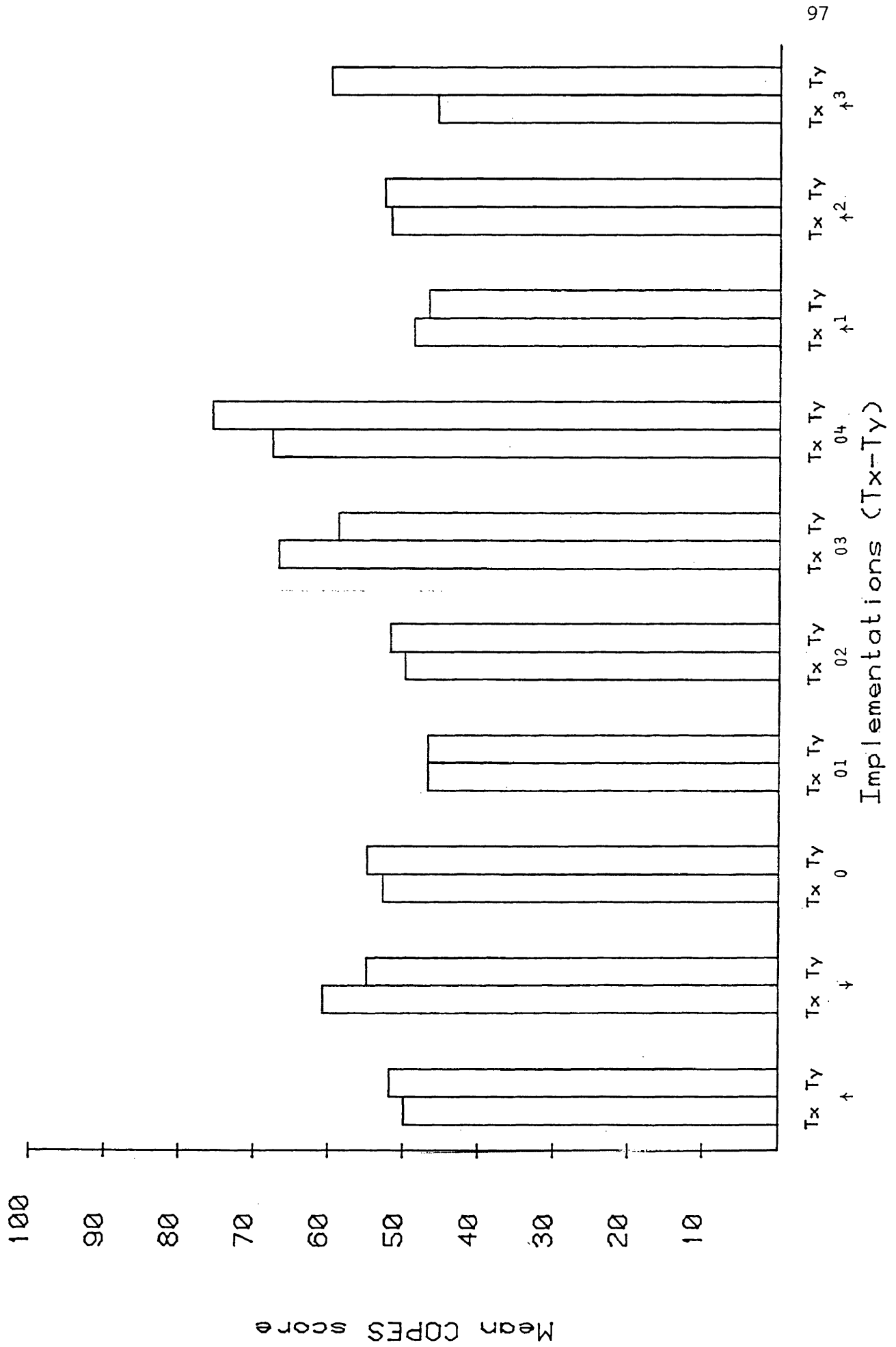


ORDER AND ORGANIZATION



Program Clarity

PROGRAM CLARITY



STAFF CONTROL

