Family TO Family

TOOLS FOR
Rebuilding Foster Care

The Need for Self-Evaluation

Using Data to Guide Policy and Practice

SUMMARY

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Background

The *Family to Family* Initiative was designed in 1992 by the Annie E. Casey Foundation. The framework for the Initiative is grounded in the belief that reforms in family foster care must be focused on a more family-centered approach that is: (1) responsive to the individualized needs of children and their families, (2) rooted in the child's community or neighborhood, (3) sensitive to cultural differences, and (4) able to serve many of the children now placed in group homes and institutions. The Initiative has the following system goals:

❒ To develop a network of family foster care that is more neighborhood-based, culturally sensitive, and located primarily in the communities in which the children live;

❒ To assure that scarce family foster home resources are provided to all those children (but to only those children) who in fact must be removed from their homes;

❒ To reduce reliance on institutional or congregate care by meeting the needs of many more of the children currently in those settings through family foster care;

❒ To increase the number and quality of foster families;

❒ To reunify children with their families as soon as that can safely be accomplished based on the family's and children's needs – not simply the system's time frames;

❒ To reduce the lengths of children's stay in out-of-home care; and

❒ To decrease the overall number of children coming into out-of-home care.

As a result of the experience in *Family to Family* sites, a variety of practical tools has been developed. This booklet describes one such tool – The Need for Self-Evaluation.

Introduction

An explicit premise of *Family to Family* is that its planning, implementation, and evaluation should be guided by clear and specific goals, and that grantees need good performance data to guide them toward those goals. Unfortunately, in spite of the volume of data collected about children in out-of-home care, child welfare managers often are unable to provide quick and reliable responses to questions posed by policymakers and the public.

The only information usually available is a monthly or quarterly snapshot of the caseload of children in care on a given day. This information is essential to maintaining basic management accountability, but it does not capture the experience of *all* children served by the child welfare system. In fact, caseload snapshots are biased toward the experience of children who have the *worst* experiences in out-of-home care. As a result, such data present the child welfare system in a persistently bad light that undermines the confidence of policymakers and the public.

Given this premise, the Foundation sought to build capacity for "self-evaluation" among *Family to Family* states and communities. The thrust of this capacity-building effort was threefold: first, to build databases that tracked children through their experiences in out-of-home care by drawing on data already collected in routine program operations; second, to compile information about children in out-of-home care from a variety of agencies other than child welfare that served families and children (mental health, special education, juvenile justice, etc.); and third, to build self-evaluation teams that would pull together information on a continuing basis, and more importantly, use it to improve child welfare policy and practice.

With support from the evaluation team and other technical assistance providers, and by their own diligent efforts, *Family to Family* grantees developed a variety of tools that helped them plan, manage, and evaluate the initiative. The first set of tools includes the process by which information was gathered, interpreted, and applied to changes in policy and practice. The second set includes specific approaches to analysis that were used in many sites, including longitudinal analysis, population profiles, caseload forecasting, and desktop mapping. The third set of tools includes adaptations to child welfare information systems that produced more useful information and yielded new insights about ways new systems should be designed to maximize their usefulness for planning and evaluation.

The Structure and Process of Self-Evaluation

It is ironic that *Family to Family* seeks to be "data-driven" because many child welfare managers already feel overwhelmed by data. Yet many also regard the data coming across their desks as not very useful for planning or evaluation. More often than not, their experience has been that the information systems used to keep track of children are quite inflexible. The lack of programmers and analysts not devoted to producing routine reports makes it very difficult to get information concerning pressing policy issues. Therefore, *the first step in building a capacity for self-evaluation is to overcome skepticism that data actually can be useful.*

To make better use of data in *Family to Family* it was necessary to create new structures and processes for handling information. This involved:

❏ consolidating and expanding staff resources devoted to generating and disseminating information, and making better use of that information by creating "self-evaluation teams" that included program staff, analysts, and data managers;

❏ building a performance baseline that showed each grantee state and community its history and current status with regard to key *Family to Family* outcomes; and

Child-focused data must be reorganized for statistical use.

❏ using this baseline as a point of departure in each grantee's effort to assess its own progress and adjust policies and practices to bring the agency closer to its goals.

Putting this process in place required two sets of activities. One set focused on developing a structure for self-evaluation by creating a self-evaluation team. The other set of activities concerned the work of the team compiling data, conducting analyses, presenting results, and linking data to planning, management, and evaluation. These activities are described below.

The Structure of Self-Evaluation

As shown in Figure 1, the team model recommended to *Family to Family* grantees included staff representing three distinct perspectives: frontline program staff who had face-to-face interaction with families and children; data managers who helped maintain the information systems supporting the child welfare agency; and analysts who compiled data for routine reporting and for special analyses. In some cases, these roles overlapped. For example, some "analysts" also were involved in data management or served as agency public information officers.

Most people filling the program staff role were supervisors or managers who were asked to devote 15 percent of their time to this work. However, this was a problem in many sites because the managers' workloads were not adjusted to accommodate this new responsibility. So, while program staff were usually able to find time to attend regularly scheduled team meetings, it was difficult for them to commit time to other self-evaluation activities because it competed with their "real" job responsibilities.

These teams were created in order to improve the quality and usefulness of data used for planning, managing, and evaluating child welfare policies, programs, and practices. The teaming of staff was an attempt to meld three distinct perspectives to:

❏ establish data collection and analysis priorities informed by the experience of frontline staff;

❏ produce a better informed and more reliable interpretation of data; and

F I G U R E   1
Model for Family to Family Self-Evaluation Teams
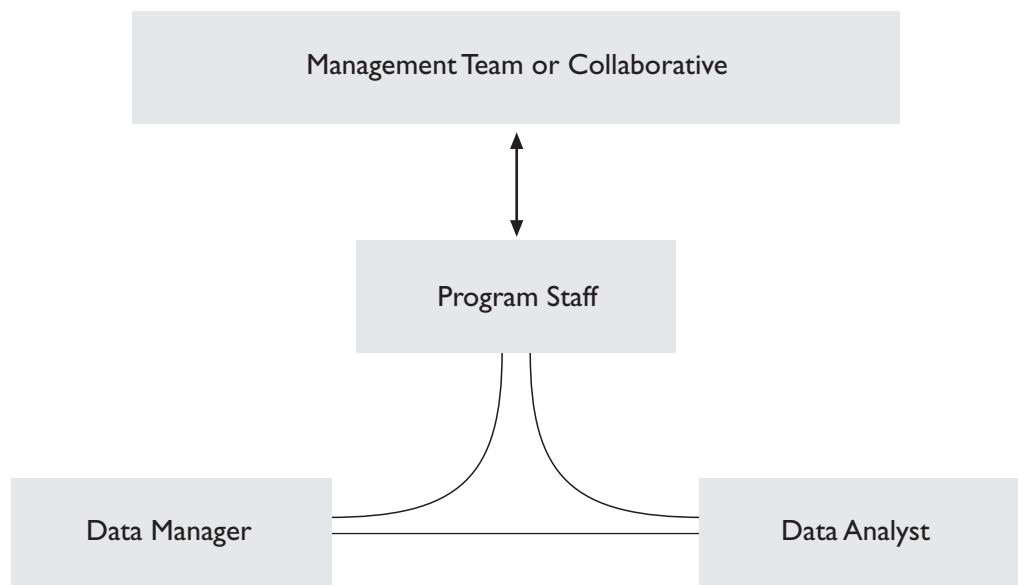
❏ link data to program management and policymaking by overcoming the common detachment of analysts and data managers from program staff in child welfare agencies.

The participation of program staff also provided a stronger link between the self-evaluation team and agency managers than sometimes existed between managers and analysts or data managers. Program staff served as a filter, both in setting the agenda for the work of the self-evaluation team and in sharing findings with managers. Again, team members from the front line must be attuned to current issues facing the agency's clientele, as well as to political pressures facing management. In turn, analysts and data managers can apply their skills more effectively to issues that reflect greater awareness of and sensitivity to the social and political environment within which the agency operates.

Two factors that had a significant bearing on the success of these efforts emerged after the team was formed. These were: 1) the selection of the chairperson for the team and 2) whether agency leaders participated in and gave attention to the work of the team.

In most places, the first impulse was to have the data analyst chair the team. However, this approach failed to recognize the critical importance of program staff people in self-evaluation by tending to revert once again to the traditional view that data really "belong" to analysts. Teams that selected program staff or administrative staff members as their leaders were able to engage *all* participants more quickly in the self-evaluation effort. Some teams that chose co-chairpersons, one a data analyst and the other a program staff member, were particularly effective.

Sites in which a representative from the agency's leadership participated in the team's work seemed to have a better record of sustaining the efforts. For example, participation by an agency deputy director was a signal that this task was important and worth investing the resources required for success.

A final aspect of the structure of self-evaluation concerns state and local relations. In most *Family to Family* states, staff in the state child welfare agency maintained a statewide information system that represented a significant *potential* resource for planning and evaluation. This made it possible to build a single data file that could be analyzed for the state as a whole or for any single locality or group of localities, thereby avoiding duplication of analytical effort. In addition, as we discuss below, the ability to make comparisons across localities provided grantees a basis for assessing their progress relative to historically similar places.

Capitalizing on this opportunity, however, requires a commitment by the state to support self-evaluation by localities and inevitably raises issues around the state's monitoring role. The range of data to be produced for each locality and the specific performance measures that would be developed for them (or with them) are matters that must be negotiated explicitly to ensure that the state can and will honor its commitment.

Evaluative Controls – Keeping Yourself Honest[1]

It is tempting for child welfare program managers to assess their agencies' performance by comparing current outcomes to those of earlier years. However, this simple assessment tends to produce information in a vacuum that leaves the manager vulnerable to attack from agency critics. It ignores a variety of factors that could account for the changes, such as new federal or state policy or the emergence of a new social problem like crack cocaine. Thus, the only statement that can be made on the basis of such a "trend analysis" is, "We're doing better (or worse) than we were."

[1] This section draws on Charles L. Usher, *From social experiments to reform initiatives: implications for designing and conducting evaluations,* paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Evaluation Association, November 1995.

The purpose of creating these teams was to improve the quality and usefulness of data used for planning, managing, and evaluating child welfare policies, programs, and practices.

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Stronger claims of success can be made by basing them on a comparison of changes in outcomes across localities, neighborhoods, agency units, etc. that historically were similar in outcome and other characteristics. This establishes a higher standard by which child welfare managers can "keep themselves honest." Indeed, this sort of common-sense evaluation actually incorporates key aspects of formal evaluations. By tracking outcomes across comparable units or neighborhoods, some of which serve as pilot sites while others serve as comparison sites, managers can significantly strengthen any claims to success they ultimately make.

Figure 2 illustrates this framework in a comparison of changes in outcomes for two neighborhoods, one of which might be a pilot site for neighborhood-based foster care and the other a neighborhood scheduled to implement it later. The first three timepoints (t1 - t3) provide an historical baseline that suggests comparability between Neighborhoods A and B with regard to the outcome of interest. Timepoints t4 through t6 reveal a period when families in both neighborhoods experienced significant improvement in outcomes, perhaps as a result of a factor that

had community-wide impact (e.g., an improvement in the economy or a change in policy). The last four timepoints (t7 - t10) show a difference suggesting that something done in Neighborhood B produced a marked improvement in outcomes that exceeded what was accomplished in Neighborhood A.

This approach to analysis produces more compelling information than either a simple pre- and post-implementation comparison of matched agencies or a time-series (trend) analysis of a single neighborhood. In the former case, the one-shot pre-implementation observation used to match neighborhoods may not be reliable. This design, in contrast, bases pre-implementation comparability on matched time-series or trend data such as those used for statistical forecasting (see the section that follows). Similarly, an isolated analysis of timepoints t1 - t6 for Neighborhood A might have led to the conclusion that efforts to improve outcomes during timepoints t4 - t6 had been uniquely effective. By making the comparison with Neighborhood B, however, it becomes apparent that the improvement could have been part of a county-wide trend and that neighborhood-level improvements were simply part of that broader pattern of improvement.

F I G U R E   2

Improvements in Outcomes for Families in Two Neighborhoods
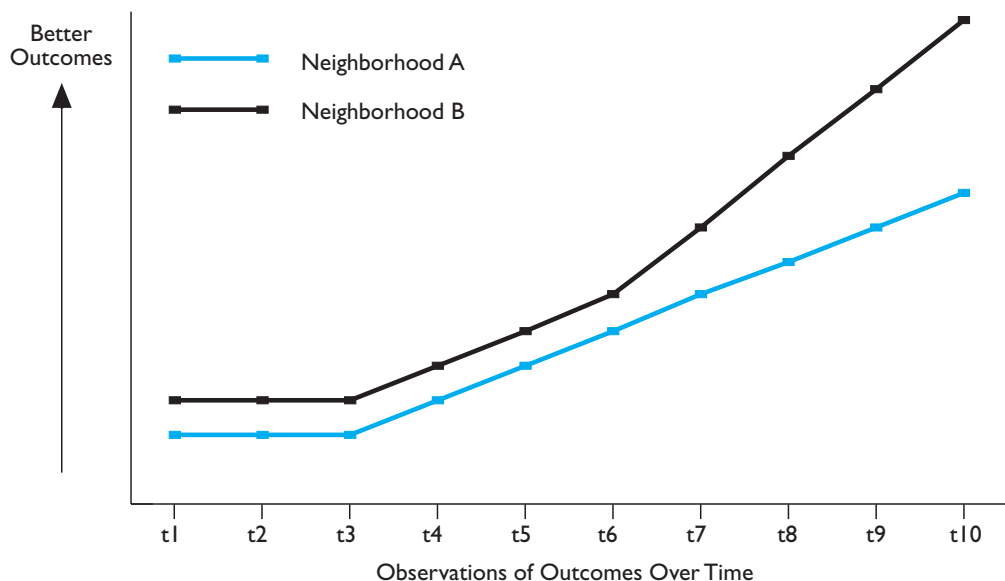
The "analysis" associated with this approach to evaluation will often be qualitative, drawing on the insight and perspective of participants who, depending on the level of comparisons, know the history and current status of their areas. Indeed, it is this intimate knowledge of what an evaluator might term "mediating variables" that enhances the strength of conclusions about improvements. Therefore, while evaluation in *Family to Family* sometimes entailed sophisticated statistical analysis, the objective was to create a framework within which self-evaluation teams – including participants who lacked analytical expertise – could make more informed judgments about whether progress was being made.

Since this process of using data for planning, implementation, and evaluation was so new to child welfare agencies, it was critical to establish a pattern of regular and frequent meetings. These meetings not only provided a venue for the presentation and discussion of results and their implications for the agency but also encouraged staff to keep the work going between meetings with informal discussions and new analyses. *Family to Family* sites varied on their scheduling of meetings. In almost every site, meetings were held at least monthly. However, one site found those inadequate and elected to meet bi-weekly. Another site established a pattern of meeting bi-weekly with the entire self-evaluation group, while co-chairpersons and data analysts met in the off-weeks.

Analytic Tools

Evaluation activities in *Family to Family* emphasized the use of several analytic tools that were new to most participants. These tools included longitudinal databases to track children's experiences in out-of-home care; profiles of children in out-of-home care across all systems that serve families and children; statistical forecasting; and desktop mapping.

Longitudinal Databases

Longitudinal databases are used to track children entering out-of-home care from their initial placement through permanent placement, and in some cases, into subsequent re-entries to care.[2] They include a statistical case history for every child who enters care during a given period. This type of data was emphasized because it offered three advantages:

❑ generalization to *all* children served in out-of-home care, not just those who were "stuck in care";

❑ early indications of the effects of changes in policy and practice, because those changes tended to have the greatest impact on children just coming into care or children diverted from out-of-home care; and

❑ identification of specific groups of children, such as those who came into care for very brief periods and returned home, at whom specific responses could be targeted.

In all but one state, it was possible to build a longitudinal database within six to nine months of initial discussions. As results became available, the evaluation team used briefings to disseminate results, but deliberately delayed producing a written report of baseline findings. This approach helped avoid the finality often associated with publication of "an evaluation." It also encouraged grantees to engage in a dialogue about the validity and reliability of the data, to help the evaluation team make refinements in the database, and eventually, to focus on the findings and their implications. This helped build trust within the self-evaluation team and allowed its members time to deal with information from the analysis.

[2] See Charles L. Usher, Deborah A. Gibbs & Judith B. Wildfire, "A framework for planning, implementing and evaluating child welfare reforms," *Child Welfare*, 74: 859-875.

Longitudinal data follow a selected group of individuals through calendar time until the point at which a specified event occurs or the data become unavailable.

Generally, results of the longitudinal analysis provided a more balanced picture of performance – *some* children were, as is often depicted, very poorly served based on the seven outcomes stressed in **Family to Family**. Most children, however, did not have very long lengths of stay or highly disruptive care, and were unlikely to return to care after achieving a permanent placement. One director, for example, said that the data were a cause for optimism in that they made it possible to identify children who might be targeted for special support and attention (in this case, the one in five children who had more than two placements).

Figure 3 illustrates one type of analysis that can be done with longitudinal data. It compares the rates of exit from care for two groups of children in one **Family to Family** site – those placed in agency foster homes and those placed in private "network" foster homes. The curves indicate that the children placed in network homes left care more slowly, and therefore had longer lengths of stay, than children who were first placed in agency foster homes (the length of stay includes the initial and any subsequent placements before the child left custody).

Population Profiles

One of the goals of **Family to Family** is to eliminate inappropriate placements in out-of-home care. To determine whether this goal is being achieved, it is important to monitor the number of children in care across *all* systems or agencies that provide out-of-home care – child welfare, juvenile justice, mental health, etc. In this way, self-evaluation teams and policymakers may know whether a reduction in the number of children in one system is just the result of moving those children to some other system. The population profile is an analytic tool that can help self-evaluation teams and policymakers do this.

At the beginning of the initiative, **Family to Family** grantees were asked how the child welfare system and other systems that provide out-of-home care responded to families and children. How many children were placed in care? What types of placements were most often used, and by which agencies? What were the demographic characteristics of these children and their families? Were there any patterns or trends within agencies or across agencies?

> *It is important to monitor the number of children in care across all systems or agencies that provide out-of-home care.*

FIGURE 3
Length of Stay for Children Entering Care in 1993
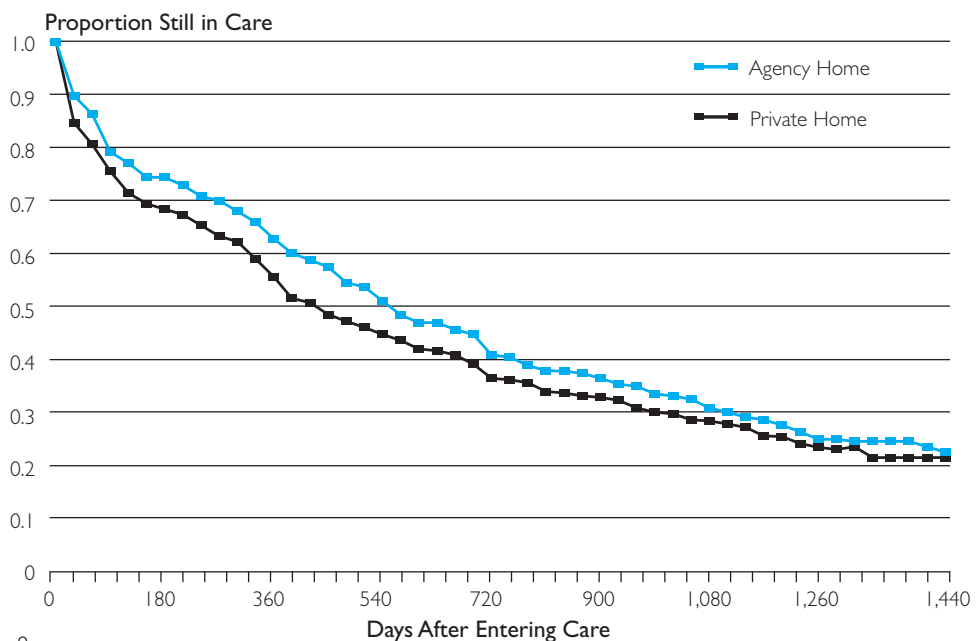
TABLE 1
Generic Population Profile Matrix

Type of Care	Agency								
	Family & Children Services	Public Health	Mental Health	Rehabili-tation	Mental Retar-dation	Youth Services	Substance Abuse	Private Place-ment	Other
Foster Care									
Kinship Care									
Group Homes									
Specialized Foster Care									
Specialty Hospitals									
Acute Care Hospitals									
Institutional Care									
Substance Abuse Programs									
Emergency Shelters									
Detention Facility									
Other									

The process of developing population profiles began with the grantees preparing matrices that arrayed unduplicated (when possible) numbers of children in custody who, at a given point in time, were placed in some type of out-of-home care (See Table 1).

In addition to the count of children in out-of-home care, grantees were asked to obtain the following information for all children or samples of children in each type of out-of-home care:

❏ demographic characteristics of the children;

❏ demographic characteristics of their families;

❏ characteristics of their neighborhoods or communities;

❏ characteristics of the families with whom they were placed;

❏ reasons for placement;

❏ when applicable, the goals of permanency plans;

❏ the unit cost per service; and

❏ preservation attempts prior to placement.

Grantees were asked to obtain unduplicated numbers because some children are served by more than one agency. Including them in each agency's count would inflate the total number of children in care. By unduplicating the numbers, the grantees would also obtain another useful piece of information – the number of children served by multiple systems.

Statistical Forecasting

Many of the goals of *Family to Family* are associated with achieving desired changes in numbers – reducing the numbers of children in out-of-home care, decreasing the numbers of placement disruptions, shifting resources (staff numbers and dollars) from congregate and institutional care to family-centered services, etc. By measuring changes over time, these analyses can contribute to our understanding about whether or not specific goals were achieved during the initiative.

Statistical forecasting, in contrast, allows us to estimate changes expected in the future. For example, projections (forecasts) from data that describe time periods prior to the implementation of *Family to Family* enable us to estimate results for children and families had the initiative not been implemented. All things being equal, comparing these projections with actual data obtained during and after implementation enables us to estimate the impact of *Family to Family*.

Figure 4 shows a forecast graph of the numbers of children in care from January 1994 to June 1996. In the illustration, projections of the numbers of children expected in out-of-home care begin in July 1996 and end in December 1997. Since the projections are statistical estimates, the forecasting software creates confidence intervals around them. The upper and lower limits of the confidence interval define the range within which we are comfortable with our estimates.

F I G U R E   4
Number of Children in Care
Example Data

10
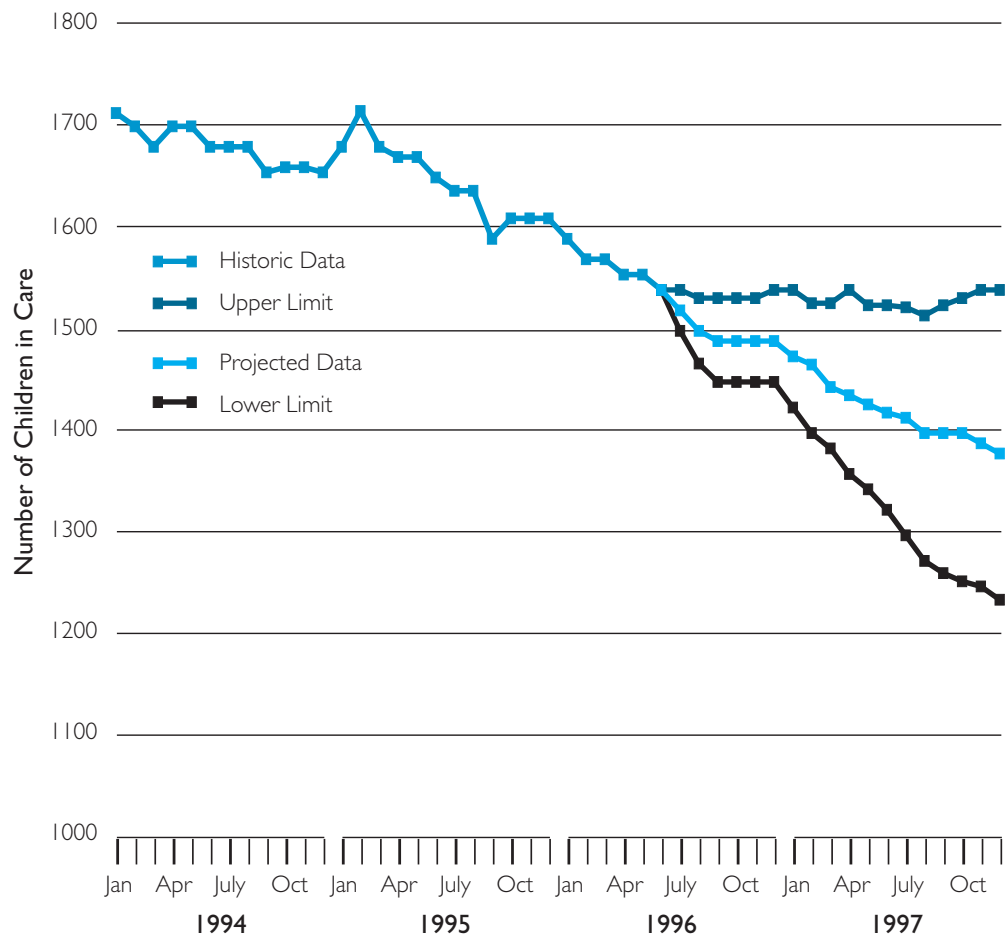
Family to Family grantees used forecasting to project changes in several areas, including numbers of children in different placement categories; different placements and their associated costs; numbers of spaces needed in different placement categories; and others. Projections were made with both state and county data.

Desktop Mapping

A primary goal of *Family to Family* is to develop a network of family foster homes that are neighborhood-based, culturally sensitive, and located primarily in the communities in which children live. Desktop mapping is an analytic tool that can help assess progress in achieving this critical goal. As an analytic tool, desktop mapping is well suited to the goals of *Family to Family* because it can:

- ❐ locate and display clients, resources, and services geographically;

- ❐ perform statistical analyses that involve geographic data (e.g., average distances between foster homes and birth homes); and

- ❐ merge data from different sources using geographic links.

Mapping capability enables social service providers to manipulate and display geographic information. Once available only on very large computers, Geographic Information Systems (GIS) are now available for personal computers and are widely used for marketing research and other purposes.

A variety of data can be used in desktop mapping. In addition to client, family, program, and resource data, other types include the maps themselves, which are usually purchased through commercial sources (not unlike traditional maps or atlases). Map data come in various types including street-based, census tract/block group, zip code, county, or user-defined. An example of a user-defined map

is a neighborhood or an agency's target area.

A state agency typically maintains data that contain placement information for children receiving various services. These data are usually provided in a form that can be easily converted into a database file and read into the desktop mapping package. If street address information is available within the file, the corresponding street-based map data can be used to associate, or *geocode,* each record. Placement data can then be displayed on street-based and other maps of the area (e.g., census tract or zip code).

Improving Access to Information

The *Family to Family* strategy for improving access to information does not focus on hardware and software but on acquiring the data needed to carry out the analyses described above. It allows you to begin looking at the quality of your data early in the reform process. It also facilitates the development of standard reports that show progress on specific problems raised by the broader analyses and that monitor the reforms to resolve those problems. Key principles are:

- ❐ **Build on what you have.** If your child welfare information system already has a program to extract data, build your cohort and profile data extracts on it. In anticipation of getting data from other agencies, use the profile data that are available.

- ❐ **Separate your reporting technology** from the larger information systems that store day-to-day operational data and that produce routine administrative reports.

- ❐ **Rely on existing database or reporting software** to reformat and summarize raw data and present the resulting statistics.

Desktop mapping capability enables social service providers to manipulate and display geographic information.

Barriers in Traditional Reporting Systems

Given federal reporting requirements and the need for information to support federal reimbursement of state expenditures, most states have been capturing important child welfare data for years. Why, then, are the reports these systems produce so different from the analyses described in previous sections of this tool? What are the barriers to information that the *Family to Family* strategy overcomes?

Build on what you have. If your child welfare information system already has a program to extract data, build your cohort and profile data extracts on it. In anticipation of getting data from other agencies, use the profile data that are available.

❏ **Data organization.** Child welfare information systems are organized around an individual child or provider. What services have been provided over time to a particular child? What services has a particular provider rendered? Statistics for self-evaluation, on the other hand, focus on an event during a particular date range. How many children entered foster care each year for the last five years? How many left, and why? What was the population in each type of care on a particular date? Child-focused data must be reorganized for statistical use.

❏ **Programming resources.** Since the data must be reorganized, developing a new report means paying for a few days to a few weeks of a programmer's time, which may not even be available to localities. Moreover, statistical analysis inevitably raises questions. For instance, *why* did the number of children going into foster care decline more in one county than another? With traditional methods, each follow-up question requires another round of programming, cost, and delay. It becomes almost impossible to explore the issues raised.

❏ **System resources.** Child welfare information systems are "transaction-based." They are designed so that a single update or retrieval of information about a single individual takes minimal system resources, and many such transactions can be handled simultaneously. Reading and summarizing large numbers of records for a single analysis, on the other hand, takes a significant amount of system resources. Large reports are therefore usually run at night, and only a few designated programmers are allowed to inquire against the raw data during business hours. It is usually not possible for local managers to access data directly, even where appropriate tools exist.

❏ **Presentation.** We are all accustomed now to the professional-looking tables and graphs that commercial PC packages can generate, and correspondingly unhappy with the hard-to-read standard reports we see. Unfortunately, high-quality text and graphs are usually either unavailable or very expensive on computers large enough to support a state child welfare system.

How to Improve Access to Information

Improving access to information requires several types of resources:

> ❐ An underlying store of data extracted periodically from the central information system and reorganized to accommodate statistical use;
>
> ❐ Hardware and software for retrieving and summarizing relevant data from this reorganized store, and for presenting the resulting statistics as high-quality tables and graphs; and
>
> ❐ A data analyst who will act as project manager while the initial extract(s) are created, who will write the programs to transform the data and who will generate and interpret reports.

The Data Model

The concept of a data model refers to the specific elements to be contained in the management information system where data are collected and stored. The specific items stored in the database, along with the quality of those data, determine the extent to which a self-evaluation team can perform analyses that say something comprehensible and meaningful about the impact of reform.

Older child welfare information systems were built primarily to support federal and state reporting requirements. Current SACWIS guidelines have expanded the functionality of child welfare information systems, but do not address the full scope of data needed to track outcomes. The scope of the data in an information system responsive to evaluation needs is outlined in Figure 5 *(see page 14).*

To develop a data model for your state, you will need a working group to make an assessment of current systems and to develop a plan that will support the chosen model. In doing this, keep the following principles in mind:

> ❐ **The working structure should be formally established.** It should include programmatic and systems staff, as well as bringing in individuals for specialized subjects. The pace needs to move briskly and work sessions should be frequent despite busy schedules. The use of videoconference technology can help to balance the need for frequent work sessions with travel and time constraints.
>
> ❐ **The objectives should be clear and frequently reviewed.** Work sessions and agreements should be documented and based on a formal consensus. In building consensus, particularly on uniform definitions, emphasis should be given to essence and substance rather than semantics that are the usual sources of disagreement.
>
> ❐ **Make use of what exists.** If data dictionaries, entity relationship diagrams, and systems models exist from legacy systems or from other systems designs, build on them.
>
> ❐ **Team spirit and hard work.** Nothing goes so far to help a project along as a good team. The most successful *Family to Family* working committees demonstrated great team spirit and did an enormous amount of hard work. Despite busy schedules and the pressing and emergent nature of work in the child welfare office, team members not only attended all sessions but worked individually and in groups outside the sessions. Whatever the perceived differences among counties about their needs, everyone came to the table with the goal of finding a common ground.

In order for data to be suitable for use in self-evaluation, one has to understand the environment from which they are extracted.

FIGURE 5
Data Categories and Dimensions

Dimension	Cohort	Point-in-Time	Additional
Population	Children whose first out-of-home place- ment* occurs during the selected time; their birth families; and, where applicable, their foster families. *Must be able to distin- guish initial and subse- quent placements even if history is not retained.*	A child in any form of out-of-home placement at the selected time.	Children receiving in-home services and children who are subjects of abuse/ neglect reports; families of those children and families receiving family support or family preservation services; and all foster care families, whether they have placements or not.
Administration	Children's services.	All agencies that place children in any form of out-of-home care.	Children in care: all agencies; other: applicable social services agencies.
Geography	F2F localities, com- parison localities, and the entire state.	F2F localities, compar- ison localities, and the entire state.	Entire state, with ability to focus on specific localities.
Time	A 6-month to 1-year date range, with each preceding cohort revisited when the next cohort is extracted.	As of a particular day, repeated at 6-month or 1-year intervals.	From initial placement in out-of-home care through all subsequent placements, to exit from the system. Ability to capture all re-entries. History maintained.
Level of Detail	Unit record, with common child ID and ability to match child to birth and foster families. Open and closed retained on file. All prior history.	Unit record, with common child iden- tifiers across agencies.	Unit record, with common child ID and ability to match child to birth and foster families.

This figure describes data that support *Family to Family* goals in terms of five different dimensions of scope: population, administration, geography, time, and level of detail. Each dimension is described for the three types of data: cohort, point-in-time, and additional.

Where Can I Learn More?

John Mattingly of the Casey Foundation can refer you to *Family to Family* participants who have firsthand experience with this self-evaluation process and its specific tools. Lynn Usher directs evaluation activities in *Family to Family* and can be contacted about building self-evaluation teams and conducting longitudinal analyses. Stan Schneider directs technical assistance efforts by Metis Associates, Inc. that deal with population profiles, statistical projection, desktop mapping, and information systems.

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