

1
3
5
7
9
11
13
15
17
19
21
23
25
27
29

INSTITUTIONAL CONSTRAINTS ON RESIDENTS IN LONG-TERM CARE FACILITIES FOR THE ELDERLY

QA:1

11 Samantha Sterns and Eva Kahana

ABSTRACT

15
17
19
21
23
25
27

For frail older persons, gaining access to care is primarily in the context of long-term care institutions. Based on hypotheses derived from the theory of the total institution (Goffman, 1961) and anticipatory socialization theory (Merton & Kitt, 1950), linkages of intra-institutional and extra-institutional social ties with quality of life outcomes were assessed based on 168 residents' self-reports of their life and problems experienced in long-term care (Kahana, Kahana, & Young, 1987). Findings reveal that lack of anticipatory socialization was a significant predictor of subsequent wellbeing, whereas the extent of social ties to the outside world did not predict subsequent wellbeing.

INTRODUCTION

31
33
35

With increasing numbers of older adults requiring long-term care in our aging society, understanding the impact of this form of care on wellbeing of care recipients presents an important challenge. Gerontological scholarship

Access, Quality and Satisfaction with Care: Concerns of Patients, Providers and Insurers

Research in the Sociology of Health Care, Volume 24, 1–20

Copyright © 2007 by Elsevier Ltd.

All rights of reproduction in any form reserved

ISSN: 0275-4959/doi:10.1016/S0275-4959(06)24007-9

1 has approached the topic of long-term care delivery through diverse prisms
often reflecting disciplinary orientations of researchers. Accordingly, health
3 service researchers have focused on alternative forms of financing and reg-
ulation as key determinates of both access to care and quality of service
5 provision (Castle, 2006; Kitchener, Hernandex, Ng, & Harrington, 2006).
Political scientists have analyzed long-term care as reflecting “the worst
7 aspects of privatization that is so championed today by new conservative
forces” (Olson, 2006, p. 297). They attribute substandard care to harsh
9 workplace environments dictated by profit motives of nursing home owners.
Anthropologists, in turn, have continued to conduct ethnographic studies of
11 nursing home care that focus on the culture of long-term care environments,
particularly as they reflect negative societal attitudes towards frail residents
13 (Kayser-Jones, Schell, Lyons, Kris, & Chan, 2003). Some see the potential
for “meaning making” by residents who view long-term care facilities as
15 their home and families who can help contribute to a social, rather than the
medical model of care (Stafford, 2003).

17 All of these research traditions converge in lamenting dehumanizing as-
pects of nursing home life and consider long-term care an undesirable sta-
19 tion of last resort for those older adults who are unable to continue to live
independently in the community. Prior research has seldom considered that
21 moving into a long-term care facility may, for some residents, actually be a
preferable option of care, and may not be a last resort. Nevertheless, many
23 older adults do confront stressful situations in diverse institutions for the
elderly (Kahana, 2005). Furthermore, residential long-term care extends
25 beyond walls of the institutional structure, to homes for the aged, assisted
living facilities, adult foster care, and other congregate settings (Mollica &
27 Johnson-Lamarche, 2005).

Prior work on the stressors posed by institutional life is well documented
29 (Goffman, 1961; Gubrium, 1975; Kayser-Jones, 1981; Vladeck, 2003). What
these studies found is that institutional living limits residents’ choices and
31 autonomy. In spite of wide spread attention to problems faced by long-term
care residents, there has been relatively little empirical research applying
33 fundamental social theories, such as the classic works of Goffman (1961), to
explore the lived experience of residents in long-term care facilities.

35 This study seeks to bring sociological insights to understanding the ex-
periences of institutional living by following a group of residents entering
37 diverse long-term care facilities and following them for an eight-month pe-
riod. We argue that the essence of the experience of institutionalization has
39 been incisively defined by Goffman (1961) as related to barriers between the
institution and the outside world. This research therefore examines the

1 impact of macro-level institutional structure for residents; specifically in
2 their experience of institutional barriers and on the impact this has on their
3 quality of life which reflects their satisfaction with care. Additionally, this
4 research examines extra-institutional factors, examining experiences that
5 occurred prior to moving into long-term care (Merton & Kit, 1950). We also
6 place adaptations to institutional life in the context of social structural po-
7 sitions of patients as reflected by demographic characteristics.

8 Social theory speaks of the fundamental challenges for institutionalized
9 patients. This chapter seeks to explore expectations based on major social
10 theories, Goffman’s theory of the total institution (1961), and Merton’s
11 theory of anticipatory socialization (1950) as they apply to residents living in
12 an institutional setting. This study examines one aspect of total institution
13 theory, specifically how much access to the outside world residents have in
14 these long-term care facilities. Additionally, patient characteristics and their
15 influence on quality of life were assessed, including demographic and social
16 structure positions. Merton and Kitt concept of “anticipatory socialization”
17 (1950), which describes the process individuals identify with a group they
18 aim to belong to and how they socialize themselves to that groups norms. It
19 is examined in order to contextualize and to theoretically understand the
20 process and preparations prior to moving into long-term care. Gerontolog-
21 ical research on relocation (Shultz & Brenner, 1977) has revealed consid-
22 erable adverse affects after relocating to institutional facilities. Older adults,
23 who move to long-term care facilities with limited involvement in decision-
24 making, may be expected to experience greater stress even beyond the ad-
25 verse affects due to lacking contact with the outside world.

26 Data from a National Institutes of Health (NIH) funded study will be
27 presented on 168 elderly residents over the age of 75 (Kahana et al., 1987).
28 Respondents resided in 14 urban long-term care facilities, with data col-
29 lected during the early phase of institutionalization when critical adapta-
30 tions occur.

31

32 **THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

33 *Total Institution Theory*

34 Goffman’s theory of the total institution has been universally recognized as
35 key to understanding the impact of institutions on inmates. Goffman char-
36 acterized the “total institution” as an environment where residents live in a
37 congregate setting, with the same group of people, do the same activities
38
39

1 with one another, and live under the same set of rules. Typically, people
2 living under these conditions lose their individualism and live with very little
3 autonomy. Often actual or symbolic barriers prevent patients from entering
4 or leaving the facilities. This causes greater difficulty in contacting and in-
5 teracting with people who live outside of the facilities, including family.
6 Over time, these institutional characteristics will lead to the mortification of
7 the self, and one's self-concept is likely to change. While Goffman's research
8 was conducted on mental institutions, his "total institution" theory has been
9 applied to other institutional settings, including the nursing home
10 (Gubrium, 1993; Savishinsky, 1991; Vladeck, 1980). His conceptualization
11 allows us to test what definitions of self are stable over time and therefore
12 core, and which are more transient, and consequently subject to change in
13 different environments.

14 Goffman's theories have been accepted as classic explanations of insti-
15 tutional life. Works following Goffman's concepts include Beuf, who used
16 the "total institution" framework to guide part of her research on children's
17 hospitals (1989). Goffman's framework served as a prototype for anthro-
18 pologists (Henry, 1963; Savishinsky, 1991) and gerontologists (Gubrium,
19 1993; Vladeck, 1980). These works describe the humiliation, loss of dignity,
20 loss of freedom, and lack of choice experienced by elders placed in an
21 institutional setting, as well as the efforts of residents to adapt to this new
22 environment. In studies focusing on the early impact of institutionalized
23 living, physical and psychological decline was found primarily in the first
24 year of institutionalization (Lieberman & Tobin, 1983). In one qualitative
25 study, Clark and Bowling tested whether the total institution theory held in
26 a long stay hospital ward and in smaller nursing homes for the elderly
27 (1990). They found that the theory only applied to the hospital ward. The
28 research reported here focuses on larger facilities, thus distinguishing it from
29 Clark and Bowling's work. Overall, while many researchers have utilized
30 Goffman's theories in shaping their research, very few have empirically
31 tested them in long-term care facilities for the aged. This research aims to fill
32 this gap.

33

34

Anticipatory Socialization

35
36
37 One is said to have more anticipatory socialization if they voluntarily decide
38 to move, decide to move over a longer period of time, or if the transition was
39 scheduled, where the older person was involved in planning to move. The
40 concept of "anticipatory socialization" originated from Merton's writings.

1 Merton and Kitt proposed the concept of “anticipatory socialization”,
2 which describes the process individuals identify with a group they aim to
3 belong to and how they socialize themselves to that groups norms (1950).

4 Anticipatory socialization is a process or set of experiences in which in-
5 dividuals come to correctly anticipate the values, norms, and behaviors that
6 will be encountered in a new social setting (Merton, 1957). The individuals
7 who become more successfully integrated into a new setting and function
8 more effectively in it are those for whom anticipatory socialization was more
9 effective. While Merton wrote about this process for newcomers on a job,
10 the concept of “anticipatory socialization” has been applied to the moving
11 process into residential care placement (Chenitz, 1983; Nolan & Grant,
12 1992; Nolan, Walker, Nolan, Williams, & Poland, 1996).

13 When older adults move into long-term care, most do not know what to
14 expect and how to act. Those who have visited the home and know more
15 about what to expect will be more comfortable in that environment earlier
16 on, while those who have little understanding of the home would have to
17 observe and learn the new socialization patterns in the home. For this re-
18 search, anticipatory socialization is measured by one’s voluntary or invol-
19 untary decision to move into a nursing home and how quickly the decision
20 to move was made, as well as how reluctant respondents were to moving
21 into long-term care.

23

RATIONALE AND HYPOTHESES

25

26 This research explores one key dimension of Goffman’s theory (1961), ex-
27 amining the barriers institutions create in interacting with others outside of
28 the institution (1961), as well as Merton and Kitt’s concept of anticipatory
29 socialization (1950). While there are several aspects to Goffman’s theory,
30 including living in a congregate setting, doing the same activities with oth-
31 ers, living under the same rules, etc., examining barriers to the outside world
32 is central to conceptualizations of life in the total institution. Furthermore,
33 residents who expect to be linked to the outside world may be particularly
34 vulnerable. These residents face more difficulties when encountering the
35 more totalistic features of the institution. Accordingly, in this sample, some
36 residents have associations with people outside of the institution and others
37 do not. This affords the possibility to examine whether more contact with
38 the outside world impacts residents’ psychological wellbeing.

39 Two alternative hypotheses are presented as related to the influence of
extra-institutional and intra-institutional influence on residents’ quality of

1 life. The first hypothesis examines the negative impact that institutional
2 barriers have on residents in long-term care facilities for the elderly. Hy-
3 pothesis 2 refers to the potentially positive impact of anticipatory social-
4 ization. Those residents better prepared for the move and more involved in
5 the decision to move were expected to have better subsequent quality of life.

7

Institutional Barriers

9

10 Hypothesis 1 was tested by examining residents' social connectedness to the
11 outside world, measured after eight months of living in the institution.
12 Typologies were created from a question that asks, "At the present time,
13 who are you close to?" and probes respondents with the question, "anyone
14 else". Answers were coded into three typologies. First, Typology 1, "close
15 associations inside the institution only", refers to residents who indicated
16 that they were close to other residents or staff, but not with family or outside
17 friends. Second, Typology 2, "close associations outside the institution
18 only", refer to residents who indicated being close to a family member and/
19 or friends outside of the institution, but not with staff or residents inside the
20 institution. Spouses were included in this category whether or not they also
21 lived in the institution. Third, Typology 3, "close associations both inside
22 and out of the institution", was coded to include residents who have as-
23 sociations with both someone inside the institution and someone outside of
24 it.

25 Residents who lack contact with someone outside of the facility (Typol-
26 ogy 1) are expected to experience the impact of a total institution more
27 strongly than those who have associations with someone outside of the
28 institution (Typologies 2 and 3). This is due to the presumption that res-
29 idents would like to continue their old friendships and continue to bond and
30 interact with their family who live in the community. Therefore, it was
31 anticipated that having no connections with people outside of the institution
32 (Typology 1) will lead to more adverse outcomes. Typology variables were
33 correlated with outcome measures, measured at time 3, in order to test the
34 hypotheses.

35

37

Anticipatory Socialization

38 Aspects of preparedness for the move were correlated with outcomes, to
39 determine how they impact quality of life. By examining anticipatory

1 socialization, we were able to determine whether the institution represented
2 a place of last resort, or whether the institution represented a dwelling place
3 where one chose to be. If anticipatory socialization had a greater impact on
4 outcomes than social typologies, it would support the alternate hypothesis.
5 Anticipatory socialization was measured by three single items including re-
6 spondents' eagerness to move, the time to decide to move to the institution,
7 and who made the decision to move. Furthermore, if residents who opted to
8 live in long-term care, and therefore had more anticipatory socialization,
9 resulted in better quality of life, it would mean that the institution did not
10 represent a total institution type setting. Rather, it is one's orientation and
11 expectations prior to entering long-term care that determined how over-
12 bearing the institutional structure was for a new resident.

13 Background characteristics are considered in order to describe the sample
14 studied in this research. Additionally, bivariate correlations with quality of
15 life measures were assessed in order to determine the impact of social struc-
16 tural positions on the wellbeing of residents. Interview questions assess re-
17 spondents' gender, age, country of birth, number of children, and religious
18 affiliation. Residents' cognitive impairment as reflected in memory deficits,
19 measured through the mental status questionnaire, is assessed at the time
20 just prior to residents moved into the facilities for the aged (Kahn, Gold-
21 farb, Pollack, & Peck, 1960). The scale provides a brief, objective, and
22 quantitative measurement of cognitive functioning of older adults, appro-
23 priate for patient samples (1960). Questions assessed respondents' orienta-
24 tion, including knowing the day's date, who the president was currently, and
25 who the president was before him (10 items). Scores ranged from 0 to 10,
26 with 10 representing no errors ($\alpha = 0.73$).

27 The outcome measures included morale and self-rated health. Morale was
28 measured by a subset of Lawton Morale Sale that included questions on
29 loneliness and dissatisfaction, with scores that ranged from six to twelve,
30 with higher scores representing higher morale (Lawton, 1975). For the
31 sample, the alpha reliability on this scale was 0.75. Self-rated health (Liang,
32 1986) was measured by a two item index, composed of the questions: health
33 compared with others your age and health compared with three to four
34 months ago measured, with the items summed together. The self-rated
35 health scale ranged from zero to eight, with as core of eight representing the
36 best-reported health.

37

39

FINDINGS

Institutional Setting and Sample Characteristics

Respondents in this sample relocated to 14 different long-term care facilities in two large, urban, midwestern cities. Homes were both proprietary and non-profit charitable or religious institutions. The average size of the facilities was 203 beds, with none less than 100. Patients were admitted to self-care or intermediate care divisions. The homes were licensed, either with nursing home licensure or with board and care home licensure. Of the fourteen homes, four were non-sectarian, and eleven of the homes were religiously sponsored, with five Jewish, four Protestant, and two Catholic institutions. While religiously based, the homes did not limit residence to those who practiced that faith.

Sample characteristics reported here include those reported in Table 1 as well as additional data that are reported only in the text. Examining demographic characteristics, the majority of respondents are female (77.4%) and in their late seventies (mean age 78.5 years). Race of respondents was predominately caucasian (97.2%), with only 2.8% being African American. Additionally, a very large sub-population (37.6%) was born outside of the United States, reflecting the high rates of immigration that occurred in the late 19th century and early 20th century, when this population was born. This trend is further supported with the even higher percentages of respondents whose mother and father were born outside of the United States (59.4%, 60.8%, respectively) (not in tables).

Examining family characteristics, marital status, and information on children are reported here. Residents' marital status reveals that the majority was widowed (65.1%), with a small but significant portion still married (16.3%). Furthermore, 9% of the sample was divorced or separated at the time they moved into the institution, while 9.6% never married. Residents had an average of two children, with about one quarter (23.2%) having had no children (not in tables). A small sub-group had four or more children (16.8%). Most of these respondents with living children had a son or daughter living nearby (mean = 1.7, standard deviation = 1.5). Cognitive functioning of respondents when entering the long-term care institutions was fairly good with respondents having relatively few errors on the mental status questionnaire, thus representing a fairly healthy sample (mean = 8.6).

Table 1. Descriptive Results of Demographic and Sample Characteristics.

Study Measures	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Distribution	% (N)
Gender		Female	77.4 (130)
		Male	22.6 (38)
Age		52–65	2.6 (4)
		65–74	29.6 (45)
	78.5 (7.7)	75–84	44.1 (67)
		85–94	23.7 (36)
			(Missing = 16)
National origin		Born in the USA	62.4 (103)
		Born outside of the USA	37.6 (62)
			(Missing = 3)
Number of children who live in nearby area	1.7 (1.5)	0	20.4 (28)
		1–2	57.7 (79)
		3	8.0 (11)
		4–7	13.9 (19)
			(Missing = 31)
Religious affiliation		Protestant	45.3 (73)
		Catholic	18.0 (29)
		Jewish	31.7 (51)
		Other	5.0 (8)
Cognitive functioning	8.6 (1.9)	1–4, most errors	4.5 (7)
		5–7	19.7 (31)
		8–9	21.7 (34)
		10	54.1 (85)

Note: N = 168. Percentages reported based on number of non-missing cases.

Descriptive Findings

Table 2 reports descriptive results on anticipatory socialization. Anticipatory socialization was considered using several measures. A surprisingly large proportion of residents were eager to move into long-term care (39.6%). We found that for the most part, respondents had over six months lead time from the time they decided to move, to when they actually moved (49.7%), while 22% had less than a month’s lead time prior to moving. The decision to relocate to the institution was generally made jointly between the current resident and others (47.8%). However, many residents did make the

Table 2. Descriptive Results on Anticipatory Socialization.

Study Variables	% (N)
Eagerness to move	
1: Eager to move	39.6 (63)
2: Somewhat willing to move	41.5 (66)
3: Reluctant to move	18.9 (30)
Time to decide to move to institution	
7-8: One or more years ago	34.6 (55)
6: 6 months to one year ago	15.1 (24)
4-5: 1-6 months ago	28.3 (45)
1-3: Within the last month	22.0 (35)
The decision to move was made by	
1: Yourself only	43.5 (70)
2: Jointly with others	47.8 (77)
3: Others only	8.7 (14)

Note: N = 168. Percentages based on total number of cases, not including missing data.

decision to move by themselves (43.5%). Finally, a small, but important group had the decision to move being made completely by others (8.7%). This pattern suggests that voluntary rather than involuntary relocation was normative for our sample.

Descriptive results on quality of life measures are reported in Table 3. Regarding morale, about one-third of respondents had the highest morale, while about 17% had the lowest scores. Finally, looking at self-rated health, 63.3% of respondents rated their health as “good” or “excellent” as compared with others their age, while about 11% rated it as “poor” or “very poor” in comparison. Furthermore, 21.5% reported their health as “better” or “much better” than three to four months prior, while 24.1% rated it as “worse” or “much worse”.

Typology variables were created to test whether residents who associate with people only inside the institution impact health and quality of life outcomes (Table 4). Residents mostly fell under Typology 2 (65.6%), with most having close associations with people exclusively outside of the institution. About 16% of residents had close associations with people exclusively inside the institution and about 13% of residents had associations with people both inside and outside of the institution. This pattern represents a noteworthy departure from expectations based on Goffman’s total institution theory on relocation where few residents reported being cutoff from the outside world.

Table 3. Descriptive Data on Quality of Life Measures.

Study Measures	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Distribution of Scores	% (N)
Lawton Morale Scale	10.3 (1.8)	6–8	16.9 (27)
		9–10	25.6 (41)
		11	25.0 (40)
		12	32.5 (52)
		(Highest morale)	(Missing = 8)
Self-rated health (SOPH)	3.4 (1.5)	7–8	29.1 (48)
		5–6	50.3 (83)
		3–4	18.1 (29)
		1–2	3.1 (5)
		(Worse health)	(Missing = 3)
SOPH item 1: Health compared to others	2.3 (1.0)	5 – Excellent	20.4 (30)
		4 – Good	42.9 (63)
		3 – Fair	25.9 (38)
		2 – Poor	7.5 (11)
		1 – Very poor	3.4 (5)
Item of SOPH: Health compared to 3–4 months ago	3.1 (0.8)	5 – Much better	2.0 (3)
		4 – Better	19.5 (29)
		3 – Same	54.4 (81)
		2 – Worse	20.1 (30)
		1 – Much worse	4.0 (6)

Note: N = 168. Percentages based on number of non-missing responses.
 SOPH: Subjectively rated overall physical health.

Table 4. Typology of Connectedness with the Outside World.

Study Measures	Distribution	% (N)
Typology 1: Are association exclusively inside the institution?	No	84.5 (142)
	Yes	15.5 (26)
Typology 2: Are association exclusively outside the institution?	No	34.5 (58)
	Yes	65.6 (110)
Typology 3: Are association both inside and outside the institution?	No	87.5 (147)
	Yes	12.5 (21)

1 *Bivariate Correlations*

3 Anticipatory socialization, social typologies, and demographic characteristics were correlated with physical health and morale after eight months of
 5 living in the long-term care facilities (Table 5). Results show that if respondents were more reluctant to move into the long-term care facility, than
 7 they rated their health significantly more negatively after eight months in the institution ($r = -0.21$). Conversely, residents with associations exclusively
 9 inside of the institution (Typology 1) had significantly better self-rated health than either Typologies 2 or 3 ($r = -0.21$). Quality of life, as measured
 11 by morale, was not significantly related to any of the typology variables (Table 5). However, respondents who were more reluctant to move had
 13

15 **Table 5.** Associations between Demographic, Anticipatory Socialization, and Social Connectedness and Quality of Life Outcome¹.

QA :2

		Self-Rated Health ^a Morale ^a	
		<i>r</i>	<i>R</i>
<i>Demographic and personal characteristics</i>			
21	Gender (women = 1)	0.00	0.04
	Age	-0.08	-0.31***
23	National origin (born outside the US = 1)	-0.22**	-0.27**
	Number of children who live nearby	-0.16	0.05
	Religion – Protestant	0.21**	0.22**
25	Religion – Jewish	-0.10	-0.25**
	Religion – Catholic	-0.05	0.09
27	Cognitive functioning	-0.13	0.03
<i>Anticipatory socialization</i>			
29	Reluctance to move	-0.21**	-0.29***
	Time to decide to move	0.01	-0.01
31	Decision to move made by others	-0.14	-0.13
<i>Social connectedness</i>			
33	Typology 1: Close associations exclusively inside the institution	0.21**	0.09
	Typology 2: Close associations exclusively outside the institution	-0.06	-0.09
35	Typology 3: Close associations inside and outside the institution	-0.01	0.09

Note: $N = 168$.

* $p < 0.05$, two-tailed.

** $p < 0.01$, two-tailed.

*** $p < 0.001$, two-tailed.

^aHigher values represent better health, morale, and functioning.

1 significantly lower morale scores ($r = -0.29$). Finally, demographic char-
acteristics did appear to significantly impact quality of life, with being
3 Protestant and having been born in the United States related to better self-
ratings of health ($r = 0.21$, $r = -0.22$, respectively). Furthermore, older,
5 foreign born, and Jewish residents experienced lower morale than their
counterparts ($r = -0.31$, $r = -0.27$, $r = -0.25$, respectively). Results point
7 to the importance of extra-institutional factors as well as demographic
characteristics in helping to shape residents perceptions of quality of life in
9 long-term care facilities.

11

DISCUSSION

13

This research examined issues involving provision of care to residents in
15 long-term care facilities for the elderly. We considered aspects of life com-
mon to all residents living in long-term care facilities for the elderly. Spe-
17 cifically, the factors that impact residents prior to moving to long-term care
were evaluated. They include the impacts of decision-making prior to enter-
19 ing the institution and linkages with representative of the outside world
after entering the institution. Interviews with residents show that the long-
21 term care facilities studied did not represent a total institutional type en-
vironment. Furthermore, stressors faced within the home did not have as
23 great an impact on quality of life as was expected. Rather, extra-institutional
factors that precipitated the move had a stronger impact on quality of life
25 for residents, reflecting their satisfaction with care. This study found that
factors relating to the older adult and to their circumstances prior to moving
27 into long-term care had a greater impact on their quality of life than did
intra-institutional factors, which included linkages with the outside world
29 representing problems experienced in the institutional setting.

These data were collected on elderly people entering long-term care fa-
31 cilities in the 1970s (Kahana et al., 1987). The study was based on a sample
of 168 residents entering 14 different non-profit homes in two metropolitan
33 areas. We anticipated that universal theories about stressors of institution-
alization were applicable to these elderly, particularly, as these social the-
35 ories were developed in the 1950s and 1960s, close to the era when our data
was collected. Descriptively, findings show limited support for the theory of
37 the total institution, where few residents encountered the stressors, defining
a totalistic environment (Goffman, 1961). This limits the opportunity to test
39 the theory, because of insufficient variability of defining characteristics of
the total institution. Our findings are important in demonstrating that

1 institutional environments need not diminish access to social ties with the
outside world.

3 Residents, for the most part, were not cut off from the outside world. In
these institutional settings, only a minority of residents (15.5%) lacked close
5 associations with family or friends outside of the long-term care setting, with
66% of the sample reporting being close only to family or friends outside of
7 the institution. Previous research (Noelker & Poulshock, 1984) found similar
findings, where of the 40 respondents in one private residential home,
9 almost 70% reported that they were close to family members or friends
outside the home. The continuing maintenance of outside social ties was
11 also reported in research by Bitzan and Kruzich (1990), who found that the
vast majority of residents in 54 nursing homes (87%) had close associations
13 with at least one person outside of the homes, with some of these residents
having associations with people inside the home as well, and only 5% of
15 their sample who had limited associations to people in the institution. Results
from these studies support our findings. Our results suggest is that for
17 the most part, residents did have access to their family and friends outside of
the institutions and did not experience a total institution type environment.
19 Therefore, contextually, Goffman's theory did not apply for this sample and
adverse impacts of severed ties with the outside world (a defining feature of
21 total institution theory), could not be adequately tested.

An interesting question is raised by our data regarding the universal nature
23 of the totalistic institutional features, particularly in terms of absence of
linkages between the social world of residents and the outside world. While
25 this sample reflects newly institutionalized persons in an earlier era, Goffman's
theory was developed around the same time frame as when the data
27 was collected. Despite data not supporting Goffman's theories in this setting,
we do not believe that data from our research assails the fundamental
29 tenets of total institution theory. Rather, we find evidence of diversity in the
degree of totalistic features among institutions.

31 Characteristics of this sample may be attributable to these low rates of
experiencing a more total institution. This study had relatively few residents
33 with cognitive impairments, with only 15% of the sample with some impairment,
who answered four or more questions incorrectly. This compares
35 with 51% of nursing homes residents on average were cognitively impaired
and with 23–42% of residents with cognitive impairment in assisted living/
37 residential facilities (Zimmerman, Gruber-Balidini, Sloane, Eckert, & Hebel,
2003). High rates of good cognitive functioning may have contributed to
39 this sample being able to maintain their social connections, whereas studies
that include a more cognitively impaired sample may find that residents lose

1 these connections. Furthermore, as the institutions in this research were
2 non-profit, our findings do not rule out expectations that residents in for
3 profit homes experience greater barriers in connecting with family and
4 friends outside the institutional walls (Olson, 2006). Finally, it may be that
5 over time, residents in present day long-term care institutions experience
6 increased barriers and frailer residents now entering institutions since the
7 data was collected.

8 We acknowledge evidence from other studies of persisting barriers be-
9 tween the institution and representatives of the outside world. A few studies
10 point to the potential increase in family involvement that can occur. Spe-
11 cifically, Stafford found that some family members were able to interact on a
12 closer emotional and personal basis with residents, now that they no longer
13 had to provide physical care for them (2003). However, other empirical
14 research found a reduction of family involvement post-institutionalization.
15 Port, Gruber-Baldini, Burton, Baumgarten, and Hebel (2001) found that
16 from 1,441 interviews with significant others of residents in nursing homes,
17 contact decreased by about half after residents were admitted, as compared
18 with contact pre-admission. In another study, Port considered 93 nursing
19 home family caregiver-resident pairs to examine the barriers to family in-
20 volvement (2004). Results show that fewer visits by family members was due
21 to caregivers having more difficulty finding transportation, having poorer
22 relationships with the staff, and to caregivers having a smaller supportive
23 network of family and friends. Additionally, Yamamoto-Mitani, An-
24 eshensel, and Levy-Storms found among the 210 relatives of nursing homes
25 residents with dementia, those who visited the resident more often were the
26 spouse of a resident, were less educated, had a previous close relationship
27 with resident, had a strong sentiment against placement, and lived closer to
28 the facility (2002). What these studies suggest is that for long-term care
29 institutions in more recent times, families may be facing barriers to inter-
30 acting with residents in these institutions. Overall, while previous research
31 did indicate the limitations placed on families in maintaining contact with
32 residents in long-term care, this occurrence only happened for a small pro-
33 portion of this sample (16%). This does not negate the importance of un-
34 derstanding barriers, but does underscore that for many residents in some
35 institutions, these barriers are not as severe.

36 Merton and Kitt's concept of anticipatory socialization was applied to
37 this institutionalized sample (1950) in an effort to better understand extra
38 institutional influences on residents' quality of life. While much of the lit-
39 erature assumes that older adults did not want to move to long-term care,
40 this research found fairly high levels of anticipatory socialization where only

1 a small portion felt reluctant to move (10.9%), did not have input in the
2 decision process involved prior to moving (8.7%), and/or abruptly decided
3 to move within the last month (22.9%). Therefore, for a vast majority of
4 residents, moving into long-term care represented a move they preferred to
5 make.

6 Results from this sample show higher levels of involvement and choice on
7 the part of residents to be in these institutions than did previous research.
8 While this research found that 44% of this sample made the decision to
9 move on their own, a qualitative study on 52 older adults' respondents
10 found that only 24% of their sample made the decision to move by them-
11 selves (Nakashima, Chapin, Macmillan, & Zimmerman, 2004). Further-
12 more, researchers found that the transition into a nursing home is typically
13 involuntary, with the decision to move into a long-term care facility often
14 made by others, where many may enter one against their will (McAuley &
15 Travis, 1997; Thorson & Davis, 2000; York & Caslyn, 1977). Our study,
16 contrary to more recent studies found higher levels of anticipatory social-
17 ization of respondents. Differences may be due to this sample entering fa-
18 cilities for the elderly when they were more physically healthy and had better
19 cognitive functioning. Future studies could expand upon the work on an-
20 ticipatory socialization, in determining the role that physical frailty and
21 cognitive impairment may have on limited anticipatory socialization.

22 Bivariate correlations between demographic characteristics, anticipatory
23 socialization, and social typologies with assessment of quality of life support
24 the second hypothesis, but not the first. Noteworthy, social structural po-
25 sitions did significantly affect wellbeing of respondents, as demographic and
26 personal characteristics influenced health and quality of life. For example,
27 after entering an institution, older people and people born outside of the
28 United States had lower morale. This further supports the importance of
29 sociological interpretations, where outcomes are in part based on social
30 characteristics.

31 The first hypothesis was not supported by data. Results did show that
32 residents with close associations exclusively inside the institution had the
33 best self-rated health ($r = 0.21$). Social typologies, however, were not related
34 to morale. Therefore, while the first hypothesis was not supported, the link
35 between health and social connectedness did reveal an important finding.
36 That is, families were more likely to remain connected to residents who
37 rated their health more negatively. Families endeavored to maintain their
38 connections with loved ones after they have moved into long-term care,
39 which was especially true when loved one was sicker. Families worked to-
wards keeping a linkage with loved ones despite barriers to their

1 involvement, which may have limited the negative experiences of morale.
2 Future research on the role of families in minimizing stressors should ex-
3 amine the dyad of the caregiver and the care recipient in long-term care.
4 This would further help us to understand the role that families play in the
5 actual lives of residents in long-term care settings.

6 Anticipatory socialization had a significant impact on quality of life out-
7 comes, supporting the second hypothesis. As bivariate correlations show,
8 anticipatory socialization factors played a significant role in predicting a
9 better quality of life. Findings on anticipatory socialization support prior
10 empirical and conceptual writings. Settersten proposed that transitions into
11 institutions that are more scheduled, where residents previously planned on
12 moving, resulted in an easier adjustment to long-term care (Settersten,
13 1999). Furthermore, those who voluntarily made a decision, such as leaving
14 a job or transitioning from retirement into a nursing home, were more likely
15 to have a positive experience (Pearlin & Yu, 2000). This theory was em-
16 pirically tested, with results supporting voluntarily retirement as leading to
17 better adjustment and to better ratings of health than those who involun-
18 tarily retired (Shultz, Morton, & Weckerle, 1998).

19 Findings from our study have implications for policy and practice. Ac-
20 cordingly, they point to the value of involving older adults in the decision to
21 move to long-term care. If a move to a long-term care facility is necessary, it
22 is still important to involve a person with both physical impairments and
23 with cognitive impairment in the actual decision process. Even for those
24 elders more reluctant to move, it may be useful to have them visit the
25 facilities with their family. These older adults, can, thereby help to decide
26 *which* facility they move to. Furthermore, by socializing elders as to what
27 they can expect once they move to these institutions, it can mentally prepare
28 them and will hopefully make the adjustment process that much easier and
29 lead to a better quality of life. Institutions themselves can help with the
30 process by meeting with both the potential resident and with their family
31 member(s) to discuss what their expectations for care are and what families
32 and future residents can expect from the facility and from staff after the
33 older adult has moved in. Any worries or concerns can be discussed at that
34 point and compromises and understandings can be reached prior to the
35 actual move. This would increase anticipatory socialization for both the
36 families and the future resident and would therefore increase chances for a
37 better adjustment process and lead to better satisfaction with the institu-
38 tional environment.

39 Overall, this research points to the potential positive outcomes and ex-
periences that can result from living in long-term care, where many residents

1 can hope for a good adjustment and an overall positive quality of life. This
 2 positive nature of long-term care is supported in prior literature (Chou,
 3 Boldy, & Lee, 2002; Kahana, 2005; Kruzich, Clinton, & Kelber, 1992; Mi-
 4 tchell & Kemp, 2000). Stafford found that many residents do find life in
 5 nursing homes meaningful, where many adapt and find new relationships
 6 with people inside the home, staying involved in activities and developing
 7 new roles (2003).

8 The institutions studied in this research were not found to be total in-
 9 stitutions, but instead, many residents were able to maintain close relation-
 10 ships with family and friends as they did prior to moving to these facilities.
 11 Furthermore, many of the residents actually chose to move to these insti-
 12 tutions and knew what to expect once they moved in. As a result, they were
 13 better adjusted to life after eight months in long-term care, as demonstrated
 14 with a better quality of life, and were more satisfied with their lives in long-
 15 term care facilities. This research, as well as others, support that, for a
 16 substantial portion of residents, a good and easy adjustment to life in long-
 17 term care is a distinct possibility, where the result is a good quality of life
 18 and satisfaction with their new home.

19

21

UNCITED REFERENCES

22
 23 Beuf (1989); Clark & Bowling (1990); Kayser-Jones et al. (2003); Nolan et
 24 al. (1996); Port (2004); Port et al. (2001); Yamamoto-Mitani, Aneshensel, &
 25 Levy-Storms (2002); Zimmerman & Gruber-Balidini (2003).

27

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

29

30 This study was supported by a grant from the National Institute on Aging
 31 awarded to the co-author.

33

REFERENCES


35

36 Beuf, A. (1989). *Biting off the bracelet: A study of children in hospitals*. PA: University of
 37 Pennsylvania Press.
 38 Bitzan, J. E., & Kruzich, J. M. (1990). Interpersonal relationships of nursing home residents.
 39 *The Gerontologist*, 30, 385-390.
 40 Castle, N. G. (2006). Measuring staff turnover in nursing homes. *The Gerontologist*, 46, 210-
 219.

- 1 Chenitz, W. C. (1983). Entry into a nursing home as a status passage: A theory to guide nursing practice. *Geriatric Nursing*, 4, 92–97.
- 3 Chou, S., Boldy, D. P., & Lee, A. H. (2002). Resident satisfaction and its components in residential aged care. *The Gerontologist*, 42, 188–198.
- 5 Clark, P., & Bowling, A. (1990). Quality of everyday life in long stay institutions for the elderly. An observational study of long stay hospital and nursing home. *Social Science Medicine*, 30, 1201–1210.
- 7 Goffman, E. (1961). *Asylums: Essays on the social situation of mental patients and other inmates*. Chicago, IL: Aldine Publishing Co.
- 9 Gubrium, J. (1993). *Speaking of life: Horizons of meaning for nursing home residents*. Hawthorne, NY: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Gubrium, J. F. (1975). *Living and dying at Murray Manor*. NY: St. Martin's.
- 11 Henry, J. (1963). *Culture against man*. NY: Vintage.
- Kahana, E. (2005). Institutionalization. In: G. Maddox (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of aging*. New York: Springer.
- 13 Kahana, E., Kahana, B., & Young, R. (1987). Strategies of coping and postinstitutional outcomes. *Research on Aging*, 9, 182–199.
- 15 Kahn, R. L., Goldfarb, A. I., Pollack, M., & Peck, A. (1960). Brief objective measures for the determination of mental status in the aged. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 117, 326–328.
- 17 Kayser-Jones, J. S. (1981). *Old, alone and neglected: Care of the aged in Scotland and the US*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- 19 Kayser-Jones, J., Schell, E., Lyons, W., Kris, A. E., Chan, J., & Beard, R. L. (2003). Factors that influence end-of-life care in nursing homes: The physical environment, inadequate staffing, and lack of supervision. *The Gerontologist* [Special Issue II], 43, 76–84.
- 21 Kitchener, M., Hernandez, M., Ng, T., & Harrington, C. (2006). Residential care provision in medicaid home- and community-based waivers: A national study of program trends. *The Gerontologist*, 46, 165–172.
- 23 Kruzich, J. M., Clinton, J. F., & Kelber, S. T. (1992). Personal and environmental influences on nursing home satisfaction. *The Gerontologist*, 32, 342–350.
- 25 Lawton, M. P. (1975). The Philadelphia Geriatric Center Morale Scale: A revision. *Journal of Gerontology*, 30, 85–89.
- 27 Liang, J. (1986). Self-reported physical health among aged adults. *Journal of Gerontology*, 41, 248–260.
- 29 Lieberman, M., & Tobin, S. (1983). *The experience of old age: Stress, coping and survival* (pp. 312–332). NY: Basic Books.
- 31 McAuley, W., & Travis, S. (1997). Positions of influence in the nursing home admission decision. *Research on Aging*, 19, 26–45.
- 33 Merton, R. K. (1957). *Social theory and social structure*. London: Collier-Macmillan.
- Merton, R. K., & Kitt, A. (1950). *Contributions to the theory of reference group behavior*. Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press.
- 35 Mitchell, J. M., & Kemp, B. J. (2000). Quality of life in assisted living homes: A multidimensional analysis. *Journal of Gerontology B Psychological Social Sciences*, 55, 117–127.
- 37 Mollica, R., & Johnson-Lamarque, H. (2005). *Residential care and assisted living compendium 2004*. Washington, DC: Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation.
- 39

- 1 Nakashima, M., Chapin, R. K., Macmillan, K., & Zimmerman, M. (2004). Decision making in
 2 long-term care: Approaches used by older adults and implications for social work practice. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work*, *43*, 79–102.
- 3 Noelker, L. S., & Poulshock, S. W. (1984). Intimacy: Factors affecting its development among
 4 members of a home for the aged. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, *19*, 177–190.
- 5 Nolan, M., & Grant, G. (1992). Mid-ranging theory building and the nursing theory-practice
 6 gap: A respite care case study. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *17*, 217–223.
- 7 Nolan, M., Walker, G., Nolan, J., Williams, S., Poland, F., Curran, M., & Kent, B. C. (1996).
 8 Entry to care: Positive choice or fait accompli? Developing a more proactive nursing
 9 response to the needs to older people and their carers. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *24*,
 265–274.
- 11 Olson, L. K. (2006). The inner world of nursing homes. *The Gerontologist*, *46*, 293–297.
- 12 Pearlín, L. I., & Yu, Y. (2000). Role loss, personal loss, and self-esteem: Intergenerational
 13 changes and continuities. In: K. W. Schaie & J. Hendricks (Eds), *The evolution of the
 14 aging self* (pp. 99–112). New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- 15 Port, C. L. (2004). Identifying changeable barriers to family involvement in the nursing home
 16 for cognitively impaired residents. *The Gerontologist*, *44*, 770–778.
- 17 Port, C. L., Gruber-Baldini, A. L., Burton, L., Baumgarten, M., Hebel, J. R., Zimmerman, S. I.,
 18 & Magaziner, J. (2001). Resident contact with family and friends following nursing
 19 home admission. *The Gerontologist*, *41*, 589–596.
- 20 Savishinsky, J. S. (1991). *The ends of time: Life and work in a nursing home*. New York: Bergin &
 Garvey.
- 21 Settersten, R. A. (1999). *Lives in time and place: The problems and promises of developmental
 22 science*. New York: Baywood Publishing Company, Inc.
- 23 Shultz, K. S., Morton, K. R., & Weckerle, J. R. (1998). The influence of push and pull factors
 24 on voluntary and involuntary early retirees: Retirement decision and adjustment. *Journal
 25 of Vocational Behavior*, *53*, 45–57.
- 26 Shultz, R., & Brenner, G. (1977). Relocation of the aged: A review and theoretical analysis.
 27 *Journal of Gerontology*, *32*, 323–333.
- 28 Stafford, P. B. (2003). *Gray areas: Ethnographic encounters with nursing home culture*. Santa Fe,
 29 NM: School of American Research Press.
- 30 Thorson, J., & Davis, R. (2000). Relocation of the institutionalized aged. *Journal of Clinical
 31 Psychology*, *56*, 131–138.
- 32 Vladeck, B. (2003). Unloving care revisited: The persistence of culture. *Journal of Social Work
 33 in Long-Term Care*, *2*, 1–9.
- 34 Vladeck, B. C. (1980). *Unloving care: The nursing home tragedy*. NY: Basic Books.
- 35 Yamamoto-Mitani, N., Aneshensel, C. S., & Levy-Storms, L. (2002). Patterns of family visiting
 36 with institutionalized elders: The case of dementia. *Journals of Gerontology Series B:
 37 Psychological Sciences and Social*, *57B*, S234–S246.
- 38 York, J., & Caslyn, R. (1977). Family involvement in nursing homes. *The Gerontologist*, *17*,
 39 500–505.
- Zimmerman, S., Gruber-Balidini, A. L., Sloane, P. D., Eckert, J. K., Hebel, R., Morgan, L. A.,
 Stearns, S. C., Wildfire, J., Magaziner, J., Hyg, M., Chen, c., & Konrad, T. R. (2003).
 Assisted living and nursing homes: Apples and oranges? *The Gerontologist* [Special Issue
 II], *43*, 107–117.

AUTHOR QUERY FORM

	<p>Book : RSHC-V024 Chapter : 24007</p>	<p>Please e-mail or fax your responses and any corrections to:</p> <p>E-mail:</p> <p>Fax:</p>
---	---	--

Dear Author,

During the preparation of your manuscript for typesetting, some questions may have arisen. These are listed below. Please check your typeset proof carefully and mark any corrections in the margin of the proof or compile them as a separate list*.

Disk use

Sometimes we are unable to process the electronic file of your article and/or artwork. If this is the case, we have proceeded by:

- € Scanning (parts of) your article
- € Rekeying (parts of) your article
- € Scanning the artwork

ⓑ *Uncited references*: This section comprises references that occur in the reference list but not in the body of the text. Please position each reference in the text or delete it. Any reference not dealt with will be retained in this section.

Queries and / or remarks

Location in Article	Query / remark	Response
AQ1	Please confirm the suggested running head.	
AQ2	Please note that the footnote "1" is cross-referred but it is not given in the table. Also please provide a link to *p<0.05 inside the table.	
AQ3	Please confirm the deletion of the word "Appendix" . Do we need an appendix in this chapter. If so please provide.	

Thank you for your assistance