This annotated bibliography reflects the changing patterns of adoption and includes a general discussion of adoption trends and legislation and the role of social service agencies in providing for the welfare of all children. Specific topics include adoption of black, Indian, American Indian, Eskimo, Oriental, Puerto Rican, Mexican and hard-to-place children (older or handicapped children). Social attitudes, parent-child relationships, adjustment, health, and development are considered. Research articles are also presented that deal with stress and cultural identity. (JAC)
SPECIAL ADOPTIONS: An Annotated Bibliography on Transracial, Transcultural, and Nonconventional Adoption and Minority Children

For Mental Health, Health, and Human Services Professionals

Developed by
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Foreword

Special adoptions are receiving increasing, necessary attention from service delivery practitioners and researchers. Today, transracial, transcultural, and nonconventional adoptions are occurring more frequently. These adoptions create special concerns and possible stresses for the adoptive parent(s) and for the child that are greater than those experienced when the adopted child is similar in type and background to the adoptive parent(s). Moreover, it has been found that these concerns and stresses persist throughout the child's development, often, albeit in different form, into his or her adult life.

Mental health, health, and human service professionals are often in a position to offer anticipatory guidance and preventive counseling, and many families turn to such professionals for help in time of difficulty. It is therefore necessary for all interested professionals to have as much information as possible in this new and growing area of adoption. Although the research and other literature relating to this area have increased in recent years, the publications of these efforts appear in journals from many disciplines and in books that might not be known to some professionals.

Special Adoptions: An Annotated Bibliography on Transracial, Transcultural, and Nonconventional Adoption, and Minority Children, is an effort on the part of the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) to assist these families by making the relevant literature available to professionals in a position to help. The literature review and preparation of this annotated bibliography were done by the Subcommittee on Adoption of the Children's Rights Committee of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry with the support of NIMH. This joint effort between NIMH and a professional organization is another example of the quality of meaningful work that can be accomplished when the Federal Government and professional communities work together.
I hope that the professionals working with families who adopt these special children will find this volume useful. If this book points out gaps in our knowledge, I hope that research in public agencies and universities will undertake the necessary studies to address the unanswered questions.

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Preface

Since the early 1950s, the pattern of adoptions in this country has changed considerably: from adoption within one's own racial background to transracial adoption; from infancy adoption to older age adoption; from the adoption of normal children to the adoption of children with physical and/or mental handicaps and/or children with other special needs; and from adoption by married couples to adoption by single parents. These changes have resulted in the growing interest in adoption issues relating to the health, education, and socioeconomic status of ethnic and cultural minority groups. During this time, social, health, and mental health studies in these areas were begun more vigorously.

Despite the growing research on adoption, references have been either difficult to locate or seemingly sparse. A primary reason for this is that these studies have been shared by scholars, workers, and clinical child-care specialists from such divergent professional orientations and backgrounds that their reports are widely scattered among the literature of a variety of professional groups (e.g., child psychiatrists, child psychologists, adoption agency social workers, educators, linguists, lawyers, etc.).

Realizing this difficulty, the American Academy of Child Psychiatry and the National Institute of Mental Health commissioned a compilation of the existing studies in issues related to transracial, transcultural, and nonconventional adoption and other various issues concerning minority children. It is the Academy's belief that this compilation will be of significant assistance to all child health and mental health care professionals and to interested others who want to obtain information in these new areas of adoption—information that will help them help the families and children.

In addition to Dr. Peter Kim, other people instrumental in the development of this publication included Dr. Paul Adams, Chairman of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry's Committee on Children's Rights, and Drs. Stella Chess, Andre Derdeyn, Stephen Hersh, Ake Mattsson, and Jeanne Spurlock, members of the Adop-
tion Subcommittee, who endorsed the project, recommended annotations, and reviewed the references. Ms. Toni D'Amore, research assistant and coordinator, helped in the search, collection, and initial screening of the literature.

Robert L. Stubblefield, M.D.
President
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Editor's Note

In the search and selection of relevant literature, the following methods were used: First, journals, monographs, and books published during the last 25 years in the fields of adoption, child development, pediatrics, psychiatry, psychology, social work, sociology, and other specialty areas related to the subjects were systematically checked. Second, various individuals consulting on the project, including the members of the American Academy of Child Psychiatry's Subcommittee on Adoption, were invited to submit lists of references. Third, existing annotated bibliographies and reference lists were used. These included ERIC, Psychological Abstracts, Current Contents, and the Handbook of Asian American/Pacific Islander Mental Health.
Part I. Transracial, Transcultural, and Nonconventional Adoptions, and Related Issues

This discussion of intercountry adoptions covers current adoption trends and legislation, research, problems of adjustment, benefits and risks to family and child, the role of the agency, and the impact of such practices in providing for the welfare of all children.


Using data from a survey of 205 respondents belonging to two localities in Delhi, an attempt is made to: (1) analyze the difference in attitudes of the members of different religious communities to the passage of comprehensive legislation on adoption, (2) assess their attitudes toward adoption as such, and (3) explore the sources people tap for support when contemplating adoption.

The possibility of adopting a child is likely to appeal to those who do not have their own progeny. In seeking to adopt, people tend to choose the child of a close relative or friend rather than one from an orphanage or hospital. Such primordial factors as caste, religion, and the child's parentage are regarded as important determinants of the child's eligibility. People are disinclined to favor a highly legal framework for adoption, though they are generally favorable to the idea of the State passing comprehensive adoption legislation. The significance of the religious factor on attitudes toward adoption was sporadic and was neutralized by the social class background of the respondents.


Misconceptions about the adoption of black children and adoptions by black families are discussed. The article suggests that the real problem is not with the black children or the potential black parents but rather with agencies in the field of adoption. Social agencies need to devise new and different approaches for becoming more responsive to the needs of black children. Policies and practices of these agencies should be refocused and combined with the reorientation and training of the staff members in the culture of black families. An economic investment in new approaches to adoption is vital.
All four families discussed here lived in predominantly white communities. All parents had been reared in a white community and had had little or no contact with minorities. They were all dedicated, conscientious parents who wanted to provide a good home for the black child; but all felt helpless in the face of racial prejudice directed at their child and felt some guilt about their inability to protect the child from this prejudice.

The black child living in a white community was seen in terms of racial stereotypes. The community assumed black culture to be inferior in some ways and superior in others (for example, blacks are presumed to be sexually, musically, and athletically superior). The child is confronted with subtle pressures to conform to white assumptions, and he does not know how to deal with these pressures. Often he may not even recognize them. Life in a white community thus placed an undue burden on the black children in this study. To maintain a sense of equilibrium, they spent unnecessary energy warding off and dealing with the white community's skewed perceptions.

No matter how competent and loving the parents were, they were unable to protect the child completely from racial prejudice after he left the protective sanctuary of the home. School and peer relationships were equal in importance to the family as socializing agents as the child grew older.

In terms of racial identity, the adoptees moved in one of three directions: (1) true self-hate or an acceptance of the values of the dominant group and a resulting belief in white superiority and black inferiority; (2) acceptance of one's blackness as a positive virtue, without any element of self-hate; and (3) a mixture of self-hate and self-acceptance, an ambivalent feeling about one's racial identity, with positive feelings about some aspects and negative feelings about other aspects. Three of the adoptees fell into the third category, and one fell into the first.


After considering the arguments for and against two types of adoption schemes—traditional intracial adoption and transracial—the authors examine the results of a recent study involving 204
white families who transracially adopted nonwhite children. The parents are described; their reactions and experiences are reviewed; and the racial attitudes and self-perceptions of the adopted children and their siblings are portrayed.

Analysis of the children's responses indicates that the practice of transracial adoption has had a significant, perhaps even revolutionary, effect on the racial identity and attitudes of young black and white children. The findings do not offer any evidence that black children raised by white parents acquire a preference for white over black. They show only that black children perceive themselves as black as accurately as white children perceive themselves as white.


In November 1979, the American Academy of Child Psychiatry convened on the Warm Springs Reservation, 150 tribal social service and court workers, for a 3-day seminar to share insights, ideas, and experiences dealing with Indian child welfare and adoption cases. This training manual is the result of their efforts to develop fresh approaches to resolving these cases.

This manual is designed to foster cooperative, coordinated approaches to resolving Indian child welfare cases. The manual is for social and mental health workers, tribal judges and counselors, and all those whose work brings them into frontline involvement with Indian children, their families, and tribes. Basic, elemental approaches to child welfare cases which occur on reservations are presented.

Three case studies involving neglect of an infant, custody of a young child, and delinquency of a teenager are presented. The facts have been drawn from actual cases and also from the knowledge and experience of the child welfare workers who came to the Warm Springs Seminar. The case studies do not, and could not, represent all of the situations which tribal social service and court personnel encounter. However, the situations chosen rank high on the roster of types of cases which regularly challenge tribal workers.

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For $5.00

In a changing climate of greater openness about sensitive subjects, less tension in discussing adoption can be a significant prophylactic factor. However, if adoption records are unsealed by legislative acts, the primary needs of the adoptive and biological parents can be undermined by the needs of the adopted adult.


This paper was presented at the Child Welfare League of America Southwest Regional Conference at Fort Worth, Texas, 1970.


The intake records of a selected sample of 33 children (ages 2 to 16 years), adopted in early infancy, are reviewed and their presenting symptoms categorized. A majority of the children's symptoms fell into the first 5 of 15 categories: oppositional behavior, aggressive behavior, antisocial acting out, academic problems, and problems with peers. While these symptoms are not uncommon in nonadoptive clinic cases, the authors note an emphasis on the adoptive parents, disappointment and accusatory attitude toward these children, as well as a high incidence of symptoms indicative of interpersonal difficulties and problems in developing solid parental attachments and self-control.


This article describes a class designed to meet the needs of adoptive parents through discussion, educational presentations by specialists, and group visits to hospital labor and delivery rooms.


This article describes the increasing number of adult adoptees who are insisting that they have a constitutionally based civil right
to access to their sealed birth records, which would reveal the true identity of their natural parents. There is the imminent possibility of court cases to test the legality of present policies. It is suggested that adoption agencies must begin to reevaluate their position in regard to sealed records. The present standards of anonymity were developed as a safeguard for all of the people involved in adoption; however, a study is described which indicates that for many persons these standards have been the cause of insoluble problems. The authors conclude that the role of the agency as intermediary among adoptee, natural parents, and adoptive parents should be considered in a new, creative way.


This discussion examines the historical roots of adoptive practices in the United States and suggests that the time has come for open adoption to gain acceptance as an alternative to closed adoption. Shifts in cultural patterns and the increasing numbers of adult adoptees who are challenging the practice of sealing their birth records have contributed to the need for reassessment of adoption practices.


One of the most difficult developmental tasks during the period of late adolescence is that of dethroning one's parents in order to find new emotional ties outside the family. Guilt feelings about this process make many adolescents escape into the defense mechanism of daydreaming. Often fantasy families with superior attributes are dreamed up by adolescents. Young girls are especially susceptible to this kind of pseudo-solution to their identity crisis, since to them the mother is their first love object as well as their feminine identity figure. In the case of adopted children, an additional factor has to be taken into account, namely the real uncertainty about one's origin.

The case history of a young adopted girl in Israel is presented. This case history is preceded by a short description of Israeli adoption practices, including legal aspects, matching of child to adopting parents, and history-telling. At the onset of adolescence, the girl realizes that she is of different ethnic background than that of her parents (the parents came from Germany). She rejects her parents...
and all they stand for and fabricates a pseudo-Moroccan identity for herself with lapses into behavior disorders of various kinds. Most of the energy needed for personal growth and preparation for a career is used up by her frantic search for her biological parents.

Adoption should be studied more thoroughly, not only in the first stages but also when the adoptee reaches adolescence. Whereas there are some group meetings for prospective adopters and individual counseling for adopting parents in the first year, nothing is being done as yet for adopted adolescents and their parents.


This article notes the increasing skill of social workers in preparing the older child for adoption but claims that the degree to which this skill is applied varies strikingly among agencies. Preparation of the child, the selection of the adoptive family, the results of a California survey of failed adoptions, and the wide gap of trust seen between agency and family are discussed.


This study explored similarities and differences between white parents who had adopted white children and white parents who had adopted black or mulatto children. The two types of adoptive parents were compared in regard to selected background characteristics and perceptions. Differences and similarities observed were described and discussed in relation to the decision to adopt transracially or inracially and in relation to issues concerning transracial adoption.

The total sample for this study included 15 transracially adoptive parents and 15 inracaically adoptive parents. Participants were secured through the cooperation of a Council on Adoptable Children and two county adoption agencies. All participants lived in or near a large midwestern college town. Data were gathered from a personal data sheet, structured interview questions, and three testing instruments: the Indices of Coping Activities, the Family Bond Inventory, and the Consequence Model Questionnaire. The data included selected background characteristics of the respondents and their perceptions of differences between adoptive and biological parenthood, patterns of relationships in their families, and positive and negative consequences associated with transracial adoption.
The principal questions asked in racially and transracially adoptive parents regarded: (1) selected background characteristics, (2) perceptions of differences between adoptive and biological parenthood, (3) perceptions of relationship patterns within their families, and (4) perceptions of positive and negative consequences associated with transracial adoption.

The two groups of adoptive parents were found to be similar with respect to their average ages, average number of years married, socioeconomic status, types of employment, and oldest adopted child's sex. They were found to be dissimilar with regard to the fathers' levels of education, the presence of biological children in the home, the respondents' places of birth, the age at adoption of the oldest adopted child, attendance at religious services, reasons for adopting children, and concerns over the adopted child's identity development.

The comparison of selected perceptions of the two groups of adoptive parents revealed that: (1) Both types of adoptive parents perceived culturally normal patterns of interaction in their families, (2) both types of adoptive parents perceived adoptive parenthood to be considerably different from biological parenthood, and (3) the transracially adoptive parents perceived the consequences associated with transracial adoption significantly more positively than did the inracially adoptive parents.

One of the major conclusions of the study was that the background characteristics that significantly differentiated inracially and transracially adoptive parents may also have influenced their respective decisions to adopt. Other major conclusions were that: (1) Neither inracially nor transracially adoptive families are different from biological families, as indicated by parents' perceptions of interaction patterns within their families; (2) transracially adoptive parents feel neither more nor less noble for having adopted a child than do inracially adoptive parents; and (3) inracially adoptive parents view transracial adoption as a "missionary activity." Transracially adoptive parents view it as a means for self-fulfillment and an improvement in the lot of adoptable children, which will ultimately result in the betterment of society.

It was suggested that case study methodology may be the best approach for research that addresses transracial adoption issues.


The article suggests that an individual's psychic reactions to a surgical procedure are determined by (1) the individual's psychology.
and the psychic situation, and (2) his/her interpretation of the meaning of the operation. This premise is illustrated in the case of the reactions of one mother to surgery on her adopted toddler, as manifested during the course of 15 observation days.


This was a study of white adoptive parents of children designated as "hard-to-place." Its general purpose was to compare the characteristics of adoptive parents of native-born, hard-to-place children and non-native children.

Using an exploratory/descriptive research design, four conjectural hypotheses were subjected to testing for verification or rejection, at the .05 level of significance. Three were confirmed, and one was not confirmed.

The study sample included 79 couples who had adopted from the Lutheran Service Society of Colorado between 1972 and 1975. It included 38 couples who had adopted native-born children and 41 couples who had adopted non-native children. The study questionnaire, mailed on March 1, 1976, included three components of inquiry which were considered to be essential in seeking the exploratory/descriptive relationship and information for the purpose of this study.

Adoptive parents of hard-to-place children were found to be college educated, in their first marriage, biological parents, homeowners, and professionally employed. They preferred younger children of another race and were found to adopt because of personal motivations rather than humanitarian concern.


The article describes group treatment for newly placed adopted children 9 to 13 years old who had experienced at least five foster home placements. The group therapy program enabled children and adults to share angry and confused feelings that were threatening to them.

Four case examples are presented which help to clarify the relationship between the interaction of father and adopted daughter and the daughter's subsequent sexual development. They are discussed with reference to a theoretical model that views the roles of daughters as similar to the behavior that will be required of them as adults, while sons must unlearn their roles as they grow into manhood.


This piece comments on the utility of a psychiatric examination for those who wish to adopt a child. In France, a psychiatric interview for adoptive parents is now required by law. Although this procedure is often resisted by the candidates or by social organizations, it is clearly in the best interests of the children to be adopted. Experience has revealed that many motives other than the welfare of the child, e.g., jealousy or conjugal mistrust on the part of the prospective adopting parents, may prompt their candidacy. It is the very principle of adoption, rather than the requirement for a vigorous examination of foster parents, that demands a careful critique of selective adoption procedures.


An adoption agency for difficult-to-place, handicapped, and older children (infancy through 16-years-old) is described. The process involves initial assessment of the child's functioning and of the family's parenting capabilities and continued support after placement. Placement histories of two handicapped children are presented. The adoption implications of blindness, cerebral palsy, cleft palate, deafness, diabetes, mental retardation, perceptual handicaps, and spina bifida are reviewed.


Until 1971, adoptions continually increased in the United States. Adoptions have become less concentrated among women unable to
bear children, although they are still more likely to adopt than are fertile women. There is broad normative support for adoption, and about 4 percent of American women have adopted a child by the time they are 45 years old. Women who adopt are found in all racial, religious, and socioeconomic groups. Data are drawn from the following sources: Freedman, Whelpton, and Campbell's Growth of the American Family study (Family Planning, Sterility, and Population Growth, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959); the 1973 National Survey of Family Growth conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics; and Federal statistics for 1957–1971, supplied by the National Center for Social Statistics and supplemented by additional statistics for 1972–1974.


Adoption is of interest to psychiatry for both theoretical (e.g., genetic and psychopathologic study) and clinical (e.g., selection for adoption) reasons. Although it is too simplistic to explain pathology entirely by adoption, there appears to be a fairly common psychopathology among adoptees, characterized by a history of maternal deprivation and abandonment and by certain aspects of the adoptive situation itself.

There is statistical evidence that adopted children receive more pediatric and psychiatric examinations than other children. Adoptive parents show hyperconcern with the influence of heredity; adoptees are overly concerned with fantasy about their natural parents. The main hypotheses advanced for a pathogenesis of adoption are persistence of the good-bad child cleavage, reinforced by reality and fantasy (having two sets of parents), and the insecurity of adoptive parents about their role. Recommendations are offered for psychiatric aid in the selection of either adoptive child or parents and for guidance following adoption.


This article argues that (1) the preadoption education/developmental process must find ways to prepare parents for the possibility that character disorders may be present in older adopted and foster children, (2) adoption and fostercare workers and foster parents should be trained and sensitized to detect these types of symptoms, (3) "matching" criteria must become more sophisticated, and (4)
psychiatric and counseling help must be provided for older adoptees in all adoptions.


A comparison of recent literature in the field of adoption with that of 5 years ago shows that there has been a drastic change for both the applicant and the worker. Innovations in family composition are being discussed and accepted in many agencies, policies are changing, structures and administrative procedures are being streamlined, and new techniques in service are gaining support. It is felt that most social workers in adoption today take a specifically inappropriate approach to the applicant. Most adoption caseworkers have been trained or are supervised in traditional modes of casework and are not personally motivated to take risks.

Characteristics of the workers are outlined: They are often middle-age, middle-of-the-road conservative, and middle class. The applicant generally has a well-functioning ego, shows skill in competing, is suspicious of the psychoanalytic approach, has no need for the therapeutic relationship, and shows middle class propriety. The worker needs to retain his professional status through control, is pathology oriented, and needs to be needed. The effects of confrontation are outlined, and some potential remedies for the applicant-worker relationship are suggested. It is stressed that, if the worker allows for frankness and give-and-take in communication, use of assets and acknowledgment of liabilities, and a sense of humor, he can establish a model of positive communication.


This study sought to identify the criteria, used by adoption workers in their evaluation of adoption applications, to discover whether caseworkers have various applicant models for different groups of children and to explore attributes or attitudes differentiating accepted and rejected couples.

Three public and five private agencies in a large Eastern metropolitan area participated in the project. Approximately 400 parent couples, 50 from each agency, were interviewed by 87 social workers in the eight agencies. The 102-item caseworker's rating form for adoptive parents was evolved, pretested, and revised in consultation.
with professionals in the adoption field. It was concluded that case-workers were discriminating but that the range within which they made their judgments was narrow. Therefore, their ability to predict capacity to fill the parental role was questioned.

Three characteristics of couples seemed to be related to their acceptance by caseworkers—a positive overall effect, suitability for a deviant child, and youth and a relatively recent marriage. Couples were judged to be overall positive, marginal, poor, or unacceptable. Those couples assessed as "better" were awarded "better" children, and those who were "marginal" were awarded "marginal" or deviant children. It was recommended that a replication of the study be done and that some of the findings be validated. Suggestions for further research, tabular information on different facets of the adoptive process, the caseworker's rating form for adoptive applicants, and a bibliography are included.


The Los Angeles County Department of Adoptions discusses its policy of permitting one-parent adoptions for hard-to-place children, which has proven to be successful so far in a review of 36 out of 40 cases. A longitudinal study is planned.


This article considers whether or not adults who have grown up in adoptive homes are especially disposed to mental disorder. Two-hundred-and-fifty persons born within an 11-year period and who had grown up in adoptive homes were examined with regard to the incidence of mental disorder and crime. The information derived from the Central Register of oligophrenia, psychosis, and alcoholism; from police files; and from the country’s clinical departments does not indicate that adopted children differ in any special way from the rest of the population. Whether any correlation could be found between mental disorder in adopted children and their adoptive parents was also investigated. There was nothing to indicate that those cases in which such problems were revealed in the adopted children could be traced back to the adoptive parents.

This article presents a study of a key indicator of the validity of the adoptive screening process—the level of agreement among caseworkers in their decision to accept or reject applicants. It was found that worker agreement is not as high as is desirable.


Temperament, hyperactivity, antisocial behavior, and developmental milestones were assessed in two groups of adoptees by interviewing the adoptive parents. One group (N= 59), the “experimental,” was born of psychiatrically disturbed biological parents. The second group (N = 54), the “control,” had psychiatrically “normal” parents. Infants in each group were separated from their biological parents at birth and had no further contact with them. Male “experimental” adoptees had an excess number of temperament traits characteristic of the “difficult” child, as well as an excess of antisocial behaviors when contrasted with male control subjects. No differences between control and experimental females were found for these variables. The adoptees of both sexes who had “antisocial” parents showed more hyperactive behavior than did adoptees of “normal” parentage.


Analysis of data gathered from interviews with adoptive parents supports the hypothesis that female adoptees of antisocial biological backgrounds might have higher percentages of somatic symptoms. (Previous reports by Cunningham et al. [see PA, Vol. 54:7769] and Cadoret et al. [1975] detail the selection of adoptees and the conduct of the structured interview with the adoptive parents. Median age of adoptees at the time of parental interview was 17 years.) The authors compared female adoptees of antisocial parentage with male and female controls, male adoptees of antisocial parentage, and male and female adoptees whose biological parents had other psychiatric conditions. They stress the importance of this hypothesis in the diagnosis and management of childhood and adolescent “medical” and behavioral problems.

A study of 246 adoptees age 10 to 37 years who were separated at birth from their biological parents were used to look at genetic heritability of antisocial behavior and to delineate the extent and quality of "antisocial spectrum" conditions. Each set of adoptive parents was administered a structured questionnaire; and, if the adoptee was over 18-years-old, he/she was administered a structured interview. Evidence is presented for a genetic factor in adoptee antisocial behavior and for the following as "spectrum" conditions: (1) hysteria in adult females (Briquet's syndrome) or multiple somatic complaints without medical explanation in younger female subjects, and (2) mood swings possibly associated with the symptom of audible thoughts.


This study examined the incidence of alcoholism among 84 adoptees age 18 and older who were separated at birth from their biological parents and had no further contact with them. Alcoholism was found more frequently in those subjects whose relatives included an individual with alcoholism or in whom heavy drinking had been noted. Adoptee alcoholism did not correlate with any other diagnosis in a biological parent. Childhood socialized conduct disorder was significantly higher in those adoptees who later received a diagnosis of alcoholism or suspected alcoholism and was positively, but not significantly, related to heavy drinking or alcoholism in parents. Age of adoptee, time spent in foster care, age of biological mother at the time of birth, socioeconomic status of adoptive home, psychopathology other than alcoholism in the biological background, and psychiatric or behavioral problems in the adoptive family (i.e., parents or siblings) were all unrelated to adult alcoholism in the adoptee.


One-hundred-twenty-six offspring of psychiatrically disturbed and normal biological parents, adopted at birth, were followed up.
as adults. Interviews with adoptive parents and adoptees show that the incidence of depression was significantly higher in the adoptees whose natural parents had affective disorders (3 depressed of 8 adoptees) than in the remaining adoptees, whose biological parents had other psychiatric conditions or were apparently psychiatrically well (8 depressed of 118). Results suggest a genetic factor in affective disorders.


A study of adopted and foster babies indicates that greater or less anxiety during pregnancy in their biological mothers does not have an enduring effect on the infants' temperaments. Lasting effects of maternal anxiety on the infant appear attributable to continued distress of a mother caring for the infant after delivery.


Willingness to adopt atypical children appears to be high for children who are under 5 years of age, who are physically handicapped, are slow learners, or are of American Indian or Spanish-American parentage.


The most common form of adoption in the United States—the adoption of nonrelative children through agencies—is not the most common anywhere else in the world. It is not only those two characteristics that make it unique. The most common form of adoption in the United States differs from the most common form in all other countries on one or more of the following counts: (1) In the United States, adoption attempts to legally and administratively obliterate a child's natal identity; (2) it incorporates children into a kinship group in which he is a stranger—in which he has no kin as established by birthright; (3) it may involve marital pairs who already have natal children; (4) it almost never involves young children, particularly infants; and (5) more than one child can be adopted by a marital pair.
In a search for historical antecedents for North American adoption law and practice, it seems clear that it has not developed out of English Common Law, since that body of law has actually been hostile to the whole concept of the legal creation of nonconsanguineal kinship bonds. Legally sanctioned adoption first became possible in the United States in 1851, nearly 100 years before it was legally sanctioned in England. Ancient Roman adoption practice appears to have been a transitory, impermanent practice with little resemblance in form or function to the modern North American style. The legal system of South American countries contains all four of the main types of legal adoption found in the contemporary western world: (1) adoption that creates a parent-child relationship between the child and the adoptor's whole kinship group; (2) adoption that creates a parent-child relationship between the adoptor and adoptee, restricted in effect to those two or three individuals; (3) gratitude adoption; and (4) adoption that formalizes a contract between adults and a minor child, involving the adoptor's obligation for care and maintenance as well as "occupational training." No name changes are necessarily involved, and the obligation is often transferable by inheritance.


This article describes the meetings of a group of new adoptive parents to help them master their new roles and overcome their anxieties. Five major criteria were covered: "(1) the difference between adoptive and biological parenthood, (2) helping a child to an acceptance and understanding of his adoptive status, (3) the adoptive parents' feelings toward the child's biological parents, (4) the adoptive parents' feelings about illegitimacy, (5) letting persons outside the family know that the child has been adopted." The majority of couples responding found these meetings to be helpful, both to them and to their children.


The results of this work indicate that, although the Korean children who were studied were found to compare unfavorably with
other transracial and inracial adoptees on personal and social adjustment measures on standardized personality tests, a large majority of the study families seemed at the time of the interviews to be making successful adjustment. A cross-tabulation of the relationship between the summary adjustment score and variables describing the child, the parents, and the family indicates 30 statistically significant relationships. T-tests on the same variables significantly differentiate between the highest and lowest adjusting groups of families and reveal an additional 28 significant relationships.

The findings point to the validity of a correspondence model of cross-cultural adjustment; the adjustment process was greatly facilitated when correspondence occurred between the child's needs and his family's reinforcer patterns and when the family's requirements of the child corresponded to the child's response potentials. Key components to attaining satisfaction and satisfactoriness in these facets of correspondence centered more on the social-emotional need dimension of the family relationships than on other components. Although several families' need structures resulted in varying degrees of dissatisfaction and unsatisfactoriness, this correspondence was, in several cases, mediated by the interface of the personality styles of the child and the system dynamics of the family.

Although most of the families appear to have achieved success in mediating the cultural and linguistic differences and are optimistic about continued success in the adjustment process, an area of major concern is noted. A majority of the families, advocating the primacy of a "human identity," are denying the importance of racial identity and attempting to minimize its significance. Although many of the study families believe it is important for the child to "know" about his racial and cultural background—knowing the fact of its existence, few seem equipped to deal with the quality of the existence. Parental attempts to deal with these more qualitative aspects seem undermined by their rejecting attitudes toward differentness: that parenting a child from another culture is not much different from parenting a child of one's own race; that no special qualities are needed in order to be a white adoptive parent for an Asian child; that a Korean child reared by white parents is not likely to have problems in developing a sense of identity; and that a minority child is sufficiently prepared for adulthood if given love and security by his white adoptive parents.


The importance of dealing immediately with the trauma of a child's separation from natural parents, siblings, and foster parents
is stressed. Placement techniques and procedures involving adoptive parents, foster parents, and the child are described.


The problem of finding permanent homes for the 8,000 homeless black children in the United States is looked at in this article. Social work's solution has been biracial adoption; however, the dangers of such an approach to both the black child and the white adoptive parents are discussed. Although total abandonment of biracial adoption is not advocated, it is concluded that in this society only black families can assure an environment in which there is optimal opportunity for growth, development, and identification.


This article examines the controversy about the transracial adoption of black children by white parents. The argument for transracial adoption appears to be based on two reasons: that the black community cannot provide the needed black adoptive parents and that rearing black children in a white home will be better than rearing them in an institution or foster-home. The limitations of current data on the adoption rates of blacks by blacks are examined, and it is suggested that the benefits of white parents’ adopting a black child at a younger age do not necessarily outweigh the disadvantages of later adoptive failures. The issue of right of choice is also discussed, and it is noted that no black consensus has been reached on the question of black adoption. The psychosexual needs of the child are discussed in relation to whether transracial adoption would fulfill both the child’s present and future needs. It is concluded that (1) transracial adoption may harm the black child in that he may lose his sense of black identity and the ability to relate to other blacks; and (2) until empirical studies are made of the adult personalities of white-raised blacks, placements of black children should not proceed as though transracial adoption had already been found to be beneficial.

This critique of the Grow-Shapiro study entitled "Black Children—White Parents—A Study of Transracial Adoption" reviews and unfavorably criticizes the study and suggests alternative ways of approaching the topic.


This paper evaluated the Grow-Shapiro study of transracial adoption of black children by white parents and assessed its relevance to the controversy over transracial adoption. It found that the study failed to seriously address itself to the question of black identity and its correlates—the crux of the adoption controversy. Some suggestions are made about how to design and execute a study that would be relevant.


The author administered a Flemish adaptation of the Science Research Associates Primary Mental Abilities (PMA) Test and the Children's Embedded Figures Test to 42 male and 43 female adopted children (mean age = 6.5 years). Correlations between PMA subtest scores and social class of the adoptive parents were generally low, suggesting that the social class differences in the abilities of "own" children are predominantly due to genetic factors. There was a general increase in scores above the level expected, however, which was thought to be due to the more stimulating environment provided by adoptive parents. Field-dependence and the spatial subtest were less affected.


The Children's Embedded Figures Test (CEFT) and measures of verbal ability, perceptual speed, quantitative ability, and spatial ability were administered to Belgian children between the ages of 5 and 7 (33 males and 36 females) who were adopted early in life. These child variables were correlated with the main factorial di-
dimensions of the adoptive parents’ answers on the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI), with Buehler and Coleman’s (1964) Life Goals Inventory (LGI), and with the adoptive mother’s child-rearing practices, determined through an interview. The PARI dimensions were unrelated to children’s test performances. Reinforcement of competition and independence, an interview variable, was significantly related to several ability measures and to the CEFT, especially in females. The significant correlations of some LGI dimensions with males’ and/or females’ primary abilities are interpreted in terms of the influence on the development of children’s abilities of a future-oriented attitude toward learning and memory and of a warm parent-child interaction.


This chapter describes adoption agency process and changing practices in adoption. The problem of children who are denied adoption because of age, race, or impairment is discussed; and variables that determine the successful outcome of adoptive placement are outlined.


To test the hypothesis that heredity contributes to the development of antisocial personality, a group of offspring born to female offenders and given up for adoption in infancy was examined. Forty-six probands and an equal number of control adoptees over age 18 were followed up and interviewed using the MMPI and other measures of psychopathology. A significantly higher rate of antisocial personality was found among the probands than among the controls. The non-antisocial probands were not more deviant than the controls. The antisocial probands experienced certain unfavorable conditions in infancy which may be related to the development of antisocial personality, the most notable being the length of time spent in temporary care prior to final placement. Although members of the control group were equally exposed to the same conditions, they did not develop a high rate of the disorder. Findings point to the importance of interactions between genetic and environmental factors in the development of antisocial personality.

Psychiatric problems were assessed in two groups of adoptees by interviewing the adoptive parents. One group of 59 adoptees, the “experimental,” were born of psychiatrically disturbed biological parents; the other group, the “control,” of 54 adoptees had psychiatrically normal biological parents at birth.

The incidence of psychiatric conditions requiring professional care was significantly higher in the experimental than in the control group (37 percent versus 14 percent). In the experimental group, more males than females were diagnosed hyperactive. Some evidence emerged of correlation of the type of psychiatric diagnosis of the biological parent with that of the adoptee.


This study of the attitudes of blacks toward the adoption of black children is based on interviews with potential adoptive couples in Baltimore and Washington, D.C. The research sought to ascertain the reasons for the very low adoption rate of black children in the two cities. The sample consisted of 484 economically stable people between the ages of 25 and 50 who had intact marriages and had no children or only one child.

Data were obtained on socioeconomic and demographic characteristics, on the extent of knowledgeability about adoption, and on attitudes toward social agencies. Most respondents indicated that they were more concerned about the physical and mental history of the natural parents and about the health of the adoptive child than about any other factors. When asked about the preferred sources for adoption, respondents most frequently mentioned agencies and relatives. Certain differences between the two cities seemed to show up more clearly than socioeconomic status differences. It is hypothesized that the basic lack of motivation to adopt may be related to the values of the successful urban black.


Using Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale and adoption attitude scale administered to 113 college students, this study supports the hy-
pthesis that among males, dogmatism and intolerance toward areas relating to adoption would be positively correlated. Negative correlation for females suggests that emphasis on the maternal role makes adoption attitudes an exception to Rokeach’s theory.


This study presents the results of a questionnaire sent to 82 single adoptive mothers of 121 children which sought to identify the characteristics, problems, and needs of the families and to learn what, if any, social services would be helpful to them. It was found that, in general, the women had achieved a high level of personal maturity, were successful and stable, recognized their own needs, and had learned to build personal support systems. Recommendations for social workers are included.


Issues in the movement for increased accessibility of adoption records are discussed in light of the changing function of adoption.


Most courts would agree that, in a custody dispute, the best interests of the child should dictate the outcome; this rule applies equally to adoption cases. In adoption cases, the rights of the biological parents are deferred to, unless they have forfeited those rights by conduct causing the court to deem them “unfit.” As a consequence of zealously safeguarding the rights of biological parents, the courts may ignore the equally basic right of a child to grow up in a growth-conducive environment. Rather than the “best interests of the child” standard in adoption cases, it is suggested that the courts find the “least detrimental alternative” for the child. This standard would shift the emphasis from doing good to minimizing harm. An initial step in implementing this approach is the realization that, from a child’s point of view, a “parent” may be someone
other than the biological parent. (The best interests exception is a gray area in the law concerning adoptions.) The Uniform Adoption Act offers guidelines for the relinquishment of parental rights and the termination of the parent-child relationship. A hypothetical statute is presented as a guide for implementing a best interests exception in jurisdictions that do not presently ascribe to it.


The objectives of this study were (1) to develop systematic knowledge about the characteristics of couples who adopted American Indian children and (2) to describe the experiences encountered by the families and children for a 5-year period after the Indian children were placed in adoptive homes. The experiences of 97 families who adopted Indian children were studied. The full sample of adoptive families was interviewed annually for 5 years. The first interview was conducted jointly with the adoptive father and the adoptive mother, while the second was designed to be carried out with adoptive mothers exclusively. The third interview was designed for the father, the fourth for both the husband and wife, and the fifth for adoptive mothers only. Each of several variables, such as religiosity of adoptive family, political orientation, and child-rearing practices, were subjected to statistical tests. It was found that the majority of the Indian children and their adoptive families appeared to be well adjusted, and it was recommended that the practice of transracial adoption be continued and encouraged. Appendixes include (1) agencies placing children through the Indian adoption project, (2) major variables used in the study, and (3) a child progress scale.


Expected trends in American family development during coming years are discussed. Topics such as health and economic programs, family service agencies, child welfare and daycare programs, and foster care and adoption services are explored. As a result of predicted trends concerning factors such as family size, family structure, and family malfunctioning, suggested alterations in future social work and social welfare services are discussed.
Three aspects of child custody cases are discussed: (1) a "rule of thumb complex," (2) the belief that courts find factfinding and adjudication of such cases a painful process; and (3) the feeling that judges generally do not have and are not given relevant psychological insights that would aid decision. The "rules of thumb" of parental fitness and best interests of the child constitute the black letter law of custody. Two highly publicized cases that are both seen as "wrongly decided" and that were reversed by subsequent events or legislation are examined: Painter v Bannister in Iowa and the "Baby Lenore" case, in which a Florida court refused to give full faith and credit to a prior New York decision and a later New York decision overruled the earlier decision. In the Painter case, the father was denied custody of his child in favor of the maternal grandparents, who were able to provide a more affluent home. In the "Baby Lenore" case the natural mother, after having given the child up for adoption, was first awarded custody and later denied custody in favor of the adoptive parents who had cared for the child since it had been 1-month-old. In the Iowa case there was no act or event that had the effect of terminating parental rights. In the New York case there was such an event—Baby Lenore's surrender for adoption through an agency. To better safeguard the interests of the child in such cases, it is recommended that the child be independently represented by counsel.

Several case histories of successful adoption of mildly retarded children are presented. General criteria for adoptive parents and the children are discussed.

The growing number of adoptions in this country, including racially mixed adoptions, attest to the general acceptance of adoption as a way of bringing love to children in need of families of their own and the satisfactions of parenthood to childless couples, single men and women, and families who have room for one more.

This article discusses the background, philosophy, and provisions of the Model State Subsidized Adoption Act, which makes appropriate adoptions possible through public subsidy of children who might not otherwise be adopted because of special circumstances such as handicaps, race, and age.


The Model State Subsidized Adoption Act, developed to supplement existing State statutes, is presented in full, with accompanying model regulations. The act is designed to help provide a child in special circumstances with a permanent adoptive home. When efforts to achieve placement without subsidy have failed, the act would provide that the child be certified as eligible for subsidized adoption, under the following conditions: physical or mental disability, emotional disturbance, recognized high risk of physical or mental disease, age disadvantage, sibling relationship, racial or ethnic factors, or any combination of these conditions. It is noted that certifying the child as eligible for subsidy places emphasis on the child and his needs rather than on the financial ability of the adoptive parents to meet those needs. The text of the act is accompanied by a discussion of the background of subsidized adoption in the United States. A supplementary section presents a comparison of the model act with existing State laws. Tables are included.


More than 318,000 illegitimate children were conceived in 1967, despite the existence of new methods of birth control. The new morality has led to an illegitimacy rate that has grown 16.9 percent between 1940 and 1967. As the illegitimacy rate soars, so do the associated costs. Recent statistics indicate that the Federal government and various State governments contribute well over $3,384,059,000 annually to children under the Aid to Families with Dependent Children Programs. Bastardy or paternity laws have
existed for centuries to ease the burdens of illegitimacy. The prima facie purpose of such acts is to determine paternity in order to compel parents to support their children. The law thus seeks to convert a moral obligation into a legal duty. However, it is felt that the law has remained static and unresponsive to both changing prices and changing sexual attitudes. The Paternity Act of Florida is examined and criticized on these grounds. The paper examines the question of whether paternity laws can reduce the problems of illegitimacy and, if so, the ways in which such laws can best be made responsive to the changing moral and economic conditions of society. Particular emphasis is placed on the Florida Bastardy Act, with a view toward revising the existing substantive and procedural law governing paternity actions in Florida. The problems of illegitimacy are two-fold: On the one hand, it is necessary to understand the social problems associated with illegitimacy, and, on the other, it is necessary to determine the specific areas in which the law is deficient in coping with the problems of the illegitimate child. Solutions discussed include abortion reform, birth control, adoption without consent, and revision of the existing Paternity Act. A statutory reform is proposed, but it is stressed that it is merely a compromise to ease the economic burden facing the mother, the child, and the public. By imposing more stringent liability on the father, or possible father, it attempts to discourage immorality. By no means does the proposal claim to solve the problem of illegitimacy, for that can only be achieved through the prevention of births out of wedlock.


This article describes a program in which children not legally free for adoption are placed with foster families committed to eventually adopting them, although they are aware that the children may not become legally free.


This article argues that adoption influences personality development and that artists who have themselves been adopted often reveal their fantasies in their creative products. Two Albee plays are examined and presented as support for this argument.
A group study method developed by a private adoption agency for couples interested in adopting children with special needs is described in this piece. The program includes group meetings, self-study homework, movies, slides, tapes, and extensive followup.


One-hundred-fourteen biologically related families and 109 adoptive families were administered the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory. The protocols of 870 parents and their adolescent children were scored on the six scales of J.J. Holland’s Model of Interest Styles (realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional). Biological parent-child correlations ranged from −.13 to +.40, with 15 of the 24 scale correlations achieving significance; only two of the adoptive parent-child correlations were significant (range from −.15 to +.25). Biologically related pairs were also significantly more correlated than adoptive pairs for interest profiles. Same-sex biological siblings were more similar to each other than either opposite-sex sibling pairs or parent-child pairs. Pairs of unrelated children in the adoptive families were not too similar either on Holland’s scales or on the profile analysis.


The author studied family influences on vocational interest development by hypothesizing that parents with similar interests are more likely to have adolescents who also develop those interests than are parents whose interests are very divergent. Not to confound genetic and environmental influences, the 844 parents and adolescent children in 114 biologically related and 101 adoptive families completed the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory. Parent-child interest difference scores were regressed on parent-parent difference scores (PPDIF), a dummy variable for family type, and the interaction between family type and PPDIF. For all parent-child pairs except mother-son, greater PPDIF scores predicted greater parent-child difference scores (indicating influence of family environment),
and there was no family type-PPDIF interaction (indicating that the environmental influence was operating in both biological and adoptive families). Evidence of genetic variance in interest styles was also confirmed.


This study was designed to provide information about the outcomes of transracial adoptions in response to a growing trend among adoption agencies to place children across racial lines. The study focused on 125 adopted black children and their white adoptive families. The children ranged in age from 5 to 19 years (median age = 8.8 years) and had lived with their adoptive families from 2 years and 10 months to more than 18 years (median length of stay = 7.2 years). The success of the transracial adoptions was assessed by a series of 15 measures, including test scores, indices developed from different types of data supplied by the parents, teachers’ evaluations, and interviewer ratings. Data were obtained from two interviews held at 1-year intervals. Success findings are reported in terms of test scores; symptom scores; interviewer, parent, and teacher evaluation; peer relations; and attitudes toward blackness. A typology of white families who adopt black children is also presented. The general findings indicate that 77 percent of the transracial adoptions may be seen as successful—a rate approximately equal to that found in studies of conventional white adoptions as well as those of older children and other racial groups. This study is available from the Child Welfare League of America, Inc., Research Center, 67 Irving Place, New York, N.Y. 10003.


The article presents data collected over a 3-year period concerning the success or failure of adoptions of black children by white parents. The predominant picture is that of healthy and well-adjusted children, aware of their heritage, living with parents who are highly satisfied with their adoption experience.

This study sought to examine the interaction of 38 pairs of white adoptive parents of black children and their social agencies from the viewpoint of the parents and agency workers. A secondary study compared the characteristics of more recent transracial adopters with those of 125 families who had adopted transracially in the past. Results of questionnaires given to the 38 families and their social workers showed that families were generally well satisfied with their agency experiences. Discrepancies between reports of social workers and parents suggested that communication barriers existed and that many of the social workers had a somewhat limited understanding of the adoptive parents. The two sets of parents (present group and past group) were found to be fairly similar in terms of attitudes about transracial adoption and child rearing. Information obtained from interviews between social workers and parents is presented in addition to data on the demographic and social characteristics, motivation for adoption, and attitudes on racial issues of the adoptive families. A total of 155 adoption workers responded to an attitude questionnaire focusing on transracial adoption and related issues. In general, respondents agreed that transracial adoption was an acceptable practice and a better alternative for black children than indeterminate long-term foster care. This study is available from the Child Welfare League of America, Inc., Research Center, 67 Irving Place, New York, N.Y. 10003.


This booklet describes a State subsidy program designed to facilitate the adoption of black children in need of permanent homes. Program participants were children, age 3 months to 17 years, living in foster homes in Chicago and East St. Louis, Ill. Some of the children had serious emotional and/or physical problems, but all were free of significant ties to their parents and relatives. The major components of the program were: (1) finding children who could
benefit from adoption, (2) providing direct services to children, (3) locating and developing adoptive homes, (4) effecting adoptive placements (with or without subsidy), and (5) conducting research on all phases of adoption. Permanent nonfoster homes were found for nearly 70 percent of the children: About 12 percent were assigned to remain in planned, long-term foster care because of strong ties with foster parents who would not adopt. Adoptive homes could not be found for 8 percent of the children. An extensive recruiting program for adoptive parents was initiated, incorporating advertising, door-to-door recruitment in black neighborhoods, and interaction with foster parents. A discussion of the role of adoption subsidies is included. Appendixes provide data tables and a casefinding schedule.


This article is a summary of the Child Welfare League of America's semiannual report on adoptions. Data, collected from 49 voluntary agencies over a period of 4 years, include demographic variables of adopted children and of approved homes.


This speech presents an overview of issues and trends in the provision of foster care and adoption services in Canada. The number of children “in care” in Canada (in foster homes, institutions, or adoptive homes) appears to have peaked around 1969 and declined thereafter. Information on contraceptives and the availability of abortions are seen as possible factors in this decline. Two social changes affecting adoptions are discussed: the increasing number of divorces, remarriages, and subsequent adoptions by stepparents; and the increasing number of unwed mothers who choose to keep their babies. The subsequent problems of these illegitimate children and of single-parent families in general are noted. According to the statistics presented, the greatest proportion of children in care are in foster homes. Reasons for the increasing demand for foster homes include decreasing supply of foster parents, decreasing provision of residential services, and changes in the characteristics of foster children. The question of children's rights is discussed; and it is sug-
suggested that these rights must come before those of natural, foster, and adoptive parents. It is also suggested that much of the work of child welfare services derives from conditions of poverty and that more carefully linked social policies are needed to improve these conditions. Appended are tables of statistics on children receiving various welfare services and on Indian population characteristics.


Arguments on abortion often stress two points: that abortions necessarily involve loss of human life, and that they deny equality of opportunity for parenthood. The possibility of fetal transplantation makes the first point not necessarily valid; the second assumption, while true, suggests that abortions may be unjustifiable, since they deprive persons of opportunities for parenthood to which they should be entitled under equality of opportunity. If abortion is defined as withdrawal of bodily support, it can be classified as parental abandonment, with the fetal death an unavoidable byproduct, given current technology. This situation suggests that the State could validly claim custody of unwanted fetuses. Given firm declarations of intent to abandon a fetus, the State could then bring it into the range of children available for adoption. The mother would have to be compensated for carrying it, and other legal provisions would have to be made.


This study of informal adoption patterns among black families throughout the United States examines the role of the extended family and the functioning of a kinship network that includes foster care of children by relatives other than parents. The study’s basic mode of investigation was secondary analysis of existing data: quantitative national data from the U.S. Census Bureau and other sources and qualitative data from a review and synthesis of research studies in the area. Census Bureau sources are: (1) annual reports (from current population surveys, 1969–1976) on household and family characteristics and on marital status and living arrangements, (2) data from the 1970 census, and (3) a public use sample
developed from the 1970 census to adequately represent families involved in informal adoption. Included is a discussion of the past and current significance of child welfare policies. Chapters describing various social and economic characteristics of the children and families examine age, family relationships, family size and structure, and other reasons for adoption; comparison of one- and two-parent families; rural-urban comparisons; and various economic factors. Recommendations for improving the quality of services relating to black and other low-income children are made.


Genetic factors are implicated in the cause of psychopathological disorders whenever the incidence of disorder is greater among the adopted-away offspring of affected parents than among those of control (unaffected) parents. The lack of information about most parents who give their children up for adoption could result in the inclusion of a substantial number of high-risk parents in the control group. This situation could bias an adoption study against a genetic hypothesis. MMPI scores of two groups of a total of 363 pregnant unwed mothers were compared to those of two other groups: 28 married pregnant women and 2,054 female 12th graders. Unwed mothers had significant elevations on five of the nine clinical scales; elevations of psychopathic deviancy and schizophrenia were particularly substantial. Results indicate a requirement to select control group parents who are representative of the general population.


The authors conducted a survey of 150 black households to examine black attitudes and beliefs about transracial adoptions. Results suggest that the majority of blacks do not oppose the idea of transracial adoptions. The majority of respondents felt that it is more important that a black child receive love from white parents than be left in foster care or in an institution. While the respondents were concerned about the child’s possible loss of identification with the black community, the needs of the individual child were seen to be of prime importance.

Children cut off from their ancestry need double protection against the effects of marital discord in substitute parents. It is the responsibility of adoption societies to see that, in seeking to adopt, childless couples are motivated by a healthy and heartfelt desire for children and not by neurosis or the stresses of marital disharmony.


Legal issues involved in child custody controversies are studied through the case of "Baby Lenore." It is noted that the Florida Court, which ruled that the adoptive parents were to keep the baby, recognized the upheaval factor—a factor not considered by the New York Court which had awarded the child to its natural mother. For the Florida court, Baby Lenore became the primary party in the proceeding. It is suggested that in such cases the court seek investigations and evaluations on adoptive parents by psychiatric testimony, even when adoptions are not contested, in order to find out whether the adoptive parents are fit. Such reports should be sought especially when the original placement was not made through an agency. A child's interests in an adoption proceeding cannot properly be ascertained without social and medical investigations. Such reports are best presented to the court in an objective manner. Moreover, children in custody hearings should be given their own legal counsel to assure fairness.


A retrospective appraisal of the outcome of adoption is presented by comparing perceptions of both adoptive parents and young adult adoptees.


Transracial adoptions have been encouraged widely as a way to meet the needs of many black children. This practice and the agency philosophy behind it are challenged in the light of today's social realities.
This research deals with the legal, social, and cultural contexts in which informal adoption of black children by adults takes place in rural South Alabama. A total of 306 parent surrogates were identified, interviewed, and compared on the basis of 10 socioeconomic characteristics. Information was also collected on the number of children informally adopted in each house, reasons for the adoption, available alternatives to adoption, length of adoption period designated, circumstances of the parent and the parent surrogate when the child was taken in, characteristics of the child, and the relationship of the child and parent surrogates with the natural parents. Data were collected on the incidence of parental request for retrieval of the child, on parental assistance in the care of the child, on the adoption children's physical and psychological condition, and on the parent surrogates' knowledge of the legal adoption system. Analysis of the data indicated that there was a high degree of satisfaction and acceptance of the informal adoption arrangement, that the children were accepted into the surrogate homes as natural children, and that legal adoption was rarely considered or sought by these rural people. It is noted that the stringent requirements for legal adoption would deny many of the parent surrogates in this study the opportunity to become adoptive parents. Improvements in income, education, and health services are suggested as solutions that would not impair the traditional social concern among such people who assure children parental love and care.


This article discusses the development of a separate adoption unit in the Cumberland County (Pennsylvania) Children's Services Unit. Established in 1972, the unit was designed to reduce the number of children in long-term (2 years or more) foster care by making adoptive plans for as many as possible. Agency staff worked with attorneys to determine the Federal and State laws regarding the evidence needed to terminate parental rights. In the first 2 years of the program, the total of foster care was reduced from 27 percent of the agency caseload to 18 percent, and this reduction was maintained for 3 years. The number of foster care caseworkers in the
agency was also reduced, and services to children in their own homes were increased. An increase in daycare services and increased manpower in the protective unit have enabled these services to be more effective in helping children in their own homes.


For the older child moving into adoptive placement, a careful and knowledgeable preparation of both child and adoptive family is essential for success.


Ninety-one children adopted when 5 years of age or older, all of whom became available for adoption as a result of court action terminating parental rights because of neglect and/or abuse of the children, were followed up. Despite the children’s early experience, 80–82 percent of the adoptions were assessed as successful. A review of the literature indicates that such a supposedly atypical outcome is encountered frequently. An effort is made to explain reversibility of trauma on the basis of constitutional, sociological, and psychological factors.


Followup interviews were conducted with the adoptive parents of 91 white, mentally and physically normal children who had been placed for adoption when 5 years of age or older. Specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions expressed by the parents were tabulated, and, using only those items identified independently, a ratio of satisfaction-to-dissatisfaction score was computed for each family. This was one criterion of "success." A second criterion was a composite score of level of satisfaction in the total adoptive experience. Using these criteria of outcome, comparison was made between the "success" of adoptions of these older children with infant adoption studies. Adoptions of older children were shown to be as successful as infant adoptions.

This article surveys the issues and problems of the placement for adoption of an "at risk" child (the child who may be retarded or present other problems) in Western Australia. The possible repercussions of an incorrect placement are discussed, and the need for a placement officer to be as informed as possible about the child's background, diagnosis of mental condition, and prognosis of development is stressed. When an "at risk" child is placed, consideration must be given to the ability of the adopting parents to cope with the child's possible mental retardation.


This article describes one adoption agency's experiences and outlines the conditions essential to its success.


The author maintains that the family crisis that inevitably follows the adoptive placement of an older child can be surmounted if the social worker applies techniques based on crisis theory and family systems theory. In preparation for such a placement, emphasis should be redirected so that focus is placed on the complete family system rather than on the child alone. Such an approach is necessary, it is argued, since the child will become a new family member and will disrupt an established system of relationship, no matter how effective the system has been in the past. Satir's (1972) concepts of homeostasis and family pain, the goals of crisis intervention, and the usefulness of group work are examined in terms of their application to the adoptive placement of the older child.


In a sample of 5,483 adults who had been legally adopted early in life by persons not biologically related to them, 33 were identified, from mental hospital records, for whom a diagnosis of definite schiz-
ophrenia (chronic, latent, or acute) could be agreed upon by four raters. An equal number of matched controls were selected from the sample of adopted individuals who had never been admitted to a mental hospital. Ninety percent of the living parents, siblings, and half-siblings, both biological and adoptive, cooperated in an extensive psychiatric interview permitting a consensus diagnosis by three blind raters. Schizophrenia and uncertain schizophrenia were found to be significantly concentrated in the population genetically related to the schizophrenic adoptees. Their adoptive relatives did not differ from the control populations in the prevalence of schizophrenic illness. While findings are consistent with a genetic transmission of schizophrenia, it is emphasized that they are equally compatible with a syndrome of multiple etiologies and different modes of genetic transmission.


The author reports findings and recommendations from a study that assessed the self-concept during adolescence of 406 Korean children who had been adopted by American families.


Fifteen white couples who have adopted 21 Korean children (9 boys and 12 girls) were interviewed and asked to complete a questionnaire containing eight categories of questions as to general family data, behavioral symptoms of the adopted children in retrospect, and other data related to transracial adoption. All the families in the study were classified in socioeconomic classes II and III. The most common behavioral symptoms were temper tantrums and excessive crying in the children adopted before the age of 3 years, and learning difficulty and withdrawing behavior in the children adopted after the age of 3 years. Only one child required psychiatric treatment. All children were reported to have been in good physical health. There were no significant differences between boys and girls in the incidence of the behavioral symptoms. Study data were compared to the results of other studies. Several issues in transracial and transcultural adoption are discussed, and areas for further longitudinal investigation are listed.

Three adopted Korean children; age 22-30 months, from white middle-class American families, who were referred for psychiatric evaluation due to severe behavioral symptoms, were studied. The patient with the most severe case history is presented. The paper reports the children's behavioral symptom list, psychiatric findings, data on parents, and treatment courses. The developmental psychodynamics of the symptom manifestations and bicultural understanding of the children are discussed.


This paper examines characteristics of parents of hard-to-place children and the success of the adoptions. "Hard-to-place" children are defined as those who are older than 2 years; children with physical, emotional, or mental handicaps; or those of a racial background other than white.

A form letter was sent to 60 organizations throughout the country which were listed by Opportunity (a program to broaden adoption opportunities in Portland, Ore.) as promoting the adoption of hard-to-place children. Roughly 20 organizations volunteered assistance. Self-administered questionnaires were mailed to parents. The final sample consisted of 206 sets of parents; the return rate was 56 percent. Respondents completed three soc-psychological scales: the Rokeach nine-point Dogmatism Scale, the McCloskey Shortened Conservatism Scale, and the Srole Anomie Scale. Frequency distributions were used to present a profile of the characteristics of the parents and adoptive children. The data revealed that the vast majority of families (73 percent) adopted transracially and that the transracially adoptive parent was the epitome of successful, well-educated, white, suburban America. As was hypothesized, hard-to-place children ended up with exceptional sets of parents. Among the first transracially adopted child, about 31 percent were Oriental, 25 percent were black-white, and 20 percent were black. The two most frequently chosen reasons for adoption were (1) desire to have a family, and (2) compassion for children without homes. Fifty percent of the sample claimed that problems were nonexistent; only 2.9 percent reported experiencing serious problems. Many transracially adoptive parents anticipated difficulties relating to social life and identity when the child grew older.
The vast majority of respondents (80 percent) rated their adoptions as "highly successful." The cross-tabulations revealed that the success of the adoption was positively correlated with the parents' low degree of dogmatism and the presence of biological children in the home prior to adoption. The following variables were not related to the success of the adoption: education, income, occupation, degree of conservatism or anomie, the frequency of Church attendance, the importance of religion, the age of the parents when the child was placed in the home, and the age of the child at placement.


The author notes that the sparse amount of available data on the outcome of transracially adopted children is far from conclusive and suggests that a need exists for followup studies that will monitor the psychosocial development of transracially adopted children as they go through adolescence.


This volume reports on the final phase of a research project to study the effects of adoption on parental, child, and family functioning. To provide a background for the study, the development of adoption in the United States and the theory and practice of adoption are discussed. The study asked three questions: (1) How adequately do adoptive couples adjust to the responsibilities of parenthood following completion of adoption? (2) What information about the adoptive parents and children which can be obtained before the completion of the adoption is predictive of how the family will later function? (3) What are the developmental patterns of adopted children? A questionnaire was completed by 556 adoptive families, and 200 of the families were later interviewed. Analyses of the findings are reported in detail. Case illustrations of adoptive families lend substance and perspective to the reported findings by describing both superior and poor family functioning. A section of the book discusses the implications of the research findings for adoption practices. Appendixes include the questionnaire and interview schedules and analysis of the data.

The authors investigated the discrepant treatment by a juvenile court of adopted versus neglected delinquents. Adopted delinquents received harsher dispositions in spite of the fact that neglected delinquents often faced more serious charges. The two groups are compared in terms of family structure and the criminal and psychiatric histories of their parents. None of these factors seems to account for the adoptee's harsher treatment. The authors hypothesize that an interplay of late adoption, intrinsic vulnerabilities in the children, and weakness of parental bonds accounts for the differential outcomes.


Thirty adopted children (age 6-13 years) and a matched control group of biological children are examined in order to find differences in developmental trends of symptomatology. Children referred to a child guidance clinic and children reared within the kibbutz communal educational system were examined. Clinic dossiers provided information on parents' characteristics and the child's developmental and behavioral manifestations. Children's behavioral characteristics were checked on a list of 132 items; a yes-no format was used. The results show that kibbutz adoptees' symptoms convey feelings of insecurity and rootlessness, low concentration ability, and restlessness, in contrast to the more aggressive interactions of biological children. The kibbutz adopted children were found to differ from the city adopted children in the content of their difficulties. Feelings of aloneness and insecurity become the more significant characteristics of problematic adopted children reared within the kibbutz system as they approach adolescence.


The author describes her attempts to search for her natural parents and discusses the effects of these experiences on her self-perception and on the people around her.

The authors describe the development of a motivation and potential for adoptive parenthood scale, using the basic principles of psychometric theory. The sample consisted of 530 adoptive families who were served by 67 adoption agencies and 265 adoption workers. The distribution of the scores and the reliability of the scale are reported, and possible uses of the scale are suggested.


This article is an attempt to discuss developments in black adoption from 1945 to the present. Special attention is given to efforts of the social work profession to increase and improve adoptive services for black children. These efforts are related both to the broad social forces that influence this area of child welfare practice and to quantitative outcomes. Factors that increase or decrease effectiveness in reaching desired objectives are also analyzed. The agencies will continue to face more minority children than they can handle: "Agency efforts to increase and improve adoption for black children . . . take place within larger societal forces . . . which exert a powerful influence and which are not subject to agency control." This situation is also aggravated by the environment and by an institutional racism that is still of destructive proportions. These hard social facts lessen the hope that the percentage of black families adopting children will increase manyfold in the foreseeable future.


Readoption became necessary in a case where an emotionally deprived child was placed with a couple who were unable to cope with the situation. The youngster's natural mother was unwed and had kept the child for 15 months prior to placing him for adoption. He was catatonic, passive, and moody, placing a strain on the adoptive parents and their children. It became necessary to change the placement; however, transition was gradual. Preliminary meetings among the two families and the child paved the way for eventual success. The original placement was not viewed as a failure but
rather as an opportunity to ease the guilt of the original adoptive parents and make a smooth adjustment for the adopted child into his new home.


The purposes of this national study of independent, non-agency adoptions were: (1) to determine the experience of the parties involved (biological parents, adoptive parents, agencies, intermediaries, and law enforcement agents); (2) to identify agency policies, procedures, and resources that deter agency adoptions and thus encourage independent adoptions; and (3) to identify weaknesses in State laws and regulations and their enforcement which allow abuses of the independent adoption process to continue. The study involved: (1) an analysis of adoption laws and regulations and their enforcement in all 50 States; (2) a questionnaire survey of one voluntary and one public adoption agency in each State to obtain information on their knowledge of independent adoption; and (3) an investigation of independent adoptions in five cities through personal interviews with adopting parents, biological mothers who relinquished children age 2 or under, and independent adoption facilitators. Major topics highlighted in the analysis included the role of adoption agencies; adoptive parents' concerns, their agency experiences, feelings about adoption and the risk involved; the experiences and concerns of the biological parents; the facilitators' involvement in the adoption field and with adoptive and biological parents; laws on adoptive placement; responses of attorneys general/district attorneys pertaining to the enforcement of State adoption laws; and policy recommendations for legal and agency changes that would reduce or eliminate the risks of independent adoptions. This study is available from the Child Welfare League of America, Inc., 67 Irving Place, New York, N.Y. 10003.


This summary report of a 2-year study of independent adoptions (without agencies) conducted by the Child Welfare League of America Research Center briefly describes the findings on the risks involved for the children and the adoptive and biological parents, relevant States laws, and agency policies that tend to turn away applications for adoption.

The authors administered a battery of tests (e.g., the Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Test) and self-report measures to 20 normal, nonrelated adopted 9- to 12-year-olds and to 20 normal, nonadopted controls. School behavior ratings were also obtained, and similarity of mother-child attitudes was assessed using interview techniques. No significant differences were found between the two groups on any of the measures used. Results indicate that the greater incidence of emotional disturbance previously found among adopted children is not caused by adoption itself but by consequent difficulties in parent-child relationships.


The author gives a personal account of the kind of biographical information her adopted, black, 7-year-old son was using to develop his personal identity, the biographical information he was imparting to others, and the extent to which his social and personal identities differed or coincided. It was observed that color identity (i.e., skin color, social classification, and visibility), racial identity (i.e., Afro-American, including ancestry and black heroes), and knowledge about his adoption were key social facts for the child. His attitudes were reflected in his many references to lexical, polysemous items having to do with color and his references to his developing racial identity. The child's identity revolved around interpersonal encounters with family, peers, and others. With the family, he was open about discussing racial identity and adoption, but this openness did not transfer to his interactions with peers and others. He showed some anxiety when encountering new people, especially white adults, but had developed close relationships with adults and children from various ethnic backgrounds.


The authors conducted interviews with the legal parents of 35 adopted hyperactive children and compared the parents' psychiatric diagnoses with those obtained in the authors' previous study of
biological and control parents. The high prevalence of hysteria, socialopathy, and alcoholism found in biological parents of hyperactive children was not found in the adopting parents, nor were the latter especially likely to have been hyperactive themselves. These data are consistent with genetic transmission of the syndrome. A polygenic mode is postulated.


The author tested the hypothesis that adopted children's individual IQs are more related to the individual social status ranks of their biological parents than to those of their adopting parents. Data from 20 Mexican-American and 21 Anglo-American biological and adopting families, in which the IQ score of the adopted child was available show that (1) there was no significant selective placement of these children in adopting homes, (2) there was no significant correlation between the midparent social-education rank of the adopting parents and their adopted children's IQ, and (3) there was a strong correlation between the midparent social-education rank of the biological parents and their children's individual intelligence ranks.


All reliable published data about the nature and nurture of adopted children's IQs are summarized, and conclusions are drawn about the relative importance of heredity and environment on children's mental development. Any study that compares the central tendency of adopted children's IQs with a group mean of 100 IQ points for a normal population cannot be taken seriously until several methodological criteria have been met: (1) representative sampling; (2) no differential loss of subjects over time; (3) accurate, age-corrected information on biological and adoptive parents; (4) careful attention to early separation and placement of children; and (5) elimination of practice effects and regression to the mean artifacts. Analysis of the resemblance between individual adopted children's IQ scores and their adoptive and biological parents' mental abilities shows that the adoptive parents' home environment has only a modest effect on their adopted children's intellectual growth, while heredity and environment of the biological parents have a strong effect.
on their own children's intellectual growth. At present there is disagreement about the precise values of genetic and environmental effects on IQ, and several assumptions must be made before accurate statistics can be derived. The available data strongly suggest that, under existing circumstances, heredity is much more important than environment in producing individual differences in IQ.


This article examines the operations and philosophy of ARENA (Adoption Resource Exchange of North America), a clearinghouse organized and operated by the Child Welfare League of America to help agencies find homes for their hard-to-place children.


The author presents a philosophy and method for placing children over 6 years in foster homes. Any child who needs a home is viewed as adoptable. The relationship between the child and the social worker is the basis for successful adoption, since it is the social worker who becomes the liaison agent between the new family and the child. Adoption is not the final outcome of this process but, rather, the social worker's plan for the child's future, with adoption being one alternative. Group discussions with potential families and interviews with the child are held to acquaint both parties with the adoption process. A "Life Story Book," often written and illustrated by the child himself, is a means of identifying crucial elements of the child's past and providing a basis of understanding and caring for the child. The quality of the agency atmosphere, the selection process, and supervision of the placement are also considered.

The article describes the older children's unit of the adoption services section, San Diego County of Public Welfare, San Diego, Calif.


The author describes the development of a California-based adoption agency, innovatively organized by black personnel, which was established to meet the needs of the prospective black adopting
families. Established in 1971, the agency’s services include a counseling program for teenage mothers; followup of disenchanted prospective adoptive parents; and examination of special cases where, under ordinary guidelines, clients would be denied adoption privileges.


Information is given about recent decisions in New York courts in cases involving the right of adult adoptees to inspect sealed adoption records. The effect of these decisions is that any change in the right of access to records must be brought about through legislation, not through the courts.


The authors tested the hypothesis that adopted adolescents would have more negative self-concepts than nonadopted adolescents. Thirty-eight of 721 undergraduates sampled reported adoptive status. For comparative purposes, a control group of 38 nonadopted subjects was randomly drawn from the remaining respondents matched for age, sex, race, and marital status. The Berger Self-Concept Scale was administered to both sets of subjects. A comparison of mean self-concept scores for adopted and nonadopted subjects, using students' for independent samples, showed no significant difference.


The authors examine the differences in presenting symptomatology between adopted and nonadopted children referred to a child psychiatry outpatient clinic. Subjects were 25 extrafamilial adopted children and 25 children who were living with their biological parents. The two groups were matched for time of referral and were found to be equivalent by age, sex, race, education, and socioeconomic level of the parents. Results suggest that adopted children seen in a child guidance clinic are not more seriously disturbed than
nonadopted children seen, but that they are referred more often for serious antisocial symptomatology. The presence and the severity of the antisocial symptomatology are related to the age of adoption. The later the age of adoption, the greater the frequency and severity of the antisocial behavior.


Collaboration of a public social service department and a public adoption department demonstrated that it was possible to find permanent adoptive homes for many children who were in foster-care.


The use of video recordings of adoption practices at the Children's Home of Cincinnati is described. The recordings have become important aids to the staff in providing services to clients. They stimulate discussion, bring realism into the helping process, and assist both staff and clients in understanding the complex issues involved in adoption. Use of the tapes has altered the way in which services are rendered; and the results have been of value to the biological parents, the child, and the adoptive parents.


Short-term educative therapy was used with adoptive parents and their adopted adolescents to examine some of the specific problems of each group. Parents and children met separately for 4 weeks during which they examined the normal problems of identity formation that occur during adolescence, parents' concerns about the possible opening of sealed records, and the child's wish to search for the birth parents. Parents and children met in a joint session, and it was found that the separate sessions had encouraged discussion about topics that were frequently avoided: The children sensed that raising certain questions threatened or embarrassed the parents either because they aroused feelings the parents were unable to handle or because the parents simply were not prepared to deal with the questions.

This paper reports on research addressed to the attitudes and feelings of birth parents years after they relinquished babies for adoption. It discusses reasons for relinquishment, parental fantasies about the child, parental interest in reunion with the child, and parental feelings about opening the sealed records. The article advocates reunion and research.


The author's hypotheses in relation to the characteristics of the adoptive couples were borne out. Couples who had adopted a child of mixed racial origin were likely to be "more eligible," that is, to have better educations and higher incomes than the couples who did not adopt across racial lines. While there was some variation in motivation, the primary reason in both groups was the inability to have children. However, a secondary reason with the mixed racial group was "to help a child," and with the nonmixed racial group, "desire for a larger family."

The majority of the couples who had adopted across racial lines did not support the hypotheses. In contrast to "room-for-one-more" applicants, they had not had children of their own but still adopted a child of mixed racial background. This group, classified in the study as "neo-traditional" applicants, seems to point to an important resource for recruitment.

The parents who had adopted a child with ethnic background similar to their own supported the hypotheses. They had not had children of their own, adopted because they needed children, and were classified as "traditional" applicants.

Sixteen indicators were used to assess the parents' methods of coping with role handicap. Of these indicators, the parents who had adopted a child of mixed racial background used acknowledgment of difference in 13 and rejection of difference in three. The parents who had not adopted a child of mixed racial background coped by acknowledgment of difference in five instances and by rejection of difference in the remaining 11. These results supported the hypotheses.

Parents who adopted a child of mixed racial origin in 1964 seemed to be "more eligible" applicants. Motivation was primarily related to the inability to have children; but there was a tendency for these parents to be aware of the needs of the child as well as of their own
needs, so that motivation was actually a combination of needing a child and wanting to help a child. Parents who adopted across racial lines coped with role handicap by acknowledging the difference between themselves and the biological family. The concept of role handicap and the utility of the coping mechanisms need further study.


This article describes a questionnaire survey on agency policies by the Los Angeles County Department of Adoptions which covered 1,513 cases.


The passage of adoption legislation in 24 States during the third quarter of the 19th century raises three historical problems: (1) Why was the Roman practice of adoption not incorporated into the common law? (2) Why did the American (and the English) legislatures wait so long before passing adoption laws? (3) Since there had been virtually no law on adoption for more than 1,000 years in the Anglo-American system of jurisprudence, why were so many adoption statutes passed in the United States in such a comparatively short time?

Tentative answers to these questions may be found by first examining the adoption law of ancient Rome and some earlier civilizations, then by comparing these to the medieval English law relating to adoption and inheritance and the child-rearing methods of that time to illustrate how children were brought up in a system that did not permit legal adoption. Further insight may be gained by evaluating the treatment of children in early America as it is revealed in contemporary writings and recent historical studies to see how this system operated in 17th and 18th century America before children could be legally adopted. Finally, an examination of the writings of the 19th century reformers working in child welfare shows that the general adoption statutes, which followed earlier "private" laws, grew out of these reformer's efforts. It may be concluded that (1) the Roman practice of adoption was not included in the common law because the Roman social system needed an adoption law that served the adopter, not the adoptee, with its chief aims of continuity of the family and the perpetuation of family religious
rites; (2) the English and American legislatures waited for as long as they did before passing adoption laws because it was not until the late 19th century that old methods of child welfare proved inadequate. The putting-out system, which grew into the system of indentures for apprenticeship and service, persisted in England until the late 19th century and was brought over early to the United States and continued here for some 200 years. With the advent of industrialization and the influx of immigrants in the 19th century, however, the educational and beneficial qualities of the master-serv-ant relationship diminished as it became economically unfeasible; and (3) because of the pervasiveness of the economic and social conditions that gave rise to the movement for child welfare reform and the scope of the efforts of the reformers, which included the placing of many thousands of children in homes in many different States, together with the widespread failure of public child-care institutions, many States found it necessary, within a very short period of time, to respond to this child placing with laws to facilitate legal adoption.


The most significant finding of this study was that 58 percent of the sample did not have children by birth at the time of adoption. Another major finding was that half of these interracial placements were agency initiated. Other findings are also discussed.


This study concerns five sets of adoptive white parents of five pre-adolescent Chinese girls from Hong Kong. The primary concern of all of them was having to "prepare their Oriental child for the status accorded a member of a minority group while simultaneously attempting to help...[her] become emotionally a part of a family that is part of the dominant majority. There was also concern over the conflicts of the children's dual culture and racial background. The group discussion approach, however, enabled all the parents to discuss their problems with people with the same or similar problems and, thus, be better able to cope with them.

The authors report a study of 30 nonrelative adopted children referred to a psychiatric facility. Descriptive data are presented on the adoption, the child’s symptomatology, and the frequency of requests for out-of-home placement. Potential difficulties in adoptive placements are suggested for further study.


The present study focuses upon the extent to which deliberate socialization is found in families that have adopted interracially and the delineation of the socialization practices employed. Parental attitudes about race relations and the deliberateness involved in socialization are also assessed. In addition, parental reports on the racial awareness and the dimensions of that awareness as manifested by the child are examined.

The sample was selected from the population of white parents of black or black-white adopted children in the Philadelphia and Boston areas. The cooperation of two voluntary organizations of parents of adopted interracial children was enlisted in drawing the sample. It was stipulated that the child under study had to be at least 2½-years-old and to have been in the home for at least 1 year at the time of the interview.

Preliminary interviews both with groups of parents and with individual parents were used in designing the final questionnaire instrument. For the study itself, indepth interviews were conducted with 70 mothers in their homes. The interview schedule consists of open- and closed-ended questions and a series of hypothetical situations.

Interracial adopters are found to share some distinctive characteristics. They tend to be well educated, to hold relatively high status jobs, to be of a liberal political stance, and to be politically active. For the most part, they are able to produce their own children and thus do not adopt from a need to complete their families. Interracial adopters are inclined to hold strong beliefs in the power of the individual and his ability to control the events of his life.

A relatively small segment of the sample is engaged in deliberately teaching the child to think of himself as black. These respondents are likely to have black friends themselves and black playmates for the child, to live in an integrated neighborhood, to be empha-
sizing black history and culture to the child, and to hold a philosophy in which the child’s black identity is an important outcome of his upbringing. In addition, these interracial adopters are more inclined to perceive the child as black in appearance, more willing to confront existing racial norms, and relatively pessimistic about the future course of racial integration.

On the other hand, the majority of those interviewed are providing little emphasis on the child’s blackness and are inclined to believe in the power of the individual; they also do not want to confront racial norms and tend to reflect optimism about the future course of integration. The age of the child and the parents’ occupational-educational status do not seem to be relevant factors in this constellation of characteristics.

Parental reports about the child’s age and initial race awareness correspond to the results from previous sociological studies in which racial awareness was measured directly. Examination of the dimensions of racial awareness reported present in the child reveals that the evaluative or preference component is relatively absent for the adopted interracial children under study.


This article describes a child guidance center program that includes discussion groups for adoptive parents. The increasing awareness of discrepancies between group observations and the practices of many adoption agencies is noted. The necessity of studying the dynamics of adoption and the conscious and unconscious forces involved in the process are stressed. Collaboration between mental health facilities and adoption agencies is necessary if primary prevention in this important area is to succeed.


Traditional adoption of children by two parents is contrasted to adoption by one parent. The authors question whether the needs of each child can be met in a single-parent adoption. Since no legal prohibition against adoption by single, divorced, or widowed adults exists, such adoption offers a possible solution to the growing need for adoptive homes.
Sixty-eight white subjects—15 adopted boys and 19 adopted girls, and 17 biological boys and 17 biological girls—formed two study groups of 34 children each. They had achieved their 8th but not their 14th birthday and resided with at least one other child. Both groups were comparable with respect to their full-scale IQ scores. All adopted children had been placed by 4 months of age and knew of their adoptive status. Agency-placed children totaled 16, and non-agency totaled 18. The study involved 25 adoptive and 22 biological families. The groups were also comparable as to parents' religious affiliation, education, and income level. The families were middle and upper-middle class. More than half of the parents in both groups attended college.

Two test instruments were used. The first, the WISC, provided 11 subtest scaled scores, which yielded three IQ scores: verbal, performance, and full-scale. The second instrument, the Checklist, specified 17 kinds of maladaptive functioning and test protocol variations. When tallied, a Checklist raw score for each subtest and IQ scale was obtained.

Two major hypotheses were developed as follows: It is expected that there will be no significant differences between the adopted and biological groups (1) on their WISC IQs or subtest scaled scores or (2) on the Checklist scores. Four subhypotheses were added to each by comparing the following subgroups: adopted boys to biological boys, adopted girls to biological girls, adopted boys to adopted girls, and biological boys to biological girls.

The main finding of the present research showed that when non-referred adopted children were compared to a similar group of non-referred biological children on the WISC and Checklist, no intellectual or behavioral differences emerged. The additional findings of significant differences between the sexes within each group do not detract from the major concern of the study, since these represent differences that do not deal with adopted-biological comparisons.
that appear to be associated with effectiveness. Information on each program was collected by means of an unstructured interview with individuals at various staff and administrative levels.

An account of each program is given under the following headings: duration; auspices; purpose; staff involved; methods; community involvement; publicity; intra-agency modifications or innovations; inter-agency efforts; problems and obstacles encountered; steps taken to solve problems, if any; factors reported as most helpful; and cost to adoptive parent. Certain themes were recurrent in the summaries: (1) The primary goal of all programs was to find adoptive homes for black and mixed children. (2) The auspices of the programs varied considerably. (3) Nearly all respondents gave top priority to involvement of the black community in the development of programs, policies, and procedures. (4) State, county, and municipal departments of public welfare play an important role in the workings of adoption agencies. (5) Respondents stressed the importance of interagency cooperation and coordination for effectiveness. (6) Limited funds and staff account for restricted efforts to increase the number of adoptive placements. (7) Most programs attempt to inform the public about the magnitude and urgency of the need for adoptive homes, usually through the use of mass media.


A description and analysis of child-keeping and child dispersal among the Creole and Carib of Belize, a West Indian people on the Central American coast of the Caribbean, are presented. Child-lending covers practices such as fosterage, adoption, apprenticeship, and temporary or permanent care of children by close kin.

Widespread child dispersal has been frequently noted by observers. The patterns of child dispersal appear to accompany matrilocality among Afro-Americans, a family structure in which the strongest and most enduring ties of affection and mutual cooperation are between the mother and her children and within the sibling set, rather than between the mating pair, the husband and wife. One of the most important structural elements of this kind of family has been thought to be the mother-child tie. The mother links one to a body of kin, especially to one’s siblings. The physical contiguity of genetrix to progeny is not considered necessary or even preferable.

It is rare to find children dispersed to non-kin. Of the children being kept by others, 75 percent were kept by close kin. If a child is kept by the close kin of his mother, neither she nor the collective consider him “dispersed.” Of those children “given” to nonrelative
keepers, none were intended to be adoptions in the legal or customary sense. This kind of dispersal appears to be conceptualized as an apprenticeship or clientship, not to learn any particular skill but as an education or socialization in a different milieu or culture, with the expectation that the child will some day return, bringing something useful to his parent. “A child who goes and does not return is an ingrate.” Child-keeping and child dispersal can be seen as a folk model expressing the importance of kinship ties and the necessity for the child to develop and maintain useful interpersonal relationships and a personal network. This message embodies an ambiguity, however: If the kin ties are unbreakable and dependable, why the emphasis upon establishing the personal network? If it is true that these people are socialized not only to particular ambiguities (a well-known phenomenon) but are socialized to expect and to look for ambiguities at all levels of life, then this situation needs immediate attention for its possible contribution to sociological and anthropological theory.


The poor performance of black children on IQ tests and in school has been hypothesized to arise from (1) genetic racial differences or (2) cultural/environmental disadvantages. To separate genetic factors from rearing conditions, 130 black and interracial children adopted by advantaged white families were studied. The socially classified black adoptees, whose natural parents were educationally average, scored above the IQ and the school achievement mean of the white population. Biological children of the adoptive parents scored even higher. Genetic and environmental determinants of differences among the black and interracial adoptees were largely confounded. The high IQ scores of the socially classified black adoptees indicate malleability for IQ under rearing conditions that are relevant to the tests and the schools.


This study examined the effects of genetic and environmental factors on intellectual differences among children in a study of 101 families with both biological and adopted children. WAIS or WISC
scores of all family members and the educational level of natural parents were used to estimate intellectual similarities among related and unrelated persons living together and apart. Comparisons of correlations between related and unrelated siblings produced negligible heritability values, but the parent-child data suggested moderate heritability for the children's IQ differences. The high mean values of the adopted children's IQ scores and the high degree of similarity among unrelated siblings suggested that IQ scores are more malleable than previously thought.


A case history is presented to illustrate the role that adoption played in the genesis and perpetuation of the patient's emotional problems.


School curriculum and IQ data were obtained for 32 working-class children who were adopted early (before 6 months of age) into upper-middle class families. These subjects were compared with a control group of children of the same biological mothers. Failure rates observed were far below those expected for the social class of birth or observed in the control group. However, they were close to those expected from the social class of adoption.


A sample of 25 adopted boys and 25 nonadopted boys were given a series of objective and projective personality tests, including the Picture Q-Sort, Family Relations Test, a combination of the Thematic and Children's Apperception Tests, and figure drawings. In addition, each of their parents was asked to fill out two self-administered questionnaires: The Semantic Differential and the Interpersonal Check List. The boys were matched on the basis of age, religion, socioeconomic status, sibling position, and verbal ability.
The average ages of the experimental and control groups were 9.42 and 9.58 years, respectively. All of the adopted boys had been placed with nonrelated petitioners through agency sources before 6 months of age and had been informed of their adoption by the parents between the ages of 2 and 4 years.

Hypotheses about the personality characteristics of adopted children were drawn from the literature and tested by quantitative and clinical interpretations of the test results. It was predicted that the factor of adoption would have a negligible effect on these children, since they were placed early in infancy and under the guidance of a social welfare agency. No predictions were made regarding parental responses to the self-administered questionnaires.

The results showed that there are considerable uncertainty and anxiety concerning the permanence and reliability of object relations for many of the adopted children. Consequently, their approach to social interaction involves defensive noninvolvement and, in some cases, hypochondriacal withdrawal. The defensive functioning of the adopted boys were characterized by excessive reliance on denial, repression, and phobic fears. This construction, overcontrol, and fearfulness contrasted with the spontaneity and vitality of emotional expression found in the boys within the nonadopted group. In terms of parent-child interaction, the adopted boys associated fear and anxiety with parental disapproval and tended to be inhibited in expressing even mildly aggressive feelings toward parental figures. Several trends in the data also suggested that male sex identity may not be as well developed in the adopted boys as in their matched controls.

Comparison of the parents' responses to the questionnaires suggested that the adoptive parents, especially the adoptive mothers, have not as yet worked through their conflicts and feelings regarding infertility and adoption.

The major conclusions drawn from these results were as follows: (1) Despite the fact that these adopted boys were placed in their adoptive homes in early infancy and through the facilities of a social welfare agency, they appear to be more vulnerable to emotional or psychiatric problems than the nonadopted child. (2) Conflicts regarding adopted status are intensified as a result of parental anxieties concerning adoption, the child's desire to know the facts of his adoption, and the apparently inevitable problem of coping with the original rejection of the natural parents. (3) Adoption agency practices generally offer adoptive applicants little opportunity to work through their conflicts regarding adoption, since the evaluation process may promote defensive efforts rather than a therapeutic interaction. In addition, there is reason to question the policy of some agencies to withhold information from the parents concerning
the child's background. It may intensify the parents' concerns regarding the child's origins and deprive the child of the right to accurate and complete identification of himself. Suggestions for implementation of current agency practices and further research were discussed.


Problems of identification behavior associated with the family romance fantasy were not found to be characteristic of 25 adoptees studied.


The author suggests that the pediatrician should take the initiative in providing information to the parents of an adopted child about the child's future needs and reactions.


This report briefly describes the Interagency Vietnam Adoption Committee (IVAC) project and provides data on the children, families, and adoption agencies involved in the project. The IVAC project set out to place black Vietnamese and black American Children in black adoptive homes in the United States. As a result of that effort, it was concluded that (1) there is an untapped reservoir of potential black adopters in the United States; (2) placement of children takes too long for both the orphans and the prospective adoptive parents; (3) fees are a deterrent to finding black adoptive families; and (4) because of the lack of black representation in adoption agencies, there is prejudice against black adoptive parents even in the placing of black children. More funding and regional adoptional planning are among the recommendations made. Extensive supporting information is presented in three parts: Part one describes the two
phases of the project, intercountry adoptions and domestic adoptions; part two presents statistical data and comments on the source and characteristics of adoption registrants and the children placed; part three describes the work of adoption agencies that served IVAC registrants. In addition, there are 24 tables of data as well as descriptive and supportive documents in the appendixes.


The authors studies the implications of preadoptive statements of 20 adopting couples about the kind of child they hoped to adopt. Using a retrospective design, couples were seen in a semi-structured interview calling for responses relative to parental preadoptive preferences, the child’s place in the family, and parents’ relationship capabilities as observed in an interview. A significant relationship was shown between capacity for object relationships and “acknowledgment of difference” as a coping mechanism. It appears that parents’ capacities to relate well in a variety of situations may be a crucial index of their ability to take on adoptive parenthood.


This article describes techniques that families adopting children 6-months-old or older might use to help communicate feelings of love, continuity of affection, and permanence of the new home to both verbal and nonverbal children. Songs and stories are included.


A 4-month adoption project that uses innovative techniques for hard-to-place children is described. One-hundred-thirteen applicants were randomly assigned to the regular department and 85 to the project. No initial telephone interviews were conducted with project applicants: Those who expressed interest were invited to the agency for group or individual meetings. Applicants were shown pictures of children awaiting adoption and were given information about the project and a description of the adoption process. Applicants who expressed an interest in any of the children were then
interviewed and discussed with the worker the child's needs and his probable effect on the family. The project succeeded in placing 19 children with 17 families; the department placed 32 children. The project was more successful in transracial placements and in placing older children (over 1 year of age). Results indicate that the project applicants' participation in the decisionmaking process was beneficial to the placement of older children. The family characteristics, the quality of placements, and the applicant and project team reactions are discussed.


This descriptive report covers the first phase of a 20-year longitudinal study of black children adopted under 3 years of age by black couples, white couples, and single persons. The sample of three groups of approximately equal size was selected from the adoptive placements of two private child welfare agencies between June 1970 and June 1972. The longitudinal study will be an assessment of the family's capacity to form close relationships and handle stress. The material presented in the first phase report was gathered from case records and interviews before, immediately after, and 2 months after placement. Descriptions of the applicants, the children they adopted, and their early adjustment as a family are included. Interesting differences among the experimental groups are presented. For the most part, the children in the study have had few problems and seem to be developing well. Children and families with problems are described, and statistics on interview item reliability are given.


Recently, social agencies have begun to place children for adoption by single parents. The capacities of such homes to deal with the stresses of family life or to handle the extra demands of the older or handicapped child are unknown. This study, following a group of single parents for the first 4 years of their lives with adopted children, illustrates some of the satisfactions and problems of this form of adoption. The homes are diverse in family structure, income, occupation, and ability to meet the needs of the child. However,
some distinctive family patterns can be identified. More information about these adoptions is needed to differentiate the applicant who will become the remarkable capable parent from the applicant whose child may later experience difficulties.


A statistical study of 80 children with the neurological learning disability syndrome (minimal brain damage) revealed that the incidence of adoption in this group was almost four times that expected in an equivalent but normal population. Ten of the 80 children in the study were adopted children. All of them were adopted before age 3 months and were adopted from nonrelatives. Six had been adopted through a State agency; and one child had been adopted through private negotiations. Because adoption agency personnel were not able to release information on the preadoption history of the children, only speculation on the significance of this information is included in the paper.


This study is based upon a mailed questionnaire taken from a nationwide sample of adoptive parents and is part of a larger, ongoing study of contemporary trends in adoption. A question of interest is whether those parents who have renounced more traditional conceptions of family life have become more receptive toward hard-to-place children. It is hypothesized that political conservatism and conventional religiosity would be incompatible with accepting hard-to-place children. This was found to be true only in some cases, such as in the adoption of black children. The findings suggest that those parents in the forefront in assuming more contemporary family lifestyles are more amenable to parenting minority children. Also suggested is that the kind of child parents choose to adopt closely reflects their values and institutional commitments. The findings point to a general need to reevaluate the criteria employed in placing stigmatized children. For instance, commenting on the
reported exclusion of couples with radical politics from the pool of prospective adoptive parents for transracial placements, the study suggests that these parents might in fact be among the most appropriate.


Responses to a questionnaire mailed to adoptive parents indicate that liberals and radicals appear most willing to adopt black children. Conventionally religious persons (except Jewish respondents) more frequently stated willingness to accept handicapped and retarded children.


This paper describes one aspect of a larger study of the experiences of white families who have adopted transracially. It compares levels of racial awareness, racial preferences, and racial identities between two categories of children: nonwhite children adopted by white families and their white siblings who have been born into those families. The data reported are based on interviews with 204 families in five cities in the midwest, all of whom adopted at least one nonwhite child. In total, 366 children between 3- and 8-years-old were interviewed; 199 of them were adopted, and 167 were born to the parents. The data suggest that, in families that have adopted transracially, young children have a somewhat different perspective and a different set of attitudes toward color, and presumably race, than children who are reared in more typical family settings. Fewer of the white as well as the nonwhite children in transracial homes associate “white” with positive, attractive, and desirable characteristics that other white and black children in our society do. The black children perceive themselves as “negro” as accurately as white children perceive themselves as “white.” The major findings are (1) that black children who are reared in the special setting of multiracial families do not acquire the ambivalence toward their own race that has been reported in other studies and (2) that there is no significant differences in the racial attitudes of any of the categories of children.

Several diverse programs that promote adoptive and foster home placement of handicapped children are summarized. Other programs that work to support and serve the natural family so that the handicapped might live at home are also described. A list of addresses of the various programs is included.


The placement of aboriginal children has been the responsibility of white social workers attached to State welfare agencies. Many of these children have been fostered or adopted by white families and have had little or no contact with the aboriginal community. Aboriginal people are now voicing opposition to such practices and are calling for an end to interracial adoption. They want the placement of all aboriginal children to be in the hands of the aboriginal community and are seeking to establish aboriginal placement agencies. These and other demands were voiced by an aboriginal task group at the recent First Australian Conference on Adoption.


In this study, the following instruments were used to measure variables: the Porter parental acceptance scale, a modified short marital adjustment scale originally developed by Locke and others, and Warner’s index of status characteristics. Out of 129 anonymous mail questionnaires sent to American adoptive parents, 98 usable returns were obtained. These pertained to 49 adopted sons and 49 adopted daughters whose average age was 5.3 years. The average length of adoption was 3.9 years. The parents’ ages ranged from 24 to 59 years, with an average age of 39.29 years. The average length of the marriages was 14.3 years. Sixty-four percent of the parents had no children of their own. The mean number of children for each family was increased by adoption from .69 to 2.3. Of the children, 42 percent were born in the Far East and the rest in the United States. Approximately 87 percent were nonwhite, of which 44 per-
cent were American-Orientals. Of the couples, 77.6 percent were white. Thus, the adoptive families were characterized by monorace, birace, or multirace.

The sample was overrepresented by middle and upper class families in suburban communities; the median level of schooling was 18 years for the fathers. About 78 percent were engaged in professional or semiprofessional occupations, and 87 percent were Protestants. It seems that the majority of adoptive parents were satisfied with their children and that the children were likely to inherit the fathers' social status.

This investigation consisted in part of a replication of Porter's study. In comparison with his study, it appears that the present findings substantiated the measurability of parental acceptance of adopted children by means of the Porter scale.

Data analysis led to the following conclusions: (1) There is a moderate positive relationship between adoptive fathers' marital adjustment and their acceptance of adopted children, but there is no relationship between the two variables for adoptive mothers. (2) There are positive relationships between adoptive parents' marital adjustment and religiosity and between the parents' religiosity and their acceptance of adopted children. (3) There is no relationship between parental acceptance of adopted children and racially matched or unmatched circumstances of adoption. (4) There is no significant difference between adoptive mothers' and adoptive fathers' acceptance of adopted children. (5) Parental acceptance of adopted children is not related to age of adoptive parents, length of marriage, rural-urban background of adoptive parents, religious affiliation, or sex of the child. (6) The adoptive parents who have large families have a greater degree of acceptance of their adopted children than do those with small families. (7) Adoptive parents' socioeconomic status is positively related to their acceptance of adopted children. (8) There is a significant relationship between adoptive parents' socioeconomic status and their expectations for educational achievement of their adopted children, but their status is not related to their expectations for occupational achievement of adopted children. (9) There is a more significant increase in marital happiness for adoptive mothers than for adoptive fathers following adoption.

An attempt was made to study the outcome of 11 cases of reunion between adoptees and birth mothers. An increasing number of adult adoptees are insisting that they have a constitutionally based civil right to have access to their "sealed" birth records, which would reveal the true identity of their natural parents. The majority felt that they had personally benefited from the reunion, even though in some of the cases the adoptees were disillusioned and disappointed in their birth relatives. An adoptee may have many reasons for feeling the need to search for more information on his birth parents or to seek a reunion; in many cases, the true purpose remains unconscious. It would appear that very few adoptees are provided with enough background information to be incorporated into their developing ego and sense of identity. Feelings of genealogical bewilderment cannot be discounted as occurring only in maladjusted or emotionally disturbed individuals.


A review of the literature and information gathered through interviews with a large number of adoptees who have experienced reunions with their birth parents indicate that adoptees are more vulnerable than the population at large to the development of identity problems in late adolescence and young adulthood.


Forty of 50 adult adoptees (41 female; median age of subjects = 40 years) who had reunions with their birth parents found the experience satisfying. Only 10 percent of the birth parents reacted adversely, although negative responses were somewhat more common among the adoptive parents. Findings suggest that adoption practices, which in all but four States include permanent sealings of birth records, should be changed to recognize the lifelong nature of adoption. Recommendations include opening the records for adult adoptees, creating agencies to be available to provide assistance and counseling for all involved (adoptees, their adoptive parents, and birth parents), and developing new adoption methods that would not require biological parents to forever relinquish their child and all knowledge of him/her at adoption.

This article outlines several stages in child development and aspects of the parent-child relationship and briefly notes the relevance of the adoptive state and parental fantasies. The adoptive family is considered to be a clinical example that is particularly well suited to the study of how the mental attitudes of parents condition those of the child and vice versa.


The authors studied 340 couples with latency-age adopted children regarding their characteristics at the time they adopted the child, their own early childhood experiences, and their current parent-child relationships. Responses were used to classify subjects into two distinct groups, and a sample for intensive interviews was selected from each. Early life experiences of the adoptive couples were found to be only minimally associated with the performance as parents. The adoptive couples tended to reinforce their own disciplinary experiences as children with their adoptive child. No relationship was found between the nature of infertility and performance as parents. A substantial number of the children experienced behavioral difficulties in school and at home.


This article discusses the controversy surrounding a proposed Canadian Adoption Reunion Registry that would enable natural parents to contact an adopted child after the child reached the age of maturity; the literature on the psychological problems experienced by biological and adoptive parents and the adoptee is also examined. Some of the problems found to affect adoptive parents were: (1) the lack of a physical or emotional preparation period in waiting for the child, as is the case with parents during the pregnancy period; (2) the adopting parents' sorrow about their own inadequacy; (3) coming to terms with their own and their adopted child's attitude toward illegitimacy; (4) telling the child of his adoption; (5) problems related to prevalent cultural attitudes, and (6) lack of ongoing support.
Developmental identification processes from 6 months of age through adolescence are discussed and related to the identity problems of adopted children. The “double bind” of adoption occurs when adoptive parents are matched with the child on certain characteristics (e.g., IQ) and yet encouraged to tell the child he is not their own. If the child is told he is chosen, he may wonder what characteristic determined the choice and may fear rejection if this perceived quality (e.g., blond hair) disappears. Adoptive parents face an increased risk of becoming “professional childrearers,” regarding the child with intellectual curiosity instead of providing acceptance and reality training. It is noted that three parties suffer loss in the adoptive process: the mother who gives up her child, the child who fantasizes but will never know his real parents, and the adoptive parents who may unconsciously mourn the child they could not have themselves.

Based on a 10-year history of adoptive placement of black and mixed children into white homes in Minnesota, a post hoc study was conducted in order to analyze certain characteristics of these adoptive couples.

The total universe of white families who had adopted black children in Minnesota during the years of 1958–1968 (the study group) was compared on certain variables with a randomly selected group of white families who had adopted white children during the same period (control group).

The study group consisted of 147 couples and two single women, involving a total of 167 children. The control group was made up of 103 couples.

Initiated as a creative and innovative action, the adoption of a black child by a white was postulated to be associated with a high degree of self-concept on the part of the adoptive fathers and with liberal childrearing attitudes on the part of the adoptive mothers.

The Adjective Check List (ACL) developed by Heilbrun and Gough and the Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) developed by Schaefer and Bell were used to assess self-concept and childrear-
ing attitudes, respectively. Both tests, self-administered in this case, were mailed to the two groups, with a return of 80 percent from the study group and 69 percent from the control group.

Two hypotheses of no difference between the two groups on each of the variables were formulated, and the data were submitted to a test for an overall difference in means, using the Mahalanobid $D^2$, a form of multivariate discriminant analysis. Both hypotheses were rejected; and the alternatives, that there are differences, were accepted. To see which of the scales (24 on the ACL and 23 on the PARI) contributed to these differences, a univariate $T$ test was done. Only one scale on the ACL, the Lability scale, showed a difference significant at the .05 level. However, of all the scales on the ACL, this was the one that had "a high facet of ego strength," which in this study was congruent with self-concept; the study group obtained a higher score on this variable.

On the PARI, 10 scales were found to be significantly different at the .05 level, with the study group showing more liberal attitudes on: Encouraging Verbalization, Seclusion of the Mother, Fear of Harming the Baby, Strictness, Excluding Outside Influences, Deification, Approval of Activity, Intrusiveness, and Acceleration of Development. In addition, the study group showed significantly more favorable attitudes as measured by the Over-Possessiveness and Hostility-Rejection clusters.

Appropriate statistical tests showed significant differences between the two groups on several demographic variables. Fathers and mothers in the study group were older than those in the control group and had been married longer. Study group families had more biological children at time of adoption, but control group families had more other adopted children. More of the study group children, who were older than the control group children, had been placed through public agencies. On the Hollingshead Two-Factor Index of Social Position, 63 percent of study group families were in classes I and II, compared with 32 percent of control group families. The findings confirm the postulations of the study and show these interracial adopters to be "highly eligible" according to the standards followed at the time.


This report contains the findings and recommendations of a task force established to develop a comprehensive statement regarding the confidentiality of adoption records and to define the scope of.
information (background and/or identifying) to be shared with birth parents prior to placement of a child for adoption, adoptive parents at the time of placement, and adoptees upon request. The introductory section of the report contains a description of the events leading up to the formation of the task force and a brief statement of task force objectives. Section 2 presents a list of the 25 task force members. In Section 3, issues that shaped the general background of task force discussions are delineated. The 14 major findings of the group are enumerated in Section 4, and the reactions of selected birth parents to these findings are presented in Section 5. Section 6 contains recommendations made by the task force in four areas: (1) access to nonidentifying information, (2) access to identifying information, (3) adoption records, and (4) registration system. Section 7 contains a summary statement.


A focus on the developmental uniqueness of the American Indian child and implications for supportive care, custody, placement, and adoption was one of the major goals of this conference. Attendees addressed the growing concern among Indian communities over the loss of their children and the lack of child welfare services that would preserve Indian families and afford them culturally sensitive prevention and treatment attention. Two general sessions targeted topics related to supportive care to the at-risk child, placement issues, special settings for children, and review of the custody process. Nine simultaneous small-group workshops following the general sessions examined the issues in greater detail. The conferees concurred that: (1) Service network development, active involvement of tribal councils, and mobilization of community support are vital to the success of welfare services. (2) The main theme emerging from the conference was the call for affirmation of tribal heritage and the retention of cultural ties. (3) A comprehensive information clearinghouse relating to all aspects of Indian social services is needed. (4) Tribal control is a necessity for developing and maintaining continuity of programs.

Court cases involving suits of illegitimate fathers for visitation rights to their children are reviewed, and rulings denying such rights are found to constitute unfair discrimination against the unwed father. Problems of effecting legitimation without the mother's consent are dealt with. "Any other man, and any other woman may enjoy parenthood without passing muster, but the unwed father is allowed to be a father to his child only if he merits the court approval."

Even more troublesome is the general problem of the meaning and effect of legitimation. By law or practice, the mother has an absolute veto over legitimation. Therefore, her interests are paramount, completely overshadowing, if not obliteratorly, those of father and child alike. In general, if a child is illegitimate, his mother will be awarded custody as long as she is not demonstrably unfit. The right of the father to consent to adoption is limited in State statutes. The general rule among the States is that an illegitimate child may be adopted without notice of the proceeding to his father. Some recent Supreme Court decisions seem to indicate that classification based on illegitimate parenthood should be constitutionally suspect. An equal protection argument for the father can be made in terms of his position relative to either the mother or a father of a legitimate child. Generally, the law does not afford the unwed father the protection it gives either of these other two figures. The rights of the unwed father can be argued in terms of the equal protection arguments and the due process clause. A father who honors his parental duties should have the corresponding paternal rights.


Problems that adolescence presents to all children and their families are exacerbated by adoption; the extent to which these children are preoccupied by the theme of their adoption, the similarity of symptoms, personality traits, and attitudes is observed as the adoption syndrome.


Sixty-five children age 4½ years who had spent their first 2-4 years in institutions were tested, and an assessment was made of their behavior in the test situation. Twenty-four of the children had been adopted and 15 restored to their natural mothers at a mean age of 3 years; the remaining 26 were still in institutions. The mean WPPSI IQs of all groups were at least average; the adopted children had significantly higher IQs, were initially more friendly, and were...
less restless and distractible than the other children. The findings are discussed in relation to the concept of institutional deprivation.


The author describes a comparative study of children who were adopted, placed in foster homes, or returned to their natural parents after spending up to 7 years in institutional care. The special problems of mixed-race children adopted by white couples and the difficulties of children in long-term foster homes were also examined. It is suggested that attempts to restore the child to his/her natural family may not be in the best interest of the child.


Designed for parents who have adopted or who contemplate adoption, and for educational, legal, medical, social, and theological professionals, this bibliography and sourcebook contains more than 1,250 citations relating to adoption. The book is divided into two parts. The first section is a bibliography of articles, personal narratives, dissertations, books, audiovisuals, and bibliographies on adoption. All aspects of adoption are included in the text, which contains citations about black, Native American, handicapped, older, and sibling adoptees; intercultural, international, and single-parent adoptions; adoptive parents; and adult-adoptive organizations. Each citation includes author, title, availability, price, and date of material. Annotations describing the material are provided for many of the citations.

The second part of the book is a comprehensive listing of items that reflect African, Asian, Latin American, and Native American heritages to help parents rear adopted children of different races. Dolls, toys, games, greeting cards, calendars, audiovisuals, artifacts, hobbies, programs and services, and bibliographies of children's books are listed. In addition, the text contains an alphabetical listing of 130 sources and organizations in the United States and Canada which provide information and services about ethnic groups. Various appendixes to aid in the use of the sourcebook conclude the text.


The author strongly argues for transracial adoption, considering it to be an effective way to eradicate various problems facing black children; she answers various objections raised against transracial...
adoption. The important issue, the author maintains, is to provide psychological care to many black children who need it badly.


The author presents clinical data from the psychoanalyses of three adoptees which document the deleterious effect of telling children under 3 years of age about their adoptive status. It is concluded that the knowledge and the experiences of being an adoptee impose the need for defensive reactions that affect developmental process, cognitive function, object relationships, and fantasy life.


Despite the absence of psychoanalytic studies to support the position, family romance fantasies have been assumed to be similar in form and function in both the adopted and the blood-kin child. Personal observation and analyses of three adoptees, age 9, 17, and 27 years, reveal that knowing one is adopted results in modifications of the fantasy and that certain types of adoptees seem incapable of effectively creating the paradigmatic family romance fantasy.


The authors examined the current status of 141 female Korean orphans who were adopted during early life (less than 3-years-old) by U.S. parents and who, thereby, undergone a total change in environment. Subjects were divided into three groups on the basis of how their height and weight at the time of admission to the Korean Adoption Service related to a reference standard of normal Korean children of the same age: malnourished (Group 1), moderately nourished (Group 2), and well nourished or control (Group 3). Information on health, growth, nutrition, and family socioeconomic background was obtained from subjects' families by a checklist questionnaire, and IQ and school performance data were obtained from schools.

Results show that all three groups have surpassed the expected mean for Korean children in both height and weight, and all the groups have reached or exceeded mean IQ values for American children. Results for school achievement are similar to those for IQs, although there was a significant difference between subjects in Groups 1 and 3. Data suggest that, if a severely malnourished child is subsequently to develop adequately, any program of environmental enrichment must be of long duration. The select character
of the adoptive parents (primarily middle class) and the environment they provided to the children are noted.


Barriers between natural parents and adoptive applicants seem to be lifting slowly. Innovations are described, but there is a lack of consensus among social workers regarding the value of these new approaches.


This article observes that parents of adopted children frequently seek psychiatric treatment for them. A study of 419 children at a neuropsychiatric institute confirms this finding. It is proposed that certain patterns of childrearing among adoptive parents contribute to their adopted children's difficulties.


This dissertation aims to identify the specific satisfactions derived and difficulties encountered by white parents who adopted a preschool-age black child and to assess the overall outcome of white couples' black children adoptions. Two groups, a group of 82 white parents who adopted a black child, and a matched comparison group of white parents who adopted a child of their own race, were formed. Data were obtained through family interviews and adoption records. Specific interview questions addressed satisfactions and difficulties of parents, reactions of friends and strangers, anticipations of future problems, and suggestions for improvement of adoption procedures. Results indicate that transracial placements are as successful, in terms of parents' satisfaction with their adoptive experience, as are intraracial placements. A review of prior studies of the characteristics of adoptive families is included, and interview forms for both groups of parents are appended.

The author investigated the attitudes of three groups of women: 30 who were adopting children, 30 with at least one emotionally healthy child of their own, and 20 who had adopted children and asked for guidance. Seventy-seven percent of the women adopting children and 10 percent of mothers had gone through stress connected with maternity. It was found that, because of feelings of inadequacy caused by their inability to have their own children, the adopting women became overprotective mothers and showed excessive emotional concentration on the child. In a study 1 to 2 years after adoption, more normal, though still somewhat overprotective, attitudes were found.


This book contains the transcripts of four hearings of the Senate Subcommittee on Children and Youth which considered the issues of baby selling and adoption of children with special needs. Through interviews with professionals in adoption and child welfare, attorneys, and parents, the committee explored the dimensions of the problems as well as the existing and proposed Federal policies that affect the adoption of children and their placement in foster homes. Two hearings on baby selling examined the issue of human rights, the extent and cost of black market adoptions (including the extent of involvement of doctors and lawyers), and the problems with the ways legal adoptions are handled. The two hearings on the adoption of children with special needs focused on consideration of Senate Bill 1593 (the proposed Opportunities for Adoption Act of 1975) in addition to other existing and proposed Federal legislation. Official statements of witnesses and numerous supporting documents submitted to the committee are included.


This article describes a class designed to meet the needs of adoptive parents through discussion, educational presentations by specialists, and group visits to hospital labor and delivery rooms.
This preliminary report of the Temporary State Commission on Child Welfare identifies problems and offers recommendations for improvement in the system of child welfare in New York State. Information about the commission's mandate and members is followed by a review of the child welfare system in New York. The report indicates that the entire system manifests a lack of comprehensive coordination and meaningful accountability. Specific topics focused on are: preventive services, Social Services Law Section 358-A, judicial foster care status, termination of parental rights, adoption subsidy, statewide adoption exchange, and pending lawsuits. A discussion of each topic includes a review of the existing practices and the commission's recommendations. Recommendations pertaining to the existing practices, statutes, and conditions affecting the care, custody, and rights of minors are also included. Later sections discuss persons in need of supervision and juvenile delinquency in some detail. Appendixes include a copy of the legislation introduced at the request of the commission as of May 1, 1975, and a list of public hearings held by the commission.

This second annual report of the Temporary State Commission on Child Welfare accounts for the progress made toward resolving the problems raised in the first annual report and summarizes the present status of the commission's projects—completed, in process, and proposed. Among topics briefly discussed are preventive services, the child welfare system, the rights of fathers of children born out of wedlock, adoption subsidy, adoption services, barriers to freeing children for adoption, sealed adoption records, juvenile delinquency, "persons in need of supervision," and judicial decisions. The four appendixes include copies of the selected 1975 and 1976 legislation referred to in the report and a table showing the status of the Temporary State Commission on Child Welfare Legislation from the 1975 and 1976 legislative sessions.

This report by New York’s Temporary State Commission on Child Welfare discusses a study conducted to determine why the laws pertaining to freeing and placing children for adoption and the administrative machinery implementing these laws have failed and recommends remedial action. The report is divided into three major sections. Part I, “The Legal Basis for Termination of Parental Rights,” discusses the current statutory framework for termination of parental rights, presents a historical overview of the development of the body of State law, sets forth major problems and issues, and states the commission’s recommendations and rationale for legislative change. Part II, “The Courts,” discusses the jurisdictional and administrative problems encountered within the judicial system in administration of termination and foster care review statutes as perceived by those consulted during the project; it also presents commission recommendations to the State Department of Social Services and the Office of Court Administration. Part III, “The Role of the Agency,” details major concerns of social service personnel, attorneys, and judicial personnel and presents relevant commission recommendations. The five appendixes include a draft of proposed legislation, copies of forms and other materials developed for the study, and statistical data on agency activities in freeing and finding adoptive homes for children.


This paper describes a project designed to evaluate the New York State Adoption Exchange, a program providing information on adoptable children and families approved for adoption across the State of New York. The first section of the paper describes the rationale for the development of the evaluation project. The second section traces the problems of the Adoption Exchange from its inception as a voluntary program in the 1950s to the present compulsory exchange system. The next four sections of the paper present the objectives, methodology, findings, and implications of the evaluation project. Using surveys of agencies and citizens involved in
the adoption process, the project's findings emphasize the inadequacy of the current exchange and highlight the problem of placing the school-age, black, or seriously handicapped children who represent the majority of children listed. Recommendations from the project emphasize the need for recruiting families who are willing to accept these children. The project also emphasizes the need for increased interagency communication, increased communication between adoptive parent organizations and social service agencies, more skilled staff, and a more workable information system. The paper includes tables and appendixes illustrating various aspects of the exchange program and evaluation project.


This report presents findings from the evaluation of the Regional Adoption Program in New York, a program designed to recruit adoptive families for hard-to-place children. Two hundred children averaging 11 years of age constituted the project's target population. Nearly half of these children had a diagnosed medical problem, one fourth had a diagnosed psychological problem, and more than half showed a caseworker-noted behavioral problem. Of the 108 families initially recruited, 61 continued on to a second group session in which background information relevant to adoption of such children was provided. Data from the analysis of the project children are compared with data from the target population of Operation Placement, a similar demonstration project in another geographic area. The relationships between medical, psychological, or behavior problem conditions noted in the children and their length of time in foster care, their placement likelihood, and placement disruptions are examined. The effects of the children's sex and race on placement likelihood are also examined. Data for project-recruited families are compared to data for families who had been approved as potential adoptive families by the agency prior to the inception of the Regional Adoption Program. The two family groups are compared on: (1) age, (2) education, (3) income, (4) parents' employment, (5) the number of children already in the family, and (6) process of matching with an adoptive child. The mode of publicity most effective in recruiting project families is also examined. Evaluation and program barriers are described, and the feasibility of replicating the project is discussed.

This report consists of three charts that present data on adoption patterns in New York City in 1976. The report is based on quarterly Child Welfare Information Service (CWIS) reports developed by Fanshel and Grundy. Each chart is accompanied by a brief explanatory text and a summary of findings. The charts present data on children still in care waiting for adoption, on the status of children free for adoption at the beginning of the year to the final discharge activity during 1976, and on the match between discharge objective and actual final destination. A chart for comparing CWIS with other agency data is attached as an appendix.


This report from the Committee on the Judiciary of the House of Representatives, 95th Congress, recommends passage of H.R. 12508 to amend the Immigration and Naturalization Act. The purpose of H.R. 12508 is to establish uniform procedures for admission to the United States of adopted or prospective adoptive children of U.S. citizens and to remove the statutory prohibition on the approval of more than two petitions filed by the same petitioner on behalf of alien adopted children. The bill also facilitates the naturalization of such children. Immigration requirements and procedures for adopted children are specified in the analysis of the bill. Background information, including a brief historical review of legislation on the admission of adopted children, is provided. The report includes a section-by-section analysis and reproduces favorable reports on several bills incorporated into H.R. 12508.


The conclusions and recommendations made at an international conference for specialists on the adoption of handicapped children are presented. It was concluded that the idea of adopting handicapped children is still far from being generally accepted; however, the commonly held belief that only perfect children are suitable for adoption is increasingly being challenged. Adoption has, in many
cases, contributed to improvement in the handicapped child’s condition, particularly in the instance of mental retardation caused by emotional deprivation. Research shows that a large number of handicapped children have been successfully adopted in several countries over the past 20 years and that the adoptive families—especially the children of these families—have benefited from the integration of the handicapped child into their midst. The primary recommendations were: (1) that there be no restrictions with regard to adoption as far as the children themselves are concerned, and (2) that handicapped children be placed as young as possible in a family with a view to adoption, regardless of prognostics: the qualifications originate not in the child but in the human resources and capabilities of the adopting family.


This booklet presents the texts of the Model State Subsidized Adoption Act and Model Regulations. Comments that expand and explain most sections of the act are included. Subsidized adoption provides reimbursement (after a child with special needs has been placed for adoption) according to a prior agreement between the adoptive parent(s) and the social agency. The agreement is to be tailored to the child’s needs and may allow for specific medical, legal, or other costs. It can be a monthly reimbursement for a limited time or for an indefinite period. Provisions of the act include purpose, eligibility, administration and funding, the subsidy agreement, and appeals. The act is meant to be read in conjunction with the model regulations, which amplify and interpret the provisions of the act.


This document presents the proceedings of an April 4, 1977, hearing before the Subcommittee on Child and Human Development of the U.S. Senate Committee on Human Resources on the Opportunities for Adoption Act of 1977. Included are the text of S. 961 and statements, letters of support, and background material presented.
to the committee. Pertinent articles from newspapers, law reviews, and other sources are listed; but the texts are not included because of copyright restrictions.


This paper describes the 5-year Florida foster care and adoption plan, which was developed to facilitate the provision of more effective services to children needing full-time care outside the parental home. The paper is divided into five chapters plus an introduction and summary. The introduction outlines the problems facing the social service agencies and the Department of Health and Rehabilitative Services (DHRS) in Florida. The introduction also reviews the philosophy and priorities presented in the plan, the cost-effectiveness implications, and strategies for providing more effective services. The first three chapters of the paper outline the basic objectives of the plan and recommend actions on the parts of the DHRS and of the State legislature. Chapter I discusses the primary objective of maintaining children in their own homes. Chapter II describes recommended strategies for increasing the number of adoptive placements for children. Chapter III discusses the plan’s objectives for the placement of children in foster care. Chapters IV and V describe the support systems necessary for the success of the plan. Chapter IV reviews current and recommended information systems for DHRS, and Chapter V describes the need for a training and staff-development system to increase the number of people with specialized skills in social work and related fields.


These congressional hearings consist of public testimony before the House Judiciary Committee’s Subcommittee on Criminal Justice concerning proposed legislation designed to prohibit the sale of children in interstate and foreign commerce. Much of the testimony focuses on the increasingly widespread, marginally legal practices of selling infants into adoption and privately arranging adoptions for a fee. Problems of constructing precise legislative language to criminalize and halt black-market baby sales are discussed. Also included is testimony counter to the intent of the proposed legislation.
Part II. Minority Children

The authors studied 72 3- to 6-year-old black preschool children enrolled in a metropolitan daycare center. A series of questions was developed to assess developmental trends in the relative importance of race and sex for self-identity, attitudes, and preferences. The stimulus material included four sets of eight pictures (equal numbers of black and white children and of males and females) mounted on a circular magnetic cardboard. Each child ranked four of the eight pictures in each set of pictures for each of eight questions. It is concluded that sex exerts a greater influence on the self-identification process, attitudes, and social preferences of girls than boys, with boys showing greater bias toward the race dimension. No clear-cut developmental trends were found.


Fifteen-hundred-eighty-eight children age 39 to 76 months were individually tested in 1969, using the Gumpgookie Test developed by the three authors. The children represented 10 ethnic-cultural groups. Asian-American children were represented in the Hawaiian group (Hawaiians, Chinese-American, Japanese-American, Samoan-American, Filipino-American, and white American, as well as various combinations thereof) and the “Oriental” group (San Francisco and Los Angeles). The 169 boys and 148 girls in those two groups were lower socioeconomic status.

Five 2 × 10 analyses of variance using a fixed-effects model with unweighted means were performed. The 10 ethnic-cultural groups differed significantly in total score on Gumpgookies. No sex differences were found, nor was there a significant interaction between sex and ethnic-cultural group. The Mexican-American, Oriental, American Indian, and Hawaiian samples had the lowest average scores. On the Instrumental Activity Scale, the American Indian, Hawaiian, and Mexican-American samples exhibited the lowest average scores, with the Oriental sample exhibiting average scores that were higher than those three groups but lower than those of the black urban and white rural samples. No generalizations rela-
tive to Asian-American/Pacific Islanders were reported for the School Enjoyment Scale. On the Self-Evaluation Scale, the Mexican-American, Oriental, American Indian, and Hawaiian groups had the lowest mean scores.


The author observed play activities of Eskimo children over a 4-month period. Play, while universal, is expressed in different games and amusements in different cultures. Variations relate to differing cultural values and role structures. Subjects were three female siblings ages 11, 9, and 8; one male sibling age 3; a female cousin; and various playmates of these five. Observations were informally made by the author as a resident of the subjects’ home and a community of 300 persons. In sociodramatic play, subjects adopted only Anglo-American roles, even though traditional adult Eskimo roles abound. Games of strategy (Monopoly, checkers, cards) and stories based on movie themes are also replacing traditional games of physical skill and folklore. These changes may reflect the adoption of Euro-American leadership roles where strategy and long-term planning are more important than physical skill.


An in-progress report of a study exploring the nature and content of children’s concepts of their own and other countries is presented. Current literature on early development of concepts of other people and places is reviewed, followed by a description of the open-ended procedure adopted for gathering data. The test is being conducted in Australia, Canada, and the United States and is being administered to approximately 400 children in grades one, three, and six. Students are asked to write whatever they think in response to the name of seven countries—England, China, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Nigeria, and the United States. Responses are content-analyzed with particular attention to number of items, egocentrism, primary orientation, evaluative comment, and stereotypes. Analysis of partial data from the United States and Canada produces findings that differ from or modify previous investigations in this area, as noted.
in tentative concluding remarks. A summary of responses used for this analysis and 47 student responses are reproduced.


Adolescence is generally viewed as a time of psychosocial turmoil. For the Native American Indian, this time of life brings forth problems of greater complexity than those of the adolescent of the dominant culture. This paper describes the dilemma of the Indian adolescent, who has moved from nurturance by and among his people to schooling under the authority of the white man and who must find an identity somewhere between two worlds in which he cannot be whole.


Racial preconceptions affect our ability to understand and communicate with persons from different racial backgrounds. Several recent studies are discussed, notably one by Krystal et al., which maintains that, while parents of young blacks are "mostly assimilationists striving for integration but attempting to adopt 'white' cultural symbols," young blacks are moving into the "cultural pluralist position, which is a combination of coexistence with white and strong black consciousness." In the minority are the separatists, both traditionalists (accepting traditional American attitudes, believing in integration but unwilling to fight for it) and nationalists (striving for dignity and Afro-American identity with the goal of occupying land for a separate black society). There are many manifestations of the new black awareness on all levels. An example is African names for children. White and Richmond (1970) found "no significant difference in self-esteem for black and white children. . ." Dubey found that blacks in Cleveland had little preference for black over white workers in professional fields. Most evidence indicates a willingness to integrate. Meyer indicates violence, but this figure does not increase, and many blacks interviewed claimed to advocate only a "rhetoric of violence." Two studies found that nationalists and separatists were primarily "northern, Ur, disillusioned activists" of low income. White images of blacks have also changed: In 1933, the most common adjectives used for blacks were
"superstitious," "lazy," "ignorant," "happy-go-lucky," and "musical"; by the 1970s, they were "aggressive," "impulsive," "persistent," "argumentative," and "emotional." "Whites still perceive blacks as somewhat inferior and definitely threatening." These attitudes impede communication; but, it is hoped changing black images and stereotypes will bring about productive, transracial communication.


Present attempts to integrate migrants linguistically and culturally into Australian society need to be improved. The migrant child must be taught to learn how to learn, and learning experiences must be structured to promote education in school subjects and communication with peers. There is a problem of acculturation; migrant children must be taught to develop a differentiation mechanism to bridge two cultural systems and two language systems. There must be a systematic growth of cultural awareness, and the Australian community must also recognize and accept foreign cultures. The new concept of the pluralistic society should be adopted. Language-learning and teaching-research centers should be established to specialize in the study of problems in second-language learning; applied linguistics; evaluation and development of curriculum, tests, and teaching materials; and information coordination and dissemination.


Focusing on child welfare programs, legal and jurisdictional problems concerning the delivery of social and rehabilitation services on Indian reservations and the means of coping with them were explored through field research at 10 reservations in 8 States and through library legal research. Child welfare services were defined as including foster care, adoption, daycare, protective services, and certain institutional and homemaker services. Field research disclosed complex interagency relationships and patterns of service delivery.

Three major, recurrent legal and jurisdictional problems were uncovered: conflicting legal interpretations about the roles and re-
responsibilities of State or county offices in providing certain social and rehabilitation services on reservations, State rulings that the State cannot license facilities on reservations, and reluctance of some State courts and institutions to honor tribal court orders. In the long run, no final resolution of the basic jurisdictional tension will be possible without major Federal legislation, probably including amendments to the Social Security Act. Several alternatives and recent legal rulings are discussed in detail. This report is available from the Center for Social Research and Development, Spruce Hall, Room 21, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado 80208.


The present state of American Indian Child Welfare was investigated via a review of published and unpublished literature; an analysis of legislation, regulations, manuals, and other documents concerning Federal and State Indian child welfare; mail surveys in 22 States with substantial Indian populations; field interviews at 19 sites, including 12 reservation sites, four urban Indian communities, one terminated tribe, one in Oklahoma, and one in Alaska; case studies of programs of particular significance based on interviews and documents; and a mail survey focusing on graduate social work programs. The four major types of agencies responsible for providing child welfare services to Indians were the State-county social service systems, Federal service system, Indian-run agencies, and private non-Indian agencies. Of these, the State-county social service systems and the Federal service system were the most active. Barriers to the provision of Indian child welfare services included: failure of State courts and institutions to recognize tribal court orders, the licensing of institutions, interagency relationships, the reluctance of many States to take into account the special problems of providing services to Indians, the lack of Indian involvement, the distance between county welfare offices and Indian reservations, and failure to understand tribal cultures and to foster programs operated by tribal governments.

Rural Alas.:a is composed of very small communities, a situation that complicates development of adequate educational programs. Elementary education is provided through a large number of relatively small village schools. Although some of these schools are too small, most people agree that educating the youngsters in a boarding school situation is not desirable. Since it is not feasible to offer a comprehensive high school program in each small village, it becomes necessary to establish and operate secondary boarding schools, which are better able to meet the needs of the youngsters. The Bureau of Indian Affairs, which operates these boarding schools, has adopted the following educational goals by 1970—(1) 90 percent of the native youth to graduate from high school, (2) 50 percent of the native high school graduates to enter college, and (3) 50 percent to go on to some other kind of post-high school vocational training.


The author studied the relationships of CA, intelligence, actual height, height as perceived by 100 learning disabled children with the height of their human figure drawings. Significant correlations were obtained between drawn figure height and CA, actual height, and perceived height (p < .05, .01, and .05, respectively). Results suggest that these variables are more importantly related to the size of human figure drawings than are psychodynamic factors.


Sex-role identity was tested by administering the Gough (CPI) femininity scales and the Franck Drawing Completion Test to 369 Japanese-American and white American high school students in Hawaii and to 93 students in Japan. Japanese of both sexes were more feminine on the two measures than either white American group. Japanese-Americans were more feminine than the white American group on the Gough scale, but no significant differences were observed on the Franck test. The higher femininity of Japanese males may be attributed to the distance of Japanese sex-role ideals from Western notions of masculinity. Less femininity in Japanese females was traced to a shifting of conceptions of femininity. Higher Japanese-American femininity may be a subcultural expression flowing from the historical origins of Japanese in Hawaii.
Research would seem to indicate that black and other nonwhite students in private schools are at or near the national norm in every area and far ahead of their peers in public school. There have been notable achievements in the education of black children by Catholic and other inner-city private schools. But since these schools exist in limited numbers and are largely tuition-supported, most black parents do not have the opportunity to choose a high quality private school for the education of their children. Our system of funding education perpetuates the cycle of poverty for most poor black children. A remedy for the gross inequities in educational opportunities would be the adoption of education voucher programs. Vouchers of monetary value issued by the government to all parents with school-age children would provide black parents, and others, a real choice in the education of their children, a choice that would enable them to send their children to high quality public and private schools.


This article is a preliminary report of a larger study examining self-concept of black children from different national and cultural backgrounds and the relationship between self-image and depressive reaction. The paper is limited to presenting the validity statistics on the construct, the Black Identity Test (BIT).

The results point up three important facts: (1) The test has no value below the 5-year level, (2) black identification increased with age, and (3) clear sex differences can be seen in the degree of identification made by male and female subjects.


Personal identity among adolescents was studied in relation to the quality of their interpersonal relations, as assessed on the Italian translation of the French questionnaire developed by Rodriguez-Tome (1972). The results were compared with those of the French subjects. Ninety-six boys and 114 girls in three age groups (64 age
12, 65 age 14, and 81 age 17) completed the questionnaire, which yields three scales related to image of self (egotism, self-control, and sociability) and four scales related to relations with individuals in the environment (differentiation between self and parents and peers, and integration with parent and peer groups). Correlational analyses of questionnaire data by age group indicated age 14 as the time of significant changes related to perceptions of self-identity and interpersonal relations. Results replicated those obtained for the French subjects, chiefly, that the process of individuation, expressed through differentiation, increases with age and that the perception of integration of self with family is stronger than that of integration with peers.


Black-American and Korean-American children were administered the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale in an attempt to study whether blacks and Korean-Americans differ in self-concept and whether grade in school and sex are associated with self-concept. Results indicated that Korean-American children had higher scores on scales involving behavior, intellectual and school status, happiness, and satisfaction. Black-Americans were higher on physical appearance and attributes and popularity. There was a tendency for self-concept scores to decrease from grade three to grade six. Girls in both ethnic groups had higher scores and lower anxiety than boys. Implications of this study are discussed.


The Chinese-American family is faced with poverty and disillusionment, with the children typically left to fend for themselves, since both parents must work to make ends meet. The problems encountered by immigrants residing in suburban areas are, however, not as pressing as for those residing in Chinatown. Given the diminution in importance of the family, the role of the schools has become the most important influence and socializer for immigrant children. Schools have begun to provide recreation, supervision, meals, and referral for medical attention. The schools, however, face cultural conflicts and language barriers. One of the major difficulties
faced by the community is that social institutions that were once viable have become outmoded and obsolete, and new institutions to replace the old have not evolved. Within Chinatown itself, one very noticeable feature was "pervasive fear"—threats from Chinese-American gangs and from other ethnic groups. Yet the immigrants did not complain during the interviews and were determined to succeed by dint of hard work.


Twenty-four male and 24 female white adults used verbal statements to train 9-year-old black or white male children on a discrimination problem. Bogus information on the children's performance was given to the adults, and the dependent variable was the adults' statements to the children. A sex of adult x race of child interaction was found. Males were more negative with black children than with white children, whereas there was a nonsignificant difference between the two races for females. On trait ratings of the children following the training session, both males and females rated black children more negatively than white children.


This study assessed the effects of modeling, modeling with rule structure, and race of model on adopting standards for self-control. One-hundred-eight 6- to 11-year-old black males were exposed to a black or a white adult male model who consistently chose a self-control response as a reaction to an intentional act of transgression combined with either a rule statement (rule-structure group) or a summary of the story (no-rule-structure group). Fifty-four subjects in a control group were not exposed to a model.

Treatment consisted of exposure to modeling procedures and testing over a 3-week period. Results indicate that modeling is an effective means of modifying verbal responses in black boys. A significant interaction of race of model with repeated sessions indicated that, from baseline to treatment sessions, black subjects exposed to a black model increased in the number of self-control responses to a greater degree than did black subjects exposed to a white model. There were no significant differences between the self-control scores.
and rule-statement scores of the rule-structure and no-rule-structure groups. However, subjects in the no-rule-structure group as well as in the rule-structure group gave more statements than the control group. This finding is explained in terms of Aronfreed’s (1969) concept of social facilitation.


The Clark and Clark Doll Test (1939) was administered to 240 school children to examine their racial awareness and preference. The effects of several independent variables were examined: school type (monoracial and multiracial), grade level (kindergarten, third, and fifth grade), sex of child, and race of tester (black and white).

Black students preferred black dolls to white dolls, and white children preferred white dolls to black dolls. However, white students in multiracial schools preferred white dolls significantly less than white children in monoracial schools. Results are interpreted as an indication that the "black is beautiful" movement has facilitated positive self-identity among black children.


This pilot study sought to demonstrate that there may be significant differences in both self-concept and concept of parents between children of mixed parentage and children of homogeneous parentage. Tests here concerned children of white fathers and Nisei mothers. Relative to those of homogeneous parentage, children of mixed parentage were hypothesized to score lower in self-ideal discrepancy. It was additionally postulated that they would exhibit small total discrepancy scores and that self-ideal discrepancy scores would be correlated with discrepancies between the ideal self and same-sex parent.

Subjects were eight males and seven females with white-Japanese parentage, all students at the University of Hawaii. Age ranged from 17 to 19 years. Two closely matched control groups were used, one with white parents and the other with Japanese parents. Re-
recruited on a voluntary basis, subjects did not know the true nature of the study prior to testing. Ratings of self, ideal self, father, and mother were obtained from all three groups. The three hypotheses were supported for males but not for females.


The major portion of this book discusses factors in second-language learning, including age, intelligence, and background, previous linguistic experience, motivation, other student characteristics, objectives, contact hours, the teacher, and materials. Attention is given to the state of language learning, children and language learning, elements of aural comprehension and speaking, and other problems. An appendix includes the Persian materials used for the controlled studies, resolutions adopted at the Chicago Language Conference of 1948, and a bibliography.


Sixty-two subjects completed the Bown Self-Report Inventory at the beginning and end of each training session. Subjects were 95 percent female, age 20-60, educational attainment usually high school graduation, and almost equally distributed among Mexican-American, black, and white groups. They were almost equally divided into three groups enrolled in 7-week training sessions. Groups I and III showed a significant difference at the .05 level in the growth of self-esteem. Group II showed, at the .05 level of significance, growth in acceptance of or liking for children and parents and the development of optimism for the future.


The authors studied how the status characteristics of adults and children affect adults' ability to raise a child's expectations of his own performance on school-like tasks. Black and white second, third, and fourth graders participated in a team story completion task with middle class black and white young adult women serving as experimenters. Subjects whose rates of volunteering items for the stories were near the median were then assigned to either a second
story completion group in which they received strong positive reinforcement from the experimenter or to a control group in which they listened to a story. All subjects then completed another team story completion task.

White adults were effective in raising expectations of white or black children in mixed racial work groups; black adults were effective with black children but not with white children in mixed groups. Results, both consistent and inconsistent with previous findings from homogeneous groups, are interpreted in terms of the children's relative, socioeconomic position with respect to members of their own race.


This study tests Merton's hypothesis that juvenile delinquency results in part from a discrepancy between the prescribed "success" goals of the society and the availability of such goals to certain groups in society. Three-hundred-forty-six juniors from a Seattle high school (159 whites, 111 blacks, and 76 Orientals) were asked to complete an anonymous questionnaire, which included questions on father's occupation, delinquent behavior, and expected level of educational attainment and occupational status. Occupation of the father was taken as a measure of socioeconomic status, delinquent behaviors were defined as acts that would be considered criminal if committed by an adult, and level of aspiration was deduced from the student's expected level of education or occupational status.

The results tended not to support the Merton theory. There appeared to be no relationship between delinquent behavior and socioeconomic level. Blacks, considered the most disadvantaged group, evidenced about the same amount of delinquency as the whites. However, Orientals reported significantly less delinquent behavior. A positive relationship was seen between socioeconomic level and level of aspiration. Additionally, high aspiring lower status students did not report significantly more delinquent behavior than low aspirants. The author concludes that Merton's theory may not be adequate to explain juvenile delinquency.


The practice of stigmatizing children from minority families because they fail to adopt the culture of the majority is analyzed,
focusing on the irony that the schools, which have the responsibility for acculturation, are as guilty as other elements of society in condemning the persons for whom their services have been a failure.


Comparison of human figure drawings made by black children before 1960 with those made by black children after 1970 indicated that more black racial indicators are included in current drawings. These results suggest that black children are now more positively aware and accepting of their racial and ethnic background than was the case before 1960. The authors offer possible explanations.


A ghetto such as Chinatown may be viewed as a cultural island, outside of which reinforcement for insular values is reduced. Further vitiating family solidarity is parental insistence that their American-born children attend a Chinese school in addition to the conventional American public school. Mandatory attendance at not one but two schools has resulted in fatigue, vacancy, or lackluster academic performance. Among rebellious males, a passive-aggressive complex frequently develops. In deference to parental authority, the sons do attend Chinese school; yet, within the classroom, they redirect aggression against the teacher or academics generally. The child's progress in an American school is reflected by acquisition of numerous skills, including greater mastery over English. As parents gradually lose contact with their child, he/she begins to envy the teacher to the point of absorbing mainstream culture and mannerisms. Concomitant with a growing need for peer acceptance is a trend toward polarization between the foreign-born and American-born Chinese due to differences in language, values, and interests. The university and church have been two institutions promoting greater understanding between the groups. Self-identity problems of foreign-born Chinese during the assimilation process are detailed.

The migration of people from one society to another often results in conflicts between traditional values and the values of the new society, which, in turn, has implications for personality adjustment and the development of sex roles during assimilation. The study presented here examines the nature of these adjustments in naturalized students and students with visa status attending school in the San Francisco Bay area.

Twenty males and 21 females, either naturalized Americans or permanent residents eligible for citizenship, were compared on the California Psychological Inventory with 23 males and 22 females on student visa status. Sixty-five percent of the students sampled returned the CPI. The data indicate significant differences on 9 of the 18 CPI scales. The naturalized students appeared to be more self-confident, responsible, dependable, tolerant, and flexible in comparison to the visa students, who seemed to be experiencing a degree of discomfort severe enough to impair their functioning in these areas. It is suggested that citizenship, or at least the prospect of it, encourages a personal commitment to the new society which facilitates well-being.

Lower scores for females on the socialization and good impression scales imply that females are either less aware of or simply reject the socially desirable responses that would enhance their self-esteem within their social group. Attending college or planning a career is not seen by the Chinese community as socially desirable for females. Interestingly, there was a significant interaction between sex and citizen status. It was found that naturalized females scored higher on femininity than did the visa females. This is presumably due to the greater need for naturalized females to behave in a way that appeases their parents. In contrast, the visa females are better able to exhibit the unusual self-reliance Chinese women must have in order to attain a higher education.


In 1963, a sample of 320 first-grade children of Chinese, Jewish, black, and Puerto Rican ancestry from lower and middle class homes in the greater New York City area were administered the Diverse Mental Abilities Test, which measured four areas of intellectual capacity: verbal, reasoning, numerical, and space conceptualization. Test items were presented orally; no reading or writing was required of the child.
Middle class children performed better than lower class children in all areas. Chinese children performed best on spatial tasks, least well on verbal ones; reasoning and numerical were slightly lower than spatial. Jewish children did best on verbal, followed by numerical; and reasoning was slightly superior to spatial, their weakest area. Black children were most proficient on verbal and least proficient on numerical, with reasoning and spatial relatively intermediate in strength. Puerto Rican children displayed the least variation across the four areas. They were strongest on spatial and weakest on verbal.

A study of 40 Chinese and black children in Boston replicated the New York City findings. The differential development of abilities among children of different ethnicity depends on parental values that have been molded by societal expectations and on limitations placed on the expression of certain abilities. In the case of Chinese children, spatial activities and skills are encouraged. The Chinese language is a highly spatial one; popular games involve spatial manipulations, and most Chinese professionals are employed in spatially oriented occupations, such as architecture and engineering. By contrast, little emphasis is placed on verbal activities. On the contrary, a talkative youth may be labeled a problem child in a traditional Chinese home.

No relationship was established between academic achievement and own-race preference or identification for the black or American-Chinese samples.


In a longitudinal study of 89 black children from different social classes, while there were no significant socioeconomic status differences on the Cattell Infant Intelligence Scale at 18 and 24 months of age, there was a highly significant 23-point mean IQ difference on the Stanford Binet at 3 years of age between children from welfare and middle class black families. The range in mean IQs of the black children in the extreme socioeconomic status groups (93–116) was almost identical to that obtained by Terman and Merrill in their standardization sample of 831 white children between 2½ and 5 years of age.


Methodological aspects of previous racial doll studies prompted a replication with certain changes: White as well as black children were given a choice of three, rather than two, different skin colors with which to identify. The inclusion of an intermediate (mulatto) alternative reduced black children's misidentifications significantly. Furthermore, there did not appear to be any significant difference between white and black children's misidentifications. The use of a white comparison group and a wider range of response alternatives suggests that there is nothing unusual about black children's misidentifications. Subjects were 39 black and 36 white nursery school children.


The author describes black parents' identification with or rejection of the civil rights movement as a source of confusion to their children, especially the middle class child whose father has "made it."
For all black children, the movement provides a channel through which to express positive or negative feelings for the parents.


The author tested the hypotheses that children fail to perceive culturally determined male-sex favoritism or general cross-sex preference among adults. The authors presented 5-year-old and 8-year-old boys and girls from four culture groups a story involving adults' choice of a boy or girl for adoption, to which subjects were asked to supply the ending. In addition, they were asked to guess their own parents' choices in a similar situation, explaining their responses. In three of the four sample culture groups, a trend toward perception of preference for females became apparent.

The 408 subjects were 5- and 8-year-old males and females drawn from white or Japanese-American families in Honolulu and European or Maori families in New Zealand. Their lower-middle or working-class origins ostensibly suggest more conservative rearing regarding sex roles and masculine superiority. On the basis of private interviews with each child, it was concluded that: (1) Generally, children in all four culture groups view adults as having parallel sex preferences. (2) Even in traditionally male-dominant culture groups, the male sex is not construed to be preferred over the female sex. (3) Given situations where agreement in parental preference is necessary, females are thought to be more preferred than males in three of the four culture groups. (4) The tendency toward sex centrism is more often displayed by 5-year-old children of both sexes than by 8-year-old children.

The less sex-separated, more equalitarian cultures provide children of both sexes more stable self-esteem. The need for a stance of defensive male superiority has diminished in equalitarian culture milieus.


The paper describes a study conducted to investigate value clusters of Mexican-American and Anglo-American boys as related to
self-concept and to achievement, since it is the author's belief that typical elementary education does not meet the needs of Mexican-American children. As noted, profitable remedies for the dilemma of underachievement are not yet available because educators do not understand the underlying causes of underachievement or may not be willing to admit the failure of the schools. Specifically, the study investigated differences and/or similarities in the value clusters of three groups of boys (50 in each group) of similar ages, intelligence, and socioeconomic status, differing only in reading achievement and/or ethnicity. Among the conclusions drawn from the study were that (1) significant differences in self-concepts, values, and role conceptions exist between Mexican-American and Anglo-American boys; (2) underachieving Mexican-American boys do not perceive themselves more negatively than their better-achieving peers; and (3) Mexican-American boys do not have lower occupational aspirations than Anglo-American boys. Of equal importance are the implications for development of more realistic and appropriate educational and cultural school programs.


School children from Mexico City and Austin, Texas, were compared on their responses to active and passive items drawn from the social attitudes inventory. There were 50 children in each group, equally divided by sex. All children were approximately 14-years-old and from the upper middle socioeconomic level. The social attitudes inventory permitted not only measurements on the active-passive dimension but also in terms of self-perception and self-ideal. The results of an analysis of variance showed no difference in the main effects of the country (Mexico-United States variable) or the self-ideal factor. The combined sample did show a significant preference for active responses, which is probably best explained in terms of their developmental stage, adolescence, and their upper middle social class affiliation. The interaction between country and the active-passive dimensions were also significant, with the United States sample having higher active scores than the Mexican sample. A closer examination of the data indicates that this difference is not explained by the simple statement that North Americans are active and Mexicans are passive. A more precise explanation suggests that the United States sample prefers active responses, but the Mexican sample uses both active and passive responses in approximately equal numbers.

The longitudinal course of measured intelligence in white middle class and Puerto Rican working class children was examined at 3 and 6 years of age. Findings suggested that stability in IQ over this time period was characteristic of both groups, with greater stability manifested by the Puerto Rican than by the white children. No evidence for deterioration of IQ with age in the disadvantaged group was found. The data are considered in relation to problems of the stability of IQ and its utility in the assessment of the effects of a compensatory education program.


The Rorschach test was used to determine the personality structure of a Chinese-American sample in Hawaii (19 boys, 9 girls) and a Chicago sample (14 boys, 10 girls) of American youth. Subjects were all of normal intelligence, free from overt behavior problems as assessed by their teachers, and maintained average academic performance. The results indicated that the Hawaiian Chinese-Americans have a respect for reality with a slight tendency to overrationalize; they tend to be "doers" more than "dreamers." Their emotions appear to be smoothly integrated into their personality. Chinese-Americans seem to be typically cautious, constricted, and conventional when faced with a novel threatening situation. The intellectual approaches of the two groups were similar, but the Chicago group appeared to have more intellectual energy, while the Hawaiians exploited their mental resources in a somewhat more constructively ambitious manner.

Both the quantity and the quality of Hawaiian fantasy depart from the American pattern. It is predominantly passive in nature, which suggests a submissive acceptance of the environment. Chinese-American incidence of creative imagination was found to be optimally proportionate to level of drive. They exhibited a lower incidence of autistic, pathological fantasy than the Chicago youths. The Chicago sample showed more inhibitory wary behavior with respect to other people. The Hawaiian sample showed more conformity to parental wishes. A relative lack of juvenile delinquency among Chinese-Americans is attributed to the situation-centered Chinese
lifestyle, unlike the individual-centered lifestyle of Americans. Because Chinese-Americans seek mutual dependence with circles of fellow beings, they may enjoy considerable mental ease.


The nature and extent of the problems involved in the socialization of mixed-race children of American servicemen and Korean women are discussed. Observations and interviews find the following factors to be significant in constituting the social marginality of such children: (1) the stigma of illegitimacy, (2) the mother's undesirable occupation status (prostitution), (3) the children's economic and educational deprivation, and (4) physical differences, especially color of hair and skin.

American-Korean children are racial hybrids, but not cultural hybrids, for they are socialized in the relatively homogeneous Korean culture and have no alternate course but to become part of the ingroup. The often disastrous effect of being a racial hybrid on children's self-image and emotional development is discussed. These children have rarely been adopted in Korea, largely because of cultural attitudes favoring kinship lineage and because of social apathy.

A multidimensional solution to the problem is proposed, which involves an underlying attitudinal change on the part of the Korean people, integration of these children into society, pooling of welfare institution resources, and a stronger government role in child welfare. Tables of the status of hybrid children in Korea and of intercountry adoption are included.


This study explores the nature and extent of the problems involved in the socialization of "marginal children" born from American servicemen and Korean women. Research questions are based on significant elements of the marginal-man concept and existing theories on social marginality.

Methods employed were observations, unstructured interviews, and the reexamination of statistical data and popular assumptions.
about the social marginality of the hybrid generation. For future research, specific hypotheses are developed: (1) Anticipatory socialization becomes dysfunctional for the American-Korean children. (2) The social marginality of these children derives not primarily from culture conflict or group antagonism as such but from a salient set of social stigmas, representing abnormal, shameful, and outgroup ascription. (3) Among the marginal children, the black Koreans carry the heaviest burden of these stigmas. (4) Domestic adoption is considered most desirable to ameliorate the problems, but it is limited by the traditional system of intra-kin preferential adoption; the lack of socioeconomically qualified adoptive parents; the insular character of social ethos, which tends to discourage a generalized social welfare; and the cumbersome bureaucratic process.


Filipino children’s self-perception was investigated in terms of ethnic identity, and the authors assessed the accuracy with which they recognized sketches of persons representing two important outgroups, i.e., Americans and Chinese. Each of the 90 Tagalog male subjects (6-, 8-, and 10-year-olds) was administered a picture-identification test designed to assess their ethnic affiliation. Results demonstrate that the frequency of identifying with an ethnic group increased with age and that children identified more often with their regional group than with the national group. Subjects were more accurate in recognizing Chinese pictures than those representing Americans, implying that accuracy of racial perception is related to frequency of contact with the group.


The delivery of services to children of minority groups is hampered by the lack of recognition of ethnic factors. Although often overlooked, ethnicity is a key component in all phases of child welfare, including the provision of homemakers, foster family care, institutional placements, and adoption. The study reported here is exploratory research with several preliminary goals. These are: to identify the major issues of concern to members of ethnic minority
groups with regard to service delivery, to review proposals that move in the direction of a multi-ethnic service system, to develop a typology defining commonalities in needs among ethnic groups, and to propose standards for service delivery where factors of ethnicity are involved.

The study is concerned with children of five minority groups: American Indians, Asian-Americans, blacks, Mexican-Americans, and Puerto Ricans. As a first phase of the research, the literature of the past 10 years in professional journals, books, and unpublished papers was reviewed. Part one of this paper refers to the four major concerns discussed in the literature, with a section on each: elimination of myths, lack of recognition of cultural differences, lack of appreciation of bilingualism, and threat to group survival. Part two comprises three sections on proposals for change, including reeducation and retraining, programming for cultural content, and changes in the direction of a multi-ethnic service system.


This study examines noun-pair learning efficiency for black, Chinese-American, Latin-American, and white American children as a function of presentation conditions and method of measurement (verbal recall versus pictorial recognition). Five problem areas were addressed: (1) determining noun-pair learning efficiency in four low socioeconomic status ethnic groups, (2) isolating effective conditions prompting elaboration in each ethnic group, (3) contrasting verbal recall and pictorial recognition as measures of learning efficiency, (4) assessing retention, and (5) evaluating the prevalence of learning-to-learn.

Participants were 160 second grade children from four low socioeconomic status communities in San Francisco. Each ethnic group consisted of 20 males and 20 females. Subjects were tested on two 25-item paired associate lists. The pictorial portion of the experiment was based on line drawings from the children's first and second grade books. Items on each test were divided into five separate prompt conditions. Subjects were then individually examined by a two-trial study-test method for each list used.

Findings in four of the five problem areas indicate that: (1) Learning efficiency was similar in all four groups. (2) Each ethnic group evidenced manifest effects of both aural-verbal and visual-pictorial prompts independent of the response method used to index learning. (3) Significant learning-to-learn effects were found for each group. (4) No group differences in forgetting were observed.
The data suggest that both verbal recall and pictorial recognition provided accurate indices of prompt effects on learning for each group. Because the response modes for the ethnic groups were similar and mean population differences were lacking, the learning aptitude of children from divergent ethnic backgrounds is held to be equivalent.


This study examined racial stereotypes and social-distance patterns among Japanese-American, Chinese-American, and racially mixed elementary school children in Hawaii. Given the economic and occupational differences between various ethnic groups in Hawaii, the socioeconomic differences and associated "characteristics" might be assessable at the elementary school level. All fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students at an elementary school on Oahu were selected. A total of 293 students participated, but only the data for 272 were used in the analyses.

Fairly high levels of stereotyping and social distance were discovered. Some stereotypes were generally accepted, while others were associated with the racial origin of the respondent. Social-distance patterns revealed low rejection of Japanese-Americans, Chinese-Americans, and Hawaiian-Americans, in contrast to whites, Filipino-Americans, blacks, and Samoans. Age, sex, and family size were associated with both stereotyping and social distance.


The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test and the Hoffman Bilingual Schedule, in conjunction with a battery of questionnaires on everyday family life, were administered to 47 preschool Chinese children in the Minneapolis-St. Paul area to determine family variables related to the relative bilingual proficiency of the child. The parents of the children (25 males, 22 females) were born in China, highly educated, and upper middle class. The 42 United States-born and 5 Taiwan-born children averaged 4 years of age.

It was observed that the child generally had greater facility with Chinese than English when the basic language orientation of the family was Chinese, when the parents spoke Chinese in interactions...
with each other, and when the parents used more Chinese in reading stories to the child. Greater proficiency in English was exhibited by children whose parents were naturalized United States citizens and who were inclined to serve more American food at home. Family influence was noted to promote competence in Chinese rather than to arrest the child’s development of English skills. A strong correlation was established between the age of the child and the English score. As time progresses, extra-familial persons become more central to the satisfaction of the child’s needs such that the relative influence of the family diminishes.


This extensive study of 151 Oriental children between 10 and 15 years of age examines the relationship between acculturation and medically attended injuries or accidents. The sample was drawn from children who had enrolled for at least 6 years in the Kaiser Prepaid Medical Plan in the Berkeley and Oakland areas. Their medical records were analyzed and sorted into one of three accident groups: (1) high accident, three or more accidents, (2) medium accident, two accidents; and (3) low accident, one or no accidents. The mothers were interviewed in order to determine their childrearing practices and acculturation type. Three acculturation types were developed: (1) acculturated children of acculturated parents, (2) acculturated children of nonacculturated parents, and (3) nonacculturated children of nonacculturated parents.

The extent to which the child is or chooses to be exposed to hazards and his/her ability to cope with the hazards involved were related to acculturation type and accident rate. It was found that acculturated mothers were more likely than nonacculturated mothers to rear the child so as to permit exposure to hazards. The acculturated children were more likely than nonacculturated children to be independent and venturesome, which increased the probability of being exposed to hazards. It was found that acculturated children have more accidents than the nonacculturated children due to exposure to hazards. However, children who have acculturation conflicts at home (type 2 acculturation) appear to have a higher accident rate. Because of conflict at home, these children tend to have more accidents engendered by their inability to cope with hazards encountered. In that nonacculturated children have few accidents, one may hypothesize that this finding is due to a reluctance on the part of the mother to bring them to the hospital. However, the hypothesis
that Orientals are reluctant to use medical facilities was not substantiated by study findings.


The discrepancy between the social system and the individual personality system among Asian-American and Canadian Mennonite children is examined for implications regarding optimal integrated functioning. Medical records of 404 Asian-American children under 15 from the Oakland-Berkeley area were analyzed to correlate high- and low-accident groups with environmental or personal characteristics. The Waterloo, Canada, study of 460 10-year-old Mennonite children sought to parallel the Asian-American research, although covert rather than overt symptoms of maladjustment were emphasized.

Mothers of children in both groups were administered questionnaires and interviews. All subjects were further divided into traditional, transitional, and acculturated subgroups. The author contends that, for Asian-Americans as well as Canadian Mennonites, an assumption of the integrated stability of their traditional social systems is unwarranted. Inevitable exposure to the dominant societies has pushed each subcultural group toward change. Both groups have adjusted their norms to conform to the material ethic of the prevailing culture while still maintaining traditional values in other areas. Such concessions may be adaptive on the structural level of the social system; they have failed to support the integrated stability of individual members. Transitional Asian and Mennonite children revealed the largest number of maladjustment symptoms. It is suggested that (1) members of a tightly knit social system may be free from overt but not covert symptoms of maladjustment, and (2) a high correlation exists between cultural conflict and mental disturbance.


A survey of 369 eighth grade Mexican-Americans was conducted to investigate the relationship between an individual's choice of an ethnic-identifying term and the prejudice he feels toward other spe-
cific ethnic groups. On a questionnaire, subjects were asked to rank in order of preference the following ethnic groups: Anglo, Mexican-American, Jew, black, Oriental. (Subjects indicated when there was no preference.) Subjects were also required to rank the same groups according to inferiority. Results indicate that there was a relationship between the ethnic self-identifying term selected by an individual and his prejudices toward other groups. The greatest incidence of positive prejudice was shown toward the respondent's own ethnic group. Generally, there was more prejudice expressed against Jews and Orientals. Parochial school respondents tended to show somewhat greater prejudice toward Jews. They also indicated "no preference" more often than those in public schools.


The author hypothesized that urban black children have a lower self-concept than their white counterparts. Forty black male seventh and eighth graders from an all-black parochial school and 40 white male seventh and eighth graders from an all-white parochial school were matched in terms of age, IQ, and socioeconomic status. Both groups were administered the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. Blacks scored significantly lower than whites on total scores and the following scales: behavior, physical self, personal self, moral-ethical self, identity, and self-satisfaction. Scores on the other subscales were all in the expected direction.


The written language performances of monolingual, Chinese bilingual, and Spanish bilingual sixth grade girls and boys similar in IQ, scholastic background, and social class were compared in a California community. The language performance task, which was written in English, revealed that, in general, bilingualism does not appear to have an effect upon written language performance. While sex and bilingual-monolingual differences were found in specific comparisons such as in grammatical errors, spelling, verbal output, and vocabulary, the authors conclude that bilingualism may, in fact, aid certain written skills.
It has recently been noted that black children, especially those of lower socioeconomic status, have a language system with phonological and grammatical rules that differ in predictable ways from the rules governing the standard English used by most white Americans. Four features of black nonstandard American English have been noted with predictable regularity: zero copula, singularization of plural objects, zero possessive, and the use of "be" to represent time extension.

The present research attempted to validate empirically the existence of these distinguishing features by having two black and two white examiners administer a task requiring 93 black and 108 white second graders to derive the present, plural, possessive, and time-extension forms of nonsense syllables. In general, the results support the hypotheses. For each dimension, white children supplied more standard English endings and black children more nonstandard endings. All results were relatively independent of subjects' socioeconomic status. These findings suggest that most black children approach the traditional school situation with a language system whose grammar is different from, rather than deficient in relation to, that of their white peers and that of the standard tongue adopted by the school. It is recommended that more data be collected and that the results, if consistent, be incorporated into future curriculum development.

This handbook provides information related to the physical, emotional, and language problems that may face newly adopted Vietnamese or Korean children and their adoptive parents. Cultural differences among Vietnamese, Korean, and American families in such areas as diet, sleeping, customs, clothing, childcare, communication, toilet habits, and schooling are explained in detail. Suggestions are included for making necessary adjustment periods as easy as possible. A comprehensive collection of general information about possible health problems of the children, with particular emphasis on diseases unique to Asia, is presented.

Results of a cross-cultural comparison show significant differences between 4- to 7-year-old Hong Kong Chinese, white Americans, and black Americans on racial preference and racial self-identity ratings. Findings support the normative theory of racial prejudice.


The Multicultural/Bilingual Division at the National Institute of Education (NIE) was established in January, 1975, as a reflection of the increased attention to cultural and linguistic factors in education. The emergence of this interest in minority education programs and research can be traced through three phases of activity: (1) adoption and management of projects transferred from the Office of Education, and promotion of field-initiated research; (2) completion of 10 multicultural planning conferences and continuation of support for selected projects; and (3) creation of the division, synthesis of planning conferences, and completion of the first program plan beginning to systematically focus on needs in the field. A new conceptual framework proposes a definition of multicultural education, identifies the relationship between multicultural and bilingual education, and draws from the definition a statement that information about cultural and linguistic communities should be used in the development of instructional programs for children of ethnic minority background of limited English-speaking ability. The new framework also provides a structure for organizing and assigning priorities to continuing and proposed division activities.


The authors investigated whether increasing the number of conditioning trials that associate the color black with positively evaluated words would serve to enhance the adoption of favorable at-
titudes toward Afro-Americans by 79 Euro-American kindergarten children. Using William's Preschool Racial Attitudes Measure II (PRAM II) and Parish's revised PRAM II, it was found that subjects did adopt more favorable attitudes toward Afro-Americans as the number of conditioning trials increased. Notably, this conditioning was achieved without subjects being aware of the conditioning process. Results are discussed in light of other recent findings.


To assess how lower class mothers perceive themselves and how they differ in self-perception from other segments of the population, Emmerich's adaptation of the Parental Attitudes Research Instrument (PARI) and Rotter's Internal-External Control Scale (I-E) were administered to 28 lower class black mothers of infants at high risk for cultural-social retardation and to 34 mothers of same-age infants drawn at random from the general population of a southern university town. The lower class mothers differed significantly from the general population mothers on both instruments, being more external in their perceived locus of control (I-E), and more authoritarian, less hostile and reflecting, and less democratic in their self-descriptions on the PARI scales. I-E and democratic attitude were significantly negatively correlated with each other.


Color photographs of young male adults were shown to 72 preschool and 68 third grade white, black, and Chicano children. The photographs depicted persons of the same ethnic groups as the children. All subjects were able to discriminate between the photographs of the white and black males, but the preschool children were unable to make the discrimination between the white and Chicano photographs. All subjects indicated the appropriate photograph when asked which looked most like them. Among the preschool subjects, neither the blacks nor the Chicanos expressed significant preferences for their own ethnic group, while a significant number of whites selected the white photograph as the one they liked the most. At the third grade level, only the Chicano subjects displayed a strong preference for their own ethnic group.
Metropolitan Toronto, when defined by its municipal boundaries, has a population of more than 2 million people. A survey conducted in 1970 showed that half of its 600,000 household heads were born outside of Canada. Only 29 percent were native-born of native parentage. Immigrants and their children were adapting to a society that deliberately adopted a policy of "bilingualism within a framework of multiculturalism." In this context, it is pertinent to ask how people defined their own ethnicity and to what extent they identified themselves with Canada as a whole or with various other national or ethnic minorities.

Of those born in Canada, 39 percent described themselves as "Canadian" and a further 10 percent as "Hyphenated Canadian." Only 14 percent of the foreign-born described themselves as "Canadian" and a further 7 percent as "Hyphenated Canadian." Within the Canadian-born category, age proved to be the single most important determinant of whether a householder described him- or herself as "Canadian." Other factors were membership of the numerically dominant and prestigious "British" origin group, almost half of whom preferred that description or a close synonym such as "English." Members of certain religious minorities, particularly the Jewish, were unlikely to describe themselves as "Canadian." Copies of this paper are available from ICAES Office, 1126 East 59th Street, Chicago, Ill. 60637.

Thirty 3- to 4-year-old and 30 6 to 7-year-old black girls were shown three dolls that differed in skin color and/or hairstyle and were asked to judge which doll looked like them, which doll was prettiest, and which doll was ugliest. Although the majority of both age groups identified with the black dolls, the older children displayed a more accurate racial self-identity. Subjects differed significantly in their perception of the ugliest doll: The younger group selected the black doll wearing an afro hairstyle, while the older group selected the white doll. Results are discussed in terms of the role of greater experience with blacks and whites and a possible
overreaction to the "black is beautiful" feeling on the part of the older group.

249. Robinson, M.B. Developing a Cultural Awareness Scale: An Assessment of Sensitivity to Cultural Differences in Children from the "Culture of Poverty." Available from Xerox University Microfilms, P.O. Box 1764, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106, Order No. 75-6297.

The purpose of this work was to develop an instrument that could be used to: (1) assess teacher sensitivity to cultural differences that could influence learning style in children from the culture of poverty, (2) help teachers recognize and interpret classroom behaviors that signal the presence of these cultural differences, and (3) help supervisors ascertain the needs of teachers who work with children from the culture of poverty.

Descriptive statements were collected regarding patterns of material and behavioral arrangements adopted by persons in poverty. These statements were classified and aligned to give a picture of the culture and to provide a basis for the construction of items used in the scale. From the item pool, 60 items were selected for a pilot study. Three groups responded to the questionnaire: 20 social workers, 25 experienced teachers, and 37 undergraduate seniors studying elementary education. The final instrument consisted of 43 items that were divided into two scales. Scale I included the first 33 items, which were written to assess sensitivity to specific characteristics of children from the poverty subculture. Scale II included the last 10 items, which were worded to ascertain the respondent's feeling about the school's responsibility to children from the poverty subculture. The final instrument was administered to 109 subjects.


It is hypothesized that the high scholastic achievement of Japanese-American students is due to the Japanese cultural values of collective action and generation-based linear authority. To probe the validity of the hypothesis, the author, in 1966, sampled 2,200 sixth, ninth, and twelfth grade students in 23 Los Angeles schools from varying racial and socioeconomic backgrounds. Of this sample, 254 were Japanese-American. Through questionnaires, information about family background, educational and occupational aspirations,
and value orientations was compiled. The four variables under study tied to the attainment of academic success included: (1) the goals toward which the individuals strive, (2) activities appropriate for goal attainment, (3) the pupil's perception of the feasibility of attaining his/her goals, and (4) mode and intensity of interpersonal relations.

Eighty-five percent of the secondary school sample indicated that they and their parents would like them to attend college; 80 percent of the secondary school sample aspired toward upper white-collar jobs. The Japanese-American and white American secondary school samples were compared on the value orientation variables. Japanese-American pupils were found to be more expressive in their orientation toward school; more favorable toward formal school compliance; and less oriented toward the future and their control over fate. Japanese-Americans also showed higher occupational aspirations. Achievement of Japanese-American pupils is related to high faith in human nature, low independence from peers, low self-esteem, and low instrumental orientation. The author concludes that the overall findings support the hypotheses.


The author examined whether the changed social milieu has resulted in a greater acceptance of blackness. Seventy fourth grade black males were administered the Projective Picture Inventory (PPI), consisting of 36 photographs of adult black males judged to be light, medium, or dark in skin color. Each subject was asked to select one photograph he thought represented a person of a certain occupational group for each of six high-status and six low-status occupations. The null hypothesis was adopted that there would not be a difference in the responses of subjects to the selection of pictures representing blackness (dark skin) in the high and low occupational groups. The null hypothesis was rejected at a high level of statistical significance: High status jobs were ascribed to light negro males. Methods by which a more positive acceptance of blackness can be attained are discussed.


Whether differences in permissiveness of childrearing practices between Chinese and white middle class parents can cause signifi-
icant differences in personality development is explored, using the Whiting and Child methodology. Subjects were 40 Chinese students at Oklahoma State University, of whom 36 came from mainland China, 3 from Malaysia, and 1 from Taiwan. Each subject was asked to describe childhood training practices in his/her family, following the Whiting and Child methodology. Primary foci were dependency; aggression; and oral, anal, and sex concern. Cattell's 16 PF Personality Test was given to the 40 Chinese students. The result were then compared to norms published for American college students (N=604).

Relative to Americans, Chinese were characterized as more withdrawn, shy, introverted, sensitive, suspicious, cold, aloof, schizophrenic, and emotionally insecure. Because the sample was small and unique, the authors caution against overgeneralizations about the Chinese population at large. It was nonetheless concluded that the severity of Chinese childrearing practices experienced by the sample produced a significant difference in personality organization from that of the American students. Similar Chinese-white American levels of compulsivity, rigidity of control, and sociability reflect an absence of group differences in the severity of anal training alone.


The social orientation of 60 American and 60 Philippine mothers representing two levels of social class was assessed through the verbal regulatory appeal strategies that they employed in five hypothetical everyday situations involving their 4-year-old children. Social orientation was assessed through the mother's responses to the Bearison and Cassel questionnaire for regulatory appeal strategies. Each of the mothers' regulatory phrases was classified as person-oriented (expressing the feelings, thoughts, needs of a person affected by the child's behavior) or position-oriented (expressing a non-situation-specific rule of behavior in terms of the position status or role of the child). Society was found to have a significant effect on mother's use of person-oriented versus position-oriented statements, but its impact varied as a function of the mother's educational level. Situational variations also influenced the adoption of a person versus a position orientation. This effect of situational determinants was modified by the mother's education. The results were interpreted within the framework of Bernstein's (1966) Theory of Social Learning.

The increasing number of white families adopting across ethnic lines has aroused concern about the effects of transracial adoption on the white and nonwhite children in those homes. This study used a modified three-part Clark and Clark paradigm to measure levels of racial awareness, preference, and identity among nonwhite children (120 black, 37 Asian and Indian children) adopted by white families and their white siblings (42 adopted and 167 born into those families). Midwestern families with children ranging in age from 3- to 8-years old were investigated. A pre- and post-study interview with both the children and their parents provided additional perspective.

Results indicated that black children adopted in a multiracial setting do not develop an ambivalence toward their own race as had been reported in earlier studies. In addition, white children preferred their own race to a lesser degree than white children in previous studies. No differences were found between the children's groups on racial awareness and racial identity variables. These findings suggest that development in a multiracial environment contributes to a decrease in the status of whites among children without any corresponding decrement in racial awareness and ethnic identification.

No definite conclusions concerning Asian-American children were made due to the small sample size, the confounding of Asian and Indian results, and the use of an inappropriate identity measure.


This study compares English language usage among 50 Honolulu Chinese children in the 1950s with a similar group of children tested in 1933. The two groups were matched for total subject number, age, ancestry, and agreement of distribution of fathers' occupations with the 1950 census. Participant age ranged from 36 to 60 months.

Group differences outside English language development surfaced: Social mobility as reflected by fathers' occupations exhibited an upward trend by 1950, and parental schooling was twice that of the 1933 group. Better conditions for learning English could thus be assumed. Although the 1933 groups spoke as much Chinese as English at home, their preferred language at play was English, an
average of 82 percent English words being used. The English usage of the 1933 group was less than that for the 1950 group. Not only did the children mix two languages in the same sentence, but their sentence construction was immature, replete with errors, and contained improper verb conjugations. The excessively high error rate for their age bracket was attributed to contamination exposure to pidgin English. Only one bilingual child was discovered among the 1950 group; the average number of English words had increased to 98.7 percent, and the frequency of mixed sentences had diminished. While the study points up the disappearance of bilingualism among Chinese preschoolers in Hawaii, frequent exposure to pidgin English continues to impede acquisition of correct English language skills.


A 1938 study on the use of English in preschool children is compared to a 1957 study that used the same population and age parameters. In the 1957 study, 50 children of Japanese ancestry, 50 Honolulu children of Filipino ancestry, and 51 rural children of Filipino ancestry were scored on their use of English. All children were between the ages of 42 months and 66 months. The children were selected so that the distribution of their fathers’ occupations was similar to that of the U.S. census. It was discovered that all children in the 1957 sample spoke English 75 to 99 percent of the time, only occasionally speaking the ancestral language. According to the later study, preschool children of Japanese and Filipino ancestry are now rarely bilingual. Nevertheless, they may still hear their grandparents or other adults speak the old-country language at home.


The authors discuss the particular problems of counseling the black child, indicating that black value systems are often totally misunderstood, leading to ineffective counseling. A case in point is presented to show related problems in our educational institutions. An appreciation of black values, language, and problems of self-awareness are emphasized.
The author assumed that the low delinquency rate reported among Chinese-Americans was due to their childrearing practices, their cultural values, and their familial structure. Sixty-nine Chinese mothers were interviewed with the Spears, Maccoby, and Levine Schedule. In addition, the investigator participated in the daily life of Chinatown for 7 weeks. From the interview responses, observation of familial relations, and many discussions with people in the area, it would appear that the low delinquency rate, in spite of environmental variables that should favor such behavior, may be due to the following: (1) Through an abundance of nurturance and protection during early childhood, a reservoir of security and trust is built up, so that after the age of 6, when the rigid demands for conformity are expected, they will be accepted with a minimum of hostility. (2) From an early age, physical aggression is not only discouraged but is, in fact, not tolerated. (3) The child comes from a close-knit, integrated family. He is reared in an atmosphere of mutual respect. Certain filial duties are expected of him, and, on the other hand, the parents accept responsibility for his proper behavior. (4) Within the family, and within the community, the child is continuously in contact with good models of behavior after whom he patterns his own behavior.

This is a preliminary report of the young black child’s response to his racial identity, as characterized by skin color. The purpose of the ongoing study is to determine whether black children feel more positively about their color since the growing emphasis on “black consciousness.” Data, obtained from a small number of children, suggest that socioeconomic issues are major determining factors. Black children from stable families appear to feel more comfortable about this racial identity than do children from unstable backgrounds. This class factor is to be further evaluated.
This article investigates the political socialization of children in 1970 at four Los Angeles County elementary schools. The suburban, predominantly white schools were selected on the basis of enrollment of Mexican-American and Japanese-American students. Subjects consisted of 551 white American children (75 percent of the sample), 85 Japanese-American children (12 percent), and 93 Mexican-American children (13 percent), all fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grade students.

The children were administered a Personal Effectiveness Scale plus a scale measuring civic duty and political efficacy. Both scales were designed by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan, the latter scale being a modification of the adult version. It was demonstrated that Mexican-American children, compared to white American children, scored lower on personal effectiveness and political efficacy. They appeared not to have internalized the role expectation associated with individual participation in politics. This is true, independent of socioeconomic status. The Japanese-American children scored higher than the white American children on personal effectiveness and political efficacy. Japanese-American children accept white American norms of individual participation in politics to even a greater extent than do white American children. This trend appears to be even stronger when socioeconomic status is controlled. It is suggested that because of the characteristic conforming and conventional behavior of Japanese-Americans, the role orientations of Japanese-American children are based on the ideal rather than the real. That they surpass the white American children's level of political orientation comes, then, as no surprise:


The researchers administered their study instrument to 60 black and 60 white 3- to 5-year-old subjects in order to study their comprehension of the family structure. The first task required that the subject exhibit some ability to identify himself before he was expected to indicate his understanding of familial labels. Subjects identified first with the members of the same sex and race. The findings were in agreement with previous studies. Succeeding tasks determined the subject's ability to understand and verbalize his knowledge of the family. Age was a significant factor: Five-year-old subjects scored higher than 4-year-old subjects; and those who were 4-years-old scored higher than 3-year-olds at each age level. White subjects scored significantly higher than black subjects on familial
tasks. There was no significant difference between boys and girls in the performance scores for this concept.


The WISC scores of school-age Puerto Rican children were affected by differences in examiner style between two examiners who were equivalent as to sex, ethnicity, fluency in Spanish and English, and clinical experience. A higher performance level occurred with examiner behavior that encouraged active participation, verbalization, and repeated effort on the child's part.


Some 3,000 of 19,044 children born between 1960-1967, predominantly at the Kaiser Foundation Hospital in Oakland, Calif., were comprehensively evaluated at ages 5 and 10 for normal or abnormal development. Ethnic division for the nonclinical sample age 9 to 11 was 2,212 white (65 percent), 641 black (23 percent), 117 Oriental (4 percent), 79 Chicano (3 percent), and the remainder mixed or unclassified. The minority sample was higher in socioeconomic status than the typical urban minority population.

Data were drawn from a 20-minute interview with a parent, who in 92 percent of cases was the mother. Changes in health and social circumstances were discussed. The Children's Behavior Deck, 100 IBM cards depicting a problem behavior or temperamental characteristic, was presented to the informant, who would respond "mostly true of the child," "mostly untrue of the child," or "uncertain/not applicable." A novel program was developed for machine-processing the data. The children completed Progressive Matrices or the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.

Mothers, regardless of ethnic membership, were found to use different terms that distinguished their sons from their daughters. However, divergent value systems emerged for each racial group. Terms used by Oriental mothers in describing their sons' behavior include "talks too loud, shows off, doesn't mind being seen undressed, likes attention, fights to get his own way, likes athletics." Girl items
include "doesn't mind losing a game, often seems tired, speaks too softly, is dependable." Oriental mothers differ least from whites and most blacks in patterns of characterizing their children. Oriental and white mothers made more positive statements about their children than did black mothers. While Oriental mothers frequently saw their children as shy, self-effacing, and overcontrolled, closer inspection of the data revealed distinctive subcultural influences. On balance, the four groups of mothers resembled each other more than they differed from one another, especially regarding the mood, temperament, and energy level of their children.


In the 1950s and 1960s, studies of racial preference of children consistently showed black children to choose white models and to reject black models. The present study of black children growing up since 1963 indicates a reversal of this position. The authors interpret their findings as a reflection of a more accepting incorporation of racial identity and pride within the child's self-concept.


This study probes for differences at three socioeconomic levels among children from five ethnic groups in Hawaii along lines of school achievement and mental abilities at ages 2 and 10. In Hawaii, whites and Chinese are considered above average in socioeconomic status; Japanese are middle class; and Portuguese, Hawaiians, and part-Hawaiians are considered lower and lower-middle class. Six-hundred-thirty-five children (253 Japanese, 180 part- and full-blooded Hawaiians, 138 Filipinos, 46 Portuguese, and 18 whites) born in 1955 on the island of Kauai in Hawaii were selected. Both children and parents were part of the Kauai Pregnancy and Child Study, a longitudinal inquiry into the outcome of all pregnancies in the community, with followup tests at ages 2 and 10. During followup, the authors examined how perinatal complications and the quality of environment would affect child development prior to, as well as during, school age. At age 2, subjects were given the Cattell Infant Intelligence Scale and Doll's Vineland Social Matu-
rity Scale. From 1965–1966 the subjects at age 10 completed the SRA Primary Mental Abilities Test (Elementary Form) and the Group Bender Gestalt Test. The mother and teacher of each subject were interviewed to rate socioeconomic status, educational stimulation, and emotional support of the family.

Results indicate that the social maturity of the children in the five ethnic groups and the three socioeconomic levels do not differ significantly. In intelligence, however, the Japanese, regardless of socioeconomic status, scored higher than the other ethnic groups. At age 10, white and Japanese children were found to have fewer achievement problems than other groups. Whites exhibited no language problems, while the Japanese had the smallest percentage of language problems of all nonwhite ethnic groups. Similarly, the Japanese had the smallest percentage of perceptual problems, while whites showed the highest percentage. Japanese subjects had fewer behavioral problems generally.

At age 10, ethnicity influenced both level and pattern of basic mental abilities. On PMA EQ, whites scored higher than Filipinos or Hawaiians. Although socioeconomic level produced pronounced discrepancies in levels of basic mental abilities, it did not account for perceptual differences in the pattern of abilities between children from below-average or average socioeconomic homes. White and Japanese children received more educational stimulation and emotional support at home than did other ethnic groups.

In conclusion, racial differences were not dependent on socioeconomic status. At age 2, ethnic differences on the infant test were already present. Variations in the patterns of mental abilities and achievement were explained in terms of differential achievement motivation or education stimulation received at home. Other factors suggested are the use of a foreign language at home and different childrearing practices. Japanese performance may be linked to the importance the group assigns to education, disciplined work habits, and esteem for intellectual pursuits.


The study examined the relationship between the raw scores on the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC), social class, and exposure to English in 53 (24 males, 29 females) 9- to 10-year-old Chinese-Americans in a private school in San Francisco. Social class was defined on the basis of the residence, education, and occupation of the father or head of household. The variable, exposure
to English, was the result of a factor analysis of 30 variables assessed via a parent interview. Parents were interviewed in English or in Chinese, depending on the parents' language facility. The WISC was administered by the senior author to subjects who could "carry on a normal conversation in English," whose "understanding of the English language [was] adequate for [their] age," and who were American born.

No statistically significant relationship was found between social class and the 12 WISC subtests, the WISC overall total, the 6 WISC verbal subtests, the WISC verbal total, or the WISC performance total. Statistically significant relationships were found between social class and the 6 WISC performance subtests and exposure to English and the WISC overall total.


This article considers the role of achievement of independence training in Chinese immigrant and Chinese-American children living in Hawaii. Twenty immigrant Chinese families and 32 Hawaii-born Chinese families with sons 9- to 12-years-old participated. The immigrant fathers were typically cooks and butchers, while Chinese-American fathers were predominantly professionals. The mothers were asked to complete a childrearing practice questionnaire as well as a revised version of the independence training questionnaire developed by Winter-bottom. Achievement motivation of the boys was determined by their n-Ach scores derived from the TAT. Actual achievement was determined by their school grades, teacher ratings, preference for delayed gratification, and inclination toward intermediate risk-taking.

The results indicated that measures of achievement, achievement-motivation, and achievement-oriented behaviors did not differ significantly between the Chinese-American and immigrant boys. An examination of the independence training questionnaire revealed that, despite socioeconomic differences between the two groups, immigrant and Chinese-American mothers reported similar sanctioned and nonsanctioned behaviors for their sons. Compared to previous data on white boys, Chinese mothers expected their boys to achieve in social situations (e.g., interactions with their peers) at a later age than did white mothers. However, in areas of academic achievement and caretaking, Chinese mothers expected their sons to achieve at the same age or earlier than white mothers did. The early-age expectancy of achievement in some areas and late ex-
pectancy of achievement in others invalidate the utility of the independence training questionnaire as an instrument predicting achievement behavior in Chinese boys. The validity of identifying an optimal age for independence training is questionable. Cultural values appear to be vital in determining maternal expectations of achievement behavior.


This collection of "polar statements" was adopted from "Stereotypes, Distortions, and Omissions in U.S. History Textbooks: A Content Analysis Instrument for Detecting Racism and Sexism," which was published in fall, 1976, by the Council on Interracial Books for Children, Racism and Sexism Resource Center for Educators.


For some years, groups such as the Council on Interracial Books for Children (CIBC) have been urging librarians to take a second look at children's books previously regarded as classics and to evaluate them in the light of the new consciousness that acknowledges the oppression of Third World peoples and women. On January 29, 1973, the Board of Directors of the American Library Association (ALA) Children's Services Division unanimously passed a resolution calling for the reevaluation of library materials for children's collections. However, others—particularly ALA's Intellectual Freedom Committee—actively challenged the resolution. On February 2, 1973, the ALA Council adopted an IFC counter-resolution setting forth the concept that sexism, racism, and other "isms" are ideas that should not be censored. Furthermore, the Library Bill of Rights was cited as prohibiting children's librarians from assuming functions different from those assigned to adult librarians. The CIBC then published a position paper entitled "Censorship and Racism: A Dilemma for Librarians." On January 21, 1976, the IFC adopted a statement in the form of a reply to that position paper, giving reasons for their opposition. Comments on the IFC's most recent statement are given here.
This paper proposes measures for policy implementation to meet the educational needs of minority group children from "new common-wealth" (newly independent) countries residing in England. An admission of the importance of education of these children, the need for more resources to be made available to them, and the extent to which these children's needs and those of the indigenous community are similar are stated to be relevant considerations. The main results of systematic research findings and experience in multiracial schools are given along with the main implications for action and research. Specific recommendations submitted include requests for additional resources from central government, the establishment of a national policy for deprived urban areas, several programs for local education authorities (such as advisory teams on multiracial schools), and teacher training with the adoption of positive policies to recruit and train professionals from minority backgrounds.

This aid for teachers of Vietnamese children is an attempt to identify the educational needs and describe the background of Vietnamese students. Many of the educational needs of these students are a result of the differences between U.S. culture and Vietnamese culture, which is more than 1,000 years old. Because of the large number of student needs, this brief aid addresses only a few general areas of need such as language learning, grade placement, social relationships, and school background. Statements about Vietnamese culture are included to help the teacher select an appropriate approach for Vietnamese students who are refugees from a traditional society that underwent evolutionary change due to contact with the West. The degree of the students' cultural differences is dependent upon their background, for example, whether they had been living in the city or in the countryside and whether they had been intellectuals or illiterates. In working with the students, the teacher is encouraged to adopt the appropriate approach for each use. A bibliography is provided to indicate sources of further information. Also included is a list of some institutional sources for further information.
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