

SELECTED FACETS OF ADOPTION IN KANSAS

by ¹

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Importance of Adoption Problems

The continuance of a culture depends upon the acceptance of its values and mores by the children. A child, considered individually, seems relatively unimportant in either maintaining or changing the present culture, but as an aggregate the children are vital to these processes; thus each individual child becomes vital. The natural family in our society passes the values and mores to their children; however, many children are left without natural families through illegitimacy, desertion, death of parents, and divorce. Adoption is one method which has been devised to care for and socialize these children.

The characteristics of the adoptive family should be a primary consideration in this process because of the crucial role it plays in the socialization of the child, yet the child himself and his natural parent or parents cannot be ignored. Agencies have been formed to evaluate prospective homes to insure the proper socialization of these children, but not all placements are made with the use of such an agency evaluation. With the increasing rate of illegitimate births (39.8 per 1000 live

births in 1950 to 49.6 per 1000 in 1958),¹ it becomes a matter of considerable importance to the society whether there is a rational placement of these children in good quality homes, or they are placed haphazardly with only a chance that the home will fulfill its vital role. These alternate processes of adoption will be defined in the next section of this chapter.

Definition of Terms

Homeless or unwanted children may be adopted by one of two means: independently or through an agency. Independent adoption occurs when a doctor, lawyer, nurse, minister, friend, or other private person acts as the intermediary between the natural mother and the couple desiring to adopt and arrange the legal placement of the child with this couple. Agency adoptions are of two types: private and public. Private agencies are usually church sponsored, while the public agency is attached to the State Welfare Department. Agency adoption occurs when either a private or a public agency is the licensed intermediary between the natural mother and the adoptive couple and arranges the legal placement of the child for the couple. The licensing of the agency is by the state to indicate that the agency is competent in placing the child socially and legally. For the purposes of this report, both types of agencies have been included under the single designation "agency placement", since they operate almost identically.

¹Mebel A. Elliott and Francis E. Merrill, Social Disorganization (fourth edition; New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951), p. 163.

In studying the problems related to adoption, adoption rates are often used. These rates are the number of adoptions based on a given population: in this study, adoption rates have been standardized as adoptions per 1,000 persons of a given population.

A Short History of Adoption

Adoption has always existed in human societies. Evidence exists that some early societies held adoption rites involving weird and grotesque simulations of birth.¹ The Babylonian Code of Hammurebi, compiled from 2285 to 2242 B.C., had specific laws which made it appear that the Babylonians were particularly interested in protecting the property rights of adopted children and in insuring that an orphaned child would be provided for. The child had formal acknowledgment of his adoption and he could not be cut off from the inheritance of property without due legal process.

The Bible makes several references to adoption: examples are the adoption of Lot by Abram (later Abraham), Moses by Pharaoh, and Esther by Mordecai.²

The Romans incorporated adoption into their civil law. The principal underlying motivations, in this as well as other early societies, seem to have been to acquire heirs. If a man had valuable property or a title of position to pass on he had

¹Margaret Kornitzer, Child Adoption in the Modern World (New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1952), p. 346. X

²Hazel Frederickson, The Child and His Welfare (San Francisco, California: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1957), p. 227.

a strong motivation for wanting sons. Sonless men would, therefore, adopt boys of good families. These boys could return to their original families after the death of the adoptive fathers, but their sons had to stay to perpetuate the adoptive family. Girls could not be adopted, nor could women adopt.¹ The Emperor Germanicus thus received his crown through adoption by Tiberius.

The Chinese, like the Romans, only adopted sons. These sons, however, did not have as high a status as natural sons if there were natural sons in the family.

Adoption was practiced in the Anglo-Saxon tribes, but it was not legalized in England until 1926. This late legalization of adoption in England had its repercussions in the early United States, since the colonists brought with them the principles of the English common law. Before the United States made laws concerning adoption, the American Indians adopted by baptism and blood transfusion.

Adoption Law in the United States and in Kansas

United States.--The first specific law dealing with adoption in the United States was passed in Massachusetts in 1851. Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and Illinois all had passed adoption laws by 1867. Today, all states have adoption legislation, but the laws are varied among states.

The early laws focused mainly on the needs and desires of the adopting parents, which reflected the motivations of

¹Kornitzer, op. cit., p. 3.

adoption in earlier societies. Between the years of 1920-1930, the adoption laws were revised or newly enacted. The welfare of the adopted child was emphasized in these laws. The changes were brought about mainly through the recommendations of the Children's Bureau in 1925:

To safeguard the interest of all the parties concerned, the adoption law should provide for investigation of the fitness of the natural parents to care for the child, of his physical and mental conditions and his heredity (as it bears on whether he is a proper subject for adoption), of the moral fitness and financial ability of the adopting parents, and, in general, of the suitability of the proposed home . . . It should also provide for trial placement in the home either before the petition for adoption is filed or before a final decree is granted, and for supervision during this trial period.¹

State legislation now emphasizes social investigation as well as covering the usual legal provisions. These laws generally cover the following points: a social investigation is to be conducted; the parties to the adoption are named; the court having jurisdiction is specified; the contents of the petition, the age and residence of the petitioners are noted; documents of consent, notice, investigation and supervision must be filed; the specific agency for investigation and supervision is identified; a hearing is to be held; probationary residence period is to be specified; the decree is to be issued and records closed; inheritance rights, the issuance of new birth certificates and arrangements for annulment or repeal are also considered.²

¹United States Children's Bureau, Adoption Laws of the United States, No. 148, 1925, cited by Dorothy Zietz, Child Welfare (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959), p. 132.

²Frederickson. op. cit., p. 229.

Kansas.--The general statutes of Kansas which relate to adoption are summarized in the following paragraphs:¹

Any adult may adopt a child and, if married, both spouses must consent to the adoption. Consent for the adoption of a child must be given by (a) living parents of a legitimate child, or, (b) the mother of an illegitimate child, or (c) one of the parents if the other has failed or refused to assume the duties of a parent for two consecutive years or is incapable of giving such consent, or (d) the agency having custody of the child. If the child is over 14 years of age, his consent must be obtained. In a divorce action, the district court may give consent for adoption if both parents are judged unfit to have the custody of the child. In addition, one year must have elapsed after the divorce is granted, and the natural parents must have been notified of the petition for the adoption.

The adopted child is entitled to the same rights of person and property as if he were a natural child of the adopting parents. The natural parents cannot inherit from the adopted child and forfeit all rights of a natural parent over the child.

The petition for adoption is filed in the probate court of the county where the petitioner lives, if he is a resident of Kansas; if he is a nonresident, it is filed in the county where the custody of the child is held. The petition includes: (a) the name, residence, and address of the petitioner; (b) the child's name, birth date and place of birth, and where the child

¹State Department of Social Welfare of Kansas, Kansas Statutes Relating to Adoption of Children (citations are to General Statutes of Kansas, G.S. 1949, unless otherwise indicated), Topeka, Kansas.

lives; (c) the financial ability of the petitioner; (d) the name, residence and address of the living natural parents if they are known by the petitioner (this is omitted if the child is under legal custody of an institution or agency).

When the petition is filed, the court fixes a date for the hearing. Pending the hearing, the court may issue an order for the care and custody of the child. After the State Department of Social Welfare receives a copy of the petition, it must make an investigation of both the child and the adopting parents. The results of this investigation are then submitted to the court. If the court, after the hearing and consideration of the report, determines that the petition should be granted, a final order of adoption is entered. If the child has not already been placed in the home of the petitioner, he is then so placed. The files and records of the adoption are kept confidential except for the interested parties, their attorneys and representatives of the State Department of Social Welfare, and are open for inspection only by court order.

These Kansas statutes refer to the ones in force in 1949, with some revisions and additions in 1959. One of the main additions, in 1959, was the statute dealing with the social investigation of all adoptions, except stepparent adoptions and those of close relatives. The latter are investigated only if the court orders it. The purpose of this revision of law was to insure better placement of children in acceptable homes through independent placements. The child, however, is usually already in the home when the petition for adoption is submitted to the court and the investigation is made.

The judge hesitates to take the child from the home even if the evaluation indicates the home to be questionable. In agency placements, investigation and evaluation are made before the child is placed. In 1952, forty-one states, including Kansas, provided for investigation by the State Department of Welfare, a licensed children's agency, a social worker of the court, or some other competent person. At this writing 39 states require that the final adoption decree be withheld until the child has lived in the proposed home for a probationary period.¹

Current Philosophy of Adoption

Adoption in modern times is both a legal and a social process. As a legal process, it has long-established roots in civil law and is the process by which a binding relationship is established between parents and a child when they are not related biologically. As a social process, it is the process whereby the physical care and the socialization of children who would otherwise be wards of the state are assured.

Social scientists and psychiatrists have emphasized the importance of the social process whereby an adequate environment for the development of a child is assured. Since Cooley,² studies have shown that the primary group plays a vital role in the development of a personality and that belonging to a close well-knit primary group is important to the development

¹Kornitzer, op. cit., p. 294.

²Charles H. Cooley, Social Organization (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909), especially pp. 23-28.

of an individual with self-esteem, self-confidence, and socially acceptable behavior patterns which enable him to cope successfully with his environment. The family typically plays this role.

Bendure and Walters demonstrated that socially unacceptable "explosive aggressiveness" occurred more frequently among adolescent boys whose parents lacked warmth in their relationships with their sons and were more disapproving of dependent behavior than it did among boys whose parents had close relationships to and identification with their sons.¹ Rosenberg has shown that when parents take little interest in a child (and, presumably, are thus little expressive of affection toward him), that child develops a measurably lower level of self-esteem than occurs when the parents are more interested and, presumably, more affectionate.² These studies demonstrate the undesirable results that are likely when a child is reared in less than a close, well-knit group.

Institutional living, with its more impersonal relationships, or a series of foster homes, featuring intrinsic instability of relationships, do not constitute ideal environments for a developing child. In fact, it is believed that such environments may cause serious personality damage. They are not as likely to expose the child to effective, supportive

¹Albert Bendure and Richard H. Walters, Adolescent Aggression: A Study of the Influence of Child-Rearing Practices and Family Interrelations (New York: Ronald Press, 1959).

²Morris Rosenberg, "Parental Interest and Children's Self-Conceptions," Sociometry, 26 (Merch, 1963), pp. 35-49.

relationships and regularized and persistent experiences as is a close family group.

The environmental approach stresses basic psychological, social and economic considerations vital to the development of a healthy personality. Specifically, as this affects child placement, such placement would be made only after careful investigation had revealed that:

- (1) The child will enter a home in which psychological compatibility prevails. That is, a home in which all members respect each other and thus get along reasonably well.
- (2) The child will enter a home featuring a high level of intra-family sociability. That is, a home in which the members readily communicate and interact with one another.
- (3) The child will enter a home in which a decent standard of living prevails.

Psychiatrists and social workers are trying to correct a misconception: that the attitudes and behavior of the natural parents will be genetically inherited by the child. They hold, rather, that it is the influence of the adoptive parents which determines the end product. With this new outlook on adoption as a social as well as a legal process, more care is taken to place the child in the proper home for him. The Children's Bureau and the Child Welfare League of America, through their studies of child-caring agencies and institutions, regional conferences, and publications have stimulated increasing interest in the examination and improvement of adoption practices.

Sociological Study of Adoption

The Relative Advantages and Disadvantages of Agency and Independent Placement

Children for adoptions come from many sources: unwed mothers, who may be single, widowed, or divorced; married women with an unwanted child of an illicit affair; families which already are beyond the financial ability of the father or who neglect the child; broken homes marked by the death of one or both parents or divorce. Small babies, which are most in demand, come mainly from the first two sources.

In these situations, many of the prospective mothers are rejected by their families and friends or wish to keep their condition from them and so turn to other persons for help both morally and financially. Since anonymity is usually very important to these mothers, they may go to a locale where they are unknown. Some counties and agencies will not accept nonresident girls or a county may have a financial reciprocity arrangement with the girl's home county for reimbursement which will impair the anonymity they are seeking. Under these conditions, the mothers usually turn to a doctor or lawyer. Other of these mothers, while consulting a doctor, lawyer, or other person about their condition, may be approached by them with an arrangement where a prospective adopting couple will pay their expenses in exchange for the child. The mother may also seek this type of placement because she wants to know where the child is going and may feel more secure if she places it in a home which she feels is suitable.

These situations foster independent or "gray market"

placement. This type of placement differs from "black market" placement in that it is more for humanitarian purposes than for profit. However, in many cases the line between the two may be very thin. New Jersey, Wisconsin, and Delaware make gray markets a criminal offense, while in most states, including Kansas, they are not illegal.¹ When agencies were nonexistent or short of finances and personnel, this type of placement was necessary to find homes for these babies and children.

In independent placement, the child has no one to speak for him. He is taken from his mother and placed with parents who may eventually reject him because of physical or mental disabilities or because they tire of him. In this rejection, he may be abandoned or passed on to other homes and, by the time he comes to the attention of an agency, he may be a "hard to place" child with permanent personality scars. Many states, such as Kansas, require a study of the adoptive home by the Welfare Department to help prevent this situation, but too often this study bears little weight in the final decree.

The natural mother, in this type of placement, has the responsibility of the child until the final decree is made; this may be six months or more later. If the couple decides to return the child to the mother, she must actively assume this responsibility even though she may be unwilling to do so. Not only are the mother and child left unprotected, but the adopting

¹Carl and Helen Doss, If You Adopt a Child (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1957), p. 66.

parents may also be confronted with a demand for the return of the child by the natural parent or parents.

Many adoptive parents seek independent placements because they want to know the mother personally, because they become impatient of the delays and "red tape" of an agency, or because they are not eligible through the agency. Many of these parents also have misconceptions about agency adoption and feel it would be legally complicated.

More than half of all adoptions are by relatives. These adoptions are almost always independent placements where this type of placement is not illegal.¹ Most stepparent adoptions do not require a home study while adoption by other relatives may involve a home study if the court desires it. Here again, the home study carries little weight in granting the final decree even though relationship by blood does not insure a good home. As in most independent adoptions, the child is already in the home when the application for adoption is made and, if things appear to be satisfactory at that time, the final decree is usually granted.

In an agency placement, every effort is made to place the child in a home that will meet his needs both physically and emotionally and yet satisfy the adoptive parents. This is a large responsibility to fulfill; in addition, some agencies adhere so rigidly to standards that good placement may be

¹Adoption of Children-1951, Children's Bureau Statistical Series 14. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, Children's Bureau, 1953, p. 4.

sacrificed. The agency requires a thorough investigation of the background of the child and the adoptive parents before considering any placement, whereas in the independent placement only the adoptive parents are studied if any study is made.

The agency investigations require visits over a period of months or years, if necessary. Through these detailed investigations, children who were once "unadoptable" and "hard to place" may be placed in suitable homes. For example, couples who initially desired and specified a child who was physically and emotionally healthy may, as a result of detailed investigation, be found to be ideal parents for a handicapped child and be willing to accept it. Or couples who initially wanted a baby willingly adopt an older child.

The natural mother, child, and adoptive parents are better protected through an agency. The mother may permanently relinquish all responsibility for the child upon its birth or she may, through the help of the social worker, take a few days or months before she "gives up" her child. If she chooses to wait and wants to try to support herself and the child, the agency will give her every possible aid which it can. Unfortunately, most agencies cannot give the financial assistance the mother may need before the birth of her child but will recommend a licensed maternity home where she will be provided for until she gives birth and the agency can then give some financial aid to her dependent child.

The child is better protected by better placement. The agency is concerned not only with his immediate welfare but also

his future welfare. Additionally, the adoptive parents are secure in the knowledge that all ties between the natural mother and the child are broken so that she will not or cannot cause them trouble by demanding the child. The child is thoroughly examined for any physical or mental defects before any placement is considered and the couple is told about any defects so that they may refuse to take the child. The agency provides supervision and aid to the couple after a placement for as long as it seems necessary.

Carl and Helen Doss have compiled seven advantages of agency placements over independent placements:¹

1. The adoptive parents are protected from a child with known handicaps, unless the agency feels the parents can assume responsibility for them.
2. The natural parents are given time to make the final decision about the child being adopted.
3. The agency acts as a blank and impenetrable wall between the identities of the natural and adopting parents.
4. The agency can better place the child in a community where his situation is not known.
5. The agency has jurisdiction over a wide variety of children and is thus better able to match child and adoptive home.
6. The agency places the child in the home only after the ties between it and its natural parents are legally severed.
7. The agency offers skilled counseling and moral support at crucial points in the adopting process: The determining if adoption is advisable, the kind of child desired, integration of the child into his new home, etc.

¹Adapted by the present author from Doss, op. cit., p. 72.

Agency placement is not always successful nor are all agencies desirable. In many cases agencies are unknown, dis-trusted or nonexistent. Where good agencies exist and others are being formed, the public needs to be made aware of them and what they do. The Negro and lower socio-economic groups especially need to be informed. This information may be dis-seminated through churches, unions, and other community orga-nizations.

At Yale University Dr. Catherine S. Armstrude made a study of 100 independent adoptions and 100 agency adoptions.¹ In her comparison she employed modest standards of measuring success and applied the same standards to both types of adoption. For independent adoptions she found 46 satisfactory, 26 ques-tionable, and 28 undesirable; of the agency adoptions 76 were good, 16 questionable, and 8 undesirable. From this study, the author drew the conclusion that agency adoption is not infal-lible but that it is far more successful and safer than inde-pendent adoption.

Social and Psychological Factors Considered by Agencies.

--Agencies consider numerous subjective and objective factors in their study of the home; in Kansas, the same factors are considered in independent placements whenever a study is made. The following are some which are considered by any agency.

(1) Flexibility

The agency, in its study, tries to determine how

¹Ibid., pp. 71-72.

everyday problems and decisions are handled in the home. Very important, in this respect, is that the adopting parents be realistic about the adoption; they must recognize that there are problems as in any child-parent relationship. With this attitude toward adoption, the parents will not be too uncompromising in other attitudes and in their expectations. The ages of the adopting parents are thought to have a bearing on their flexibility and thus their suitability for adopting.

Mass found in his study that adoptive parents were generally psychologically sound and flexible.¹ The one difference he noted was that in the rural areas and in the blue-collar occupations, there was more warmth expressed by adopting fathers than there was in the urban areas and in the professional or managerial occupations.

(2) Race and Ethnic Factors

A Negro couple can obtain a child easier than any other racial or ethnic group. The Negro child, however, is harder to place than any other child including the physically or emotionally handicapped. Negro couples who might wish to adopt may be unable to do so because segregated housing keeps them in poor neighborhoods for child rearing. Additionally, many do not adopt because they are suspicious and fearful of agencies through ignorance.

The Oriental couple can usually obtain a child while the Caucasian couple of any ethnic group has the greatest

¹Henry S. Mass and Richard E. Engler, Jr., Children in Need of Parents (New York: Columbia University Press, 1959), p. 369.

problem of obtaining one. In the Caucasien race, the Anglo-Protestant child is easiest to place and the Spanish-Catholic the hardest.

Mass found adults more ready to adopt ethnic minority children in the more homogenous community where ethnic difference was not a threat.¹ The small heterogeneous community or the heterogeneous naturel areas of a large community were found to be more closed-minded to any adoption. However, in the small homogenous community, there may be a problem of keeping the child's identity unknown.

The Catholic child is easier to obtain than a Protestant child since the latter is more in demand. The Jewish couple finds it almost impossible to adopt a child as most Jewish relatives provide for Jewish children and agencies or courts hesitate to allow inter-faith adoptions.

(3) Motivation

The reasons for the couple's desire to adopt a child are crucial to the agency. The reason most acceptable and desired by the agency is that the couple want to love and care for a child as if it were their own. Some of the reasons they find unacceptable are: to save a marriage, to satisfy the neurotic whim of a woman who may later reject the child, and to use the child as a "show piece" for other couples. Some couples are turned down for a child because of unacceptable motivations and many of these turn to independent or a black

¹Ibid., p. 367.

market source to obtain a child.

(4) Marital Status and Residence

Most couples who petition for adoption are in their first marriage. Sterility of one or both of the marriage partners is represented in many of the petitions for adoption. Hence the couple's attitude toward sterility as well as its attitude toward illegitimacy and adoption is important.¹ Whether sterility is organic or neurotic also has a bearing on a couple's prospects of getting a child.

Divorce is given greater weight by private or church agencies than by public agencies; the latter are more concerned with the present marital relationship. Single women may adopt, but they usually have the handicap of never having had experience in rearing a child, and, perhaps, they do not have normal attitudes toward marriage, the opposite sex, and family living.

In most incidences the couple will have lived in the community from which the petition is filed for four or more years. The length of residence is noted, not as a vitally important factor, but as an indication of the stability of the family.

(5) Past and Present Relationships

Past relationships and home life foster many of the feelings and problems of the present. These relationships have

¹Maas found one-half of the couples in a rural area giving sterility as a reason for adopting (Henry S. Maas and Richard E. Engler, Jr., *ibid.*, p. 369).

to be dealt with to determine if the couple is willing and fit to accept and rear a child. Counseling may be necessary to solve some of the problems if they are a detriment to the couple's adopting. Even with counseling, some of the problems will not be resolved with the possible result that the couple will not get a child.

Evidence of present relationships are found in how well the couple fit into the neighborhood, work, church, and the community in general. If they are lonely or isolated, these relationships are considered poor; however, if the couple is too wrapped up in social events, it is also considered a poor risk. How well the couple likes and accepts the children of others in the community is an indication of how it will react toward an adopted child.

Other social and demographic factors are discussed in the theory section of Chapter II.

CHAPTER II

PROBLEM, THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Problem

The main purpose of this report is to ascertain if agency adoptions are increasing in Kansas as a proportion of the total adoptions and to identify specific social and demographic factors associated with total adoption rates and, more particularly, with proportions of agency adoptions.

A Theory of Adoptions in Relation to Social Change and Selected Social and Demographic Factors

Agency Adoptions.--Ours is a scientifically oriented society; this is manifested in our government, industry, business, and social institutions.¹ The very survival of government, industry, and business depends upon scientific knowledge and manipulation. Each of these institutions has become increasingly cognizant of this fact and has allocated increasing funds to scientific research.² The lives of individuals are inevitably associated, from day to day, with scientific developments.

¹Samuel Repport and Helen Wright (eds.), Science: Method and Meaning (New York: New York University Press, 1963), p. 219.

²It has been estimated that between 1930 and 1960, money spent for research purposes in the United States increased from 150 million dollars to about 13 billion dollars. See Bernard Barber, Science and the Social Order (New York: The Free Press, 1952), p. 132, and "How Much Research for a Dollar," Science 132 (August, 1960), p. 517.

This scientific predisposition is characterized by the goals of self-perpetuation and self-improvement,¹ with rationality and utilitarianism as two of its key values.² Reason as a means to solving problems began with the Renaissance when the authority and dogma that had governed man for centuries was challenged. Its acceptance was slow and was found at first mainly among intellectuals and social elites. Today the intellectual and elite groups are not the sole adherents to the rational orientation as pointed out by Barber:

"Science is unique in modern society. Only in modern society do we find that peculiar combination of elements which has evolved out of earlier forms of empirical rationality and is indispensable for science as we know it--very highly generalized and systematized conceptual schemes; experimental apparatus which greatly extends man's powers of observation and control of data; a relatively large number of professional scientific workers; and widespread approval of science in the masses of the population as well as in the elites."³

The approach to scientific problem solving is orderly and, arising from this orderliness, is the phenomenon of prediction. From scientifically designed tests, an individual's success or failure is often predicted.⁴ Some common tests he may take are: I.Q., personality, aptitude, emotional stability, interests, as well as civil service and state board. Not only

¹Russell L. Ackoff, Scientific Method (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1962), p. 3.

²Barber, op. cit., pp. 95 and 97.

³Ibid., p. 93.

⁴Pitirim A. Sorokin, Fads and Foibles in Modern Sociology and Related Sciences (Chicago: Henry Regnery Co., 1956), p. 52.

does prediction indicate better solutions to both personal and nonpersonal problems, but it also gives more security to the individual. That Americans are often highly motivated to seek security has been shown by studies of occupational goals.¹

With a society thus oriented toward science, rationality, orderly procedure, predictability and security, one would conclude that its people would behave in a like manner with respect to adoption. In Chapter I of this report, it was shown that social policy has this goal in mind, with the formation of adoption agencies and the revision of adoption laws. In this Chapter, the section on social welfare expenditures will show that not only have the laws been improved, but Federal funds are also being increased to agencies to meet their increased research and operational needs. Intensive evaluation of the home before the child is placed should result in a predictably better chance of a satisfactory relationship between the child and the adoptive parents with knowledge which should reassure them. Not only are the adoptive parents assured that the child has traits which they desire, but they are also assured that the natural

¹Consult: R. Centers, "Attitude and Belief in Relation to Occupational Stratification," Journal Social Psychology, Vol. 27-28 (1948), pp. 159-185; J. L. Norton and R. H. Kuhlén, "The Development of Vocational Preferences," in R. G. Kuhlén and G. G. Thompson (eds.), Psychological Studies of Human Development (New York: Appleton-Century-Crafts, 1952); Donald E. Super, "Career Patterns as a Basis for Vocational Counseling," Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 1 (1954), pp. 12-20; J. O. Crites, R. C. Hummel, Helen P. Moser, Phoebe Overstreet, and C. F. War-neth, Vocational Development: A Framework for Research (New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, in press); D. C. Miller and W. H. Form, "Measuring Patterns of Occupational Security," Sociometry, Vol. 10 (November, 1947), pp. 362-375; D. C. Miller and W. H. Form, "The Career Pattern as a Sociological Instrument," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 14 (January, 1949), pp. 317-329.

parents suddenly cannot take the child from them. The natural parent or parents may also feel more secure that the child has a proper home. The use of this rational means of adopting (i.e., adoption through agencies) should, therefore, be increasing since it offers more protection and services to the natural parent or parents, the child, and the adoptive parents.

Urbanization.--Between 1950 and 1960, the urban population of the United States increased 29.3 per cent.¹ This is only the most recent decade in a long continuing trend toward urbanization which is associated with the following factors:²

1. Agricultural surpluses.
2. Development of steam uses in transportation and factories.
3. Electricity and the automobile.
4. Technological revolution.
5. Sanitation.

With the technological revolution and urbanization, people's views of life have changed. The urban individual is not bound by rigid custom and has a freer choice of action. Tradition enforcing institutions--especially the family, school, and church--have taken new positions in the society; where they once were the focal center of social and educational life, they now share their functions with numerous other innovating institutions and agencies of a complexly organized society.³

¹Bureau of the Census, Population 1960, United States Summary PC (1) 1A, Figure 13, p. 825.

²National Resources Committee, "The Process of Urbanization: Underlying Forces and Emerging Trends," cited by Paul K. Hatt and Albert J. Reiss, Jr., (eds.), Cities and Society (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1959), p. 66.

³Noel P. Gist and L. A. Halbert, Urban Society (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1959), pp. 273-281.

Along with the changes in ideas and social institutions, the attitude toward the adoption of children has also changed. With a shorter work week and a general rising income level, urban people have more time and money to spend on children. It has become fashionable for urban childless couples to adopt children, and urban adoption rates should be higher. Alice Leahy's study of illegitimate adopted children bears this out,¹ as also does research done by Meas on the characteristics of adoptive parents in nine counties.² Meas found that rural couples had a broader tolerance for the type of child to be adopted also, but an over-all abundance of "hard to place" children was not found in these areas because they were placed in or near urban areas where services were available to them. In a survey of adoption rates by states, the Children's Bureau reported that urban states had higher adoption rates.³ The Bureau classified a state as urban if 50 per cent or more of the children were living in urban areas. They discovered a combined rate of 16.4 adoption petitions per 1,000 children for urban states and a combined rate of 10.4 for rural states. They concluded that the low rural state rates might indicate inadequate services in these rural areas.

There is ample evidence that people in urban areas tend

¹Alice M. Leahy, "Some Characteristics of Adoptive Parents," American Journal of Sociology, XXXVIII (January, 1933), pp. 548-563.

²Meas and Engler, Jr., op. cit., p. 212.

³Adoption of Children - 1951, op. cit., p. 3.

to have higher levels of education than in rural areas.¹ It is known that education has a general liberalizing impact on those exposed. That is, as people receive additional education, they increasingly reject provincial thinking and reliance upon traditions.² We would expect that the better educated person would be more inclined to accept and base his decisions on carefully gathered evidence. Thus we anticipate higher proportions of adoptions to be through agencies in urban than in rural areas.

Socio-economic Variables and Adoption.--This writer theorizes that the variables of occupation, income, and education will have effects on adoption practices. This study analyzes only income and education because 1960 data on occupation were not available at the time this study was designed and begun. The author further assumes that these three variables are closely correlated. Amount of education usually decides the kind of occupation an individual chooses and this, in turn, determines his income.

Income.--A 1945-1946 study in California showed 95 per cent of the adoptive parents to have earned at least \$2,000 and one-third earned between \$3,000 and \$4,000.³ But in 1949, 20.8 per cent of family incomes in the United States were less than

¹Otis D. Duncan and Albert J. Reiss, Jr., Social Characteristics of Urban and Rural Communities - 1950 (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1956), p. 27.

²Philip E. Jacob, Changing Values in College: An Exploratory Study of the Impact of College Teaching (New York: Harper and Row, 1957), pp. 41-43.

³Kornitzer, op. cit., p. 300.

\$2,000.¹ It readily is seen from this comparison that most relatively low income people have been eliminated as adoptors. The present annual income range for adoption consideration is \$3,500 to \$10,000. In a recent investigation of adoption petitioners, Maas found the average income to be about \$5,750.² The median family income in the United States in 1959 was \$5,663.³ Here again, the incomes of adopting families were somewhat higher than for the population as a whole.

In an earlier study by Maas, it was discovered that the incomes of adoptive parents in depressed areas were higher than the incomes in prosperous communities.⁴ This may be due to stricter requirements in depressed areas by the agency or the couple's willingness to pay more in an independent placement.

The evidence suggests that some degree of direct relationship is to be found between income and adoption, with higher income populations having higher adoption rates. This may be explained in two ways. First, higher income people are better able to afford adoption--especially independent adoption. Second, agencies appear to have a policy of generally not placing children with poor families.

It is further anticipated that there will be a direct

¹Bureau of the Census, Population: 1950, Characteristics of the Population, Vol. 2, California, Table 32, pp. 5-71.

²Henry S. Maas, "The Successful Adoptive Parent Applicant," Journal of Social Work, Vol. 5, (January, 1960), p. 16.

³Bureau of the Census, Population: 1960, Families, PC (2) 4A, Table 13, p. 105.

⁴Maas and Engler, Jr., op. cit., p. 371.

relationship between income and agency adoption rates. The reason for anticipating this relationship is that income and education are related. Generally, the above average income person will also have above average education. Such persons would be expected to respond most favorably to the rational procedures of agency adoption.

Education.--It has been found that the educational levels of adoptive parents range from the 7th grade through the Ph.D.¹ In his investigation of applicants, Meas found "high school graduate" the level most frequently attained;² in another study, he discovered high school graduates were the most frequent adoptors in both rural and urban areas and that there were very few adoptors with any college education in the rural areas.³ A California research project showed the educational level of adoptive parents to be above the state average.⁴

This evidence suggests that a direct relationship may be anticipated between adoption rates and level of education. It would be reasonable to theorize that people with higher levels of education would do more adopting than those with less education because, as previously noted,⁵ education is known to generally have a significant liberalizing impact on those exposed.

¹Doss, op. cit., p. 36.

²Meas, op. cit., p. 16.

³Meas and Engler, Jr., op. cit., p. 372.

⁴Kornitzer, op. cit., p. 300.

⁵See p. 26.

The idea of adoption, and especially of agency adoption, should be more acceptable to them.

The amount of education of the adoptive parents is significant to an agency only in how well it prepares them for flexibility, sociability, etc. Occupation and income are considered more important than the educational level but the adoptive parents' attitude toward education is very important. The desired attitude is to educate the child as long as it is profitable but not to push him. The parents with more education should develop this attitude more readily and adopt through the desired channels of an agency.

Social Welfare.--As pointed out by Parrington,¹ the American society harbors two totally different, and even contradictory, constellations of interrelated values, one being laissez faire and the other humanitarianism. Laissez faire stresses individualism, self-reliance, individual achievement and success; the humanitarian philosophy involves general feelings of sympathy toward and willingness to aid those persons who are victims of disaster, unemployment, and other impersonal catastrophes which impair general well being.

At one time in our national history, the laissez faire view was dominant, possibly because it was appropriate to the frontier conditions. The major theme was freedom of the individual to advance himself through hard work, with minimal restriction on his control of the fruits of his labor. Such a

¹Vernon L. Parrington, Main Currents in American Thought (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., 1930), Book 3, p. xxiii.

view was believed to foster intensive exploitation of the virgin continent. It is argued that individualism and laissez faire are on the decline in the face of the conditions of an advanced industrial society in which the individual cannot be held accountable for such misfortunes as being out of a job and impoverished during a societal crisis such as the Great Depression. In contrast, the humanitarian view, with its acceptance of collectivistic solutions to problems, is in the ascendency.¹ The evidence in support of this change is considerable: the development and expansion since the Great Depression of the social security program, agricultural price supports, Federally secured loans for housing, etc., and, more recently, urban renewal, Medicare, and the poverty program.

Specifically, with respect to children, evidence is that the society offers considerable and expanding support to child welfare such as ADC and juvenile delinquency prevention. Recently, ADC has been expanded to include aid to unwed mothers upon proof from a doctor that she is pregnant; in Milwaukee, in 1952-1954, approximately 76 per cent of the unwed mothers received such aid.² A report in 1957, by Eunice Menton, showed that 63,000 families were receiving ADC. Of the total children (including adoptive) 87 per cent lived with both parents and 26 per cent of these received ADC; 10 per cent of the total children

¹See the discussion of these philosophies and of the trends in Harold L. Wilensky and Charles N. Lebeaux, Industrial Society and Social Welfare (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1955), Ch. II.

²Russell H. Kurtz (ed.), Social Work Yearbook (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1957), p. 152.

lived with only one parent and 68 per cent of these received ADC.¹ The over-all trend for state and local social welfare expenditures for child welfare has been increasing. Federal legislation plans to increase the amount from \$25 million in 1962 to \$50 million by 1969.²

Inevitably, this shift in emphasis has had its impact on conceptions of social welfare. Whereas at one time the residual view of social welfare programs was dominant, recently the institutional view has gained acceptance. According to the earlier view, social welfare programs should be minimized and activated only in dire emergencies when the normal social structure has broken down; this view was quite consistent with the then prevailing laissez faire philosophy. According to the more recent institutional view of social welfare, welfare services are normal, basic, first-line functions of the modern industrial society. No stigma attaches to them; they exist to help individuals achieve self-fulfillment.³

Though many individuals continue to have serious reservations about this trend, believing it is undermining individual initiative and effort, Daniel Bell contends that the Welfare

¹Eunice Menton, "Services for Children in Public Assistance," Gaswork Papers (New York: Family Service Association of America, 1957), p. 78.

²United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Annual Report, 1962, p. 109.

³Wilensky and Lebesux, op. cit., pp. 128-152 and 250.275.

State is no longer at issue among enlightened intellectuals;¹ they accept it as necessary and even desirable.

One might contend that adoption and, especially, that agency adoption are also more recently accepted progressive ideas. At one time, adoption had a somewhat negative connotation and was often curtailed by fear. Adoption was associated with charity and was undertaken mainly by relatives. Furthermore, it was clouded by mistaken notions of inherited "bad blood" as, for example, in the case of the "wild" unwed mother from whom the child would inevitably inherit wild behavior patterns.

Welfare expenditures in an area may be considered one tangible measure of the degree to which that area has accepted the humanistic view and the institutional approach to social welfare. It might be anticipated that this would be positively correlated with acceptance of other more recent and enlightened social practices such as agency adoption. Behavior does not occur in isolated, unrelated fragments, but in conformity with a meshed syndrome of interrelated ideas. Therefore, we would anticipate a direct positive relationship between the amount an area appropriates for its social welfare programs and the general rate of adoption as well as agency adoption in the area.

Fertility.--Fertility rates and ratios are known to be closely related to urbanization. The fertility ratios of urban

¹Daniel Bell, The End of Ideology: On the Exhaustion of Political Ideas in the Fifties (New York: Collier Books, 1961), p. 33.

areas are generally lower than those of rural areas.¹ The general reason for this phenomenon is unknown. Hanna Lustig, in an interview of 106 couples wishing to adopt and who had been married from 3 to 8 years, found the following reasons given for infertility: (a) 69 per cent medical (45.7 per cent of the women and 23.3 per cent of the men), (b) 2.1 per cent fear of heredity, (c) 10.2 per cent a medical examination revealed no sterility but the couples had no children, and (d) 18.7 per cent no medical examination had been made.² Psychological and sociological forces associated with urbanization might be involved in the last three of these. Since lower fertility rates imply fewer children, smaller families and, quite possibly, more childless marriages, the urban areas may be expected to manifest greater potential for adoption. Thus the adoption rates should be higher for urban counties which have lower fertility ratios.

Because low fertility and urbanization are directly related and urbanization and agency adoption should be theoretically related, low fertility areas would be expected to feature high proportions of agency adoptions.

Age.--The age of the adopting parents is one of the first considerations in the adoptive process. Older couples are not considered flexible enough to rear an infant and very young couples are viewed as being in a position to wait for a

¹Gist and Halbert, *op. cit.*, p. 256.

²Hanna Lowe Lustig, "The Infertility Problem in Adoption," *Smith College Studies in Social Work* (Northampton, Mass.: Smith College for Social Work, October, 1959 - June, 1960), XXX, p. 238.

child; also, there is the possibility that in time and with better physical adjustment, a young couple may reproduce. Under agency adoption procedures older couples (those over 40 years) are only eligible to adopt older children. The most common age range for adopting parents who desire an infant is 25 to 35 years; this age level offers youth and flexibility, yet maturity to rear a child. Some studies, however, have found adoptive parents to be somewhat older. Lee and Evelyn Brooks found adoptive parents were mainly in their 30's to 50's and averaged about 10 years older than biological parents.¹ A similar finding on age difference was reported by Taback and Morton, the natural mother being 23.2 years and the adoptive mother being 30.2 years.² In rural areas, Maas found the average ages of adoptors to be 34 years for men and 30 years for women; this was younger than the average ages for all adoptors.³ The delay of adoption in areas other than rural may be due to illness in the family, the importance of establishing a career by one or both parents, or a late decision to adopt children.

In Kansas, the legal age limits for adoptors ranges from 23 to 50 years. Most consideration is given by both agency and independent placements to those in the 25 to 35-year range. Thus the evidence supports an expectation that areas with larger proportions of their population in this age category would have

¹Lee M. Brooks and Evelyn C. Brooks, Adventures in Adoption (Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1939), p. 31.

²Taback, Matthew and Sidney Morton, "Adoption Practices in Baltimore, Maryland, 1938-52," The Social Service Review, XXIX (1955), pp. 43-52.

³Maas and Engler, Jr., op. cit., p. 369.

higher adoption rates.

Hypotheses

The following eight hypotheses have been derived from the previously presented theory:

1. Agency adoptions are increasing in Kansas both numerically and as a proportion of total adoptions.
2. Areas having high general adoption rates will also have higher proportions of agency adoptions.
3. The greater the degree of urbanization, the higher the adoption rate and the per cent of agency adoptions.
4. The higher the family income of an area, the higher its general adoption rate and the per cent of adoptions through agencies.
5. The higher the level of education of an area, the higher the general adoption rates and the per cent of agency adoptions.
6. The higher the social welfare expenditure in an area, the greater its adoption rates and per cent of agency adoptions.
7. The lower the fertility ratio, the greater the adoption rates and the per cent of agency adoptions.
8. The greater the per cent of population 25-35 years of age, the greater the rate of adoption.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Sources of Data

The data for this report relating to agency adoptions and adoption rates were obtained from the records of the Kansas Department of Child Welfare in Topeka and Statistical Series of the Children's Bureau. The data pertaining to the social and demographic factors were taken from the 1960 Census for Kansas.

Limitations of the Data

The number of petitions filed for adoption in each county was used rather than completed adoptions because some adoptions pend for several years and many of the counties are delinquent in informing the State Welfare Office of final decrees. Stepparent petitions have been omitted because they do not require any type of evaluation.

Census data pertaining to the social and demographic factors were available for the year 1960 which may distort the picture somewhat. It is hazardous to characterize an entity, utilizing information for a single year. An average of the figures over several years would be a better index. Information on the population of adoptors was not available; thus this paper cannot characterize these people directly. Instead, it was necessary to isolate those areas having high rates of adoption

and characterize them in general demographic and social terms. Information directly involved in these adoptions and petitions is kept confidential.

Methods of Analysis

To determine if agency adoptions are on the increase in Kansas, the data on reported adoptions and adoptions by unrelated persons for 1957-1960 and on adoption petitions for 1957-1961 were classified into independent or agency approaches.

In this study, adoption rates are to be related to selected social and demographic variables. The number of adoption petitions filed each year is available on a county basis for the 105 counties of Kansas. This, professional personnel advised, was the most comprehensive and complete measure of the independent variable (i.e., adoption practice) which was available. Because the number of petitions filed in a county fluctuates greatly from year to year, a study based upon petitions filed during a single year might be very misleading. It was decided to utilize a more stable measure--the average annual number of adoptions in each county during a three-year period.

The three years finally selected were determined by the availability of accurate social and demographic data on the counties. The best source of data for these independent variables was the United States Census, the last of which was taken in 1960. The three-year period most closely matching the Census would obviously be 1959, 1960, and 1961.

Adoption rates, as presented county by county in this study, were established by dividing the average number of

adoption petitions in each county during 1959, 1960, and 1961, by the 1960 county population, in thousands.

The counties were quartiled as closely as possible on total adoption rates and proportions of adoption which were through agencies to investigate the relation of adoption to the social and demographic factors. As the 105 counties were not equally divisible by four nor would the proportion of agency adoptions or adoption rates break evenly at equal numbers of counties, each quartile does not contain an identical number of counties.

To determine the relationship between rates of adoption and the per cent of agency adoptions, the total number of adoptions was divided into the total number of agency adoptions in each quartile of counties. The following paragraph discusses how each social and demographic factor was treated in relation to both adoption rates and the per cent of agency adoptions.

The average per cent urbanization for each quartile was found, where urban includes all incorporated and unincorporated places of 2,500 inhabitants or more. The average weighted median family income per quartile was calculated; the median family income was weighted so that counties would carry weights proportional to their populations in the quartile median. The educational levels of males were considered to be of crucial importance with regard to adoption since education largely determines occupational qualification, and thus the income of the normal breadwinner. The per cent of males 25 years of age and over in a county having achieved each of three levels of education

(8th grade, high school graduation, and one or more years of college) was calculated. Those younger were omitted because they are irrelevant to an adoption study. Average social welfare expenditures per capita for each quartile was used rather than average total social welfare expenditures to give proper weight to counties varying in size. Fertility ratios are based on children under 5 years of age per 1,000 women 15 to 49 years of age; the average for each quartile was computed.

A Spearman rank order correlation was run to ascertain the relationship between general adoption rates and the percent of the total population 25 to 35 years of age.

CHAPTER IV

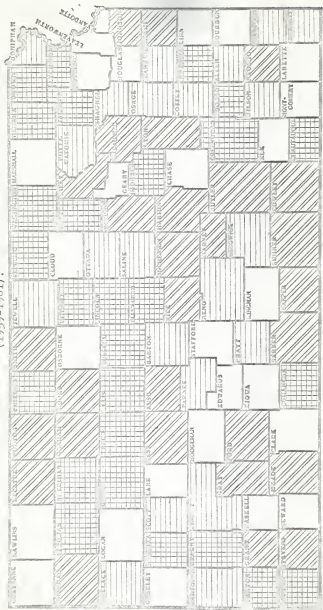
RESULTS AND EVALUATION

Overview of Adoption Areas in Kansas

Figure 1, page 41, shows the distribution of general adoption rates by counties for Kansas. There was no one section of the state where either high or low rates were concentrated. However, it will be noted that nearly all centers of population concentration (the counties containing the larger urban centers), featured relatively high rates of general adoption. Of the nine counties containing more than forty thousand people and a population center of more than twenty thousand people in 1960, five were in the top quartile on total adoption rates and two were in the second highest quartile. The high general adoption counties were: Douglas, Johnson, Reno, Saline, Sedgwick, Shawnee, and Wyandotte. The two exceptions were Leavenworth and Riley counties.

Figure 2, page 42, gives the quartile distribution of agency adoptions for the state by counties. Again there was no area of concentrated agency adoptions with the possible exception of a block of 12 to 14 counties in the northwest part of the state. However, it will be noted that the same counties which were mostly high on general adoptions had low proportions of agency adoptions. Seven of the nine were in either the low

Fig. 2.--Proportion of agency adoptions
(1959-1961).



- Quartile I - Agency range 1.00 - .47
- Quartile II - Agency range .45 - .33
- Quartile III - Agency range .32 - .20
- Quartile IV - Agency range .19 - .00

or next to low quartiles. The two exceptions were Riley and Johnson counties.

Proportion of Agency Adoptions

Table 1, Total Adoptions by Type of Placement for Kansas, shows a slight consistent decline in the proportion of adoptions that were through agencies from 1957 to 1959, even though the actual number of adoptions was increasing. In 1960, there was a significant increase in the proportion through agencies. However, it cannot be asserted that the proportion of agency adoptions is now on the increase in Kansas. One year may scarcely be said to establish a trend.

TABLE 1
TOTAL ADOPTIONS BY TYPE OF PLACEMENT FOR KANSAS.

Year	Total Placement Cases	Number		Per Cent	
		Agency	Independent	Agency	Independent
1957	802	240	562	29.9	70.0
1958	837	241	596	28.8	71.2
1959	1098	295	803	26.9	73.0
1960*	1067	322	723	30.1	67.8

*22 of the adoptions were not classified.

Total adoptions include both children who are related and unrelated to the adoptive parents. Related adoptions are almost always independent, as would be expected; therefore a tabulation which excludes related adoptions, perhaps, gives a better indication of agency adoption acceptance. Table 2, for the same four years as Table 1, also shows a decrease in the

proportion of placements which went through agencies.

TABLE 2
ADOPTIONS BY UNRELATED PETITIONERS BY TYPE
OF PLACEMENT FOR KANSAS

Year	Total Placement Cases	Number		Per Cent	
		Agency	Independent	Agency	Independent
1957	641	240	401	37.4	62.6
1958	715	240	475	33.6	66.4
1959	878	292	586	33.3	66.7
1960	904	322*	556*	35.6	64.4

*Estimate, no breakdown was obtained on related and unrelated adoptions for 160 cases.

Because some adoptions are not completed in one year and many county welfare offices do not report completed adoptions immediately after the decree, the totals reported to the Children's Bureau are never quite complete for one year. Table 3 shows the trend in petitions filed during a five-year period. There was an increase in the number of petitions filed through agencies until 1960 and 1961, when the number inexplicably dropped. However, the number of total petitions for adoption also dropped so that the record is a slight but steady increase in the proportion through agencies between 1957 and 1961. One might reason that, since petitioning represents the most recently undertaken action, the apparent trend indicated in Table 3 is the most realistic indication for the future.

Kansas does not compare favorably with the nation as a whole. Tables 4 and 5 provide convincing evidence that Kansas

TABLE 3
 PETITIONS FILED FOR KANSAS BY TYPE PLACEMENT
 FOR 1959-1961

Year	Total Petitioners	Number Petitions		Per Cent	
		Agency	Independent	Agency	Independent
1957	912	233	697	25.5	74.5
1958	903	249	654	27.6	72.4
1959	1104	327	777	29.6	70.4
1960	1044	302	742	28.9	71.1
1961	1055	307	748	29.1	70.9

has been far below the nation in its use of agencies; the national percentage of agency adoptions was about 50 per cent of all adoptions and 60 per cent of all unrelated petitioning for adoption through the period studied. Comparable figures for Kansas were only 30 per cent and 35 per cent.

TABLE 4
 TOTAL ADOPTIONS BY TYPE OF PLACEMENT FOR THE U.S.

Year	Total Placement Cases	Number		Per Cent	
		Agency	Independent	Agency	Independent
1957	21,567	11,177	10,177	51.8	48.1
1958	23,068	12,190	10,878	52.8	47.1
1959	24,459	12,619	11,840	51.6	48.4
1960	107,000	*	*		

*Not available.

The proportion of adoptions that were undertaken through agencies seems to have been rather stable during the period considered in this study. Table 5, Adoptions by

Unrelated Petitioners, reveals a slight increase in the proportion undertaken through agencies from 1957-1959 and a slight decrease in 1960. There is a considerably larger number of placement cases in 1960, which is probably due to more states reporting to the Children's Bureau and these may contain larger per cents of independent adoptions which would have been reported in the preceding years. Assuming this to be true, the decline in 1960 may be a spurious artifact of reporting and there may be a slight yearly trend toward more agency adoptions by unrelated persons.

TABLE 5

ADOPTIONS BY UNRELATED PETITIONERS BY TYPE
OF PLACEMENT FOR THE U.S.

Year	Total Placement Cases	Number		Per Cent	
		Agency	Independent	Agency	Independent
1957	18,287	10,961	7,326	59.9	40.0
1958	19,625	11,935	7,690	60.8	39.1
1959	20,232	12,429	7,803	61.4	38.5
1960	57,780	34,090	23,690	59.0	41.0

This study supports the hypothesis that the number of adoptions through agencies is increasing; but it does not support conclusively the proposition that the proportion of adoptions undertaken through agencies is increasing for either the nation or Kansas.

Agency Adoptions and Adoption Rates

No conclusive relationship between general adoption rates and proportions of agency adoptions was found in this study as is shown by Table 6. Quartile three is slightly higher than quartile four. The hypothesis that areas with high adoption rates will also have high proportions of agency adoptions is not confirmed.

TABLE 6
RATE OF ADOPTION AND PER CENT AGENCY ADOPTIONS

Quartile	No. of Counties	Range of General Adoption Rates	Total Adoptions	Agency Adoptions	Per Cent Agency Adoptions
I	26	1.06-.51	1864	481	25.8
II	25	.49-.39	832	278	33.4
III	27	.38-.29	400	140	35.0
IV	27	.26-.09	116	39	33.6

Urbanization

The anticipated relationship between urban counties and total rates of adoption is confirmed by Table 7. The counties which were most highly urban also had the highest general rates of adoption.

A generally inverse relationship between adoption through agencies and urbanization is indicated by Table 8. However, the lowest quartile counties in agency adoption were not the highest in the proportion of population urban. In any event, the hypothesis that high urban counties would use

agencies more is not supported by this study. In fact, the evidence indicates that the reverse is true.

TABLE 7
RATE OF ADOPTION AND PER CENT URBANIZATION IN 1960

Quartile	No. of Counties	Rate of Adoption Range	Total Population	Urban Population	Per Cent Urban
I	26	1.06-.51	984,145	759,065	77.1
II	25	.49-.39	614,254	388,064	63.2
III	27	.38-.29	382,379	160,642	42.0
IV	27	.26-.09	194,686	21,970	11.3

TABLE 8
AGENCY ADOPTIONS AND PER CENT URBANIZATION IN 1960

Quar-tile	No. of Counties	Proportion Agency Adoption Range	Total Population	Urban Population	Per Cent Urban
I	27	1.00-.47	226,808	72,067	31.7
II	29	.45-.33	574,934	316,699	55.1
III	22	.32-.20	844,686	619,880	73.4
IV	27	.19-.00	532,180	323,760	60.8

Family Income

The first two quartiles of Table 9 are almost identical, with quartile two being insignificantly higher than quartile one. However, these data, in general, support the hypothesis that areas with higher family incomes will do more adopting than will those with lower incomes.

TABLE 9

RATE OF ADOPTION AND 1960 WEIGHTED MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME

Quar- tile	No. of Counties	Rate of Adoption Range	Population (1,000's)	Weighted Median Family Income	Average Median Family Income
I	26	1.06-.51	987	5,565,067	5638
II	25	.49-.39	614	3,463,112	5640
III	27	.38-.29	384	1,754,569	4569
IV	27	.26-.09	197	821,267	4169

Table 10 shows no patterning for agency adoptions and weighted median family income. The hypothesis that areas with higher incomes will use agency means to adopt proportionately more than will lower income areas is not confirmed.

TABLE 10

AGENCY ADOPTIONS AND 1960 WEIGHTED MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME

Quar- tile	No. of Counties	Proportion Agency Adoption Range	Population (1,000's)	Weighted Median Family Income	Average Weighted Median Family Income
I	27	1.00-.47	225	949,010	4217
II	29	.45-.33	578	3,180,812	5503
III	22	.32-.20	843	4,646,798	5512
IV	27	.19-.00	533	2,712,991	5090

Education

The three tables relating general adoption rates and education will be considered together. Table 11 shows an inverse relationship between total adoption rates and the

proportions of adult males who achieved only an eighth grade education. Table 12 shows no relationship between total adoption rates and proportions of adult males achieving a high school education. And, finally, Table 13 shows a direct relationship between rates of general adoption and proportion of adult males who achieved some college. In other words, the higher the level of education achieved by male breadwinners, the more often adoption is undertaken.

TABLE 11

RATE OF ADOPTION AND ADULT MALES WITH EIGHTH GRADE
EDUCATION AS OF 1960

Quar- tile	No. of Counties	Rate of Adoption Range	Total Males 25 Yrs. & Over	Eighth Grade Graduates	Per Cent Eighth Grade Graduates
I	26	1.06-.51	259,109	52,803	20.3
II	25	.49-.39	166,256	36,449	21.9
III	27	.38-.26	108,004	27,998	25.9
IV	27	.25-.09	57,176	18,152	31.7

TABLE 12

RATE OF ADOPTION AND ADULT MALES WITH HIGH SCHOOL
EDUCATION AS OF 1960

Quar- tile	No. of Counties	Rate of Adoption Range	Total Males 25 Yrs. & Over	High School Graduates	Per Cent High School Graduates
I	26	1.06-.51	259,109	73,162	28.2
II	25	.49-.39	166,256	43,307	26.0
III	27	.38-.26	108,004	29,022	26.3
IV	27	.25-.09	57,176	16,413	28.7

TABLE 13

RATE OF ADOPTION AND ADULT MALES WITH SOME
COLLEGE AS OF 1960

Quar- tile	No. of Counties	Rate of Adoption Range	Total Males 25 Yrs. & Over	Some College	Per Cent With Some College
I	26	1.06-.51	259,109	53,745	20.7
II	25	.49-.39	166,256	40,021	24.1
III	27	.38-.26	108,004	20,230	18.7
IV	27	.25-.09	57,176	7,941	13.9

The quartiles in Tables 14, 15, and 16 show no pattern. This evidence indicates that there is no association between the educational level of an area and the proportion of adoptors who do so through agencies. The hypothesis is not confirmed.

TABLE 14

AGENCY ADOPTIONS AND ADULT MALES WITH EIGHTH GRADE
EDUCATION AS OF 1960

Quar- tile	No. of Coun- ties	Proportion Agency Adoption Range	Total Males 25 Yrs. & Over	Eighth Grade Graduates	Per Cent Eighth Grade Graduates
I	27	1.00-.47	64,512	19,953	30.9
II	29	.45-.33	154,768	34,404	22.2
III	22	.32-.20	224,248	46,331	20.7
IV	27	.19-.00	140,430	32,977	23.5

TABLE 15

 AGENCY ADOPTIONS AND ADULT MALES WITH HIGH SCHOOL
 EDUCATION AS OF 1960

Quar- tile	No. of Coun- ties	Proportion Agency Adoption Range	Total Males 25 Yrs. & Over	High School Graduates	Per Cent High School Graduates
I	27	1.00-.47	64,512	17,164	26.6
II	29	.45-.33	154,768	43,150	27.9
III	22	.32-.20	224,246	63,933	28.5
IV	27	.19-.00	140,430	35,668	25.5

TABLE 16

 AGENCY ADOPTIONS AND ADULT MALES WITH SOME COLLEGE
 EDUCATION AS OF 1960

Quar- tile	No. of Coun- ties	Proportion Agency Adoption Range	Total Males 25 Yrs. & Over	Some College	Per Cent With Some College
I	27	1.00-.47	64,512	8,844	13.7
II	29	.45-.33	154,768	38,581	24.9
III	22	.32-.20	224,248	49,689	22.2
IV	27	.19-.00	140,430	23,683	16.9

Social Welfare

The result in Table 17 does not support the hypothesis that there is a direct relationship between social welfare expenditures and rates of total adoption. Comparing the first quartile with the fourth, the table shows that the highest adoption rate counties spent less than two dollars more per capita for social welfare than did the lowest adoption counties.

The same lack of a clear pattern for the hypothesized association between agency adoption and per capital social welfare expenditures is evidenced in Table 18. However, one may note the significantly higher welfare expenditures in the highest agency adoption quartile counties.

TABLE 17
RATE OF ADOPTION AND 1960 AVERAGE SOCIAL WELFARE
EXPENDITURES PER CAPITA

Quartile	No. of Counties	Rate of Adoption Range	Welfare Expenditures per Capita for Quartile	Average Expenditures per Capita for Quartile
I	26	1.06-.51	687.2	26.4
II	25	.49-.39	751.9	30.1
III	27	.38-.26	675.8	25.0
IV	27	.25-.09	671.0	24.9

TABLE 18
AGENCY ADOPTIONS AND 1960 AVERAGE SOCIAL
WELFARE EXPENDITURES PER CAPITA

Quartile	No. of Counties	Proportion Agency Adoption Range	Total Population	Total Social Welfare Expenditures for Quartile	Average Expenditures per Capita for Quartile
I	27	1.00-.47	226,808	6,835,710	30.1
II	29	.45-.33	574,934	9,734,620	17.0
III	22	.32-.20	844,666	20,099,890	23.8
IV	27	.19-.00	532,180	12,572,080	23.7

Fertility

The results of Table 19 indicate no definite pattern between fertility and adoption rates. The hypothesis that low fertility ratios will stimulate adoption is not confirmed.

TABLE 19
RATE OF ADOPTION AND 1960 AVERAGE FERTILITY RATIOS

Quar- tile	No. of Coun- ties	Rate of Adoption Range	Total Fertility of Quartiles	Average Fertility Ratios for Quartiles
I	26	1.06-.51	13,371	514
II	25	.49-.39	12,189	488
III	27	.38-.26	14,142	524
IV	27	.25-.09	13,896	506

Table 20 indicates the possibility of a slight direct relationship between agency adoptions and fertility ratios. However, this relationship appears to be the opposite of that which was hypothesized.

TABLE 20
AGENCY ADOPTIONS AND 1960 AVERAGE FERTILITY RATIOS

Quar- tile	No. of Coun- ties	Proportion Agency Adoption Range	Total Fertility Ratios for Quartiles	Average Fertil- ity Ratios for Quartiles
I	27	1.00-.47	14,012	519
II	29	.45-.33	14,758	509
III	22	.32-.20	11,167	508
IV	27	.19-.00	13,529	501

Age

A Spearman rank-order correlation showed only a slight positive (+.19) relationship between adoption rates and per cent of the population ages 25-35 years. Though the indicated pattern was in the direction hypothesized, it did not attain an acceptable level of significance.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This study has revealed that Kansas is far below the nation as a whole in using agencies to place children and there is little evidence to substantiate any trend toward proportionately greater use of agencies in Kansas adoptions.

It was also found that the counties with the highest general adoption rates in the state (that is, quartile one counties) were the most urbanized, had the higher levels of family incomes, higher levels of education by adult males, and the highest fertility ratios. With the exception of the fertility factor, these characteristics should be associated with a high level of general adoption. The most urbanized counties would feature a high level of supply of children for adoption. Unwed mothers are a primary source of supply of babies for unrelated adoptions. Such mothers would tend to seek anonymity; they would find it in larger urban centers. The higher levels of income and education in these urban centers would tend to promote adoption; higher incomes would qualify the people as adoptors and higher educational levels would liberalize attitudes toward adoption.

A puzzling finding was that the counties having the highest rates of agency adoptions had quite different characteristics. They (quartile one counties on agency adoption)

were the least urbanized, had the lowest level of family income, and the lowest level of achieved education for adult males. In short, the adoptors in the group of high general adoption counties referred to in the paragraph above did not more frequently use the more rational means of adopting through an agency. This is surprising in view of their higher level of education which should have increased the appeal of the more rational procedure--adoption through an agency.

Apparently, according to this evidence, the increasing emphasis on education and the increased levels of educational achievement have not made adoption a more rational process. Supply seems to be the governing factor. It has been pointed out that the supply of babies for adoption is greatest in the larger urban centers, but that does not explain the low level of agency adoptions prevailing in such centers. It may be surmised that a larger proportion of adoptable children in cities do not reach the agencies but become available through doctors, lawyers, and other professionals in these centers. The demand for children for adoption often exceeds the agency supply and applicants have to wait one to three years for a child. Additionally, there are couples who do not qualify for a child through an agency. These situations put pressure on the adoption process and increase the amount of independent adoption in larger centers. Rural applicants, on the other hand, would not have the supply of nonsupply adoptable children available to them which the residents of a larger center would, or have the contacts to learn about such children. Thus, in most instances,

they would proceed to adopt through an agency.

Another speculation seems tenable. Agencies as organized structures for supplying adoptable children work with least competition from other sources of supply in the rural situation. The lack of anonymity characteristic of smaller communities has little appeal to the unwed mother. This refers to knowledge of circumstances surrounding the situation of the unwed mother. The source of adoptable children, unwed mothers, are also drawn to the city because hospitals, homes for unwed mothers, medical doctors, lawyers, ministers, and agencies that supply children for adoption are most likely located in larger population centers. The agency connects unwed mothers, adoptable children and petitioners in a complex social situation. Rural petitioners, because of the nature of life in the rural community, essentially have no viable option to the agency as a source of supply.

Furthermore, still in the "market" context, the agencies relate to rural petitioners as organizations for distribution. The church congregation or the county welfare office are formally related to extra community organizations which are mobilized to provide adoptable children. Hence the agency manifestly supervises and investigates but latently acts as a marketing arrangement.

The urban-rural differences noted above suggest that the city provides an array of options or alternatives. Rural applicants who do not commute to the market center have adoptable children brought to them. The price of this convenience is paid

in time required to wait for investigation to be completed and a child to be available. Rural petitioners who want to adopt a child have essentially a single choice: the agency.

The adoption process incorporates persons into an organizational context. One activity undertaken in this organization would appear to be the process of referral. The pregnant unwed woman is undoubtedly referred to organizations or institutions in which she will receive care. Applicants also become involved in a referral process. If they have little time, the referral structure is represented by the black or gray market. If time is not as important as is the acquisition of a sound child then they enter one of the other referral systems. A sociology of adoption would appear to include a sequence of small group interactions which are mobilized by strategically located persons. Those involved at any one stage may know only those who interact at that stage plus a person who becomes involved at another phase. The phasing of the adoption process would help account for the time required to complete the process in any one instance.

Social welfare expenditures do not seem closely related to either general adoption rates or the type of placement. The welfare needs of each county vary and determine how the expenditures are distributed. The distribution in one county may be very different from that in another. In some counties with high social welfare budgets, a small proportion of the effort may go to child welfare. In others with equally high social welfare budgets, a large proportion might be devoted to this

purpose. In short, general social welfare expenditures might not be as closely related to progressive ideas concerning child welfare as was originally surmised in this study. For example, Russell county which has a high adoption rate and a high per cent of agency adoptions, spends only about 15 per cent of its total welfare expenditures for child welfare. The majority of this county's expenditures is for the aged. This distribution of expenditures does not vary greatly from year to year.

This study was undertaken from a general perspective which assumes that both general adoption and agency adoption are rather recently accepted progressive notions. It was expected, therefore, that the better educated, more cosmopolitan urban person would resort most frequently to adoption and, because of his orientation, would insist that the process be undertaken rationally and with the best possible predictability of outcome. That is, it was anticipated that his rates of adoption and of agency adoption would be higher than for people not possessing these characteristics.

It was found that, although adoption seems to be more acceptable in better educated areas, the residents of such areas do not seem to place more emphasis on the rational agency process than those in less urban, less educated areas. These findings suggest once more that supply is, perhaps, the most crucial factor and that adoption has not yet become a wholly rational process. Although the careful cautious procedures of agency placement are available everywhere, even better educated more cosmopolitan people seem willing to take a chance with the less thorough and rational independent process of adoption. Of

course, without access to the universe of adoptors in Kansas, this result must be interpreted with caution. It could not be determined whether county levels of education were closely correlated with the levels of education of those actually proceeding with adoption.

Alternative explanations for these results are, of course, possible. One, for example, would center attention upon the managers of the adoption process rather than organization of the adoption process or the socio-economic characteristics of the settings for adoption. We might reason that rates of general adoption are associated with urbanization because urban doctors, lawyers, ministers, and other managers of independent placement have realistic and liberal attitudes toward adoption in circumstances where a conceiving woman is not able to provide suitable and stable care for herself and her child. When such a woman is faced with urgent situations, seeming to require immediate action, (for example, a financial crisis), these professionals might suggest and encourage independent adoption. If this were a prevalent practice, the rate of independent adoption in urban areas would be increased as would, consequently, the rate of total adoption.

Additionally, these managers might, in general, be expected to come into contact with a better educated and higher income clientele and to prefer to place children with such persons. Thus independent adoption would tend to be utilized to the degree the population contained people with these desired characteristics. These assumptions might explain the relationship between adoption rates and the socio-economic variables.

APPENDIX

I. RATES OF ADOPTION IN RELATION TO SOCIAL AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

TABLE A. Quartile I

County	Adoption Rate*	Number of Adoptions 1959-1961		Total Population	Urban Population	Weighted Family Income**
		Indep. Agency				
Hamilton	1.06	7	3	3,144	-	15,675
Norton	.88	13	8	8,035	3,345	33,000
Phillips	.86	9	14	8,706	3,233	35,568
Thomas	.85	10	9	7,358	4,210	36,022
Sherman	.85	11	6	6,682	4,459	35,665
Ottawa	.78	12	4	6,779	-	27,741
Sedgwick	.70	528	195	343,231	311,460	2,114,938
Cherokee	.66	32	12	22,279	11,720	89,694
Graham	.66	7	4	5,586	-	31,110
Wallace	.62	3	1	2,069	-	8,558
Wyandotte	.61	296	46	185,495	164,182	1,092,936
Jewell	.59	10	3	7,217	-	23,408
Logan	.58	6	1	4,036	-	20,320
Linn	.57	13	1	8,274	-	30,888
Cheyenne	.57	7	1	4,708	-	20,315
Russell	.57	9	10	11,348	6,113	55,759
Atchison	.56	18	17	20,898	12,529	100,716
Geary	.55	40	7	28,779	18,700	124,062
Saline	.55	71	20	54,715	43,202	296,065
Marion	.55	16	9	15,143	-	68,355
Shawnee	.54	163	67	141,286	119,500	836,271
Reno	.53	71	23	59,055	37,574	308,216
Clay	.53	9	8	10,675	4,613	45,672
Prett	.52	13	6	12,122	8,156	60,840
Stevens	.52	4	3	4,400	2,912	24,448
Crent	.51	5	2	5,269	3,157	28,825
TOTALS		1383	481	984,145	759,065	5,565,067

TABLE A--Continued

County	Social Welfare Expenditures per Capita	Fertility Ratio	Number Males Achieving Selected Levels of Education			No. Males 25 Yrs. & Over	Per Cent of Population 25-35 Years of Age
			Eighth Grade Graduate	High School Graduate	One or More Yrs. of College		
Hamilton	20.3	548	245	295	106	875	13.33
Norton	23.3	461	866	194	299	2,461	9.16
Phillips	36.7	469	957	860	467	2,597	10.21
Thomas	14.8	557	486	595	352	1,974	12.27
Sherman	28.0	494	640	466	265	1,884	11.49
Ottawa	40.6	493	572	765	395	2,095	9.37
Sedgwick	20.8	546	14,343	24,487	22,969	87,436	14.95
Cherokee	75.8	414	1,744	1,267	714	6,283	9.30
Graham	23.0	709	484	505	263	1,542	12.64
Wellece	23.2	551	144	145	75	553	10.58
Wyandotte	14.1	536	10,117	11,729	6,456	48,593	13.16
Jewell	39.5	465	768	692	237	2,257	9.13
Logan	24.3	553	292	391	195	1,070	11.12
Linn	46.1	434	824	826	337	2,552	8.29
Cheyenne	25.4	441	500	331	126	1,422	12.40
Russell	16.9	448	905	977	438	3,227	11.28
Atchison	36.2	497	1,467	1,361	899	5,603	10.52
Geary	15.2	611	1,218	2,325	1,354	6,899	17.04
Seline	13.1	620	2,257	4,793	3,068	13,503	14.87
Merion	31.8	476	1,340	1,217	753	4,278	10.10
Shawnee	17.3	538	6,793	10,455	9,005	37,300	14.21
Reno	19.9	518	3,436	5,591	3,420	15,638	11.67
Clay	30.9	426	1,043	881	293	3,195	9.29
Prett	21.4	481	782	1,189	780	3,404	11.70
Stevens	16.9	515	261	374	210	1,442	13.11
Grant	11.7	570	319	451	269	1,326	14.97
TOTALS	687.2	13,371	52,803	73,162	53,745	259,109	306.16

*Average annual rate per 1,000 population, 1959-1961.

**The weighted income for a county is its median family income multiplied by its population, rounded to the nearest thousand.

TABLE B. Quartile II

County	Adoption Rate*	Number of Adoptions 1959-1961		Total Popula- tion	Urban Popula- tion	Weighted Family Income**
		Indep. Agency				
Jackson	.49	7	8	10,309	3,028	38,150
Cloud	.49	17	4	14,407	7,022	59,248
Butler	.49	33	23	38,395	18,957	212,314
Lincoln	.48	2	6	5,556	-	21,960
Rice	.48	11	9	13,909	4,592	69,244
Seward	.48	20	3	15,930	13,813	97,152
Allen	.47	18	5	16,369	6,885	65,376
Barton	.47	32	10	32,368	23,647	180,928
Cowley	.47	34	19	37,861	25,379	188,328
Montgomery	.46	51	11	45,007	34,069	214,155
Sumner	.46	28	17	25,316	10,019	126,275
Johnson	.46	121	77	143,792	122,071	1,175,184
Chester	.45	3	5	5,956	-	20,598
Dickinson	.45	19	10	21,572	10,448	99,022
Elk	.45	6	1	5,048	-	16,140
Ford	.43	18	9	20,938	13,520	111,804
Franklin	.42	18	7	19,548	10,673	83,860
Greenwood	.42	7	7	11,253	4,055	48,356
Morris	.41	4	5	7,392	2,664	25,382
Harvey	.40	19	12	25,865	14,877	134,420
Wilson	.40	11	5	13,077	6,827	52,364
Neesho	.39	13	10	19,455	10,849	84,900
Finney	.39	15	4	16,093	11,811	85,328
Douglas	.39	42	10	43,720	32,858	231,044
Edwards	.39	5	1	5,118	-	21,550
TOTALS		554	278	614,254	388,064	3,463,112

TABLE B--Continued

County	Social Welfare Expenditures per Capita	Fertility Ratio	Number Males Achieving Selected Levels of Education			No. Males 25 Yrs. & Over	Per Cent of Population 25-35 Years of Age
			Eighth Grade-uate	High School-uate	One or More Yrs. of College		
Jackson	38.7	495	859	843	360	3,174	9.18
Cloud	34.5	481	1,365	1,060	532	4,049	9.00
Butler	23.6	515	2,432	2,727	1,806	10,314	12.97
Lincoln	38.3	460	619	588	300	1,714	10.10
Rice	22.5	480	862	1,532	884	3,796	10.23
Seward	17.9	610	671	1,141	968	4,114	16.50
Allen	49.4	476	1,486	964	634	4,668	9.27
Barton	9.5	539	2,202	2,485	1,571	8,633	12.96
Crowley	23.7	427	2,521	1,982	1,778	10,522	11.45
Montgomery	39.7	436	2,931	2,512	2,150	12,542	10.35
Sumner	29.7	500	1,672	2,119	973	7,048	10.77
Johnson	4.2	530	3,886	10,201	16,417	37,652	14.43
Chautauque	49.8	396	545	423	187	1,820	7.89
Dickinson	26.6	533	1,733	1,909	808	6,253	10.59
Elk	49.3	398	594	487	216	1,654	7.63
Ford	15.2	528	1,369	1,907	1,274	5,491	11.52
Franklin	30.2	467	1,524	1,646	997	5,531	10.40
Greenwood	47.7	447	1,001	677	489	3,404	9.82
Morris	42.2	491	731	515	309	2,236	9.24
Harvey	13.8	476	1,589	1,812	1,237	6,757	11.88
Wilson	43.2	458	1,071	880	388	3,822	9.25
Neosho	29.6	494	1,644	1,156	815	5,506	9.87
Finney	24.3	621	977	1,237	1,063	3,941	12.28
Douglas	13.0	408	1,816	2,113	3,617	10,181	12.99
Edwards	35.3	523	349	391	248	1,434	10.18
TOTALS	751.9	12.189	36,449	43,307	40,021	166,256	270.75

*Average annual rate per 1,000 population, 1959-1961.

**The weighted income for a county is its median family income multiplied by its population, rounded to the nearest thousand.

TABLE C. Quartile III

County	Adoption Rate*	Number of Adoptions 1959-1961		Total Population	Urban Population	Weighted Family Income ^{3**}
		Indep. Agency				
Leavenworth	.38	45	10	48,524	22,052	270,137
Lyon	.38	16	15	26,928	18,190	125,442
Morton	.38	2	2	3,354	-	17,778
Ellis	.38	9	15	21,270	11,947	107,604
Woodson	.37	2	4	5,423	-	17,330
Kingman	.37	9	2	9,958	3,582	48,840
McPherson	.37	15	12	24,285	12,605	118,728
LeBette	.36	25	6	26,805	13,929	104,112
Neade	.36	4	2	5,505	-	28,206
Ness	.36	4	2	5,470	-	22,992
Crawford	.36	32	8	37,032	18,678	153,809
Harper	.35	6	4	9,541	2,744	49,710
Mitchell	.34	4	5	8,866	3,837	37,233
Riley	.34	29	14	41,914	22,993	199,332
Doniphan	.34	8	2	9,574	1,191	39,730
Stenton	.33	1	1	2,108	-	11,324
Greeley	.33	2	0	2,087	-	11,882
Hodgeman	.32	3	0	3,115	-	13,128
Rooks	.31	5	4	9,734	3,104	48,190
Republic	.31	2	7	9,768	3,940	33,060
Pottawatomie	.31	7	2	11,957	-	48,636
Gove	.31	0	4	4,107	-	18,108
Miami	.30	10	8	19,884	9,406	98,600
Sheridan	.30	2	2	4,267	-	16,336
Anderson	.30	3	5	9,035	3,034	34,290
Bourbon	.29	13	1	16,090	9,410	56,176
Decatur	.29	2	3	5,778	-	23,856
TOTALS		260	140	382,379	160,642	1,754,569

TABLE C--Continued

County	Social Welfare Expenditures per Capite	Fertility Ratio	Number Males Achieving Selected Levels of Education			No. Males 25 Yrs. & Over	Per Cent of Population 25-35 Years of Age
			Eighth Grade	High School	One or More Yrs. of College		
Leavenworth	18.5	517	3,548	3,693	2,799	16,918	13.93
Lyon	20.5	423	1,683	2,217	1,966	6,893	9.68
Morton	16.0	596	225	294	144	685	14.46
Ellis	13.9	508	1,213	1,291	1,106	4,870	12.34
Woodson	49.0	442	648	363	148	1,723	7.73
Kingsman	19.1	540	765	866	618	2,757	10.05
McPherson	16.7	463	1,688	2,072	1,652	6,548	10.75
Labette	54.7	415	1,977	2,298	1,327	7,422	9.14
Neade	13.2	579	330	437	238	1,466	12.55
Ness	14.1	533	497	429	228	1,580	10.38
Crawford	51.7	386	2,554	1,995	1,845	10,769	8.97
Harper	23.8	443	772	848	409	2,858	10.72
Mitchell	17.3	473	882	732	243	2,545	9.33
Riley	6.3	535	1,396	3,022	3,459	9,262	14.85
Doniphan	33.2	539	1,026	596	269	2,833	9.36
Stanton	10.9	666	113	156	106	569	15.94
Greeley	29.3	586	142	204	77	557	11.64
Hodgeman	23.5	588	284	254	114	853	11.24
Rooks	12.2	597	818	930	476	2,663	10.89
Republic	25.7	452	946	1,099	435	3,039	9.39
Pottawatomie	18.7	557	1,078	1,246	635	3,712	11.27
Gove	21.9	686	271	298	218	1,092	11.83
Missi	31.3	445	1,654	1,366	538	5,808	9.93
Sheridan	14.3	680	360	355	118	1,146	11.93
Anderson	36.9	521	962	525	241	2,651	8.09
Bourbon	56.8	399	1,593	931	620	4,888	9.11
Decatur	29.0	573	573	505	171	1,697	9.13
TOTALS	675.8	14,142	27,996	29,022	20,230	108,004	296.57

*Average annual rate per 1,000 population, 1959-1961.

**The weighted income for a county is its median family income multiplied by its population, rounded to the nearest thousand.

TABLE D. Quartile IV

County	Adoption Rate*	Number of Adoptions 1959-1961		Total Population	Urban Population	Weighted Family Income**
		Indep. Agency				
Smith	.26	4	2	7,776	-	27,192
Wasbaunsee	.25	3	2	6,648	-	24,500
Brown	.25	4	6	13,229	3,391	46,982
Marshall	.24	9	2	15,598	4,143	63,872
Gray	.23	2	1	4,380	-	17,732
Osborne	.23	2	2	7,506	-	29,992
Haskell	.23	2	0	2,990	-	16,701
Kearny	.23	1	1	3,108	-	16,134
Lane	.23	2	0	3,060	-	14,664
Kiowa	.22	3	0	4,626	-	36,435
Pawnee	.22	5	2	10,254	5,001	51,740
Comanche	.21	0	2	3,271	-	12,450
Clerk	.21	2	0	3,396	-	12,912
Jefferson	.20	6	1	11,252	-	47,157
Barber	.20	3	2	8,713	3,072	45,657
Washington	.19	1	5	10,739	-	34,617
Scott	.19	3	1	5,228	3,555	25,590
Ossage	.18	5	2	12,886	-	51,207
Chase	.18	2	0	3,921	-	14,644
Rush	.16	2	1	6,160	-	27,702
Nemaha	.16	3	3	12,897	-	45,513
Coffey	.15	3	1	8,403	-	26,824
Stafford	.13	3	0	7,451	-	30,828
Pawlins	.13	2	0	5,279	-	24,095
Trego	.13	1	1	5,473	2,808	27,570
Wichita	.11	0	1	2,765	-	14,325
Ellsworth	.09	1	1	7,677	-	34,232
TOTALS		77	39	194,686	21,970	821,267

TABLE D--Continued

County	Social Welfare Expenditures per Capita	Fertility Ratio	Number Males Achieving Selected Levels of Education			No. Males 25 Yrs. & Over	Per Cent of Population 25-35 Years of Age
			Eighth Grade	High School	One or More Yrs. of College		
Smith	28.0	463	1,048	666	226	2,459	10.10
Waubesaunsee	20.1	535	700	587	201	2,069	9.57
Brown	52.7	478	1,093	918	513	3,915	8.90
Marshall	29.5	510	1,692	1,655	654	4,732	9.55
Gray	24.7	506	367	359	281	1,184	11.05
Osborne	20.9	514	731	660	324	2,242	9.29
Haskell	20.1	595	137	258	152	768	13.88
Kearny	34.0	595	234	235	130	834	12.93
Lane	8.5	563	240	309	187	835	12.25
Kiowa	25.9	417	301	518	331	1,340	10.70
Pawnee	22.0	413	807	1,109	663	3,197	10.22
Comanche	19.7	481	216	281	157	922	9.72
Clerk	21.0	426	225	312	195	1,004	11.45
Jefferson	32.9	541	980	903	337	3,261	9.78
Barber	22.4	473	640	692	411	2,470	11.39
Washington	27.0	474	1,410	654	299	3,284	9.16
Scott	19.2	561	330	394	236	1,364	12.49
Ossage	25.5	524	1,210	1,069	355	3,814	9.68
Chase	60.3	411	304	403	194	1,209	8.82
Rush	22.9	482	620	468	274	1,839	10.75
Wesmo	36.0	589	1,276	884	343	3,550	9.51
Coffey	27.0	452	982	633	264	2,620	8.37
Stafford	25.7	404	615	577	382	2,237	9.66
Nowlin	13.0	581	503	510	283	1,484	12.27
Fargo	17.3	610	432	388	172	1,478	11.68
Wichita	14.6	631	203	197	69	744	9.57
Hillworth	20.2	444	856	774	308	2,321	9.09
TOTALS	671.0	13,673	18,152	16,413	7,941	57,176	281.83

*Average annual rate per 1,000 population, 1959-1961.

**The weighted income for a county is its median family income multiplied by its population, rounded to the nearest thousand.

II. PER CENT AGENCY ADOPTIONS IN RELATION TO
 SOCIAL AND DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS

TABLE A. Quartile I

County	Per Cent Total Adop- tions Through Agencies	Total Popula- tion	Urban Popula- tion	Weighted Family Income	Number Males Achieving Selected Levels of Education		
					Eighth Grade Grad- uate	High School Grad- uate	One or More Yrs. of College
Wichita	1.00	2,765	-	14,325	203	197	69
Comanche	1.00	3,271	-	12,462	216	281	157
Geve	1.00	4,107	-	18,108	271	298	1,218
Washington	.83	10,739	-	34,617	1,410	654	299
Republic	.78	9,768	3,940	21,960	946	1,099	435
Lincoln	.75	5,556	-	33,060	619	588	300
Woodson	.67	5,423	-	17,330	648	363	148
Anderson	.63	9,035	3,034	34,371	962	525	241
Chautauqua	.63	5,956	-	20,598	545	423	187
Ellis	.63	21,270	11,947	107,604	1,213	1,291	1,106
Phillips	.61	8,706	31,233	35,568	957	860	467
Brown	.60	31,229	3,391	46,982	1,093	918	513
Morris	.56	7,392	2,664	25,382	731	515	309
Mitchell	.56	8,866	3,837	37,233	882	732	243
Russell	.54	11,348	6,113	55,759	905	977	438
Jackson	.53	10,309	3,028	38,150	859	843	360
Trego	.50	5,473	2,808	27,570	432	388	172
Morton	.50	3,354	-	17,778	225	294	144
Nemaha	.50	12,897	-	45,513	1,276	884	343
Cheriden	.50	4,267	-	16,336	360	355	118
Stanton	.50	2,108	-	11,324	113	156	106
Ellsworth	.50	7,677	-	34,232	856	774	308
Greenwood	.50	11,253	4,055	48,356	1,001	677	489
Kearny	.50	3,108	-	16,134	234	235	130
Atchison	.49	20,898	12,529	100,716	1,467	1,361	899
Thomes	.47	7,358	4,210	36,022	486	595	352
Clay	.47	10,675	4,613	41,520	1,043	881	293
TOTALS		226,808	70,402	949,010	19,953	17,164	8,844

TABLE A--Continued

County	Number Males 25 Years and Over	Total Social Welfare Expenditures Fiscal 1959-1960	Fertility Ratio
Wichita	744	40,290	631
Comanche	922	64,540	481
Gove	1,092	89,800	686
Washington	3,284	300,210	474
Republic	3,039	250,910	452
Lincoln	1,714	134,660	460
Woodson	1,723	265,860	442
Anderson	2,651	333,820	521
Chautauqua	1,820	296,810	396
Ellis	4,870	296,450	508
Phillips	2,597	319,790	469
Brown	3,915	697,400	478
Morris	2,236	312,260	491
Mitchell	2,545	153,020	473
Russell	3,227	191,720	448
Jackson	3,174	398,490	495
Trego	1,478	94,670	610
Morton	885	53,800	596
Nemaha	3,550	464,040	589
Sheridan	1,146	60,950	680
Stanton	569	23,050	666
Ellsworth	2,321	155,320	444
Greenwood	3,404	537,050	447
Kearny	834	105,670	595
Atchison	5,603	756,810	497
Thomes	1,974	108,600	557
Oley	3,195	329,720	426
TOTALS	64,512	6,835,710	44,012

TABLE B. Quartile II

County	Per Cent Total Adop- tions Through Agencies	Total Popula- tion	Urban Popula- tion	Weighted Family Income	Number Males Achieving Selected Levels of Education		
					Eighth Grade uate	High School uate	One or More Yrs. of College
Lyon	.45	26,928	18,190	125,442	1,683	2,217	1,966
Rice	.45	13,909	4,592	69,244	862	1,532	884
Rooks	.44	9,734	3,104	48,190	818	930	476
Miami	.44	19,884	9,406	98,600	1,654	1,366	538
McPherson	.44	24,285	12,605	118,728	1,686	2,072	1,652
Neosho	.43	19,455	10,849	84,900	1,644	1,156	815
Stevens	.43	4,400	2,912	24,448	261	374	210
Butler	.41	38,395	18,957	24,549	2,432	2,727	1,806
Waubeunsee	.40	6,648	-	212,344	700	587	201
Barber	.40	8,713	3,072	45,657	640	692	411
Decatur	.40	5,778	-	23,856	573	505	171
Harper	.40	9,541	2,744	49,710	772	848	409
Harvey	.39	25,865	14,877	134,420	1,589	1,812	1,237
Johnson	.39	143,792	122,071	1,175,184	3,886	10,201	16,417
Norton	.38	8,035	3,345	33,000	866	194	299
Turner	.38	25,316	10,019	128,275	1,672	2,119	973
Grant	.38	5,269	3,157	28,825	319	451	269
Merion	.36	15,143	-	68,355	1,340	1,217	753
Cowley	.36	37,861	25,379	188,328	2,521	1,982	1,778
Graham	.36	5,586	-	31,110	484	505	263
Sherman	.35	6,682	4,459	35,665	640	466	265
Dickinson	.34	21,572	10,446	99,022	1,733	1,909	808
Ford	.33	20,938	13,520	11,804	1,369	1,907	1,274
Gray	.33	4,360	-	17,732	367	359	281
Meade	.33	5,505	-	28,206	330	437	238
Ness	.33	5,470	-	22,992	497	429	228
Riley	.33	41,914	22,993	199,332	1,396	3,022	3,459
Rush	.33	6,160	-	27,702	620	468	274
Smith	.33	7,776	-	27,192	1,048	666	226
TOTALS		574,934	316,699	3,180,812	34,404	43,150	38,581

TABLE B--Continued

County	Number Males 25 Years and Over	Total Social Welfare Expenditures Fiscal 1959-1960	Fertility Ratio
Lyon	6,893	553,360	423
Rice	3,796	312,630	480
Rooks	2,663	118,670	597
Miami	5,808	620,580	445
McPherson	6,548	404,400	463
Neosho	5,506	575,340	494
Stevens	1,142	74,530	515
Butler	10,314	906,090	515
Washington	2,069	133,840	535
Barber	2,470	194,850	473
Decatur	1,697	167,430	573
Harper	2,858	227,040	443
Harvey	6,757	357,550	476
Johnson	37,652	599,040	530
Norton	2,461	187,260	461
Sumner	7,048	751,220	500
Grant	1,326	61,390	570
Xerion	4,278	481,100	476
Cowley	10,522	898,830	427
Graham	1,542	128,650	709
Sherman	1,894	167,160	494
Dickinson	6,253	573,120	533
Ford	3,491	318,770	528
Gray	1,184	108,290	506
Keosau	1,466	72,710	579
Wess	1,580	77,270	533
Piley	9,262	264,770	535
Fresh	1,839	140,950	482
Smith	2,459	237,780	463
TOTALS	154,768	9,734,620	475

TABLE C. Quartile III

County	Per Cent Total Adop- tions Through Agencies	Total Popula- tion	Urban Popula- tion	Weighted Family Income	Number Males Achieving Selected Levels of Education		
					Eighth Grade- uate	High School Grade- uate	One or More Yrs. of College
Pratt	.32	12,122	8,156	60,840	782	1,189	780
Wilson	.31	13,077	6,827	52,364	1,071	880	388
Hamilton	.30	3,144	-	15,675	245	295	106
Osage	.29	12,886	-	51,207	1,210	1,069	355
Pawnee	.29	10,254	5,001	51,740	807	1,109	663
Shawnee	.29	141,286	119,500	836,271	6,793	10,455	9,005
Franklin	.28	19,548	10,673	83,860	1,524	1,646	997
Cherokee	.27	22,279	11,720	89,694	1,744	1,267	714
Sedgwick	.27	343,231	311,460	2,114,938	14,343	24,487	22,969
Ottawa	.25	6,779	-	27,741	572	765	395
Scott	.25	5,228	3,555	25,590	330	394	236
Wallace	.25	2,069	-	8,558	144	145	75
Coffey	.25	8,403	-	26,824	982	633	264
Barton	.24	32,368	23,647	160,928	2,202	2,485	1,571
Reno	.24	59,055	37,574	308,216	3,436	5,591	3,420
Allen	.23	16,369	6,885	65,376	1,486	964	634
Jewell	.23	7,217	-	23,408	768	692	237
Pottawatomie	.22	11,957	-	48,636	1,078	1,246	635
Saline	.22	54,715	43,202	296,065	2,257	4,793	3,068
Finney	.21	16,093	11,811	85,328	977	1,237	1,063
Crawford	.20	37,032	18,678	153,809	2,554	1,995	1,845
Doniphan	.20	9,574	1,191	39,730	1,026	596	269
TOTALS		844,686	619,880	4,646,798	46,331	63,933	49,689

TABLE C--Continued

County	Number Males 25 Years and Over	Total Social Welfare Expenditures Fiscal 1959-1960	Fertility Ratio
Fratt	3,404	259,140	481
Wilson	3,822	565,540	458
Hamilton	3,875	63,900	548
Osage	3,814	326,080	524
Pawnee	3,197	225,710	413
Shawnee	37,300	2,438,160	538
Franklin	5,531	591,070	467
Cherokee	6,283	1,688,050	414
Sedgwick	87,436	7,152,320	546
Ottawa	2,095	275,130	493
Scott	1,364	100,620	561
Wallace	553	47,970	551
Coffey	2,620	226,500	452
Barton	8,633	307,140	539
Reno	15,638	1,172,620	518
Allen	4,668	808,410	476
Jewell	2,257	284,830	465
Pottawatomie	3,712	223,770	557
Saline	13,503	718,480	620
Finney	3,941	391,040	621
Crowford	10,769	1,913,800	386
Doniphan	2,833	317,610	539
TOTALS	224,248	20,099,890	11.167

TABLE D. Quartile IV

County	Per Cent Total Adop- tions Through Agencies	Total Popula- tion	Urban Popula- tion	Weighted Family Income	Number Males Achieving Selected Levels of Education		
					Eighth Grade Grad- uate	High School Grad- uate	One or More Yrs. of College
Labette	.19	26,805	13,929	104,112	240	309	187
Cloud	.19	14,407	7,022	59,248	1,365	1,060	532
Douglas	.19	43,720	32,858	231,044	1,816	2,113	3,617
Leavenworth	.18	48,524	22,052	270,137	3,548	3,693	2,799
Marshall	.18	15,598	4,143	63,872	1,692	1,655	654
Montgomery	.18	45,007	34,069	214,155	2,931	2,512	2,150
Kingman	.18	9,958	3,582	48,640	765	866	648
Edwards	.17	5,118	-	21,550	349	391	248
Geary	.15	28,779	18,700	124,062	1,218	2,325	1,354
Elk	.14	5,048	-	16,140	594	487	216
Jefferson	.14	11,252	-	47,157	980	903	337
Logan	.14	4,036	-	20,336	292	391	195
Wyandotte	.13	185,495	164,182	1,092,936	10,117	11,729	6,456
Seward	.13	15,930	13,813	97,152	671	1,141	968
Cheyenne	.13	4,708	-	20,315	500	331	126
Linn	.07	8,274	-	30,888	824	826	337
Bourbon	.07	16,090	9,410	56,176	1,593	931	620
Chase	.00	3,921	-	14,644	304	403	194
Clerk	.00	3,396	-	12,912	225	312	195
Greeley	.00	2,087	-	11,882	142	204	77
Haskell	.00	2,990	-	16,701	137	258	152
Hodgeman	.00	3,115	-	13,128	284	254	114
Kiowa	.00	4,626	-	26,025	301	518	331
Lea	.00	3,060	-	14,664	240	309	187
Osborne	.00	7,506	-	29,992	731	660	324
Rawlins	.00	5,279	-	24,095	503	510	283
Stafford	.00	7,451	-	30,828	615	577	382
TOTALS		532,100	323,760	2,712,991	32,977	35,668	23,683

TABLE D--Continued

County	Number Males 25 Years and Over	Total Social Welfare Expenditures Fiscal 1959-1960	Fertility Ratio
Labette	835	1,467,400	415
Cloud	4,049	497,290	481
Douglas	10,181	566,280	408
Leavenworth	16,918	896,980	517
Marshall	4,732	459,500	510
Montgomery	12,542	1,788,760	436
Kingman	2,757	189,810	510
Edwards	1,434	180,760	523
Geary	6,899	437,780	611
Elk	1,654	248,970	398
Jefferson	3,261	369,650	541
Logan	1,070	98,210	553
Wyandotte	48,593	2,607,180	536
Seward	4,114	284,390	610
Cheyenne	1,422	119,490	441
Linn	2,552	381,780	434
Bourbon	4,888	913,210	399
Chase	1,209	236,510	411
Clerk	1,004	71,200	517
Greeley	557	61,080	586
Haskell	768	60,070	595
Hodgeman	853	73,050	588
Kiowa	1,340	119,810	417
Lane	835	25,880	563
Osborne	2,242	156,720	514
Rawlins	1,484	68,870	581
Stafford	2,237	191,450	404
TOTALS	140,430	12,572,080	13,529

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SELECTED FACETS OF ADOPTION IN KANSAS

by

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

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This report was undertaken (a) to determine trends in rates of adoption and, especially, of agency adoption in Kansas, and (b) to determine whether or not selected social and demographic factors are associated with such rates.

A theory was developed anticipating relationships between rates of general and agency adoption and such sociological factors as scientism, humanism, urbanization, and the socio-economic characteristics of populations. From the theory, specific hypotheses were derived. The validity of these was explored for Kansas, utilizing 1960 Bureau of the Census data on the state's 105 counties and State Department of Welfare statistics on adoption petitions filed in these counties for the period 1957-1960. The counties were quartiled as nearly as possible on both general and agency adoption rates; then quartile averages or weighted averages were computed for the social and demographic variables. Additionally, to ascertain the relationship between the general adoption rates of the areas and the proportions of the area populations aged 25 to 35 (the age category doing most of the adopting), the Spearman rank order correlation technique was utilized.

The study revealed that the number of both independent and agency adoptions increased substantially during the period investigated, but the proportion undertaken through agencies had not changed significantly; moreover, a substantial majority (approximately two-thirds) were undertaken through independent

channels. Further, contrary to expectations, those counties characterized by high rates of total adoption did not utilize agencies with proportionately greater frequency than the other counties. While the degree of urbanization of counties was, as expected, found to be directly related to total adoption rates, it was not directly related to rates of agency adoption. In fact, the relationship was approximately inverse. The counties with high general adoption rates were found to have, as anticipated, significantly higher levels of weighted average family incomes than the low adoption rate counties and also to feature significantly higher levels of education achieved by adult males. However, agency adoption rates displayed no such patterning. Contrary to expectations, no relationship was found between the level of social welfare expenditures of the counties and their rates of adoption; the single significant finding was that the top quartile counties on agency adoption rates had a significantly higher average per capita expenditure for social welfare than the other counties. Finally, neither fertility ratios nor age composition of county populations showed the anticipated relationships to adoption rates.

The theory guiding this research specified a societal setting featuring increasingly scientific and humanistic orientations. Such a setting should be reflected in increasing rates of total adoption and increasing emphasis on the more rational and orderly process of agency adoption. While the trends supported the first part of this line of reasoning, they did not support the second. The increasing emphases on

education and science were not, at least as yet, reflected in increased emphasis on the more rational and orderly process of adoption through agencies.

The study indicates that supply of babies and children may be the decisive factor. The major supply is to be found in larger urban areas where an unwed mother (the major source of supply) is protected by anonymity and assured through a distinctively organized social structure of care, referral, and placement. Thus the more urbanized areas featured the higher levels of total adoption. They did not, however, feature higher levels of agency adoption; in fact, the previously noted inverse tendency was established.

These facts, coupled with the finding that there was no association between the educational level of the breadwinners in an area and the proportion adopting through agencies, indicate that adoption practice in Kansas has not become rational to the degree expected in relationship with increasing urbanization, education, income, and the like. A high proportion of adopting parents in the better educated, higher income urban areas in which the rational process of agency adoption competes with the less rational process of independent adoption continue to utilize the latter process. That they do so is an indication of their lack of regard for the numerous safeguards to the adopting parents and adopted child which have become a part of the agency process and that the process continues, for reasons yet to be researched, to be largely determined by affective factors.