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1 **A new look at the supposed risks of early institutional rearing**

2 By

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7 **Introduction**

8 The purpose of this review is to consider the longer-term effects of institutional care
9 undertaken in the first 3½ years. The focus throughout is on the identification of mediating
10 mechanisms, capitalising on the fact that the longitudinal studies considered constitute an
11 invaluable natural experiment because a) the children all entered the institutions as babies,
12 thus ruling out the main confounding feature of previous studies of early institutional care ie
13 that the presence of disabilities led to institutional care rather than being caused by it; b) the
14 availability of longitudinal data meant that effects could be examined through within-
15 individual change (rather than having to rely on the less satisfactory option of between-group
16 differences); c) they provided multiple sources of data that facilitated the testing of
17 alternative explanations. We consider only those studies that provided data relevant for the
18 identification of mediating mechanisms. Other studies of institutional care are described in
19 Nelson *et al.* (2014) and McCall *et al.* (2011).

20 The unifying theme of our review is that institutions are surprisingly diverse in both their
21 characteristics and their effects, and that our purpose needs to be to provide an understanding

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22 of the mechanisms involved. There should be no presupposition that early institutional care
23 is or is not necessarily damaging to the children who experience it. Existing theories (for
24 example, those focussing on attachment or stimulation – see Rutter & Woodhouse, in press)
25 are unsatisfactory because their focus is misleadingly narrow.

26 We look, therefore, at the available findings on the heterogeneity of institutions and the
27 effects of changing institutional practices. We begin with longitudinal studies concerned
28 with Romania, Greece and Hong Kong/China that have given rise to strikingly contrasting
29 findings despite the fact that all three studies focussed exclusively on institutional care that
30 began at birth or shortly afterwards, and that all three involved institutional care that ceased
31 by the age of 3½ years. We ask if the risks are dependent on whether or not the institutional
32 rearing is accompanied by gross pervasive deprivation as it was in Romania but was not in
33 either Greece or China. We consider the extent to which the evidence justifies a causal
34 inference in relation to these three studies but with a view to the application to a broader
35 range of studies. We turn to the evidence on considerable heterogeneity in institutional care
36 and ask whether this is systematically related to variations in outcome.

37 **Qualities of institutions**

38 Meta-analysis has been accepted as the best way of quantifying the effects of some
39 intervention or experience (see Kraemer, 2015; Rutter & Pickles, 2016). However, many
40 meta-analyses constitute a heterogeneous mix of randomised controlled trials (RCTs) and
41 observational, cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. This heterogeneity makes meta-
42 analysis problematic (Rutter & Pickles, 2016). On the other hand, a judicious use of the
43 heterogeneity aids the identification of mechanisms when employed in the context of a
44 natural experiment. Because our focus is on mechanisms (rather than quantification of some
45 supposed overall effect), we use prospective longitudinal studies with a randomised control

46 comparison whenever possible. (We draw attention to the need for special caution when that
47 was not possible).

48 A key historical publication in 1961 was Goffman's book on asylums in which he focused on
49 all institutions sharing a variety of common features, such as coercion, rigidity and
50 impersonal care that provided an underlying unity, rather than exploring the variations among
51 institutions. Indeed, much early writing about institutional care tended to assume that there
52 were either few variations in important features or that they did not matter very much. Both
53 assumptions were demonstrably wrong. Goffman stated that he would consider the nature of
54 the heterogeneity later but it appears that he never did so.

55 As early as 1939, Skeels and Dye moved 13 young children from institutional care to be
56 cared for by the residents of a nearby 'home for feeble-minded women'. The children's IQ
57 gained dramatically compared with those who remained in the orphanage and at follow-up,
58 20 years later, all were self-supporting compared to 1 of the control group (Skeels, 1966).
59 Although this was a small-scale study undertaken a long time ago, its finding is key in that it
60 notes that it was the quality of relationships and increased stimulation that led to good
61 outcomes rather than the training of those who provided it.

62 It was striking that although there had been many studies of functioning of children in
63 institutions there were very few on the institutions themselves (Dinnage & Pringle, 1967).
64 The detailed Stevens' (1971) study of the Metera Babies Centre, used in the later Greek study
65 by Vorria *et al.* (see below), should have paved the way. The book edited by Tizard, Sinclair
66 and Clarke (1975), while not mentioning the Stevens' study, did, however, provide many
67 examples of research that sought to measure institutional qualities and which related those
68 variations to differences in the effects on children. Jack Tizard and his colleagues showed
69 that organisational and management features were as important as staff ratios or the size of

70 the residential units and emphasised the importance of “child-oriented” rather than “task-
71 oriented” practices. This shifted the priority from the smooth administrative running of the
72 institution to a focus on the individual care of the children according to their age and needs.

73 **Improvement of quality of institutional care – changing institutional practices**

74 *Eritrea*

75 Wolff *et al.* (1995) and Wolff and Fesseha (1998) studied institutions in Eritrea. The findings
76 showed that when conditions for children in an Eritrean orphanage received a major social
77 reorganisation, focusing on a nurturing child-oriented approach, this resulted in major
78 emotional benefits for the children (see on-line appendix (a) for details).

79 *St Petersburg-USA Orphanage Research team (2008)*

80 The most systematic modern study of how improvements in the quality of institutional care
81 can bring benefits to the children is that undertaken by the St Petersburg-USA Orphanage
82 Research team (2008) in which three institutions, caring for children up to the age of 4 years,
83 were compared. Interventions were put in place in two St Petersburg Baby Homes; in one,
84 the regular staff received training in individualised socioemotional interactions supported by
85 structural changes (such as smaller group sizes) to provide a more family-like context in
86 which to complement the training, and in the other, the institutional staff received only
87 training and no structural changes. The control group continued with “business as usual”
88 under the management of a Director who took pride in having a well-run institution with
89 good conditions and top quality nursing and who considered that change might disrupt such
90 functioning.

91 Although this was not an RCT there were strong reasons for concluding that the quasi-
92 experimental approach adopted was, in fact, the design of choice (see Rutter, 2008). Detailed

93 findings showed that the institution where there was both structural change and training was
94 accompanied by measureable alterations in staff behaviour with consequent benefits for the
95 children's development. Moreover, these benefits were still evident from a follow-up some
96 six years later providing indirect support for the original group differences (McCall et al.
97 2013). The follow-up was limited in that it could only be undertaken with children who were
98 adopted into US families through one adoption agency and to Russian families. Also,
99 because of the lack of funding, there were no data relating to children departing from the
100 institutions during the two-year interval after the study ended. It was possible that beneficial
101 societal changes accounted for the persistence of benefits but what these overall trends could
102 not account for was that the differences between the three Baby Homes were maintained over
103 time. The researchers highlight that the sustainability of the continuing benefits came from
104 the design and maintenance of the interventions through the commitment of the Directors,
105 cost-effectiveness of a train-the-trainer strategy and the changed behaviour of all regular staff
106 throughout the institution. The St Petersburg study showed that the nature of institutional
107 care not only varied but also mattered in terms of outcomes for the children.

108 **Romanian studies**

109 The English and Romanian Adoptees study (ERA) investigated the long-term effects of early
110 institutional care that involved profound deprivation in a total sample of children who were
111 adopted into the UK by the age of 3½ years (Rutter & Sonuga-Barke, 2010). 98 adoptees
112 were followed-up at 6, 11, 15 and 22-25 years of age after 6 to 43 months in Romanian
113 institutions. The findings were compared with a group of Romanian adoptees that had not
114 experienced institutional deprivation or had experienced it for a period that did not extend
115 beyond the age of 6 months, plus a group of children adopted within the UK who had not
116 experienced institutional care. A rigorous set of methodological steps was taken to check
117 whether the pooling of these three groups provided a valid composite group. The same

118 measures were used in both the institutional and pooled composite comparison group. What
119 was particularly striking in the findings of this study was that, although the expectation had
120 been that the institutional rearing would lead to an increase in the rate of common emotional
121 and behavioural problems that is not actually what was found. Instead, there was the
122 development of features such as social disinhibition and quasi-autism. These are the two
123 most striking features of behaviour that appear to be deprivation specific. Moreover, they are
124 often associated with each other.

125 Disinhibition is not necessarily pathogenic and Lawler and colleagues (2014) sought to
126 differentiate normal from atypical behaviour in relation to disinhibited social engagement. A
127 volunteer sample was studied (with all the problems that that brings) but this should not
128 invalidate this internal comparison which involved behavioural observations. What they
129 found is that disinhibited attachment is more likely to be abnormal when accompanied by
130 unusually high physical contact (ie intimacy). This is rare among non-adopted controls who,
131 whilst sociable, do not display such high levels of intimacy. Comparable studies on quasi-
132 autism are needed but have not yet been undertaken.

133 The ERA study involved no planned intervention as part of the design, but the Bucharest
134 study did (Nelson *et al.* 2014). Indeed, it constituted the first-ever RCT of foster care versus
135 institutional care (Nelson *et al.* 2007). Of the original 187 children, 51 were excluded
136 because they had a genetic syndrome, microcephaly, or obvious signs of fetal alcohol
137 syndrome. Of the remaining 136, the Humphreys *et al.* (2015) study compared some 55
138 children placed in foster care with a similar number of children remaining in institutions (see
139 Humphreys *et al.* 2015, figure 1, p.627). Using an “intent to treat” analysis, substantial
140 benefits were found for cognition and language. For good ethical reasons it was decided that
141 children kept in the institution in the “care as usual” condition should still be included even if
142 they moved out of institutional care. The “intent to treat” analysis (meaning one that was

143 strictly based on the initial randomisation) was appropriately used for the first comparison
144 because that was the only satisfactory way to avoid selection bias (see Kraemer, 2015). But a
145 resulting constraint is that the analysis cannot determine the effects of treatments actually
146 received. Accordingly, it was necessary to move away from an “intent to treat” analysis in
147 order to examine the possible effects of changes in foster care placement. This was done and
148 it was found that there were substantial and important differences in outcome according to
149 whether or not foster care was stable or disruptive, with the disrupted group having a worse
150 outcome. The one exception to that were ADHD symptoms which, in keeping with other
151 evidence, were less affected by foster care.

152 Adoptees from Romania were also studied in Canada by Audit & Le Mare (2010). We do not
153 discuss this study in detail because the initial sample was selected from volunteers, and
154 because there was substantial attrition. It warrants brief mention, however, because it
155 claimed, on the basis of a significant statistical interaction, that variations in the qualities of
156 the adoptive home had an influence on outcome, with benefits for those who had experienced
157 more than 19 months of institutional deprivation but with an opposite effect in those less
158 deprived. This was not found in other Romanian studies.

159 **Greek studies**

160 Vorria *et al's* (2003) study compared 52 adopted adolescents aged 13 years who experienced
161 early institutional care at the Metera Babies Centre in Athens with 36 adolescents of the same
162 age who were raised in their biological families and attended day care. Metera involved a
163 lack of individualised personal care but did not involve either gross general deprivation or
164 subnutrition. The study provided a detailed report of the institutional practices in Metera
165 including data on the children and also follow-up after adoption at 4 and 13 years of age,
166 thereby providing longitudinal change within individuals as well as comparisons between

167 groups (Vorria *et al.* 2014, 2015a, 2015b; Vorria *et al.* 2015). In Metera, the babies were
168 initially housed in separate small rooms where social interactions were highly restricted. At
169 about five months the infants were moved to a different part of the institution where the
170 quality of care improved as each caregiver was expected to forge a special relationship with
171 at least one infant. It may be that this provided an important protective factor.

172 There was marked heterogeneity in outcomes but no significant difference between those
173 who experienced early institutional rearing and those raised by their biological families in
174 overall outcome. However, the outcomes differed greatly if care continued beyond the age of
175 2 years (in line with the Bucharest study – Nelson *et al.* 2014).

176 It is interesting that another sample of babies from the Greek Metera Centre was followed-up
177 after thirty years by a study in 2010 by Storsbergen and colleagues. The 53 adults had been
178 adopted by Dutch couples before 1970 as babies at a mean age of nine months and were
179 followed-up at the age of 25 to 36 years. While predominantly exploring the psychological
180 adjustment of a non-clinical group of adopted adults in relation to their appraisal of adoption
181 itself (rather than the early care provided in the orphanage) and whether or not they searched
182 for their birthparents, the findings similarly showed largely positive outcomes in adult life
183 with respect to mental health, well-being and self-esteem. They found few differences
184 between internationally adopted adults and their Dutch born, non-adopted counterparts.
185 Their findings, however, were limited by the non-random method of recruitment, the
186 exclusive use of self-report questionnaires, and a modest sample size of 53.

187 The Vorria *et al.* (2003) study gave a less favourable picture of the childcare in Metera and
188 found that a third showed a secure attachment, although disorganised attachment was over-
189 represented.

190 **Chinese studies**

191 In 2004, the British Association for Adoption and Fostering (BAAF) was given access to the
192 records of 100 Chinese girls, now adults, who had been adopted (from between 8 months to 6
193 years old) in the United Kingdom in the 1960s (Feast *et al.* 2013; Rushton *et al.* 2013). They
194 had spent their early years (an average duration of 20 months) in Hong Kong orphanages and
195 the long-term implications of this institutional care were followed-up at a mean age of 48
196 years via a qualitative study involving a self-completion questionnaire pack and, in most
197 cases, a subsequent in-depth extensive interview with the adults of 1½ to 4 hours. The
198 subjects were compared with both adopted and non-adopted individuals from the 1958 British
199 cohort of the National Child Development Study and, in conclusion, no significant
200 differences were found between the three groups. The findings showed that 82% of the
201 women from the Hong Kong institutions had married, mostly with white Europeans and 71%
202 had either a biological or adopted child. More than a third obtained a university degree as
203 compared with 11% of the total comparison cohort. 85% were in good health and 97% had
204 one or more close friendships. 75% were employed of which a third were working either in
205 nursing or in the social care field. About 15% showed relatively poor functioning with more
206 frequent contact with mental health services and more problems with relationships and severe
207 social difficulties. But there were no differences with respect to seeking help for
208 psychological problems between the Chinese adoptees and the comparison group. Indeed,
209 the great majority of the women showed superior to good functioning.

210 The Hong Kong orphanages from which these women had been adopted had relatively good
211 material conditions; they were clean, provided regular medical care, and efforts were made to
212 provide stimulation for psychological development. The diet was restricted but fairly
213 adequate, although children were sometimes left to feed themselves from bottles. The staff-
214 child ratio varied from between 1:8 to 1:22 depending on the size of the institution which
215 could range from 65 to 450 children. The rotation of staff meant that the children had

216 multiple caregivers, thereby implying discontinuous relationships and a lack of personalised
217 care. It should be noted that the early experience data were gathered retrospectively (but the
218 availability of contemporaneous records made this reasonable) whereas for the Greek and
219 Romanian study it was gathered as part of the study.

220 Whilst this study focuses on the impact of the early years spent in an institution, this group
221 also went on to be adopted transnationally and while for some this was a challenging or
222 negative experience, for others the predominantly British middle-class adopters may have
223 offered an enriching and, therefore, protective factor.

224 When considering the effects of institutional care not involving global deprivation, adoptions
225 from China provide a useful group to consider. For the most part, they were abandoned
226 largely because of China's one-child policy rather than abuse or neglect from the biological
227 parents (Cohen & Farnia, 2011). This research has the considerable strengths of a
228 prospective study that also involved a comparison group of non-adopted Canadian girls. In
229 addition, high quality measures were employed. On the other hand, the children earmarked
230 for international adoption in China were selected by the Chinese because of the perception
231 that they were healthy and therefore suitable for intercountry adoption (thereby introducing
232 selection bias).

233 The other key study of Chinese adoptees is the one undertaken by Tan and his colleagues
234 (Tan 2006, 2009; Tan & Marfo, 2006). The sample differed from Cohen and Farnia's in
235 being involved with adoption in the USA rather than in Canada. Like Cohen and Farnia, they
236 had no systematic information about the institutional conditions. They had to use a volunteer
237 sample and the orphanages would not usually allow visits from researchers (or parents).
238 They particularly focused on comparisons according to a history of early neglect (not
239 quantified or specified) experienced in the first two years of life in the institution prior to

240 adoption. The findings showed that the history of neglect was associated with poorer
241 academic performance as well as less good social functioning. Overall, however, the
242 outcomes were relatively good when compared with non-adopted children.

243 **Testing causal inferences**

244 *Romanian studies*

245 A key issue in the studies of the effects of the institutional rearing on outcome concerns the
246 need to use the “natural experimental” features to test a causal inference. This was done most
247 thoroughly in the English and Romanian Adoptees study (Kumsta *et al.* 2010; Kumsta *et al.*
248 2015). Most previous studies of institutional effects suffered from the major methodological
249 problem that the children were admitted to institutional care at a variety of ages, raising the
250 possibility that sequelae were actually caused by disabilities that led to admission to the
251 institution, rather than anything to do with the institutional experience itself. It did not apply
252 here because all the children were admitted either at birth or in the early weeks of life.

253 The causal inference needs to be considered in relation to two rather different questions.
254 First, there was a question of the catch-up that followed leaving the institutional care, and
255 second, there was the causation of the persisting deficits in a minority of the children.
256 Because the children underwent developmental assessments at the time of leaving the
257 institution, within-individual change could be examined. The huge improvement in
258 functioning following leaving the institution meant that it was reasonable to assume that the
259 initial deficit had been a function of the effects of institutional care. The causal effects on the
260 persisting deficits had to be tackled in a slightly different fashion, focusing on the plausibility
261 of alternative explanations. These included assessment of the nature of the persisting deficits
262 which were shown to be highly unusual with respect to the inclusion of autistic-like patterns
263 and disinhibited attachment. In addition, it was necessary to consider the alternative that the

264 deficits were a function of either variation in the adoptive home environment (which was
265 shown not to be the case) or the presence of indicators of possible non-institutional causal
266 influences, such as observational evidence of fetal alcohol syndrome. As explained in the
267 Kumsta *et al.* papers, causation had to be considered in relation to the plausibility of
268 alternative explanations. On this basis it is clear that the causal inference was soundly based.

269 *Greek studies*

270 Somewhat comparable issues were examined in relation to the Greek adoptees study (Vorraia
271 *et al.* 2014, 2015a, 2015b; Vorria *et al.* 2015). This study had the advantage over the
272 Romanian study of contemporaneous assessment of the children while they were in the
273 institution, well before adoption took place. As with the Romanian study, the evidence was
274 in favour of within-individual change of a substantial degree. The existence of a day care
275 comparison group, followed in the same way, meant that it was possible to examine the
276 extent to which there were persisting deficits. Causal inference was examined by
277 determining whether the outcomes were a function of institutional care or other features, such
278 as qualities of the adoptive home. The evidence of the predominant effect of institutional
279 features is the most important in showing validity of the causal inference.

280 An earlier study by Vorria *et al.* (1998a, 1998b) showed that admission to orphanages in
281 Greece was largely because of poverty (mainly in rural areas), rather than abuse or neglect.
282 These earlier findings showed that the outcome was best for children who had experienced
283 stable, harmonious family relationships in their early years prior to admission to the
284 orphanage.

285 *Chinese studies*

286 The Chinese study provided fewer opportunities for testing the causal inference. To begin
287 with, the examination of within-individual change over time was not possible because no
288 contemporaneous measures were available for the pre-adoption period. As already noted, the
289 outcome at a mean age of 52 years was outstandingly good. None of the variables reflecting
290 orphanage care significantly predicted adult outcome but, by contrast, the outcome was
291 significantly worse for those who recalled their adoptive parenting as stressful. This is an
292 unusual finding but there must be caution because of a very possible confound in
293 recollections going back many decades being reported by the same person who reported adult
294 outcome. Nevertheless, if that is put aside, it remains the case that there is no satisfactory
295 way of testing the causal inference regarding early experiences of institutional rearing in
296 relation to adult outcome.

297 **Sensitive periods**

298 A key feature of the findings on early institutional care in the Romanian study is that there
299 appears to be a sensitive period by which effects were not evident if the institutional rearing
300 did not extend beyond the age of six months but it did produce marked effects thereafter
301 (Rutter *et al.* 2010). The concept of sensitive periods requires that there is both a beginning
302 and end to the age period. The term sensitive period is a broad term that applies whenever
303 the effects of experience are unusually strong during a limited period in development
304 (Knudsen, 2004). Although such periods are reflected in behaviour, they are actually a
305 property of neural circuits. Accordingly, their occurrence in relation to early institutional
306 care constitutes an important pointer to the biology underlying the effects of institutional care
307 (see also Heim & Binder, 2012). Whilst study of the biology of institutional effects is outside
308 the remit of this paper, it is vital to acknowledge its importance in the operation of sensitive
309 periods. Very little satisfactory evidence is available with respect to the end of such periods
310 although the findings comparing early institutional care with that beginning only when the

311 children are older are relevant. It has been suggested that there is no further increase in
312 deficits after the first few years but this conclusion is methodologically uncertain (McCall *et*
313 *al.* 2013). Merz and McCall (2010) suggested that a sensitive period may vary according to
314 the degree of deprivation in the institution, but numerous methodological considerations
315 mean that this tentative suggestion is, indeed, tentative. The main problem is that the death
316 rate in some institutions was very high and therefore what was being studied were the
317 findings in relation only to survivors.

318 **Institutions outside of Romania where there was major deprivation**

319 There are multiple studies of institutions where abuse and neglect were common. For
320 example, Perry and colleagues studied orphans in Quebec institutions initially staffed by
321 nuns. Abuse was reported by almost everyone but the institution differed from those in
322 Romania in that it did not have the high prevalence of neglect and subnutrition. Although
323 some four-fifths of the children had entered institutions at, or near, the time of birth, the
324 researchers did not separate out that group from those admitted later. There was not a very
325 satisfactory control group and the sample of institution-reared individuals was not
326 representative (Perry *et al.* 2005; Sigal *et al.* 2003).

327 Hermenau and colleagues (2014) compared early and late institutionalised children in
328 Tanzania. The results showed that severe corporal punishment and neglect and abuse were
329 quite common within the institution, with adverse childhood experiences more common in
330 those admitted early as compared with those admitted later.

331 There are studies of institutions outside Romania where there was general deprivation in
332 relation to neglect and abuse but unfortunately they did not use measures that enable us to
333 determine whether deprivation specific patterns, of the kind identified in the Romanian study,
334 applied there.

335 **Institutions without global deprivation**

336 Tizard and Hodges (1978) described the development of a group of 65 children whose first
337 years had been spent in residential nurseries, having been admitted before the age of 4
338 months and continuously remained there until the age of 2. Between the ages of 2 and 4
339 years, 24 of the children had been adopted, 15 restored to their natural parents while 26
340 remained in institutional care. The institutions studied were not globally depriving but close
341 personal relationships between adults and children were discouraged and care of the children
342 had passed through 24 different caregivers in the first 2 years and some 50 different
343 caregivers by the age of 4½ years. When the children were aged 2 years and 4½ years their
344 development was compared with a group of 30 London home-reared, working class children.
345 The main comparisons were between all adopted children, all restored children, all children
346 who had been continuously in institutions since infancy and the London comparison group.
347 The great majority of the adoptive mothers (84%) and London mothers (90%) reported that
348 their child was closely attached to them but this was true of only about half of the restored
349 children and the institutional children. This is a very important study because it formed the
350 basis of the planning of many of the later studies. However, the sample size was small and
351 the measures of attachment were rather unsophisticated by modern standards.

352 There are also reports of institutional rearing in Portugal in institutions with demonstrated
353 sensitive caregiving (Oliveira *et al.* 2015; Soares *et al.* 2014). Children were admitted at a
354 mean age of 7 months but the sample included children up to the age of 24 months and there
355 were only two children admitted before 6 months. Accordingly, the reports are of little
356 relevance in relation to the effects of early institutional care.

357 **Direct comparisons of institutional care and community care**

358 The Positive Outcomes for Orphans (POFO) study undertaken by Whetten *et al.* (2009)
359 provides the best evidence on direct comparisons between 1357 institution-dwelling orphaned
360 and separated children and 1480 community-dwelling children from five low and middle
361 income countries. However, uncertainties arise from differences across published papers on
362 the ways in which the community care group is described. The first paper in 2009 referred to
363 a community living sample made up of either double orphans or children abandoned by both
364 biological parents. This was planned from the outset as a longitudinal study and the Whetten
365 *et al.* 2014 paper provided the results at the 36 month follow-up. The findings are sufficient
366 to reject the notion that institutional care is always worse than community care but the
367 extensive heterogeneity means that the actual experiences are more important than the
368 structure of the care (see also Gray *et al.*, 2015; and on-line appendix (b) for further details).

369 **Services in Japan**

370 Japan is very unusual in having a system in which institutional care has been seen in the past
371 as a preferable option to foster family care. This arose initially due to the extensive numbers
372 of abandoned children who had lost their parents and family to intensive aerial bombing in
373 major cities during World War II (Harada, 2011). At first, there had been concern because of
374 reports of abuse in some institutions. Moreover, most parents were more willing to accept
375 placements in institutions rather than placement in foster families because they feared that
376 their children would get close to the foster parents and lose affection for their biological
377 parents. Under some pressure from international organisations, Japan has been moving away
378 from the traditional pattern of having institutional care as the preferred option. In 2007 a
379 report recommended the adoption of measures to improve the foster care system particularly
380 for children who had been abused or neglected. It advocated the need to provide
381 individualised care but the report did not recommend that foster families be considered as a
382 first placement option. Rather, family-like care was to be achieved not only by foster

383 families or foster homes, but also by downsizing the care units in its Child Welfare
384 Institutions and a commitment to establishing new institutions (Harada, 2011; Zhang *et al.*
385 2016).

386 Accordingly, at first sight, it seemed that Japanese services provided a golden opportunity to
387 consider whether institutional care was damaging as it was usually thought to be. However,
388 there are several reasons why it has not proved as useful as hoped (see on-line appendix (c)
389 for further details).

390 **Conclusions**

391 The Greek, Chinese and Romanian studies were all longitudinal, dealing with the major
392 problems of institutions, namely social selection being an artefact. What these three studies
393 indicated was that the overall outcome for the Romanian adoptees, where the care was
394 profoundly depriving, was often bad, whereas in the Chinese study, the outcome was actually
395 extremely good. The Greek study had the advantage of examining children pre-adoption but
396 a limitation is that the follow-up only extends to age 13 which is too young for any definitive
397 assessment of long-term outcome.

398 *Possible methodological differences accounting for heterogeneity in outcome among the*
399 *three studies rather than institutional rearing per se.*

400 1. The possibility of gender differences was looked at systematically in the Romanian study
401 and none was found. It was also examined in the Greek study where there are a few
402 inconsistent but mostly non-significant differences. The best outcome was clearly in the
403 Chinese study and that is also different from all the other studies in being entirely a sample of
404 girls. Altogether, however, it seems unlikely that the findings can be accounted for in terms
405 of gender differences.

406 2. Variation in quality of the adoptive home. This was unrelated to outcome in both the
407 Romanian study and the Greek study. In the Chinese study there was an apparently
408 significant effect of the quality of the adoptive home but the data were retrospective and of
409 dubious validity. It seemed unlikely that this can account for the differences among the
410 studies but because the same measures are not available in all three samples, it is not possible
411 to be absolutely sure.

412 3. The experiences before adoption. In all three studies, most children entered institutional
413 care because the family was experiencing gross poverty (mainly in rural areas) and abuse or
414 neglect were both uncommon, so far as could be judged. Mental disorder in the parents was
415 not a common cause for admission and was not a predictor within the Greek sample. In the
416 Romanian study there were systematic attempts to consider the possibility of fetal alcohol
417 effects and a handful of children were excluded where that possibility arose.

418 4. Duration of orphanage care. In both the Greek and Romanian study almost all of the
419 children were admitted at birth or in the early weeks of life. The Chinese study was a little
420 bit different in that the mean age of entry to the orphanage was three months of age and there
421 were 17 out of 72 children who entered when over the age of six months (Rushton *et al.*
422 2013). We have had to rely on age at adoption as an index of age of leaving institutional
423 care. Hawk *et al.* (2012), using data from the St Petersburg study, showed that there was a
424 close agreement between the two. The later adoptees were likely to have spent time in the
425 family prior to going into the orphanage and they had the experience of abuse and neglect
426 rather more than the earlier adoptees had. In contrast, Vorria *et al.* (1998a, 1998b), studying
427 orphanages in Greece, found that those adopted later were more likely to have had beneficial
428 experiences in the biological family. It would be unwise to assume any non-varying
429 association but the findings are a reminder that when considering the effects of early

430 institutional care, attention needs to be paid to both prenatal and postnatal experiences in the
431 biological family.

432 Unfortunately, the Rushton report on the Chinese study did not report analyses on the effect
433 on outcome of the age of entry to the orphanage. Nevertheless, it seems most unlikely that
434 the small minority of the group who entered late could account for the good outcome.

435 The major difference between the Romanian study and the other two studies was the
436 pervasiveness of global deprivation. Institutional conditions were examined in both the other
437 studies and were found to be generally reasonable apart from lack of individualised care. It is
438 also striking that it is only in the Romanian study that social disinhibition and quasi-autism
439 were evident. The implication is that it is the global deprivation that creates the risk of both
440 of those unusual patterns but there has been a paucity of research examining non-institutional
441 samples in order to determine whether or not that is the case. Also, in the few studies that
442 sought to examine these specific patterns in children reared by their families, there was a
443 paucity of measures that could possibly pick them up.

444 There have also been attempts to try to see intercountry adoption as a key unifying variable
445 and we think the evidence does not support that. Also, many reviewers have wished to view
446 everything through the lens of an attachment perspective. Attachment theory and findings
447 have undoubtedly had a lot to contribute but they are by no means all. The evidence suggests
448 that physical and sexual abuse may be more important risk factors.

449 In seeking to pull the conceptual conclusions together, we need to express concern regarding
450 attempts to put effects altogether in one overall package. Thus, much of the literature seeks
451 to conclude that early institutional rearing is inevitably damaging. The evidence does not
452 support that. Rather, it suggests that it is a risk factor but the most profound effects are seen
453 only when the rearing is accompanied by gross deprivation, as it was in the Romanian

454 sample. The main unresolved issues concern the consequences of early institutional rearing
455 when there is not pervasive gross deprivation (McCall, 2013; McCall *et al.* 2011). These key
456 points need to be made. First, as shown in numerous studies from Stevens (1971) onwards,
457 the styles of rearing in even the best institutions differ from those usually provided by
458 families. Second, institutional rearing can be improved (as well shown by the St Petersburg
459 study) with demonstrable benefits for the children. Third, institutional rearing is likely to
460 impinge on individual children in different ways. The challenge is to harness the findings to
461 policy development.

462 **Declaration of interest**

463 None

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