Introduction to Mobility, Migration, and Acculturation

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Within a globalized world, resettling from one country to another has become more and more frequent (i.e., the number of immigrants is currently estimated at more than 190 Million worldwide by the United Nations), and not only in classical immigration countries such as the USA, Canada, Australia, and South American countries. Reasons for migration vary, and range from escaping from extremely adverse living circumstances such as war or persecution, to hopes for improving economic situations, to curiosity. At any rate, moving from one culture to another is a major life transition often accompanied by unique stressors (e.g., disruption of social ties) impacting on individuals’ developmental pathways. Within societies of high cultural diversity, issues relating to acculturation are of great importance. Receiving countries might support an assimilation of immigrants, accept a multi-cultural trend, or tolerate immigrants as distinct groups with high tendencies for segregation. Developmental research in the area of acculturation has been of particular interest in explaining how well immigrants adjust to the new context, and in identifying the factors that shape positive and negative developmental trajectories, in particular in young people. In addition, it has been suggested that the acculturation process is more difficult for migrants of certain backgrounds, ages, or religions. Research in this area can help to overcome negative stereotypes that are held against certain groups of immigrants, and can inform interventionists who are trying to improve the developmental pathways of people migrating from one cultural context to another.

The special section of this ISSBD Bulletin focuses on “Mobility, Migration, and Acculturation,” introducing an interesting selection of four feature articles on research in this field. The first one by Graeme Hugo, an Australian geographer, introduces the topic of mobility and migration, reflecting on migration policies in countries of origin and destination. In the second article, John Berry summarizes theory and research on the acculturation strategies of immigrant youth and their relation to positive developmental outcomes. The other two papers deal first with issues of acculturation of Muslim youth in New Zealand (Jaimee Stuart et al.), and secondly with Diaspora migrants, i.e., ethnic German repatriates in Germany vs. Russian Jewish migrants in Israel (Titzmann et al.). These feature articles are accompanied by commentaries by well-known experts in the field of acculturation research, namely Ype Poortinga and Andrew Fuligni. Also, the Reports from the Lab deal with the topic of acculturation research, thereby introducing international research teams who apply innovative measurement approaches to the field, i.e., identity mapping for studying hyphenated selves (Sirin et al.), computer assisted techniques to gather data (Lawrence et al.), independent measurement of acculturation to both sending and receiving cultures, a multidimensional approach assessing distinct dimensions of acculturation (Birman & Poff), and ethnographic research approaches (Amigo).

This issue of the Bulletin also includes a country report, introducing research on developmental psychology in Lithuania. In addition, Anne Petersen, the Society’s past president, and Wolfgang Schneider, the president of ISSBD, sent their notes to the members. This Bulletin also contains the Minutes of the ISSBD Executive Committee Meeting and the General Business Meeting, and two lively reports of the ISSBD Biennial Meetings in Lusaka, Zambia (including travel impressions). Finally, in the news section, the editor of the IJBD introduces upcoming publication highlights.

I am hoping that this Bulletin with the special section focusing on “Mobility, Migration, and Acculturation” attracts lots of reader interest. I am thankful to the authors who contributed to this issue with great papers, and also to Peter F. Titzmann whom I consulted in advance to get a deeper insight into this field of research. Finally, I am happy to announce that the ISSBD Bulletin has a new co-editor. Deepali Sharma from India will support the editorial team from the next issue onwards. I am very much looking forward to this collaboration.
The year 2010 is an important watershed in global demographic and economic change. From this year on the numbers of people in the working age groups (15-64 years) living in high income nations will begin to decline and there will be a net decline of 25 million by 2025 (World Bank, 2006). Over the same period there will be a net increase of 1 billion working age people in low income countries. While we must be careful to avoid demographic determinism it is clear that there will be a resultant increase in population movement from low income to high income countries.

The Global Commission on International Migration (2005, p. 31) report concludes that ‘the old paradigm of permanent migrant settlement is progressively giving way to temporary and circular migration’ and that there is a need ‘to grasp the developmental opportunities that this important shift in migration patterns provides for countries of origin’. This call has subsequently been taken up by policy makers (DFID, 2007; European Commission, 2007). Academics, however, have varied from support to outright opposition to the argument that non-permanent migration can deliver win-win-win development dividends (Vertovec, 2006; Castles, 2006a, b; Martin, Abella, & Kuptsch, 2006; Ruhs, 2006; Newland, Aguiñas, & Terrazas, 2008). Despite this flurry of activity, the body of empirical evidence and theory available to guide migration policy makers remains meagre, especially compared with that available concerning permanent settlement. Indeed, in most countries data on non-permanent migration and emigration is lacking or incomplete, so it is not possible to establish its scale and composition, let alone their drivers and impact. Hence much writing on non-permanent and return migration is based upon small-scale case studies or studies of unrepresentative groups of such migrants. This paper uses some data from Australia, where measurement of non-permanent movement and emigration are possible, to definitely demonstrate the significance of such migration between high income and low income countries. It is shown that circularity, reciprocity and return are structural and abiding elements, and contemporary south-north migration is best viewed as a complex interacting system rather than a more or less uni-dimensional permanent relocation. This, it is argued, provides the basis for international migration to have positive effects on both origin and destination although achievement of such goals requires more ‘development friendly’ approaches to migration by both origin and destination countries.

A Complex Migration System

Australia is a quintessential immigration nation with half of its population being overseas-born with permanent resident status, Australia-born with an overseas-born parent, or a temporary resident. As a result it has developed a comprehensive system of collecting data on both migration stocks and flows (Hugo, 2004). This has been facilitated by it being an island nation so that clandestine entry to the country is negligible. Australia’s proximity to Asia, which has 57 percent of the world’s population, has meant that its immigration has been increasingly from Asia since the removal of the last vestiges of the White Australia immigration regulations in the 1970s. Accordingly, the number of the Asia-born increased from 116,481 in 1971 to 1,205,440 in 2006 – from 0.9 percent to 6.5 percent. However, it is apparent that the migration relationship between Australia and Asia is a complex one in which the permanent displacement of Asians to Australia is only one element. As Figure 1 shows, the relationship is best depicted as one in which circularity, reciprocity and return are key elements.

Most countries around the world collect migration flow information only on persons who enter the country and not on those who leave. Hence global migration knowledge is strongly biased toward immigrants and little is known about emigrants. Australia is one of the few nations to collect comprehensive information on all persons who leave the country. Accordingly, it is possible to establish the extent to which there are reciprocal flows of those from Asian countries to Australia. In the Australian system migrant flows are divided into three types:

- **permanent movement** – persons migrating to Australia as settlers, and Australian residents departing permanently;
- **long term movement** – temporary visa holders arriving, and residents departing temporarily with the intention to stay in Australia, or abroad, for twelve months or more, and the departure of temporary visa holders and the return of residents who had stayed in Australia or abroad for twelve months or more; and
- **short term movement** – travelers whose intended, or actual, stay in Australia or abroad, is less than twelve months.

Focusing on permanent migration, Table 1 shows that over the 1993-2007 period, although there were 560,111 Asia-born persons who immigrated to Australia, there were 180,325 people who migrated permanently from Australia to Asian countries so that net migration gain was only 389,786. The counterflow to Asia was made up of 97,552 Asia-born persons moving back into the region and 72,773...
Australia-born people. Hence, while the gradient of permanent migration is toward Australia, there is a substantial flow in the opposite direction of which a significant element is return migration. There are substantial variations between countries in the balance of flows to and from Australia. In the East Asia region countries the counterflow is 55 percent as large as the main flow to Australia, while for the South Asian countries it was only 3.1 percent. For Southeast Asia the proportion was 29.9 percent.

It is not only in permanent migration that there is evidence of circularity, reciprocity and return. The numbers of Asia-born short term arrivals increased from 1,728,351 in 1993-94 to 2,711,547 in 2008-09 while the numbers of long term arrivals increased from 47,627 to 256,941. However, a spatial data set made available by the Australian Department of Immigration and Citizenship (Evans, 2008) allows us to identify the number of trips made by particular individuals living in Asian countries making short term visits to Australia.

Table 2 shows that the average number of trips made by individuals is substantial. Hence, there is an important element of repetitive circular movement of Asians to Australia. Moreover, it is interesting to note that 49.1 percent of all of these journeys were to ‘visit friends and relatives’ indicating the way in which permanent migration influences short term movement. Some 11.8 percent gave ‘business’ as their main reason for visiting and 2.3 percent cited employment.

The complex interrelationship between permanent and non-permanent migration is also evident in the number of trips which permanent immigrants who settle in Australia make to their home country. Table 3 shows the average number of visits made out of Australia by persons from Asia who have settled in Australia. This indicates that these settlers make frequent visits out of Australia. Most of these are return visits to their home country. Clearly migration sets off a number of interactions between the destination and origin country and this has the potential to have positive economic impacts at both ends of the migration process. While the return visits often involve visiting relatives and friends, a fifth have other motives, usually economically related. Moreover, the proportion is higher in countries like Singapore (35 percent), South Korea (32 percent) and China (29 percent).

These data show conclusively the complexity and circularity in the migration between Australia and Asia. It points to the need to reconceptualise the prevalent south-north migration discourse to see the migration relationship between low income and high income countries as an interactive system comprising a number of components of movement. This new way of thinking opens up considerable potential for policy intervention to enhance the positive impact of migration on development in low income origin countries. Figure 2 shows the distribution of countries of birth of Asian immigrants resident in Australia in 2006 and reflects the potential for such interventions.

Implications for Migration and Development

In the discussion of potential positive effects of migration on development at the origin, the key dimension is the extent to which migration leads to a flow of ideas, money, investment, goods and people from the destination to the origin of movers. In this context the demonstration that the south-north migration relationship is a complex system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Birthplace</th>
<th>Average Number of Visits</th>
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<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>6.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>5.5</td>
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<td>Singapore</td>
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<td>Indonesia</td>
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<td>Thailand</td>
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<td>Vietnam</td>
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<td>Hong Kong SAR</td>
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<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>9.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
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Figure 2. Australia: Persons Born in the Asia-Pacific by Country of Birth, 2006

Source: ABS 2006 Census
rather than a one-way linear one is of particular relevance. The potential positive impacts of development work largely through the following components:

- **Remittances** – The flow of money and goods sent by single or groups of private individuals is clearly related to the strength of linkage maintained by migrants with their origin. For example, circular migrants who leave their families behind in the country of origin generally retain work, housing and investments in the origin, etc.
- **Foreign Direct Investment** – The extent to which migrants facilitate investment from the destination to the origin involving either their own resources or those of private or public organizations in which they have decision-making roles. Clearly, such investors are likely to be those people who maintain strong linkages with their origin countries.
- **Facilitating Trade** – There is a well documented association between migration and trade. There is evidence that migrants create a demand in the destination for goods and services from their origin country. They also can serve as beachheads for expats from their origin. Moreover, migrants are often entrepreneurial so they recognize and take advantage of trade opportunities. Again, mobility between origin and destination is clearly a factor in trade.
- **Social Remittances** – This relates to the flows of new ways of doing things, new behaviors, knowledge transfer, expertise, views, etc. from the destination to the origin. While much of this can be done virtually through regular communication and electronic interaction it is apparent that regular visiting is a key factor in this phenomenon.
- **Return Migration** – Obviously if migrants return from the destination to the origin they bring with them not only the skills and resources they had before they migrated but also those skills, resources, experience and networks accumulated at the destination. Return migration literature stresses migration upon retirement, when the impact on the origin may be limited because the migrants are often no longer economically active. However, where return migration data for south-north migrants are available, it is clear much of it involves migrants still in the working age groups.

It is apparent then that all of these developmentally related impacts of migration are strongly related to mobility between the destination and the origin. There is also the potential for other actions by the destination resulting from south-north migration including the following:

- **Development Assistance** – While there is little evidence available, there is some indication that high income countries may target sending those countries sending migrants to them as recipients of development assistance (DFID, 2007). It has been indicated, for example, that investment by the receiving country in the education and training system in the origin country can be an effective and equitable response to brain drain concerns.
- **Reverse Migration** – There is evidence that the linkages established by migration can lead to migration of natives from the destination back to the sending country. Marriage migration is significant in this as are second generations moving back to their parents’ origin country. Also, business and trade linkages can lead to movement of people, often skilled, from the destination country back to the origins.

There has been considerable discussion in the literature on the relative contribution to development in the origin country between permanent settlement and circular migration. It has been argued that the development contribution is greater among circular migrants because of the greater commitment they maintain to their origins, the fact that they will return to the origin, etc. This has been one of the justifications in Europe for focusing on circular migration rather than permanent settlement (Vertovec, 2006). However, what the Australian case study has shown is that it is not appropriate to dichotomize permanent and temporary migration as the former involving no return to the home country and the latter involving return. In fact the destination is quite blurred because:

(1) There is often a change in status from the original visa under which a migrant entered the destination in the first place. Here the focus is usually on temporary migrants becoming permanent. For example, in Australia in 2008-09, 29.6 percent of the permanent additions made to the population through migration were people who changed from a temporary residence to permanent residence visa. However, although it is less acknowledged, there is a substantial level of remigration among settlers, although most countries do not collect data to indicate it. In a globalizing world such high mobility has become more important and it involves not just return migration but also migration to a third country. In Australia, a country which collects emigration data, around a quarter of permanent settlers eventually leave the country permanently.

(2) The Australian case shows that permanent migrants in the destination have high levels of temporary migration back to the origin nation. Hence their potential to have an impact on their origin countries through remittances, foreign direct investment (FDI), trade and social remittances in association with their mobility is substantial.

(3) The permanent diaspora from a particular origin country can influence a destination country to send development assistance, build business and government linkages and produce a flow of second generation, marriage and other migrants back to the origin.

The linkage between migration and development is hence much more complex than a simple circular/large: permanent/small dichotomy and discussion of it should be more nuanced.

**Implications for Policy**

The discussion here indicates that positive developmental impacts in origin countries can flow from a range of different mobility types. It is not simply a matter of a single type of migration which delivers development dividends. From a development perspective a mix of permanent and temporary migration types in the destination has the potential to have positive developmental impacts in the origin. Of
particular significance is the fact that policy intervention can be employed to facilitate positive developmental impacts and ameliorate and reduce negative effects. In this context it is important to stress that such policy interventions can be at both the origins and destinations, although the focus usually is placed on the origins. Some indicative types of policy interventions are as follows:

**Origin Country Policy Intervention**

- Strategies to engage the diaspora both virtually and through return visits of various lengths.
- Creation of expatriate organizations in destinations.
- Dual citizenship.
- Return migration programs.
- Programs to assist return migrants (both circular and permanent) to adjust to life and work in the home country.
- Programs to facilitate remittances.
- Programs to facilitate FDI from diaspora.
- Creation of specific networks such as research and business networks involving people in the diaspora and their equivalents in the home country.
- Granting political representation to the diaspora and voting rights.
- Granting financial incentives to diaspora saving in the origin country – interest-free bank accounts, etc.
- Facilitating return visits, tourism and business travel between origin and destination – cheap airfares, special visa entry, frequent travel options, etc.

**Destination Country Interventions**

There is much less evidence and literature on the types of policy interventions which destination countries can make in order to facilitate development in origin countries. Such ‘development friendly’ opportunities to immigration policy are in their infancy and there is little evidence of them since in destinations the overwhelming driver of immigration policy is national self-interest. However, there is increasing discussion that countries can initiate ‘development friendly’ immigration policies without sacrificing national best interests. The types of policies which have been considered include:

- Adopting an ethical approach to the recruitment of skilled migrants, especially in the health area.
- Channelling resources into the education/training programs of origin countries.
- Facilitating the flow of remittances to origin countries, e.g. through minimizing transaction costs.
- Facilitating travel between origin and destination countries – visa policy, cheap airfares, etc.
- Facilitating diaspora communities keeping strong linkages with their origin countries.
- Dual citizenship.
- Assuring portability of entitlements, pensions, etc. to origin countries.
- Directing foreign development assistance to origin countries.
- Facilitating trade with origin countries.
- Making it easy for migrants to work in both destination and origin countries.

**Conclusion**

South-north migration has increased substantially in scale and significance in the last two decades and widening demographic and economic differentials make it certain that it will continue to increase in importance. The present paper has sought to draw attention to two neglected dimensions of south-north migration. Firstly it has demonstrated that the usual depiction of south-north migration as a unidirectional permanent relocation from low income to high income countries is inappropriate. Unfortunately the limitation of standard migration data collection systems to more-or-less permanent moves at destinations has served to reinforce this incorrect depiction of south-north migration. Where comprehensive data are available, as in the case of Australia considered here, it shows that south-north migration is much more appropriately seen as a complex interacting system of movement between south and north countries. The second point which is made here relates to the implications of south-north migration for development in origin, lower income, countries. It is argued here that whereas in the literature circular migration is seen to have maximal impact on development in the origin country, and permanent migration is considered to have minimal impact, in fact, the potential positive outcomes for origin countries can be associated with all of the complex elements in the migration system linking south and north countries. There are important policy implications since it is possible to facilitate and encourage positive effects and minimize negative effects through appropriate policy intervention at both origin and destination.

It is argued here that it is important to reconceptualize the discourse on both south-north migration and migration impact on development in origin countries to take account of the greater complexity of mobility taking place. Effective development and operationalization of ‘development friendly’ migration policies in both origin and destination countries is dependent upon this reconceptualization.

**References**


**Migrating Youth: Is There a Best Acculturation Strategy?**

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Acculturation has become a core issue in managing human relations in culturally diverse societies (Berry, 2005; Sam & Berry, 2006). Three questions are often posed by acculturation researchers: How do individuals seek to acculturate following their migration; how well do they adapt to their new circumstances; and are there any significant relationships between how they acculturate, and how well they adapt? If there are variations in how people acculturate, in how well they adapt, and in the relationship between these two aspects, there may be important policy and program implications for a ‘best practice’ following migration.

Research on these three issues has been conducted for decades with adults, and for the past fifteen years with immigrant youth. In this article, I present a conceptual framework that allows us to distinguish the various ways in which people tend to acculturate. I then review my long-standing claim that individuals who are living interculturally who engage in and become competent in the two cultures usually adapt better than those who are primarily oriented to one or the other culture, and much better than those who engage in neither culture. Finally, I review some findings from two research studies with immigrant youth. These are an international study of immigrant youth acculturation and adaptation carried out in 13 societies of settlement (Berry, Phinney, Sam, & Vedder, 2006), and one that examines immigrant youth in Montreal and Paris (Berry & Sabatier, 2010; Sabatier & Berry, 2008). In both of these studies, a similar pattern of relationships between the how and how well questions is found. Some general implications for policy and practice are drawn from these empirical findings.

**How do People Seek to Acculturate?**

One way to examine the various ways in which individuals and groups seek to acculturate is to consider the acculturation strategies framework developed by Berry over the years (1974, 1980, 2003). Four ways of engaging in intercultural relations have been derived from two basic issues facing all peoples in culturally plural societies. These issues are based on the distinction between orientations towards one’s own group, and those towards other groups (Berry, 1980). This distinction is rendered as a relative preference for (i) maintaining one’s heritage culture and identity and (ii) a relative preference for having contact with and participating in the larger society along with other ethnocultural groups.

These two issues can be responded to using attitudinal dimensions, ranging from generally positive or negative orientations to the two issues delineated above. Their intersection defines four strategies, portrayed in Figure 1. On the left are the orientations from the point of view of

![Figure 1. Varieties of Acculturation Strategies in Ethnocultural Groups and in the Larger Society](image-url)
ethnocultural peoples (both individuals and groups); on the right are the views held by the larger society.

Among ethnocultural groups (on the left of Figure 1), when they do not wish to maintain their cultural identity and seek daily interaction with other cultures, the Assimilation strategy is defined. In contrast, when individuals place a value on holding onto their original culture, and at the same time wish to avoid interaction with others, then the Separation alternative is defined. When there is an interest in maintaining one’s original culture while in daily interactions with other groups, Integration is the chosen option. In this case, one maintains some degree of cultural integrity, while at the same time seeking, as a member of an ethnocultural group, to participate as an integral part of the larger social network. Finally, when there is little possibility of or interest in cultural maintenance (often for reasons of exclusion or discrimination) then Marginalization is defined.

These two basic issues were initially approached from the point of view of the non-dominant ethnocultural groups. However, a powerful role is played by the dominant group in influencing the way in which ethnocultural groups relate (Berry, 1974). The addition of the views of the larger society produces the right side of Figure 1. From the point of view of the larger society, Assimilation when sought by the dominant group is termed the Melting Pot. When Separation is forced by the dominant group it is called Segregation. Marginalization, when imposed by the dominant group, is termed Exclusion. Finally, when diversity maintenance and equitable participation are widely-accepted features of the society as a whole, Integration is called Multiculturalism.

### Previous Research with Adults

In earlier publications (e.g., Berry, 1997, 2005) I argued that those who employ the integration strategy (by engaging in, and becoming competent in the two cultures) usually adapt better than those who are primarily oriented to one or the other culture (by using either the assimilation or separation strategy), and much better than those who engage in neither culture (the marginalisation strategy). This generalisation has been confirmed in a recent meta-analysis of findings across numerous studies (Benet-Martinez, 2010). This meta-analysis sampled 83 studies with 23,197 participants. The analysis confirmed the integration-adaptation relationship, but the strength of the relationship depended on the measurement method used; the range was from .21 to .54 to .70 across three methods.

### Studies of Immigrant Youth

In the past few years, immigrant youth have been an important topic of research and policy consideration (Motti-Stefanidi, Berry, Chryssochoou, Phinney & Sam, 2010). Much of this research has been modeled on earlier research with adult immigrants, but with the important addition of a developmental dimension (Sam & Berry, 2010). Reviews (e.g., Berry, 1997, 2005) of this adult research made the claim that those who seek and accomplish the integration way of acculturating usually have better adaptation (both psychological and sociocultural).

The International Comparative Study of Ethnocultural Youth (ICSEY; Berry et al., 2006) sampled over 5,000 immigrant youth settled in 13 countries. Using a number of intercultural variables, we found that there are four ways of acculturating. These intercultural variables included: acculturation attitudes (preferences for integration, assimilation, separation and marginalization); and cultural identities, language knowledge and use, and social relationships with peers (the latter all assessed with respect to both their heritage group and the national society). The most preferred way was integration, defined as being oriented to both their heritage cultures and their new society (36% of the sample exhibited this pattern). In this group, there was a positive attitude toward integration, positive identities with both cultural groups, knowledge and use of both languages, and friendships with members of both cultures. Assimilation was least preferred (19%); youth in this group exhibited a pattern on these variables of being oriented mainly to the new national society. Separation was in second place (23%) with a pattern of being oriented mainly to their heritage culture. Marginalization was in third place (22%); these youth were uncertain how to acculturate, had negative identities with both cultural groups, had poor national language facility, and had few friends in either group.

Adaptation was assessed by two variables: psychological well-being (self esteem, life satisfaction and lack of psychological problems, such as being sad or worrying frequently); and sociocultural adaptation (school adjustment, and lack of behavior problems in the community, such as vandalism and petty theft). Of some interest is the relationship between the two forms of adaptation. In a structural equation model, the best fit was obtained when sociocultural adaptation preceded psychological adaptation, rather than the other way around. That is, dong well in school and the community leads to better psychological well-being. Finally, it is important to note that there were no overall differences in either form of adaptation between national and immigrant youth.

However, there were important differences in both forms of adaptation, depending on how immigrant youth were acculturating (see Figure 2). There were substantial relationships between how youth acculturate and how well they adapt: those with an integration profile had the best psychological and sociocultural adaptation outcomes,
while those with a diffuse profile had the worst; in between, those with an ethnic profile had moderately good psychological adaptation but poorer sociocultural adaptation, while those with a national profile had moderately poor psychological adaptation, and slightly negative sociocultural adaptation. This pattern of results was largely replicated using a structural equation model.

Of particular importance for our discussion is the relationship between how youth acculturate and how well they adapt, and another variable: perceived discrimination. This is important because such discrimination is the best indicator of the degree to which immigrant youth are permitted to participate equitably in the life of the larger society. Those in the integration cluster reported experiencing the least discrimination, and those in the diffuse cluster reported the most; in between, national cluster youth reported moderately low discrimination, and ethnic cluster youth reported moderately high discrimination. And in the structural equation model, the single most powerful variable predicting poor psychological and sociocultural adaptation was the degree of discrimination perceived by immigrant youth. Thus, the degree to which immigrant youth experience discrimination corresponds with their preferred acculturation strategy, and has a direct impact on their adaptation.

**Immigrant Youth in Montreal and Paris**

A comparative examination of immigrant youth acculturation and adaptation was carried out by Colette Sabatier and John Berry (Berry & Sabatier, 2010; Sabatier & Berry, 2008). The rationale for this comparison was that while both cities have immigrants from similar parts of the world, they have very different immigration, acculturation and settlement policies and practices (Noels & Berry, 2006; Sabatier & Boutry, 2006). In Canada, the policy of multiculturalism encourages the maintenance and expression of one’s cultural heritage; in France, the model is more assimilationist, wherein the public expression of ethnicity is not supported by public policy.

Many of the research questions used in Paris were the same as those posed in the ICSEY study, and many of the Paris findings replicated the ICSEY results. Acculturation preferences were for integration in both samples, but there was some variation across immigrant groups, with some groups having higher than average preferences for assimilation or separation. Once again, the relationship between acculturation strategy and adaptation was in evidence: those seeking integration had better psychological and sociocultural adaptation. And further, discrimination played an important role in both the strategies and adaptation. One important difference is that those seeking integration in Paris reported the highest experience of discrimination (along with those seeking separation), while those seeking integration in Montreal reported the lowest (in keeping with previous findings). This relationship was interpreted by noting that expressing one’s ethnicity in Paris draws discrimination. Nevertheless, the usual finding on the relationship between acculturation strategy and adaptation holds in both Paris and Montreal: those seeking integration have better adaptation; those who are marginalized have poorer adaptation; and those seeking assimilation and separation fall in between.

**Conclusion**

There are two main conclusions to be drawn from these studies of immigrant youth. First, it appears that immigrant youth prefer integration to any other way of acculturating. The assumption is commonly made that immigrant youth turn their backs on their heritage cultures; but this is not the case. Indeed, assimilation is often the least preferred strategy. Second, immigrant youth adapt better, both psychologically and socioculturally (including at school) when they are able to achieve a balance in their relationships and in their developed competencies in both their heritage cultures and the new society in which they are now living. In contrast, marginalized youth are in a very difficult position, experiencing substantial discrimination, and attaining poor psychological and social outcomes. Public policies that encourage and support balanced relationships and competencies in intercultural situations are thus superior to other arrangements that may be proposed by politicians or practiced by public institutions. Public schools play a key role in achieving this balance, since there are often no other integrating public institutions. The multicultural movement within schools (and now being advanced in other public institutions, such as media, health care, and justice) appears to be the most appropriate way to engage in intercultural relations in our culturally plural societies and neighbourhoods.

**References**


Current Issues in the Development and Acculturation of Muslim Youth in New Zealand

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The term acculturation has been used to refer to the process of change that occurs in contexts of continued intercultural contact, both at the group level and in the psychology of the individual (Berry, 1997). At the group level, changes may occur in the social structure of the group or in the group’s economic and value base, whereas at the individual level, changes take place in identity, values and behavior (Sam, 2006). Recent research has suggested that due to the differences in life stage and development, young people may face more complex issues of adjustment than their adult counterparts (Berry, Phinney, Sam, & Vedder, 2006; Oppedal, 2006; Phinney, 1990; Smetana, Campione-Barr, & Metzger, 2006). Research indicates that the physical, cognitive and socio-emotional changes undergone by adolescents as they transition into adulthood influence the manner in which they manage cultural change (Farver, Xu, Bakhtawar, & Lieber, 2007; Oppedal, 2006; Sam & Oppedal, 2002). These findings are unsurprising given that achieving a positive and coherent self-identity has long been viewed as a critical part of adolescent psychological development within developmental theory. A positive sense of self is related to higher self-esteem, lower anxiety and better social and academic achievement (Adams, Gullota, & Montemajor, 1992). In contrast, a weak sense of self or an undeveloped personal identity can lead to a range of negative outcomes, including lowered self-assurance, self-acceptance, and self-certainty and a weaker sense of mastery (Marcia, Waterman, Matteson, Archer, & Orlofsky, 1993; Adams et al., 1992).

Developing a coherent sense of self can become problematic when the individual is undergoing acculturative changes (Phinney, 1992). Migrant adolescents must negotiate and consolidate the values and behaviors prescribed by their ethnic group with those prescribed by the host culture (Farver, Narang, & Bhadha, 2002). This is especially challenging when the values and beliefs of the ethnic culture differ significantly from those of the host society.

Adolescence can, therefore, be seen as a period in which the issues raised by immigration, specifically those concerning identity, are particularly salient (Berry et al., 2006). It has been suggested that this is because ethnic, religious and national identities often call for differing value and behavioral prescriptions (Birman, 1998). For example, recent research by Hedegaard (2005) concerning non-Western families who have migrated to Western nations indicates that immigrant children grow up in contrasting cultures. At home, they are expected to maintain traditional values and beliefs, whereas at school they are expected to fit in with their peers. While some young people may experience these orientations as complementary, it is often the case that they result in conflicting demands, creating a pressure to balance competing ‘allegiances’ and establish a distinct self-identity, as well as a congruent cultural identity (Hedegaard, 2005; Stuurt, 2008). The struggle to balance the demands of religious, ethnic and national cultures may be even more salient for young migrants than for mature migrants due to normative development processes. For young people, identities are not yet stable; they are open to exploration and interpretation, meaning that adolescents may also be more prone to experiencing conflict over their identities (Berry et al., 2006; Oppedal, 2006). One of the first steps in building a complete picture of adolescent acculturation, therefore, is to understand how young people go about negotiating multiple cultural identities and the impact that the context in which they reside has on this process.

The New Zealand Context

New Zealand is traditionally a bicultural society, rooted in an indigenous Maori and British colonial base, although multiculturalism is the emerging ideology with diversity being promoted symbolically (through social discourse) and literally (via inclusive policy frameworks). At present almost one in four persons in New Zealand’s 4.3 million population is overseas-born. Ethnic, cultural, linguistic and religious diversity is a reality now, and with a growing Maori population and 40-50,000 new immigrants from approximately 150 countries entering New Zealand each year, this diversity will continue to increase.

Islam is the most rapidly growing religious affiliation in New Zealand with the population increasing six-fold between 1991 and 2006. Muslims now constitute about 1% of the population. The majority (77%) of New Zealand Muslims are overseas-born with the largest proportions identifying as Indian (29%) and as members of Middle Eastern
groups (21%) such as Arab, Iranian and Iraqi (Ministry of Social Development, 2008). Although Muslims are a flourishing group, compared to other immigrant communities, there is relatively little empirical research about their experiences in New Zealand (Sang & Ward, 2006).

As national-level political and social contexts affect immigrant experiences, it is important to examine aspects of New Zealand society that may facilitate or impede immigrant adaptation. A national survey by Ward and Masgoret (2008) found that overall New Zealanders strongly endorse a multicultural ideology. Approximately 89% of survey respondents agreed that it is a good thing for a society to be made up of different races, religions and cultures, a higher proportion of agreement than found in Australia and 15 European Union countries. Perceptions of threat were low to moderate (e.g., only 26% agreeing that immigration increases the level of crime and 21% maintaining that allowing immigrant cultures to thrive means the New Zealand culture is weakened). However, in the same study it was shown that some immigrants were perceived more favorably than others. Those from Great Britain were perceived more positively than those from South Africa, who, in turn, were seen more positively than those from China, India and Samoa, and all of these were viewed more favorably than those from Somalia.

A follow-up survey by Ward and Stuart (2009a), which focused on the assessment of New Zealanders’ attitudes towards Muslim immigrants, found that settlers from major source countries (United States, United Kingdom, Australia, Korea, Philippines, India, China, South Africa, Samoa, Tonga, and Fiji) were viewed more positively than those from predominantly Muslim countries (Malaysia, Indonesia, Pakistan, Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, and Somalia). In the same study it was shown that approximately half of the respondents agreed that Muslims have customs that are not acceptable in New Zealand, that Muslim immigrants increase the risk of terrorism, and that Muslim values are not compatible with New Zealand values. These findings suggest that although New Zealand is generally a tolerant society, Muslim immigrants may be at greater risk for prejudice and discrimination than other immigrants and ethnic minorities.

**Muslim Youth Adaptation**

Research indicates that migrant adolescents may be prone to experience the negative social and psychological outcomes associated with acculturation under circumstances in which there are high levels of cultural distance between national and ethnic minority groups, widespread discrimination, and socioeconomic differentials and where youth are visibly different (Berry, 1997). These risk factors are particularly pertinent for young Muslim migrants in Western cultures, where they are embedded in a cultural and political situation in which they are defined as a minority based on both their ethnicity and their religion. They endure, to varying degrees, the stress of living in a world that discriminates against them for their religious affiliation, but at the same time denies the cultural heterogeneity within their community. Zaal, Salah and Fine (2007) suggest that young Muslims in America find themselves in a community that is negatively embedded within the political and cultural discourse and that such a context can act to perpetuate misconceptions and stereotypes, impacting negatively on sociocultural and psychological adjustment.

Recent international research has shown that while migrant youth may be deemed ‘at risk,’ they still perform comparatively well in relation to their host national peers on many adjustment indices, including a lower incidence of depression, anxiety, and behavioral problems and better school achievement (Berry et al., 2006; Ward, 2007; Ward & Lin, 2005). Furthermore, even though there is a widespread opinion that Muslim young people are specifically at risk due to the current international socio-political climate, it has been found that young Muslim minorities, in comparison to other religious and non-religious groups, have better psychological adjustment and sociocultural adaptation (Berry et al., 2006) and have fewer mental health problems (Oppedal & Roysamb, 2007).

In order to make a comparison between young Muslims and host nationals in New Zealand, Ward and Stuart (2009b) conducted a study that extended the International Comparative Study of Ethnocultural Youth (ICSEY) survey (Berry et. al., 2006). The research was adapted in order to examine how Muslim youth (ages 13-19) preserve traditional values and practices while participating in the wider New Zealand society, how they negotiate issues pertaining to identity and how well they adapt socially and psychologically to life in New Zealand. One hundred and eighty Muslim youths (81% overseas-born, largely from Asia, Africa and the Middle East) completed the survey. Results from this study showed that Muslim youth reported greater life satisfaction, fewer behavioral problems and fewer symptoms of psychological distress than both Maori (indigenous) and New Zealand European/Pakeha youth. This study further showed that strong Islamic identity and engagement in Muslim practices are associated with greater life satisfaction, better school adjustment, less antisocial behaviour and fewer symptoms of psychological distress in Muslim youth. It was also found that Muslim identity as well as ethnic and national identities were strong and that most (85%) youth achieved integration; however, Muslim identity was stronger than ethnic and national identities and was a more robust predictor of positive adaptive outcomes.

The results of this research and of the ICSEY study more broadly suggest that migrant youth do not generally have more adaptation problems than their host national peers, but that difficulties may arise in response to conflicting demands across family and societal contexts. Deficit approaches that assume immigrant youth are prone to adjustment problems fail to take into account protective elements in the acculturation process. Consequently, evolving research should integrate developmental and acculturation theories in order to build a comprehensive understanding of both risk and protective factors in the adaptation process. Following this proposition, it is suggested that a positive psychological view should be taken into account when examining adjustment outcomes, focusing on the strengths that enable individuals and communities to thrive during acculturation.

**Muslim Youth: Identity and Resilience**

The concept of resilience, successful adjustment and identity negotiation for Muslim youth in New Zealand
were examined across a series of studies. Firstly, interviews and focus groups were carried out to address the question ‘What are the indicators and determinants of participation and success for Muslim youth?’ (Stuart, 2009). The themes emerging from the interviews and focus groups were clustered together under four major categories: 1) Context/elements of the receiving society; 2) Risk: (a) discrimination and (b) acculturation; 3) Coping with risk; and 4) Protectors or buffers: (a) individual characteristics, (b) networks, including family, friends and community; and (c) religion. It was found that young Muslims in New Zealand did indeed face a variety of threats to their development, particularly with regard to integrating into New Zealand society;

Mainly there’s like a culture barrier. You can’t communicate well because of your language … and the lifestyle, like how people talk and act, is completely different. It’s really hard, but we sort of eventually fit into that sort of society, that sort of culture. Western culture.

Another major issue they faced was prejudice and misconceptions about Islam more generally;

(Islam) is a straightforward thing and it’s not a political thing. It’s not like we all have hidden agendas or there is a conspiracy, to blow things up. To us it’s something that you apply every day, it’s what we believe and how we live. Whereas people think we are a terrorist organization.

Although risks were present for these young people, their pathways to adjustment were rooted within a supportive context that both promoted positive outcomes and diminished risks. The following quote illustrates how resilience could be constructed within this context.

I come from a country where the majority is Muslim. Being Muslim was not a big issue, so I didn’t actually have to know my religion that much, I didn’t have to defend myself. So I took it for granted, but coming to a foreign country I actually had to know more about my religion, I actually took the initiative to read up more and actually equip myself, just so that if people ask me questions I can actually answer them and be proud of my religion. This got me closer to my religion.

The results from this study suggest that there are protective elements for this group which are embedded in the process of change that is a result of the need to adapt to a new cultural setting. Specifically, it is argued that resilience emerges from the process of managing multiple cultural demands.

Following on from this research, two workshops were conducted which investigated the barriers and facilitators to success for young Muslims in New Zealand in four areas: family, friends, community and New Zealand society. Participants also created Identity Maps (for further examples of these see Zaal et al., 2007; Sirin & Fine, 2007; and Sirin & Fine, 2008), an exercise that elicits pictorial representations of multiple social identities. One of the major themes that arose during these workshops was the importance of ‘achieving a balance.’ This balance alludes to the many, and often contradictory demands, young Muslims in New Zealand manage in their lives. For instance, the demands of family (e.g., living up to expectations), peer pressure (e.g., fitting in with New Zealanders) and the ethnic community (e.g., the relative importance of one’s ethnic culture versus one’s religion).

The concept of ‘balance’ was carried over into the identity maps developed by the participants. In order to interpret identity maps, Sirin and Fine (2008, p. 136) developed a coding strategy map for three distinct identities: integrated identity (Muslim identity and national [American] identity fully blended in a nonconflicting way), parallel identity (both identities depicted as separate), and conflicting identity (representations of tension, hostility or irreconcilability of identities). Figures 1, 2 and 3 illustrate three different ways in which young Muslims in New Zealand are attempting to ‘achieve a balance’, or what might be described as integrated identities. These illustrations are representative of the over-arching theme of the participants’ identity maps; they all contain elements that blend Islam and New Zealand society, but they also all include a richness of the young person’s life, which combines family, friends, education and community.

Implications

Our research indicates that despite facing discrimination and acculturation pressures, Muslim youth are successfully adapting to life in New Zealand and fare well in comparison with their national peers. Their success is facilitated by a strong Muslim identity and engagement in Muslim practices, drawing on family, community and
societal resources, and striving to achieve a sense of balance in their new country. The research has shown that retention of Muslim values, aspirations and practices are conducive to positive outcomes, particularly when this is balanced with participation in the wider society. These findings suggest that receiving nations should be more tolerant of religious diversity, supportive of immigrant Muslim communities and sufficiently accommodating to ensure the freedom of religious expression in contemporary multicultural societies.

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**Inter-Ethnic Friendships and Socio-Cultural Adaptation of Immigrant Adolescents in Israel and Germany**

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Research repeatedly showed that adolescents prefer friends from the same ethnic background over friends from a different ethnic background (Kandel, 1978; Rodgers, Billy, & Udry, 1984; Titzmann & Silbereisen, 2009), a phenomenon called friendship homophily (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001). It is assumed that the many similarities shared by peers from the same ethnicity, such as social status, language, or socialization background (Maharaj & Connolly, 1994), reduce the likelihood of conflicts in same-ethnic friendships and thus increase the long-term stability of such friendships (Schneider, Dixon, & Udvari, 2007). However, in modern societies with increasing migration between countries, individuals from various ethnic and cultural backgrounds live together and thus inter-ethnic friendships are perceived as benchmark in efforts to improve inter-group relations, as they can reduce discrimination and prejudice (Aboud, Mendelson, & Purdy, 2003).

Especially for immigrants the contact to peers outside and inside their ethnic community can be assumed to be beneficial, as friendships are expected to serve different functions depending on the ethnic origin of the friends (Bochner, McLeod, & Lin, 1977; Horenczyk & Tatar, 1998). Whereas same-ethnic peers were found to be helpful in the affirmation of cultural origin and may be better in providing emotional support during the transition from one culture to another, peers from the receiving culture may be more instrumental and helpful for understanding the receiving culture’s values and behavioural norms (Bochner et al., 1977) and may reinforce socio-cultural adaptation.

According to Bochner et al.’s (1977) functional model of friendships, new immigrants need access to information to successfully adapt to the new society, which is best provided by natives. The aim of the current study was to longitudinally investigate whether adolescents who have higher levels of inter-ethnic contact (i.e., have more native friends in their friendship network) also show fewer socio-cultural adaptation difficulties.
Diaspora Migration to Germany and Israel  
Our research question was investigated in a sample of Diaspora migrants, i.e., ethnic German repatriates in Germany and Russian Jewish migrants in Israel. These two are the two most well-known Diaspora migrant groups, although Diaspora migration exists in many other countries, such as Finland or Greece. Common for both groups studied is that they share ethnic, cultural, or religious roots with the country of settlement, but had lived in countries of the former Soviet Union for generations and could only emigrate after the fall of the Iron Curtain. These adolescents enter the new country with hardly any language competences (ethnic Germans were, for example, forbidden to speak German in public). Thus, despite common ancestry, both immigrant groups studied here were found to face adjustment problems similar to other immigrant groups, such as discrimination or language problems (Titzmann, Silbereisen, Mesch, & Schmitt-Rodermund, in press).

We included both groups in this study in order to examine whether the functional model of friendships holds for Diaspora immigrants to Germany and Israel alike. Earlier studies revealed that Diaspora migrant adolescents, as other immigrant groups, prefer intra-ethnic over inter-ethnic contacts (Titzmann, Silbereisen, & Mesch, 2010). The commonalities between these two groups are striking (Shuval, 1998): Examples are the Diaspora-migrant background in the former Soviet Union, the equal political support of this kind of migration (Shuval, 1998), and the similar adaptation processes found among adolescents of these groups (Titzmann et al., 2010).

Hypotheses
Based on the functional friendship model mentioned earlier (Bochner et al., 1977), we predicted that a higher share of native friends in the network would increase socio-cultural knowledge and thus would reduce the frequency with which daily hassles related to difficulties in socio-cultural adaptation are experienced. Such hassles include, for instance, that immigrants are unsure whether the way they behave in a certain situation is appropriate or not.

Three hypotheses were tested. First, initial levels of the share of native friends relate negatively to initial levels of socio-cultural hassles. Second, changes in the share of native friends relate negatively to changes in socio-cultural hassles, e.g., an increase in the share of native friends should be associated with a decrease in socio-cultural hassles. Third, because of the similarities between the migrant groups and the receiving contexts discussed earlier, and because the assumptions made by Bochner et al.’s (1977) functional friendship model are general and not group-specific, we assumed the processes of adaptation to be similar, even if the groups may differ in mean levels on some variables studied. Thus, we expected the associations between the share of native friends among all friends and socio-cultural hassles to be equal in both countries for the intercepts and the slopes.

Assessing Immigrants’ Friendships and Socio-cultural Adaptation
Data for this study are part of the longitudinal project “The Impact of Social and Cultural Adaptation of Juvenile Immigrants from the former Soviet Union in Israel and Germany on Delinquency and Deviant Behavior”, funded by the German-Israeli Project Cooperation (DIP C.4.1.). In the initial year 2003, about 1,400 participants in each immigrant group (ethnic German immigrants in Germany and Russian Jewish adolescent immigrants in Israel) participated in the study and were invited to participate again in two more annual waves. The questions were given in German/Hebrew and Russian. The comparability of the language versions was ensured by various pretests and in cooperation with a reputed German field organization. Both groups were comparable in age: ethnic Germans were about 16.1 years, Russian Jewish adolescents about 15.6 years old. In both countries the data collection took place in urban areas (for more information see Titzmann et al., in press). For the current study, a subsample was drawn which included only adolescents from the former Soviet Union (ethnic German immigrants also came from Poland or Romania, but were found to differ in their adjustment; Schmitt-Rodermund & Silbereisen, 2004). Furthermore, our sample selection was based on length of residence (less than 8 years in the new country), and participation in at least two out of the three assessments. These criteria resulted in a sample of 358 ethnic German adolescents in Germany and 877 Russian Jewish adolescents in Israel.

For measuring the share of native friends in the friendship network, we asked each participant how many of their friends were ethnic German/Russian Jewish and how many were natives. We then calculated for each adolescent the share of native friends among all friends, which varied between 0 and 100 percent.

Perceived socio-cultural hassles were assessed using 7 items, for example ‘I was together with natives and did not know how to behave’. Adolescents rated how often they experienced each situation during the last 12 months on a five point Likert scale ranging from 1 (‘never’) to 5 (‘more than 10 times’). This scale showed sufficient reliability with an alpha consistency varying between .70 and .77 depending on the wave of measurement. Measurement equivalence across groups and waves was tested using structural equation models with equality constraints. The change in model fit between the unconstrained and the constrained models (measurement weights set to be equal across groups and time points) was smaller than CFI < .01, which indicates similar measurement weight across time points and groups, according to Cheung and Rensvold (2002). All analyses were performed using AMOS (Arbuckle, 2006). In order to validate our measure, we tested whether socio-cultural hassles correlated with depressive symptoms (Achenbach, 1991). This association can be expected to be significant, because socio-cultural hassles are stressors that should impair the subjective well-being of adolescents (Petersen, Sarigiani, & Kennedy, 1991). Results supported this assumption revealing significant associations ranging from $r = .26 (p < .01)$ to $r = .35 (p < .01)$ depending on immigrant group and time point.

Associations of Inter-ethnic Friendships and Socio-cultural Adaptation
In order to test our hypothesis that a higher share of native friends is related to fewer socio-cultural adaptation hassles among Diaspora migrants, we used latent growth curve
modelling (Ferrer & McArdle, 2003). The modelling strategy included two interrelated growth curves. The first was set up to estimate intercept (initial level at first assessment) and slope (rate of change over the three measurement points) in the share of native friends for each person. The second estimated intercept and slope for socio-cultural hassles for each person. The slopes in both models were assessed unconditionally (without the assumption of linearity), as we had no assumption for linear increases or decreases over a rather long period of two years. In both models, the respective manifest variables (share of native friends and socio-cultural hassles) across time points represented the basis for this estimation and both models were controlled for age and length of residence.

In order to assess our predictions from Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 we estimated the co-variation of intercepts and slopes of both variables. Differences between Germany and Israel were examined by including equality constraints on the parameters of interest to test Hypothesis 3.

As shown in Figure 1, the growth curve models indicated lower initial shares of native friends and higher initial levels of socio-cultural hassles among immigrants in Israel as compared to those in Germany. With regard to the slopes, we found in both samples significant increases over the three years of the study for the share of native friends and decreases in socio-cultural hassles. There was substantial variation in slopes and intercepts for both variables. However, whereas both groups differed in the initial levels of both variables, the rates of change were similar. As is usual for growth curves, slope and intercept of each variable studied correlated negatively in both samples, which can be explained by the fact that those who start high or low are more likely to decrease or increase respectively.

The levels of the share of native friends and perceived socio-cultural hassles correlated significantly (Germany: $r = -0.16$, $p < .01$; Israel: $r = -0.12$, $p < .001$) and thus, our first hypothesis was supported by the data. Adolescents who reported a higher share of native adolescent friends at first assessment also reported fewer socio-cultural hassles at this time point. For the assumed associations in rates of change according to Hypothesis 2, the associations also reached significance in each country (Germany: $r = -0.11$, $p < .05$; Israel: $r = -0.07$, $p < .05$). Therefore Hypothesis 2 was also supported by the data.

For testing the third hypothesis (a similar strength of association between both samples), we constrained the associations in levels and slopes to be equal across both samples and tested for changes in model fit via chi square. As expected, neither the associations for the level (Chi-square $= 1.21$, $p = .27$) nor for the slope (Chi-square $= 0.19$, $p = .66$) differed significantly between both immigrant groups.

### Conclusions

This study aimed at testing whether friendships with natives would be associated with better socio-cultural adjustment and thus fewer perceived socio-cultural hassles as suggested by the functional model of friendships (Bochner et al., 1977). The data provide evidence for this assumption. In both immigrant groups and for the intercept as well as the slope the expected negative associations were found. Furthermore, the strength of association did not vary across the two immigrant groups studied. Thus, the functional model of friendships, at least with regard to the expected benefits from having native friends, can be applied in various contexts also with Diaspora migrants.
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ties for the successful adaptation of immigrants. The integration of such knowledge from various studies into psychological programs focusing on the integration of immigrants can be expected to yield valuable opportunities for the successful adaptation of immigrants.

Implications

What are the implications of this research, for instance for designing programs that foster the adaptation of immigrants? Certainly, in line with research reported earlier, our results suggest that the instability of inter-ethnic friendships seems to be beneficial for socio-cultural adaptation and should be promoted. This positive view should, however, not be mistaken as a derogation of intra-ethnic friendships, which can be assumed to serve other functions for immigrant adolescents, such as helping in forming an identity or in coping with the transition to a new country (Bochner et al., 1977). Therefore, programs need to foster positive bonds to both intra-ethnic and inter-ethnic peers. Furthermore, although friendships between natives and immigrants should be reinforced, the timing of such contact needs to be considered, as early contact (shortly after arrival) may overburden immigrants and can result in lower levels of psychological adjustment (Silbereisen & Schmitt-Rodermund, 2000). A final consideration is how inter-ethnic contact can be reinforced. Existing research suggests that variables related to similarity between natives and immigrants, such as a similar language (Titzmann et al., 2010), and contact conditions, such as an equal status between immigrants and natives and support from authorities (Pettingrew & Tropp, 2000), may be successful in instigating inter-ethnic friendships. The integration of such knowledge from various studies into psychological programs focusing on the integration of immigrants can be expected to yield valuable opportunities for the successful adaptation of immigrants.

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References


COMMENTARY: Conceptualizations and social reality

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Youngsters of many migrant and minority groups are perceived to be characterized by problematic social indicators, such as high rates of school drop-out, unemployment and antisocial behavior. Can research on migration and acculturation, as represented by the four lead articles in this Bulletin, be of help in addressing and resolving such problems? Or is this perhaps the wrong question to ask?

The first of the four articles addresses migration, the international long-term and permanent movement of people. Using the case of Australia, Hugo draws attention to an important change in traditional patterns of migration. Becoming a migrant used to imply that you left everything behind: your friends and acquaintances, the environment in which you could move around with confidence, and often all or most members of your close family. With the expansion of international travel in the second half of the 20th century, permanent migrants began to return to their country of origin much more frequently, especially for vacation and to reinforce cultural and family ties, and in turn they were visited in the new country by their relatives. The much greater scope for travel has facilitated another trend, namely non-permanent migration, mostly for the purpose of contract employment, and mostly from low-income to high income countries.

Hugo captures the consequences of these changes in patterns of migration using three terms: circularity, reciprocity and return. The increasing contacts lead to a complex network of interactions. Potentially this amounts to a flow of ideas, goods and people with possible benefits of permanent and temporary migration for both origin and destination countries. Hugo specifically refers to policies that facilitate positive impacts and reduce negative effects with a focus on economic aspects.

The three remaining lead articles deal with psychological and social consequences of migration. Acculturation refers to changes in behavior patterns of groups of individuals that come into regular contact. Such changes can be spontaneous, but they can also be imposed, with the dominant group(s) in a society dictating norms and rules. The unequal status of groups implies that individuals belonging to non-dominant groups are seen either as guests who should respect the standards of the hosts, or even as intruders who disrupt the social order and make unjustified claims to social benefits and entitlements, such as school education and national health insurance schemes.

Berry summarizes his well-known framework of four acculturation strategies. In his earlier writing the emphasis was on the choices made by acculturating groups. Later on, four complementary strategies were added, representing possible choices by the larger society (see also Bourhis, Moise, Perreault, & Senecal, 1997). Of numerous studies, most have pointed to integration as the strategy leading to the most favorable outcomes. This implies a critique of assimilation, the most widely espoused ideal of acculturation, articulated in the USA in the notion of the “melting pot” where the groups making up a society are cooked together to form culturally a homogeneous stew. Instead Berry has advocated the ideal of multiculturalism, in which groups are encouraged to retain their heritage identity.

This work has been criticized for reducing complex realities to simple schemes. For example, in the Netherlands adjustment to Dutch culture was emphasized by Dutch-Turkish respondents more in the public sphere and maintenance of Turkish culture more in the private sphere, pointing to domain specificity of acculturation strategies (Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver, 2003). While detracting from the implied homogeneity of the acculturation process in the original framework, this research makes use of the earlier conceptualizations rather than rejecting these beforehand. More important, it adds to an understanding of discrepancies in views between migrants and the Dutch majority. The latter group does not differentiate between the private and public sphere and has a higher preference for migrants to assimilate.

In their contribution Stuart, Ward and Adam emphasize a developmental perspective. For their target group, Muslim youngsters in New Zealand, they counter the widely held presumption that psychosocial development
of adolescents faced with conflicting cultural demands will result in more adjustment problems. Instead they point to protective factors within the group, which help members to achieve positive identity formation and resilience. These positive outcomes among immigrant youth, which also have been reported elsewhere (Dimitrova, & Chasiotis, 2010), lead Stuart et al. to question the popular “deficit” views on minorities mentioned in the first paragraph.

Stuart et al. make use of interview and focus groups, and of expressive (projective) methods that are more interpretative or qualitative than the survey methods used mostly by Berry and his colleagues. Recently, Ward and Kagitcibasi (2010) edited a special issue of the International Journal of Intercultural Relations in reply to Chirkov (2009) who questioned the practical use of the bulk of acculturation research. Most articles in that issue used methods allowing, and encouraging, members of a target group to speak for themselves. Thus, the current article by Stuart et al. can be said to fit a broader trend, both methodologically and conceptually. Methodologically, the field of cross-cultural psychology, where most behavioral research on acculturation has originated, is beginning to acknowledge the need for mixed methods, combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. Conceptually the active involvement of client groups is becoming a hallmark of social intervention programs. Clients are to be treated not as passive recipients, but as active agents capable of setting and realizing their own goals (Sen, 2000; Pick & Sirkin, 2010).

Titzmann, Michel, and Silbereisen examine the significance of one specific factor in the sociocultural adaptation of a rather specific kind of minority, diaspora migrants. The study demonstrates in two settings that having friends from the dominant community is likely to have a positive effect, even though such friendships are only one factor in the complex web of acculturation processes. The paper is solid empirically and methodologically and shows the advantage that returning diaspora youth in both Israel and Germany gain from friendships with natives. The question asked in this study is well defined and the authors used a longitudinal design and sophisticated analysis techniques. They can be said to provide one solid building block of the many that are needed to gain comprehensive knowledge and insight into acculturation phenomena.

At the beginning of this comment two questions were posed. The first was whether research on acculturation has relevance for youngsters from acculturating groups. There is something to be said for both a positive and a negative answer. Researchers tend to focus on the answers they are able to give for questions that they happen to have examined. From this perspective a lot has been learned about acculturation in recent decades. However, a concrete problem of an acculturating individual or group with which a professional practitioner is confronted may well present itself as a more or less open problem space; first it has to be decided what information is needed before one can even begin searching for relevant research findings. From this perspective research-based knowledge on acculturation is likely to appear scattered and piecemeal. The best answer probably lies somewhere in the middle. There are few acculturation-related issues for which a complete answer is readily available; but on the basis of available knowledge it should be possible to narrow down the range of plausible solutions. From this perspective the three lead articles on acculturation are contributions to a growing fund of knowledge.

The second question raised in the opening paragraph was whether the first was the right question to ask. At the time of writing French president Sarkozy is forcing Roma to return to Romania; “democratic” Dutch political parties are negotiating to form a government with an anti-Islam party that attracted 15.5% of the vote in parliamentary elections; the Arizona government continues to press for discriminatory measures against Latin Americans, and Al Jazeera is reporting brutal Israeli action against an illegal Bedouin settlement in the Negev, rather than against one of the numerous illegal Jewish settlements on the West Bank. The actions described are current manifestations of ongoing processes in which dominant groups feel challenged by minorities and minorities feel misrecognized in the pursuit of their way of life. The rising demands for cultural / ethnic / religious homogeneity in several countries suggest decreasing acceptance of diversity.

For some reason psychologists focus on minorities rather than on the dominant forces in a society (to which they usually belong themselves), while in all of the examples just mentioned the adverse course of action by authorities on behalf of the dominant group makes it clear that evidence from the behavioral and social sciences is being ignored. In the article on demographic trends in migration Hugo argues for the potential contribution of migration for national development. Perhaps the most outstanding example from psychology on how intergroup relations can be improved is inspired by Allport’s (1954) contact hypothesis. Based on a meta-analysis of more than 500 studies, Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) showed that intergroup contact typically reduces intergroup prejudice in a society. Unfortunately, to the best of my knowledge there are no countries in which these findings have been incorporated into the public discourse.

The lead contributions in this Bulletin allude to the larger society, but their main focus is on minority and migrant groups. Acculturation research can be said to have contributed important insights about the adjustment of migrant and minority groups, but perhaps the role of dominant groups in a society should be taken into account more explicitly. The first article shows that for members of the dominant society, getting to know and understand the migrants in their midst makes sense not only from a social but also from a long-term economic perspective.

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**COMMENTARY: The Benefits and Challenges of Belonging**

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Traditional notions of the acculturation of immigrants emphasized the inevitability and desirability of the foreign born shedding their old ways and adopting the values and practices of their new societies. There are multiple sources of these notions. Historically, the difficulty of travel and communication between distant countries created a clearer barrier between the old and the new. Multiple ocean crossings between continents were a luxury of only the very wealthy and the move to a new land was a definitive change in life for the majority of immigrants. Practically, learning the tools and norms of the new society – such as language or commercial practices – was necessary for establishing a foothold in the economy. Finally, many host nations pursued active and aggressive policies of assimilation, creating a clear division between the old ways and those of the new society that immigrants were pressed to adopt. Although these traditional notions of acculturation developed largely in response to adult immigration, they were naturally extended to their children because the youngsters would be growing up in the new society and more easily adapt to the new language, culture, and world view.

The articles presented in this special section are consistent with recent work on the children from immigrant families that challenges these traditional notions of acculturation. Acculturation is not an “either/or” question. In fact, immigration itself may no longer be an “either/or” question in the modern age of easier world-wide travel and communication. Hugo’s analyses of the movements of individuals in and out of Australia highlights the great frequency with which many immigrants move back and forth across borders, whether for business or family reasons. Even establishing a home in a new society no longer suggests a permanent severance of ties with the old country. Children are affected by this seemingly new approach to immigration. Rather than having to decide between old and new, the children of immigrants pick and choose between aspects of their families’ native cultures and combine them with features of the new society. As Berry describes in his summary of work with both adults and youth, the most common and most advantageous approach is to simultaneously have orientations to both the family’s native culture and the culture of the receiving society. The Muslim adolescents in New Zealand studied by Stuart, Ward, and Adam seek a sense of “balance” between the expectations of their religion and family culture and the demands of being a teenager in a Western, Christian-oriented society.

Although preferred, this sense of balance is not easily achieved. The contemporary tensions between fundamentalist Islamic movements and the Western world create stereotypes for the Muslim youth to overcome, making it more difficult for them to become New Zealanders even if they want to pursue that goal. Similarly, Berry reports that discrimination is reported by immigrant youth in a variety of host societies and presents one of the most significant challenges to their successful psychological and sociocultural development. The mixed messages presented by many host societies to their immigrants are easily picked up by these children, who find it difficult to please everyone as they attempt to become good members of their families and new home countries. These challenges make it even more remarkable that many adolescents from immigrant families show portraits of psychological and behavioral adjustment that rival or even surpass those of their native-born peers (Fuligni, 1998).

A key way to achieve the balance sought by children from immigrant families is to establish some kind of connection to peers who can serve as guides to the new society. Titzmann, Michel, and Silbereisen nicely show the importance of inter-ethnic friendships for the psychocultural adaptation of teenagers from immigrant families. Those with native-born friends had fewer difficulties and felt a greater comfort in negotiating situations in the new society. These findings were observed in two very different receiving nations, Germany and Israel. Although perhaps not surprising, these results are powerful in showing the importance of cultivating social relationships across immigrant and native-born youth. The trend for these inter-ethnic relationships to increase over the years of adolescence is encouraging and suggests that despite the discrimination these teens face, time in the new country is associated with increased opportunities for critical relationships with native-born members of the host society.

In addition to the theme of integrating the old and the new, these articles highlight the critical importance of a sense of belonging for the adaptation of children from immigrant families. One of the key tasks of the adolescent period, developing a sense of being a valued part of a larger social group is arguably a particularly difficult challenge for those in immigrant families. Not only do these teenagers deal with the normative need to become integrated into peer groups, they also face the need to become integrated into the larger host society. The seemingly advantageous pattern of integrating an attachment to the family’s culture of origin with a positive orientation to the host society brings to mind the pattern of findings from social development that suggests that a close attachment to parents and family actually facilitates better peer relationships. High levels of autonomy and independence from parents, in contrast, are not predictive of better integration with peers and actually portend difficulties with psychological and
behavioral adaptation. Perhaps the same is true for the sociocultural adaptation of children from immigrant families. That is, a strong connection to the family’s cultural orientation may provide these children with the psychological strength and sense of purpose that enable them to successfully approach the challenges of adapting to a new and different society.

A primary focus of the research conducted by our research group over the past several years has been on how adolescents’ identifications with their families and cultural backgrounds shape their psychological, behavioral, and educational adjustment. There have been two major findings from this body of work that bear upon the findings discussed by the articles in this special section. First, like other ethnic minority teenagers, minority adolescents in American society identify with their families and cultural backgrounds more strongly than do their peers from white, European American backgrounds who represent the majority group in the United States. Second, these identifications with their families and cultural backgrounds are associated with a sense of purpose and motivation to try to overcome the many challenges they face to their successful adaptation in American society.

Consistent with an extensive body of research on African Americans, our studies with families from Asian and Latin American backgrounds suggest that these teenagers have a strong sense of ethnic and cultural identity (Fuligni, Witkow, & Garcia, 2005). They report feeling a greater sense of attachment to their ethnic and cultural groups and report that their ethnic and cultural background is a central part of their larger identities. When asked to indicate the ethnic labels that describe them best, those from Asian and Latin American backgrounds choose multiple labels ranging from those that refer to national origin (e.g., Chinese), to those that refer to American ethnic categories (e.g., Asian), to those that reflect more of an integration of their cultural background and American society (e.g., Chinese American, Asian American). Interestingly, most adolescents hold these multiple identities simultaneously, highlighting both their efforts and their need to be flexible across ethnic categories. Foreign-born teenagers are more likely to include national-origin labels in their repertoire than are American-born adolescents of the same ethnic background, highlighting the continued importance of birthplace for the process of ethnic and cultural identity.

Similar to cultural and ethnic identity, adolescents’ from immigrant families hold a strong sense of identification with their families of origin. We have focused particularly on a specific feature of family identification that implies adolescents have an obligation to support, assist, and respect the authority of their families. Adolescents from Asian and Latin American backgrounds consistently report a stronger sense of family obligation than do their peers from European American backgrounds (Hardway & Fuligni, 2006). This sense of obligation remains strong across different generation of immigrants, and the foreign-born youth spend more time helping their families on a daily basis and provide more financial assistance to their parents than do those from American-born families of the same ethnic background (Fuligni & Pedersen, 2002).

These connections to culture, ethnicity, and family consistently predict higher levels of well being, purpose, and motivation among adolescents from Asian and Latin American backgrounds. For example, a stronger level of ethnic identity and family obligation is linked to higher positive psychological well being (Fuligni & Pedersen, 2002). Ethnic identity even allows adolescents to maintain positivity in the face of greater anxiety due to the demands and stresses of daily life (Kiang, Yip, Gonzales-Backen, Witkow, & Fuligni, 2006). Ethnic, cultural, and family identification are also linked to higher levels of academic motivation and a greater belief in the importance and usefulness of education (Fuligni & Tseng, 1999; Fuligni, et al., 2005). Interestingly, these identities appear to help those from Asian and Latin American backgrounds to maintain the higher level of academic motivation that they need to have in order to achieve the same level of academic success as their peers from European American backgrounds. In general, identification with family and culture works similarly for both foreign-born and American-born Asian and Latin American adolescents, highlighting the important influence of both immigrant and ethnic minority status for those from immigrant families.

Despite the desire of adolescents from immigrant families to retain an identification with their family and culture and the seemingly positive effects of doing so, the process is not easy for these teenagers. As the Muslim students told Stuart, Adam, and Ward, maintaining a positive cultural and family identification can be very difficult in a society with very different cultural, social, and religious norms. In our own research, students from immigrant families consistently report the challenges of being a visible minority in American society that holds stereotypes about Asian and Latin American families and cultures (Huynh & Fuligni, in press). Although a sense of obligation to the family provides the teenagers with a sense of purpose and motivation, the very real need to help the family can be stressful and interfere with their desire to socialize with friends, attend parties, and engage in other activities typical of American teenagers (Fuligni, in press).

Wanting the best of both worlds, adolescents from immigrant families constantly try to negotiate the demands of their families, cultures, and host societies. As suggested by Berry, many teenagers successfully manage this process of integrating two worlds and show a remarkable level of adjustment. Yet other adolescents from immigrant families are undoubtedly less successful, despite their desire to achieve that sense of balance. What is missing from these articles and from the field as a whole is a clearer idea of the process of integrating the old and the new and the complexity with which adolescents from immigrant families negotiate the often competing demands of family, culture, and society. As nicely demonstrated by these articles, contemporary immigration is a story of constant traversing of boundaries, geographically, socially, and psychologically. We now know that adolescents from immigrant families do not simply choose one culture or another, and that they prefer to retain aspects of their family’s culture of origin that provide them with a sense of purpose and motivation to adapt to the norms and practices of their new societies and make them their own. Exactly how they engage in that process, and the implications for the evolution of both their native cultures and societies of origin, is perhaps the key question for the...
next generation of research on this growing and increasingly important population of children.

References
Identity Mapping: Methodological Implications for Studying Hyphenated Selves

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Identity negotiation is a process in which individuals construct their identity in context across various domains (Swann, 1987). This process is influenced not only by personal characteristics (e.g., religious or ethnic background) but social and political contexts (e.g., civil war or the events of 9/11 and its aftermath). For immigrant minority youth, identity development involves negotiating the hyphen between various social and cultural identifications (Berry, 1990; LaFromboise, Coleman, & Gertson, 1993; Suarez-Orozco, 2005). While the study of identity development among diverse youth has a long and intricate history in the social sciences, methods employed to explore such identities have been typically reserved to survey items and textual narratives extracted from interviews and focus groups. Identity mapping, or visual representations of one’s identities, is a non-textual alternative designed to expand not only the methods employed in such study, but also to carry theoretical implications for understanding hyphenated selves.

Sirin and Fine (Fine & Sirin 2007; Sirin & Fine, 2008; Sirin, et al., 2008) sketched the concept of hyphenated selves to frame a “theoretical and methodological program of research to interrogate . . . [how] youths living in bodies infused with global conflict, . . . actively make meaning, speak back and incorporate as they resist the shifting contradictory messages that swirl through them” (Fine & Sirin, 2007, p. 17). Drawing from significant scholarship on multiple identities (Deaux & Perkins, 2001), intersectionality (Crenshaw, 1991), transnationality (Schick, 2002) and hybridity (Bhabha, 1994), the researchers spotlighted the social psychological space between contentious political and cultural contexts and youth identities. Theoretically, the construct of hyphenated selves invites theorists and researchers to study youth identities in motion and formation, with contextual, historic, and personal specificity.

Mapping as a Method to Further Understand Hyphenated Identities

In our work with varied groups of youth in urban schools, diverse communities, and with Muslim-American teens (see Sirin & Fine, 2007), we have relied upon an old social psychological method – the personal “identity map.” While the prompts may vary depending on the research project – draw the city, your selves, safe and dangerous spaces in your life, a conflict in your life, your journey to your new country or into the future – across projects young people take the invitation to illustrate their many selves in their identity maps. With the Muslim American youth, we asked them simply to draw their selves (i.e., student, daughter/son, athlete, Muslim, American) the way they see it.

Variations of this projective method have psychoanalytic roots with D. W. Winnicott (1989) and have been applied by environmental psychologists (Lynch, 1960; Saarinen, 1973), radical geographers (Geiseking, 2007; Hart & Moore, 1973; Hart, 1981; Katz, 2004; Harvey, 2001; Gieseking, 2007) and social psychologists, most notably Stanley Milgram and Denise Jodelet (1976). Mapping’s sociological roots began with theorists such as Lynch (1960) who chose to study the city via the “mental image by citizens” (p. 2). Lynch examined the city through participants’ five senses in an attempt to understand the expressed meaning the city held for its citizens. While his objective was to create a composite map to direct urban planners and thus make a more enjoyable city, he was inadvertently using the idea of mapping as an expressive medium to explore personal attitudes and intrinsic meaning-making systems. Gieseking (2007) notes the practical implications of the methodology; “[mental mapping] offers a way to actually collapse time in memory to gain access to spatial memories forgotten from the outsider (and above the) perspective of adulthood” (p. 6). Milgram and Jodelet (1976) built on this method with over 200 participants in Paris. The researchers explain that the drawn maps were not accurate physical representations but rather a glimpse into the participants’ conceptions of the city they resided in.

Projective drawings have also been used by psychiatrists, psychologists, and art therapists to determine the inner personality mechanisms of their clients. These techniques are used to understand the subconscious issues beneath the drawings (Buck, 1948; Goodenough, 1926). Hammer (1997) asserts that the “drawing of the dynamic and familiar concepts of House, Tree, and Person, has been found to enhance the projection of the subject’s deepest fantasies, wishes, conflicts, fears, on conscious and unconscious levels” (p. 1). Some of the earliest references to mapping can be traced to Winnicott’s (1989) use of the “squiggle game” in his initial meetings with young clients as a way to break the ice, and gain insight to psychoanalytic processes. He used it not as a diagnostic technique but as an informal, unstructured, flexible medium by which he could attend to the themes that surfaced alongside interviews for the client.

These early methodologies have important repercussions for identity mapping with adolescents who live in intricate and often contested political, geographical, and national spaces. Our use of a “self” mapping technique is
an explicit attempt at spatializing identity(ies) and a creative way of asking participants to visualize their myriad facets of self. We were interested in the potential of identity maps as a tool to understand the multi-dimensionality of youth identities. Through the use of identity maps in concert with more conventional research methods, we are able to texturize the findings regarding adolescent identity development.

Identity Mapping as a Tool in Our Research

We first used identity mapping in our lab as part of a multimethod research project on Muslim youth (ages 12-18) in the U.S. post 9/11 (see Sirin & Fine, 2007; Sirin & Fine, 2008). This study was an initial pilot of identity mapping as a research tool and we soon discovered that such a strategy offered insight into the ways that young people negotiate both their Muslim and American identities. In a follow-up study with Muslim American adolescents and emerging adults (ages 19-28), we relied on a research design that could capture the layered complexity of youth growing up in politically contentious contexts to further investigate hyphenated identities (Sirin, et al., 2008; Zaal, Salah, & Fine, 2007). In addition to gathering quantitative survey data with standardized scales of collective self-esteem, discrimination and acculturation, and alongside focus groups and interviews, we gathered identity maps for all participants. Specifically, participants were provided with a blank page and drawing materials (including ink pens and colored markers) and a brief instruction:

Using the materials provided with this survey, please draw a map of your many ethnic, religious, and social identities. This should be an illustration of how you see yourself as a Muslim-American person. You are free to design the map as you wish. You can use drawings, colors, symbols, words…whatever you need to reflect your multiple selves.

We coded the maps relying upon a scoring protocol designed previously in our pilot work (Sirin & Fine, 2007). For the young adult cohort, the maps were analyzed by two independent raters on the degree to which they reflect an “integrated,” “parallel,” or “conflictual” matrix of identities. These three main themes emerged from our initial analysis. A map was coded by each rater as an “integrated identity” if the identities (e.g., Muslim and American) were portrayed as blended in a non-conflicting way. For instance, maps depicting general fluidity between religious and American identities were coded as “integrated.” A “parallel identity” code was assigned to maps where both identities were expressed is coded as “integrated.” A “parallel identity” code was assigned to maps where both identities were depicted as separate, (e.g., with a line passing through the middle of the page or as separate circles). Finally, a “conflictual identity” code was assigned to maps that represented tension, conflict, or irreconcilability of identities. The initial inter-rater agreement level for the two coders was 87%. The final identity category was decided only after the two coders reached full agreement level, which was achieved for all the maps in the study.

The identity maps in our study of Muslim American youth were foundational to learning about how youth construct their gendered, national, ethnic and personal identities. An analysis of the maps showed that participants embodied a sense of being at the hyphen of Muslim and American identities. Sixty-one percent of participants designed maps that displayed an “integrated” identity, 29% of the participants constructed maps that showed separation between their “Muslim” and “American” selves, and 11% drew maps that showed inherent conflict between their selves. We also found interesting differences across gender. Young Muslim women were more likely to have integrated identities than their male counterparts, and young men were more likely to have parallel identities. While 45% of men depicted parallel identities, only 17% of women did so, and 68.5% of women as opposed to 50% of men drew maps that represented integrated identities. Women also tended to have more conflictual identities: of the 10 identity maps that were coded as conflictual, eight were drawn by women.

In a third allied study, Hertz-Lazarowitz (our colleague in Israel) combined interviews and identity map methods at the University of Haifa, a social laboratory to study the lives of students from different national, religious, ethnic, and gender backgrounds as they shape hyphenated identities. Similar to our first study, participants created identity maps and were asked to describe what they chose to depict. Identity maps and written messages were then coded following the procedures specified in Sirin et al., (2008). Three types of map messages were defined: Integrated, if the hyphenated identities (at least two) were blended in a non-conflicted way. Separated/parallel if hyphenated identities (at least two) were separated or parallel. Conflicted if hyphenated identities (at least two) were depicted with high tension, rage and
intense conflict. The initial inter-rater agreement level was 90%. The coders achieved a 100% agreement level relating to the categorizations of the maps after the initial discussions. The maps and interviews together vividly portray the psychological work performed at the hyphen, where negotiations of language use, national allegiance, cultural distinctions, and gender roles all form intricate layers of identity and a quest for dialogue alongside frustration and conflict. We learned from the maps and the interviews the intimate significance of emotions; and the broad range of symbols included in the maps, which suggest that identity maps tap into the depth of youths’ identity narratives.

The last project with which we employed mapping is a longitudinal mixed-methods project, titled New York City Academic and Social Engagement Study (NYCASES). We used mapping in this study to understand how diverse
urban youth contend with precarious economic, racial, and social contexts, how they engage with peers and adults in school and out, and how they negotiate their identities over time. Five hundred and seventeen urban youth attending 15 New York City public high schools participated in three waves of data collection during the fall semesters of 10th to 12th grade of participants’ high school education (beginning in 2008). A subsample of 23 participants was selected based on their ethnic background and immigration-generation status to participate in semi-structured interviews, which also included a “learning map” in year one, and an “identity map” in year two.

The learning map task was conducted during semi-structured interviews where participants were asked to draw themselves trying to learn something new. We then used the drawing as a way to further probe about their learning styles, what/whostands in the way of their success, who/what encourages them, and their social context at school. Some drew maps where learning was a social activity full of encouragement and movement toward the future (see Figure 1); others showed layers of struggle and then triumph as they finally made it to the top (see Figure 2). In Figure 1, the participant narrated his map to us as part of the interview protocol. He explained that he was opening his door to the future where his friends and family were cheering and encouraging him to go further. The maps in concert with other qualitative and quantitative methods allowed us to look deeply at participants’ lives over time. The maps in concert with the interviews often enabled new deconstructive insights to emerge.

The Potential of Mapping as Methodology

Through our research, we have discovered the unique and powerful potential of mapping as a method that enables respondents to display not only their multiplicity of identities, but also the emotionality, politics, ambivalence and relationships attached to these varied identities (see Stuart, et al. (this issue) for another application of mapping). Most research on identity formation and on youth perceptions of injustice has been overly cognitive, and dependent upon text – in surveys or interviews – with only limited attention to the enormous amount of affective and relational material buried, or exploding, at the hyphen. Maps offer a creative dialogic moment (Mason, 2006) that can be juxtaposed to the survey items and interview/focus transcripts to thicken our understandings of multiple and hyphenated selves over time.

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#### Challenges of Research with Refugee Young People

From time to time, particular populations and particular research issues combine to challenge accepted approaches and methods in developmental research (e.g., political upheaval and technological advances). Refugee young people’s movements across borders, and movements deeper into the technological world confront assumptions about the effectiveness of standard research techniques for revealing the psychological processes of contemporary developing persons.

#### Making Connections between Research Tools and Refugee Research Participants

Research measures are imperfect tools that, at best, yield partial information about psychological phenomena. Researchers need to draw on techniques that assist research participants to actively express their thoughts and feelings. Recently, Schwarz (2009) demonstrated how standard measurement tools may not live up to researchers’ expectations of accurately reflecting psychological phenomena. After numerous refinements of his quality of life measures, Schwarz found that the reliably and validly generated scores did not yield the negative scores expected of clinical participants. Cancer patients, instead, could explain their positively skewed scores in plausible ways that defied attributing their positivity to measurement error. Scharwz was forced to admit there was no one-to-one correspondence between psychological measurement and psychological phenomena – “the toy within our playpen was broken” (p. 190). Rather than assuming one-to-one correspondences between research behaviors and psychological processes, it is productive for researchers to work with researchees to construct authentic and meaningful research information (Lawrence & Dodds, 2010).

This constructive approach to data generation is particularly important where researchees are from ethnic backgrounds, have been traumatized, and often have learnt not to trust people who appear to be in authority and who are asking personal questions (Goodnow, 2010, in press). Just as it is inappropriate to use measures designed for adults with children, so it is inappropriate to use measures designed for middle class American and European children with children who have crossed cultural and language borders to live in transit camps and new countries. Standardized questionnaires are not part of their worlds.

If we wish to understand these vulnerable young people’s developmental trajectories, adaptive competencies and goals, then developmental researchers need measures that are more closely aligned with children’s lived experiences and interests. We turned to computer-assisted techniques as one way to engage refugee young people to work on accessible and meaningful research tasks.

#### Using Computer-assisted Research Techniques

Regardless of their refugee or mainstream status, contemporary young people live in a world of technological possibilities. They acquire mobile phones and Face Book pages as soon as possible. They follow global trends in music and...
fashion. Most refugees, for example, arrive by plane with sports bags and faux Gucci and Nike accessories. Computerized research tools are as attractive and appropriate to them as to other children.

Our group uses two forms of technologically enhanced data construction: computer-assisted interviews and self-administered, on-line interactive programs. When using computer-assisted interviews, a researcher sits with the researchee to offer assistance and ask for explanations (e.g., by helping young participants to type their ideas into text boxes, by answering children’s side questions, or by prompting for clarification). When using self-administered, on-line techniques, the researcher gives researchees access to programs designed to dynamically structure and respond to their choices with well-sequenced, linked and branching tasks. Participants work in secure websites with instructions and practice tasks with feedback. They are invited to submit their data only if they feel comfortable. In schools, these self-administered programs are delivered in laboratories with two or more researchers to assist. Both forms of computer-assisted data collection give researcher and researchee flexibility and authenticity, with trade-offs related to complexity, control, and privacy (see de Leeuw, Hox & Kef, 2003).

We find these data collection programs provide refugee participants from elementary school levels and beyond with attractive and sensitive research environments, supporting their confidentiality, self-pacing and control, and confidence in their ability to express their meanings. They give researchers facility to present complex tasks (e.g., allow young people to build their own casts of family, friends and acquaintances so that they later can specify who helps them or makes things difficult for them; Figure 1). We randomize stimulus materials, and provide branching pathways and feedback. An added advantage is articulation and testing of assumptions and potential modes of presentation. Multiple language voice-overs and keyboard overlays are possible. In the computer-assisted interview, the interviewer can be an interpreter or counselor. In all programs, quantitative and qualitative data are immediately available for de-identification of personalized information and downloading.

Collaborations

Collaboration between researchers and service providers offers more than applied respectability and access to funding. Service providers and advocates for refugee groups have first-hand knowledge that informs stimulus tasks and appropriate modes of response (e.g., the cultural and experiential inappropriateness of asking refugee children about their birthdays or about the intricacies of supposed family relationships). This is especially so when young people are included as collaborators – a practice we have found as rewarding in the refinement and acceptance of materials as it is challenging of researcher assumptions. Another major source of collaboration is with designers, artists, animators and programmers who help turn research questions into engaging activities for young people. Iterative processes of story-boarding, design, creation, trialing and recreation challenge and test researchers’ assumptions. The additional time and effort incurred in consultations over stimulus materials and mode of presentation pays off with added authenticity, and with potential for direct feedback of research findings for intervention and advocacy.

Illustrative Projects

School-related Integration of Children from Somali Refugee Families. In collaboration with Mission Australia, a large NGO, we used computer-assisted interviews to address political concerns about the integration of the children of African refugees into the Australian school system (Dodds et al., 2010, in press). Children of Somali refugees were at two disadvantaged schools. We investigated their perceptions of their school-related skills and needs in comparison with those of their disadvantaged peers and advantaged children from a nearby school. All children readily responded to computer-assisted interviews that asked them to identify their school-related skills and needs.
The program gave children an appealing and simple way, with minimal reading, to choose between pairs of 13 randomly presented skills (Figure 2). Asking the children to choose their better skills avoided requiring them to describe themselves in negative terms. The children also rated randomly presented school needs using vertically presented and color-coded rating buttons and type-in boxes for explanations. These techniques revealed subtleties of Somali/local agreements (preferences for skills in computers and maths, rejection of skills in making speeches); and disagreements (Somali children's culture-related rejection of art and music).

In related studies, we ask elementary and high school children to identify their worlds, populate them with the people in their lives, and show who of these helped them towards their school-related goals and how (Figure 1). We also used these techniques to have children evaluate after-school programs run by Mission Australia, and we provided feedback on the children's evaluations, goals and school-related needs to them, their families and schools.

**Tracing Pathways through Education.** Abi Brooker is investigating the pathways through Australian education taken during and after initial language and orientation programs by adolescent and young adult refugees from Asia, Africa and the Middle East. Some students go on to high school, others into technical and university studies. Some modify their high achievement goals, diverting to more accessible courses. Some drop out, recycle into orientation programs or are lost to educational progress. Our data will provide new information about the environmental, social and personal factors that, in interaction, take refugee students along more and less productive pathways.

Self-administered on-line programs assist students to reflect on their challenges and opportunities, their goals, and their identification with their ethnic culture and the Australian culture. In one task, students construct personalized diagrams of their larger and smaller challenges and links between them. Achieving language and educational competencies are the most frequent challenges. Family and personal challenges are much less commonly identified.

We will follow one group of students with computer-assisted interviews after a UCAN2 orientation program of the Victorian Foundation for the Survivors of Torture (Foundation House), an organization that provides direct services, educational programs and advocacy for refugees. This three-wave mini-longitudinal study will trace changes in the challenges of these recent arrivals, together with their opportunities and goals through their first year in regular Australian high schools. We will also track their acculturation and enculturation experiences.

**Documenting and Tracing Mental Health Indicators for Refugee Children in Therapy.** Our latest project is in close collaboration with clinical psychologists working in direct services for traumatized children at Foundation House. Although Foundation House provides well-recognized individualized therapeutic counseling and advocacy, there are few measures suitable for identifying children’s psychological damage and recovery over time with therapy. Together, we are developing a set of computer-assisted interview modules that will allow young people to explore and express their psycho-social reactions to family dissolution, loss and confusion, and to express their own worry, guilt and multiple health and mental health needs. The programs currently being constructed allow children to inspect the lives of hypothetical refugee children and then to express their own experiences of similar issues. Animated illustrations of hypothetical children’s problems prompt questions about the child’s own circumstances (e.g., “Ali (Aya) is so worried about family members left behind in the old place that s/he can’t play with other kids. Do you ever feel so worried you can’t play?”). In therapy situations, clinicians will be able to use the computerized material as stimuli for follow-up questions as well as to document changes over time.

**Further Directions**

The usefulness of the technology is not simply its novelty value. It is historically appropriate. It facilitates the joint construction of research information by treating young researchees as active participants who can express their thoughts and feelings when researchers respect the complex perspectives that may lie behind and frame responses and present tasks that invite their considered contributions (Lawrence & Dodds, 2010). This approach can yield information that brings closer connections between young people’s psychological worlds and their research behaviors in relation to developmentalists’ research questions.

The computerized materials are not only being used with refugee young people. They have been used with children and adolescents with particular needs (e.g., about their experiences of giving witness in court, in response to illness and surgery). They successfully yield mixed methods information from university students. They have been made available with adaptations for use by colleagues through the Bridging Multiple Worlds Alliance (http://www.bridgingworlds.org). Rather than relying on broken toys (Schawrz, 2009), our group is actively working to build research environments where researcher and researchee together construct useable knowledge. Further information about our approach and our programs can be obtained from Jeanette Lawrence (lawrence@unimelb.edu.au).

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**Acculturation Gaps and Family Adjustment**

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A major issue confronted by immigrant children and their families is the acculturation gap that emerges between generations over time. For immigrants and refugees, contact with the new culture begins upon migration, and continues to impact their lives for many years and often into the next generations. Acculturation has been shown to occur at different rates for children and adults. As a result, acculturation gaps have been found to emerge between parents and children (Birman & Trickett, 2001; Szapocznik & Kurtines, 1980, 1993). A growing body of research suggests that such gaps are linked to family conflict and adjustment (e.g., Costigan & Dokis, 2006; Smokowski, Rose, & Bacallao, 2008). The conceptualization and measurement of acculturation gaps in research relies on the ways scholars conceptualize and study acculturation. In this article, we describe our approach to acculturation gap research that employs independent and multi-dimensional measures of acculturation to both the new and native cultures (Birman, 2006a; Birman, 2006b; Ho & Birman, 2010).

**An “Orthogonal” and Multi-dimensional Approach to Measuring Acculturation**

Our approach to acculturation research emphasizes the importance of independently assessing acculturation to the culture of origin and to the host culture because the two may be orthogonal (Oetting & Beauvais, 1990). In earlier research and in popular culture, acculturation has often been conceptualized as assimilation, a one-dimensional process where immigrants acquire the new culture as they shed their affiliation to the culture of origin. Thus, immigrants may either continue to retain their culture in a separatist or traditionalist stance or assimilate into the new society. However, this either/or approach has been much criticized for neglecting the possibility that acculturation to one culture does not necessarily negate acculturation to the other. Rather, a bicultural view (e.g., Berry, 1980) suggests that assimilation or separation are only two of four different acculturative options as immigrants may also choose to acculturate to both cultures, resulting in “integration” or biculturalism; or become disconnected from either culture, resulting in marginality. In the current literature, there are generally two different approaches to measuring acculturation to two cultures. The “four-fold paradigm” most often used by Berry and colleagues (e.g., Kwak & Berry, 2001) categorizes individuals as belonging to one of the four acculturative styles (assimilation, separation, integration/biculturalism, marginality). Such four-fold scales have been criticized for being problematic for statistical reasons (Rudmin & Ahmadzadeh, 2001) and because individuals’ acculturative styles may be more complex than the four categories suggest. Instead, we advocate assessing acculturation to the two cultures independently with continuous variables, and considering the main effects and interactions of the two acculturation dimensions in multivariate analyses. Using an independent measurement approach is particularly advantageous when more than two cultures are involved in the acculturation process, such as in the case of ethnic minorities from one society immigrating into another. For example, our research on multiple identities and behavioral involvement of former Soviet Jews resettled in the U.S. suggests the importance of accounting for all three cultures (Russian, American, and Jewish) in understanding their acculturative experience and the link between acculturation and adjustment (Persky & Birman, 2005; Birman, Persky, & Chan, 2010).

In addition to independent measurement of acculturation to each of the relevant cultures, we have advocated a multidimensional approach assessing distinct dimensions of acculturation (e.g., Birman & Trickett, 2001). As stipulated by theorists (e.g., Gordon, 1964), acculturation consists of different components, and they unfold at different rates over time. Language and behavioral acculturation occur immediately after immigrants arrive in the new country, as they struggle with communicating in the new language and adapting to behavioral norms and expectations in the new society. However, other aspects of cultural change such as identity or values are thought to come later, after the initial behavioral and language adjustments have been mastered. Despite such theorizing, most acculturation research has combined a range of different items into a single acculturation index, sometimes even including demographic markers such as generation of immigration along with behavioral items. Such undifferentiated indices are likely to disguise important patterns in the acculturation process.

In our research we have developed and employed the Language, Identity, and Behavior Scale (LIB, Birman &...
Trickett, 2001) to assess the ways in which these different components unfold. Language competence or proficiency has been raised as an important issue for adults as they acquire the new language, and for children who may struggle to retain proficiency in their native language. While many prior assessments of acculturation have focused on language use (e.g., Marin, G., Sabogal, Marin, B., Otero-Sabotal, & Perez-Stable, 1987), in our conceptualization, language competence refers to how well immigrants speak and understand their native and newly acquired language. These language skills then provide access for immigrants to participate in either or both communities. In contrast we view language use as a component of behavioral acculturation, or the extent to which immigrants engage with the host society and/or their immigrant/ethnic community. While research on newly arrived immigrants has largely employed behavioral acculturation measures, research on children of immigrants and ethnic minorities has emphasized identity, particularly ethnic identity (Phinney, Horenczky, Liebkind, & Vedder, 2001). Yet for immigrants, particularly adolescents, acculturation also involves identity issues, and we advocate including both components in its assessment (Birman, 1994). Identity refers to the extent to which immigrants consider themselves to be part of either or both culture(s) and hold a positive regard for either or both. Using an orthogonal two-dimensional assessment framework, the LIB thus measures identity, language, and behavioral acculturation with respect to both the native and the new host cultures.

Our research suggests that these different components of acculturation do unfold differently across generations and over time, depending on which domain of acculturation is considered. Language acculturation in our studies resembles “subtractive” (Gibson, 2005) assimilation for children, with English displacing the native language. However, this process appears to be additive or “adhesive” (Hurh & Kim, 1983) for adults. For example, in a study with former Soviet adolescents and parents resettled in the U.S. (Birman & Trickett, 2001), English language competence was strongly and positively correlated with length of time in the U.S. for adolescents, whereas Russian language competence showed a decline. For them English became the dominant language after approximately 4-5 years of residence in the U.S. It is important to note that the decline in native language competence in adolescents is not necessarily a result of “losing” their native language skills. Immigrant children have not fully developed in their native language as they begin schooling and learn increasingly complex academic material in the new language. As a result, their facility with their native language may stop advancing. Regardless, the language acculturation process for adolescents seemed to reflect rapid assimilation.

In contrast, for adults, Russian language competence did not diminish significantly with time in the U.S. (Birman & Trickett, 2001). While English language competence improved over time, though not as rapidly as for adolescents, Russian language competence remained dominant for the vast majority of adults (i.e., higher than their English language competence). Thus for adults, newly acquired English language skills were being added on to native (Russian) language skills. Importantly, acculturation gaps in the expected direction were evident for both languages, with adolescents being more competent in English, and parents in Russian.

Behavioral acculturation seemed to involve a similar but less rapid process. For adolescents, overall levels of American behavioral acculturation were higher than Russian levels, and over time as American behavioral acculturation increased, Russian behavioral acculturation declined. For parents, levels of Russian behavioral acculturation were higher on average than levels of American behavior, with gradual acquisition of American and decline of Russian behavioral acculturation over time. However, while as expected, adolescents were higher in American behavioral acculturation than parents, no gap in Russian behavioral acculturation was found between adolescents and parents (Birman & Trickett, 2001).

Finally, our work has found distinctive patterns of identity acculturation for adolescents. A gradual increase in identification with American culture was found for adolescents but not for adults, for whom the relationship between time in U.S. and American identity was not significant. At the same time, while there was a significant decrease in Russian identity for adults over time, this was not the case for adolescents. For them, Russian identity did not decline over time. In fact, adolescents were higher on Russian identity relative to adults (Birman & Trickett, 2001).

The implications of these findings for the acculturation gap literature are that differences in language competence between parents and children are likely to be the most dramatic of the three dimensions. Identity acculturation gaps may not operate as anticipated by the acculturation gap models. Thus, it is important to attend to these distinctions to understand what kinds of gaps may be harmful to families adjusting to life in a new culture.

**Studying the impact of acculturation gaps.** Our approach to measuring acculturation gaps is based on the LIB model. We advocate independent assessment of actual acculturation to the new and old culture, and along the domains of language, identity, and behavior. Studies that have used assimilationist either/or format acculturation measures to assess acculturation of parents and children (e.g., Schofield, Parke, Kim, & Coltrane, 2008; Crane, Ngai, Larson, & Hafen, 2005; and Pasch et al., 2006) may not be accurately capturing the acculturation discrepancies relevant for potential conflict. Such studies assess acculturation gaps by subtracting the parent’s assimilation score from the child’s. However, these measures would identify a gap in families where one family member is bicultural (and thus likely to score around the midpoint of the scale) and the other is assimilated or separatist (scoring on the high or low end of the scale). In fact, such a gap may not be problematic since bicultural individuals may be able to bridge cultural differences between the culture of origin and the host culture. This problem may account for lack of consistency in findings across these studies, where Schofield et al. (2008) and Crane et al. (2005) found evidence of acculturation gaps and links to family adjustment, but Pasch et al. (2006) did not.

Studies that use four-fold acculturation measures do take both cultures into account, but computing acculturation discrepancies using such measures can be overwhelmingly complex. Since each parent and child has 4
different scores (assimilation, separatism, biculturalism, marginality), 16 different possible combinations of these variables are possible, resulting in a complex design. Instead, most studies have grouped the parent-child pairs into those matched or mismatched on acculturative style (e.g., Farver et al., 2002). Such groupings would also consider a family where one member is bicultural and another assimilated or marginal to be “mismatched.”

Finally, independent acculturation measures offer greater complexity but also more flexibility for how to approach operationalization of the gaps. We have advocated employing an interaction approach, where both the main effects of the acculturation variables for the parent and the child, and their interaction are considered as predictors of family conflict (Birman, 2006a; Ho & Birman, 2010). In addition, Smokowski et al. (2008) considered how the interaction of parent acculturation to the culture of origin and the child’s acculturation to the American culture affected family cohesion and parent-adolescent conflict. This approach may be a useful tool for testing acculturation gap effects, as it yielded interesting results, predicting family conflict whereas other main effects and interaction variables had not.

Our Multidimensional Assessment of Acculturation Gaps

We have used the LIB in two studies of first generation immigrant adolescents and their parents. One included 115 adolescent-parent pairs of former Soviet Jewish immigrants (Birman, 2006a), and the other 104 pairs of Vietnamese immigrants (Ho & Birman, 2010).

Directions of the gaps. The two studies provide interesting insights into patterns of acculturation gaps between parents and their adolescent children in the two samples. To explore whether they occurred as expected, gaps were computed for each adolescent-family pair with respect to each of the six acculturation dimensions. For culture of origin (Vietnamese and Russian) dimensions, we subtracted the scores of the adolescents from the scores of the parents, anticipating that parents would be higher on those dimensions than their children. For the host culture (American) dimensions, we subtracted the scores of the parents from the scores of the adolescents, expecting the adolescents to score higher. In each case, we noted the presence of “unexpected” gaps, where the parents were higher than their children on American acculturation, or where children were higher than their parents were on native culture acculturation.

The acculturation gaps for both samples mostly occurred in the expected direction with respect to language acculturation, with a few exceptions. Parents reported greater English language competence than their children in 6% and 2% of the former Soviet and Vietnamese samples, respectively. There was 1 (0.5%) instance in the former Soviet sample where a child reported greater Russian language competence than the parent. 4

For American behavioral acculturation the frequency of unexpected gaps was also relatively low, with 6% of the former Soviet and 5% of the Vietnamese immigrant parents reporting higher scores than their children. The numbers of unexpected gaps were higher for former Soviet and Russian behavioral acculturation with 19% of the former Soviet and 14.4% of the Vietnamese adolescents scoring higher on behavioral acculturation to Russian and Vietnamese cultures, respectively. The numbers of “unexpected gaps” were particularly high for identity acculturation. Twenty-two percent of former Soviet parents and 28% of Vietnamese parents scored higher on American identity than their children; and 50% of former Soviet adolescents and 22% of Vietnamese adolescents scored higher on their Russian and Vietnamese identity, respectively, than their parents.

These findings suggest that the acculturation gaps do not always occur in the expected direction, depending on which dimension of acculturation is considered. While language competence gaps seem to occur largely as expected, a sizable number of adolescents seem to have acculturation gaps with their parents in “unexpected directions” where behavioral acculturation to their culture of origin, and both identities are concerned.

Importance of gaps in predicting family adjustment.

Our research has suggested the importance of acculturation gaps along some of the acculturation dimensions. Findings with both samples suggest the particular importance of native language competence for the adolescent children. For former Soviet adolescents, the main effect for their Russian language competence was that it significantly predicted parental reports of fewer disagreements. Similarly, adolescent Vietnamese language competence significantly predicted greater cohesion in the Vietnamese sample. Importantly, we were not able to assess the interaction effects of parents’ and children’s native language competence since there was little variability on the native language competence measure in the former Soviet sample, and we did not collect native language competence data for the Vietnamese parents. However, we feel these findings are in accord with other research (Luo & Weisman, 2000) where immigrant children’s native language competence was seen as particularly important in family adjustment. Perhaps because the native language is dominant in household communication, it is the child’s lack of competence in the native language (rather than the parents’ English language skills) that proved most important for family adjustment. The presence of these patterns across two different cultural samples suggests the potential robustness of the findings.

Another consistent finding across the two samples was the importance of gaps in identity. For the Vietnamese sample, the interaction of parent and adolescent Vietnamese identity significantly predicted both cohesion and satisfaction with parents as reported by adolescents. For the former Soviet sample, the interaction of parent and adolescent American identity significantly predicted parent report of family disagreements as well as adolescent report of family disagreements and conflict. In all of these cases, plotting the interactions revealed that both types of gaps contributed to problems in family adjustment. Given that in both samples a substantial portion of the gaps in identity occurred in “unexpected” directions, these findings confirm that where identity is concerned it is the discrepancy or “mismatch” between parents and adolescents that seems to be problematic for family adjustment, regardless of the specific direction of the gap.
Summary

Thus, our research program has affirmed the importance of native language maintenance for immigrant adolescents, and the negative impact of acculturative gaps in identity between parents and children. Our view is that the more nuanced measurement of acculturation, and operationalization of the gaps using an orthogonal and multi-domain approach yields more interpretable data, and suggests opportunities for intervention. For example, interventions that help immigrant children retain their native language proficiency may be particularly helpful in reducing family conflict in immigrant families. At the same time, family interventions designed to reduce acculturation gaps in families such as proposed by Szapocznik, Rio, Perez-Vidal, Kurtines, & Santisteban (1986) might best be focused on discussions of identity. Adult immigrants may have very different attitudes toward identification with the new and old cultures than their children. Parents, not children make the decision to immigrate. While adults may wish for their children to retain their native language and behavior, they may also wish for them to be open to assuming an American identity, and may see becoming a “real American” as the ultimate success of their children’s adjustment in immigration. Yet these children may resent their parents’ decision to immigrate, and when having trouble fitting in with American peers may reject their American identity and instead adopt a “reactive identification” with their native culture (Birman & Trickett, 2001). In other families, children may be more interested in becoming “American” than their parents wish for them. Family interventions that explore such different perspectives on native and American identity among parents and children may be helpful in generating greater empathy for each other’s stance, building cohesion, and resolving conflict.

Notes

1. Our work also draws attention to focusing on newly arriving immigrants because the construct of psychological acculturation is most applicable to their experience. Newly arriving immigrants are socialized or “enculturated” in their native culture, and then leave it to undergo an acculturative process in a new culture. However, for second-generation immigrants born in the new country, the point of contact or “exposure” to the new culture is difficult to establish. Their “enculturation” or socialization occurs within the context of the immigrant and the majority culture. Thus, for children of immigrants, defining the “culture of origin” and the “host culture” can be complicated. A number of studies of acculturation and acculturation gaps have focused on children of immigrants (Farver, Narang, & Bhadha, 2002) or have included both immigrants and non-immigrants in their samples (e.g., Smokowski et al., 2008).

2. We have struggled to arrive at a way to measure “values” as a component of acculturation, but thus far we have not found an appropriate or reliable way to develop a values scale that could be administered to immigrants from a variety of different cultures.

3. As we’ve argued elsewhere (Birman, 2006a), studies that assess actual gaps through independent assessment of acculturation of the parent and the child are preferable to those that assess perceived gaps from the perspective of either the parent or the child (Buki, Ma, Strom, R., & Strom, S., 2003; Lau et al., 2005). As demonstrated by Merali (2002) measures of perceived gaps may under- or over-estimate the actual gaps, and confound reports of acculturation disparity with perceptions of quality of family relationships.

4. We assumed perfect Vietnamese language fluency for parents, assigning them a score of “4”. Focus group participants suggested that asking about fluency in Vietnamese would be insulting to the adults. Further, in our multiple prior studies with adult refugees from the former Soviet Union we found almost no variability with respect to native language fluency with adults almost always marking “4” in response to every question.

References


Children at a Crossroads of Expectations: An Ethnographic Approach to Understanding the Experiences of Migrant Parents, Children and their Teachers as Newly Arrived Children Start School in Australia

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Currently, 1 in every 4 Australians was born overseas. Under the skilled and family reunion migration schemes, every year Australia receives 200,000 new immigrants from a wide range of countries (mostly European and Asian) and children migrating with their families make up a substantial proportion of them. Over a million Australian children (about 35% of all children under 15) live in migrant families, where one or both parents were born overseas. Of these children about a third were born overseas themselves, accounting for about 400,000.

In this study my research partner Dr. Jessica Casiro and I focused on the experiences of two language groups of recently arrived migrant children (Spanish-speaking from South America and Indonesian) as they started primary school in the new country. We wanted to explore the role that school plays in these children’s adjustment to the new cultural setting and how parents and teachers interplay in this process. Although studies of first generation migrant children have been common in other countries (Bak & von Bronmsen, 2010; Olwig, 2003; Orellana, Thorne, Chee, & Lam, 2001; C. Suárez-Orozco & M. Suárez-Orozco, 2001), they are still scarce in Australia (Dockett & Perry, 2005; Sanagavarapu & Perry, 2005) and only a few–in Australia and elsewhere–have delved into the social and psychological implications that the beginning of formal education in a foreign country can have in migrant children’s lives (Adams & Kirova, 2007; Beraldı, 2006; Devine, 2009).

The psychological burden of moving into a different culture can be considerable. For young children, who are at a crucial stage in the development of their identity and in forging a sense of belonging to a place and to a group, starting school in a new land where they cannot understand the language and are not acquainted with its cultural codes, can be very trying. As Laosa (1999) mentions, “there may be issues of loyalty to the group, intergenerational conflict, threats to one’s identity, the sheer difficulty of the task, the time and effort required, fear of failure, fear of rejection by one’s own group, feeling of ambivalence, and doubts about the worth of the outcome (e.g. the probability that even a transition will never lead to one’s full acceptance by the outgroup)” (Laosa, 1999, p. 357).
Methods

We decided this would be a qualitative study and planned the collection of data in two stages of six months each. The first stage consisted of ethnographic fieldwork, and the second one of semi-structured and in-depth interviews. In ethnography, an approach derived from anthropology and sociology, the researchers immerse themselves in the daily lives of the people under study and aim at becoming a familiar face for them so that the information flows in an open and unrestricted form. Ethnography has two interrelated purposes: to become involved in the culture or subculture the investigator is studying, and to strive to extract meaning from that—usually—unfamiliar reality. Ethnographers aim at grasping “the native’s point of view,” not through a mere process of empathy or of inner correspondence with the people in the culture being studied, but through a systematic procedure that entails thorough observation and detailed note-taking of the everyday use of language, behaviors, and habits of a particular group. The role of the ethnographer is to record these discrete and empirical components of their social worlds, infer the symbolic implications of such components, and based on these data, develop conceptual interpretations of the social life of that particular group. Clifford Geertz’s (1973) analogy between studying a culture and reading a text is illuminating. For him, doing ethnography is like reading a text, and studying a culture is like reading a book. All components of a book—word, chapters, images—are put together in order to achieve an understanding of the whole. Like a reader, the ethnographer is an interpreter of the culture he studies. Although ethnography is a slow, costly and time-consuming research approach, the interconnectedness and intimacy between researcher and subjects of study makes it a prime methodology for shedding light on different cultural and social worlds.

Conducting ethnography in a remote and self-contained village is, of course, different from doing it in a city as we did, where the group under study may be spread out, making the immersion of the ethnographer into their social worlds a bit less intensive and more challenging, but nevertheless worthwhile. During the ethnographic phase the researchers frequented the settings where newly arrived families gather, such as community centers, playgroups, religious meetings, and special events. On these occasions the researchers not only had the opportunity to meet newly arrived families, but also to interact with them informally, get a good understanding of their social realities and learn about their issues as new migrants in the country. The ethnographers’ prior familiarity and experience working with both migrant groups was undoubtedly an advantage.

During the ethnographic stage the researchers recruited 20 families (10 from each migrant group) along with children aged 5 to 8 born overseas all of whom showed a willingness to participate during the second stage of the project, and agreed to be interviewed. The second stage of the research consisted of interviewing the parents and children in these families, and the teachers of these children at their respective schools. The research team members were proficient in speaking both Spanish and Indonesian, and this was especially useful when interviewing the children, because while most adult migrants to Australia need to have a reasonable level of English in order to be eligible for the skilled migration scheme, their young children rarely come to the country with any knowledge of the English language.

Collecting data from three different groups (parents, children and teachers) on the same topic was an interesting but challenging endeavor. Formal and informal instances of data collection revolved around the topic of how migrant children experienced starting school in a new country. Not surprisingly, it was during the first stage of fieldwork that migrant families (parents and children) felt more comfortable discussing their recent experiences. Compared to formal interviews, an ethnographic approach allows for a more unstructured and relaxed collection of data, wherein the researcher interacts informally with the group and the information flows naturally, in part, perhaps, due to the avoidance of questionnaires and recorders. As mentioned above, during ethnography the investigator becomes a meticulous observer and detailed note-taker, while at the same time participating in the social life of the group under study. The term “participant observation” captures the essence of the ethnographer’s endeavour.

But the need for more specific information, the need to compare responses to the same questions, and the willingness to include teachers made the second stage a necessary component. In the end, however, planned interviews became interspersed with a prolonged stage of fieldwork, since the structured and formal instance of an interview made many informants within migrant families very restricted in their answers. This was particularly true for the children. Having the chance to interact informally with these same children beyond the context of the interview was very worthwhile, since it gave the researchers the opportunity to fill in gaps in their understanding of migrant children’s lives. Interviews with parents and with teachers were more successful. However, as in the case of children, the prolonged stage of fieldwork with migrant families enabled the researchers to deepen their relationship with these families, and have access to a richer source of discursive and observational data.

Findings

Starting school for the first time can be perplexing for any child, but for a recently arrived migrant child it can be especially daunting. Migrant children from a different language
and cultural background go through a double transition as they start school in a new country: they become pupils, but they also become migrants. They need to incorporate these two new statuses at the same time and this can be challenging for their evolving identities. Many of the interviewed children reported feeling scared during the first days of school in the new country, and very vulnerable as they were not able to understand their teachers or peers, and were unable to follow instructions. Some of them reported getting lost in the school and finding it very difficult to engage in play with other children. Most of them remembered traumatic episodes such as crying, falling or getting hurt, and not being able to communicate their problems or feelings. However, after these first difficult months, children reported feeling happy at school and making friends, and suggested to the interviewers that they would try to be part of the mainstream and erase their ethnic identifiers as much as possible. For example, they avoided taking typical foods to school, or speaking their native tongue when at school (and even asked their parents to avoid speaking it when in public).

The beginning of school in a new country can be similarly difficult for these children’s parents who are not only very unfamiliar with the schooling system in the new country and with what the school expects from them, but who are usually also very concerned about the social and psychological wellbeing of their children, who will have to immerse themselves for several hours each day in a foreign setting where they do not know anyone, nor understand the language or cultural codes. Despite the welcoming attitude of schools, most parents mentioned being worried about how their children would communicate their needs, and more importantly, whether they would be able to make friends and feel a part of a group. In addition, all parents found a big difference between the educational system of their home countries and Australia’s educational system, and acknowledged that this created a clash of expectations between what parents and schools wanted for their children. A very different relationship between families and schools as to what they were used to, exacerbated their disorientation, which was, of course, much more troublesome for those parents whose English language level was limited. Finally, many parents mentioned that as time went by, they struggled to make their children speak their language at home and maintain cultural values and habits.

For their part, most teachers also reported frustrations in dealing with recently arrived migrant families. The majority of teachers (mostly Anglo-Australian) were largely unacquainted with their newly arrived students’ cultures and languages, or their previous educational experiences in their home countries. The teachers also showed little reflection on how their own ethnicity and cultural background determine the way they appreciate and teach migrant students. The data collected from the teacher interviews suggest that although they try their best to assist recently arrived migrant children and to ease the gap between them and the rest of the classroom, their lack of specific knowledge about their migrant students’ backgrounds amounts to ingrained preconceptions and reduces their job to trying to homogenize differences. Although this is one of the unstated goals of public education, the “color blind” approach can jeopardize children’s sense of belonging and the development of their cultural identities at a crucial stage of their lives.

Analysis and Implications

Our analysis of the experiences recounted by the three different groups of participants suggests that children’s resilience following family migration has been overly assumed, and their vulnerabilities and struggles mostly ignored. We discovered that migrant children become entangled in a crossroads of expectations soon after they arrive in the country. Their teachers and parents expect them to do well in school and learn the language as well—and as fast—as possible. Their peers—responding to a particular socialization system—pressure them to assimilate into the mainstream and to discard strong ethnic identifiers. Two socialization systems interplay in the everyday lives of these children, the one that aims at transforming them into good Australian citizens operating at school, and the one that struggles to preserve their ethnic and cultural traits operating at home. Similarly, migrant children get caught in between two different educational models, the rigid and academically demanding one their parents experienced in their home countries, and which they therefore expect for their children, and the Australian approach which is more unstructured and focused on personal development and social competence. This dissonance can create confusion in these children, who often receive contradictory messages at home and at school. We see many of these migrant children transiting a liminal terrain, where they do not identify as Latin Americans, nor as Indonesians, nor as Australians, and where they find themselves crossing cultural boundaries and systems several times a day. Their identities fluctuate between binary opposites: modernity and tradition, the future and the past, sameness and difference—whether they like it or not. Further research is needed to understand the psycho-social implications for these children, and the impact these cross-cultural early experiences will have on their adult lives. Our research is a starting point suggesting that the issues of child resiliency in migration need to be thoroughly addressed.

References


Country Focus

Developmental Psychology in Lithuania

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Lithuania’s location at the crossroads between East and West Europe has resulted in its complicated and turbulent history. Over the centuries its geopolitical situation changed frequently. The state of Lithuania, founded in the 13th century, lost its independence several times and for long periods. In the 16th century, it united with Poland to form a commonwealth. During the partition of this commonwealth by Russia, Prussia and Austria in the 18th century, Lithuania was absorbed into the Russian empire. After the First World War, in 1918, the Lithuanian Council proclaimed the restoration of the Lithuanian state. However, the secret protocol of the Soviet-German frontier treaty in 1939 consigned the greater part of Lithuania to the Soviet sphere of influence and on 3 August 1940 Lithuania became a Soviet Socialist Republic of the USSR. On 11 March 1990 Lithuania re-established its independence, and a new stage in the life of the country began. Twenty years of independence, marked not only by strengthening statehood but also by the transition from a totalitarian to a democratic society and from a centrally planned to a market economy, have made great changes in the political, socio-economic, and cultural life of the country. Social, economic, and political developments also created new opportunities and new challenges for Lithuanian psychologists. Freed from former ideological dogmas, they were able to benefit from the experience of foreign colleagues, work on international research programs and join international organizations of psychologists (Bagdonas, Pociute, Rimkute, & Valickas, 2008).

During the last two decades human development in Lithuania has been studied mostly by psychologists at Vilnius University, Mykolas Romeris University, Vytautos Magnus University, Vilnius Pedagogical University and Klaipeda University. However, the vast majority of psychologists graduating from MA and PhD programs in Lithuania enter applied fields, choosing careers as clinical psychologists, school psychologists, counselors, personnel managers, etc. Thus, the Lithuanian psychological profession has a relatively small body of active researchers in child, adolescent, and adulthood development. Moreover, most psychologists in academia are rather heavily burdened by too many teaching hours. There are also no doctoral programs dedicated to research training in developmental psychology per se; i.e., PhD programs are run under the ‘umbrella’ of (general) Psychology. Thus, the study of human development is done by individual researchers or groups of researchers interested in one or another topic, which means that studies of human development in Lithuania are not done on a systematic basis.

Some topics are just at the starting phase of investigation, such as risk factors for cyber-bullying (in some reports, 36% of Lithuanian children are reported to be among the victims). Also, longitudinal studies on children abandoned due to parental migration for employment should be implemented. Population-level data on, for example, vulnerable child populations in Lithuania are mainly available due to multi-country international surveys, conducted in collaboration with local partners. For example, a comprehensive assessment of children’s well-being has been performed by UNICEF’s Innocenti Research Centre. This assessment measured and compared child well-being under six different dimensions: material well-being, health and safety, education, peer and family relationships, behaviors and risks, and young people’s own subjective sense of well-being (UNICEF Innocenti Report Card 7, 2007).

However, it’s worth mentioning some studies that have already contributed to the field of human development. One of very few longitudinal studies in Lithuania is the Lithuanian Longitudinal Research Program (LLS), analyzing risk and protective factors in the development of adjustment problems from childhood to adolescence (project leader: Rita Zukauskiene, Mykolas Romeris University). This longitudinal study was set up to examine the development of adjustment problems from childhood to adolescence, with special emphasis on risk and protective factors. The study is based on a holistic view of the development of individual adjustment problems. Therefore, the central question is how problems in different domains are interrelated, and what kinds of patterns of extrinsic maladjustment in childhood and adolescence exist. This implies that a variable approach is complemented by a person-oriented approach. Variable-oriented methods are used to get an overview of how the problems are related. Person-oriented methods are used to get an overview of how the problems come together in individuals to form syndromes (subtypes of adjustment problems), and examine the stability and change of these subtypes during certain periods. The longitudinal study program was initiated in the 1996/1997 school year and continued up to 2008. The first data collection included children from 14 primary and secondary schools. The sample is school-based, with children from particular classes recruited to the study. The selection of the schools was based on the attempt to include children into the study from different economic backgrounds, e.g. schools from different locations in Vilnius city and a few neighboring suburban areas; a few classes from the second largest city (Kaunas) were also selected. The original cluster consists of four age cohorts (from 7 to 11 years old). Additional cohorts of 11- and 12-year-old children were included in 2000 and 2001. The survey is carried out each year and information is collected about every child participating in the study. Overall, there are 1,148 children (597 boys and 551 girls) in the study, with varying success in data collection at different points in time. Information about each child is collected from four different sources – parents, teachers, peers, and children themselves. Multiple assessment
Additional questionnaires are filled in by each participating child only once at a certain time of the study: Sociometric measurements, OCA and peer evaluations for each child were collected at the first assessment (at the ages of 7-10); The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and SAQ were filled in at the age of 14; EMBU and YPI were completed at the age of 15; and NEO-FFI was done at the age of 17.

Currently, a new assessment of the sample is in the planning stage, in order to measure developmental outcomes in young adulthood, to be conducted in 2011. Research findings were presented to the international community in conference presentations and peer-reviewed publications (Malinauskienė & Žukauskienė, 2004, 2007; Sondaitė & Žukauskienė, 2004; Žukauskienė, 2004; Žukauskienė, Ignatavičienė, & Daukantaitė, 2003; Zdukauskienė & Žukauskienė, 2004, Žukauskienė & Malinauskienė, 2008; Žukauskienė, Pilkauskaitė-Valickienė, Malinauskienė, & Kratavičienė, 2004).

Researchers from Vilnius University are mostly conducting cross-sectional studies, exploring issues related to suicides, aiming to identify the main risk groups, and analyzing the social, cultural and psychological factors determining the high number of suicides in the country (Gailiūnienė, 1998; 2004, 2005). Kazlauskas and Gailiūnienė (2003, 2005) conducted studies evaluating the psychological and psychopathological consequences caused by the lasting traumas inflicted on the people by the Soviet occupation and repressions. Gintiliūnienė and Girdzijauskienė (2003) conducted a study with a focus on culture and children’s intelligence, addressing the cross-cultural analysis of the WISC-III. Bieliauskaite, Garckija, and Jusienė (2009) conducted a study on the psychological adjustment of children with bronchial asthma and its relation to parental conflicts and parental practices. In cross-sectional studies, researchers from Mykolas Romeris University analyze different aspects of human development. For example, Šilinskas and Žukauskienė (2004) investigated subjective well-being in a sample of Lithuanian men. Daukantaitė and Žukauskienė (2006), using cross-sectional and longitudinal data, analyzed Swedish and Lithuanian employed women’s subjective well-being. Barkauskiene (2005) investigated relationships between mothers’ expectations, feelings, and perceived support with emotional and behavioral problems in children with learning disabilities. Also, large-scale data collection on the emotional and behavioral problems of 7- to 18-year-old children and adolescents was performed by Žukauskienė and Kajokienė in 2004. In a number of international papers, research findings from this representative sample (N = 3,627) of Lithuanian children were presented (see, for example, Rescorla et al., 2007a, 2007b).

Researchers at Vytautas Magnus University have analyzed risk-taking behaviors (Endriulaitienė & Martišius, 2002, 2003) and conducted a longitudinal study of health behaviors, exploring the negative effects of alcohol, tobacco, and drugs on the health of people and society as well as the efficacy of preventive measures (Goštautas, 2004). Legkauskas and Jakovlevaitė (2005) conducted a cross-sectional study to assess the relationship between risky sex behaviors, aspects of ego-identity, and the quality
of relationships with friends and parents among freshman and sophomore high school students.

Currently, new studies are in the implementation phase, for example, a new longitudinal study that is a continuation of the previous LLS longitudinal study. Another short-term longitudinal study of positive youth development (PYD) by researchers from Mykolas Romeris University is in the implementation phase (Zukauskienė & Malinauskienė, 2009). This study addresses the mechanisms of promoting positive youth development in the context of socio-economic transformations (POSIDEV). The primary goal of this study is to examine and elucidate the mechanisms responsible for positive developmental outcomes in the context of socio-economic transformations during the transition from adolescence to young adulthood. Eastern Europe has experienced major socio-political and economic changes in the last two decades. The impact of these transitions on families, individuals and their functioning has been significant. In Lithuania, those who are now 16-24 years old were born and grew up during the Independence years. Thus, they experienced great changes in their immediate social environments, which included a mix of difficulties and uncertainties, as well as new possibilities. We aim to identify key factors influencing successful adjustment and functioning in emerging adulthood, and to offer guidelines for youth policy.

In summary, in the past twenty years Lithuanian researchers have expanded their studying of human development, and new findings are emerging. Our basic challenge as researchers is to systemize research and to build better collaboration between separate researchers and/or research groups.

References


Notes from The Past President

This is my last ISSBD newsletter (Bulletin) note. I want to conclude as I began – by thanking each of you who work tirelessly on behalf of this wonderful organization. I have really enjoyed working with all of you! We have accomplished a great deal together! Stepping back to review the goals I set, my vision for my presidency was to find ways for ISSBD to contribute to the work of each developmental scholar and member around the world. My primary objective for my Presidency was to identify a “stable core of committed members around the world, who are engaged in important and effective activities to advance the field of developmental science and to sustain ISSBD.” I further elaborated and developed specific goals in subsequent messages to the membership.

Here are some of the accomplishments of which I’m most proud:

(1) Expanding active engagement with the work of running ISSBD, through the creation of four major committees (Finance, Membership, Publications, Regional Workshops) and an expanded officer group with the division of the Treasurer/Membership Secretary role into two separate roles, to advance the work of both areas.

(2) Supporting young scholars, especially within the broader purpose of creating a vital, renewed group of human development researchers and ISSBD members.

(3) Thanks especially to Peter Smith for proposing and then managing the Developing Country Fellowships, involving mentored fellowships with research support.

(4) Thanks also to all the young scholars, and especially Zena Mello, as well as many senior scholars, for their energetic generation of ideas and concrete action to engage, advance, and support young scholars, who are the future of ISSBD.

(5) Special thanks to the wonderfully supportive funders who make these programs possible: the Jacobs Foundation for their very significant support this year (which was even greater than their important support through the years), the National Science Foundation (US), and the American Psychological Association.

(6) Reframing ISSBD membership guidelines to update the roles of regional coordinator, update fee structures, and target new member campaigns.

(7) Thanks especially to Ann Sanson, chair of the Membership Committee, together with the first Membership Secretary, Xinyin Chen.

(8) Thanks to the Executive Committee for approving the committees’ recommendations for a clear role description for the regional coordinator (a similar description was used in recruiting several additional coordinators); updating the membership fees to align with World Bank standards; and identifying several key areas and approaches for membership recruitment. The latter recommendations were just approved in July and can now be implemented by President Wolfgang Schneider.

(9) Studying regional workshops and other activities for the purpose of identifying the most effective ways for ISSBD to play a role in the active engagement of ISSBD members in human development research.

(10) Thanks especially to Suman Verma and Catherine Cooper for their excellent research on regional workshops, and their recommendations for improving workshop effectiveness, now in use. Their recommendations also went beyond regional workshops in recommending the creation of a structure for providing research infrastructure and access to data for all ISSBD members, regardless of their academic context. This exciting effort is still underway, and should also provide good support for training. I will commit to continued involvement with the implementation of this effort.

I leave it to all of you to assess what difference we made.

One priority on which we made less headway was Finance. I had hoped to work with Treasurer Ingrid Schoon and the Finance Committee on the development of an effective investment strategy and budgeting process for ISSBD. Instead we spent way too much time simply gaining access to our funds, a problem arising from the changes in banking laws. Having now resolved the problems, ISSBD is better positioned to consider the original questions. Again, these issues remain for the President and Executive Committee to address.

Another priority of mine was to capitalize on the broad scientific focus of ISSBD on human development over the life course. While I had conversations with some of you on productive directions for pursuing this priority, I ran out of time and energy for adequate pursuit. The opportunities remain to consider an integrative approach to examining major human development challenges across disciplines, life span, and cultures, and from science to real life. These are exciting times scientifically with many innovations that will be meaningful to lives globally. It will be up to all of us to capitalize on these opportunities. I hope to continue considering these issues in my own writing.

In my report to the Executive Committee, I extended thanks to those among our members who have especially given much of their time and talents. I will not repeat here the long list of outstanding ISSBD members who deserve our deep gratitude. I am truly indebted to each of you! Working with you has made my Presidency a joy! And ISSBD is a better organization for your efforts.

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Notes from The President

As I write these notes, I look back over my first couple of weeks in the new office of President. Accordingly, I cannot talk much about recent accomplishments but will instead focus on my view of the state-of-the-art tools available to us and the tasks that should be tackled in the near future. In my role as President-Elect during the past two years, I learned a lot about the dynamics in the ISSBD management system, participating in various meetings of the ISSBD Executive Committee (EC) and numerous contacts among the members of the Steering Committee. I am particularly grateful to Past-President Zena Mello, the young scholar Wu, Silbereisen and Anne Petersen. For instance, a Young Scholar specifically focus on young scholars, who represent our future. Furthermore, Zena Mello, the young scholar Wu, Silbereisen and Anne Petersen. For instance, a Young Scholar focusing on young scholars, who represent our future. I am sure that Zena’s successor as Past President during the next two years. Together with the members of the EC committee, she has worked extremely hard to increase the effectiveness of ISSBD. There is no doubt for me that she reached her major goals, and that it will be a challenge for me to continue on this path.

What were my visions of major tasks when I accepted the nomination as president two years ago? First of all, I thought that the issue of membership should be attended to more closely. Although ISSBD is a truly international and global learned society, it is obvious from membership statistics that some parts of the world are less well represented than others. Apparently, the number of ISSBD members has stagnated for quite a while. I learned from Bill Hartup’s (1996) report on the history of ISSBD that about 140 scientists were affiliated with the Society at its beginning in 1969, and that about 300 members were registered in 1979. Another 10 years later, the Society counted more than 1000 members from more than 40 countries. This is about the number that was also reported on later occasions, and it appears that we have not been able to increase this number during the past two decades, even though the number of membership countries went up to 60+. I do know that this has been a relevant issue for many of my predecessors, and it is also good to know that the highly effective ISSBD membership committee is currently working on this problem. We believe that the measure of offering one-year free membership packages at our biennial meetings has been effective to some degree, but also know that more has to be done to be successful in this aspect. We will try hard to increase multidisciplinarity (right now, about 75% of the members identify with psychology), and to ensure that ISSBD will continue to focus on human development over the life course. Although research interests of most ISSBD members are still restricted to the two first decades of life, it is a special feature of ISSBD that it is the only international learned society covering the total life span. So expanding our focus on adulthood and old age seems important.

Past but not least, our efforts to recruit more members will specifically focus on young scholars, who represent our future. Special efforts to increase the attractiveness of the Society for young scholars have been undertaken by Past Presidents Rainer Silbereisen and Anne Petersen. For instance, a Young Scholar Initiative led by Karina Weichold and Deepali Sharma was successfully established at the biennial meetings in Melbourne and Würzburg, arranging for roundtable discussions of young and senior scientists. Furthermore, Zena Mello, the young scholar representative to the Executive Committee, organized Young Scholar Community meetings which turned out to be very stimulating and successful. I am sure that Zena’s successor as young scholar representative, Jaap Denissen, will manage to continue along these lines. The EC established a new committee which will work out a master plan regarding systematic support of young scientists in our society. If we are successful, we may obtain funding by the Jacobs Foundation, which has supported ISSBD activities and has been generous from the very beginning. We owe many thanks to Simon Sommer of the Jacobs Foundation who has given valuable input to our young scientist plans, and also encouraged us to pursue such goals in the future. Moreover, we are grateful to the National Science Foundation for its continuous travel support of young scientists from the US, and to UNICEF and SAGE for providing additional financial support. As can be seen from Bill Hartup’s (1996) and Rainer Silbereisen’s (2002) reports on the history of the Society, several other national foundations were supportive in the past. It seems worthwhile to explore ways of further improving the funding situation, not only for young scientists but also for senior scientists from currency-restricted countries. Suggestions from our members in this regard are highly welcome.

A second issue of major interest to most past presidents and also myself is to build capacity for the study of human development in the developing world. In order to fulfill this part of its mission, ISSBD has always been active in organizing regional workshops and conferences. I fully agree with my predecessors that such workshops and conferences underpin the Society’s most important functions, namely, providing opportunities for our members from currency-restricted countries to become acquainted with recent trends concerning research on behavioral development, and also to benefit from methodological advances in the various disciplines represented in ISSBD. So far, these efforts have been very successful. We will certainly continue, maybe even expand this tradition. Anne Petersen established a Regional Workshop Committee co-chaired by Catherine Cooper and Suman Verma which is exploring new options to further improve the situation, for instance, by establishing a network of Web-based collaborative research groups.

A third issue concerns our biennial meetings, that is, our showcase of international research on human development. The Past Presidents worked hard to make our biennial meetings most appealing to all scholars, namely, providing opportunities for our members from currency-restricted countries to become acquainted with recent trends concerning research on behavioral development, and also to benefit from methodological advances in the various disciplines represented in ISSBD. So far, these efforts have been very successful. We will certainly continue, maybe even expand this tradition. Anne Petersen established a Regional Workshop Committee co-chaired by Catherine Cooper and Suman Verma which is exploring new options to further improve the situation, for instance, by establishing a network of Web-based collaborative research groups.

I am confident that we will have another exciting biennial meeting in Edmonton, Canada, in July 2012. At the business meeting in Lusaka, Nancy Galambos, Jeff Bisanz, and their team came up with an excellent introduction to the conference site, and also provided convincing plans for the scientific program. I already look forward to visiting Edmonton in two years!

Finally, one of the issues that I want to explore in the near future concerns archiving historically important developments within our Society. If I see it correctly, older ISSBD documents are stored in the Royal Archives of the Netherlands, but...
probably still in boxes. I know from two Past Presidents, Lea Pulkkinen and Ken Rubin, that they keep ISSBD materials in their offices that may be of interest to more people, and I guess this may be also true for other Past Presidents as well. Given new electronic archiving options, it may be worthwhile to have core documents illustrating the history of ISSBD and its structural development digitalized and electronically available to ISSBD members. For EC members, particularly, it could be helpful to know about all actions and motions described in the EC Minutes. I will contact the Past Presidents to find out about suitable ways to pursue this plan.

Overall, I think that ISSBD is in very good shape and has promising perspectives. Through its very active program of conferences and workshops, the Society has become an important player in the field of Developmental Science. The major journal of the Society, the *International Journal of Behavioral Development* (IJBD), has developed flagship properties and can be considered a very noteworthy publication outlet in the field of life-span and cross-cultural developmental science. During the last decade, its editors – Rainer Silbereisen, Bill Bukowski, and Marcel van Aken – have managed to continuously increase the journal’s impact factor, which deserves our deepest respect. A similarly positive development can be reported for the ISSBD Bulletin (formerly Newsletter), and we are very grateful to the editor-in-chief, Karina Weichold, and the co-editor Bonnie Barber. As Bonnie will no longer be available for this job, she will be followed by Deepali Sharma. We are confident that the Bulletin will continue to be a valuable publication instrument stimulating exchange among ISSBD members. The transfer of IJBD to the new publisher, SAGE, has certainly contributed to the positive development, involving the assumption of several administrative tasks that turned out to be troublesome for our volunteer members. We are grateful to Kerry Barner and the other SAGE colleagues for professionalizing our membership management and for all the assistance they provided with regard to journal issues. I fully agree with Anne Petersen’s judgment that we have a terrific organization, and look forward to a time period in the new office which hopefully will not only be busy but also rewarding!

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Minutes of the ISSBD Executive Committee Meeting and General Business Meeting: Lusaka, Zambia 2010

Katariina Salmela-Aro
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Times:

Executive Committee Meeting (EC)
July 18th, 8.30 a.m.-4:00 p.m.

General Business Meeting (GBM)
July 21st, 3:00 p.m.-4:00 p.m.

Members of the EC and regional officers present: Marcel van Aken (Outgoing EC Member, Editor IJBD), Toni Antonucci (EC Member), Catherine Cooper (Regional Workshops), Jaap Denissen (Incoming Young Scholar), Silvia Koller (EC Member), Zena Mello (Young Scholar Representative), Bame Nsamenang (EC Member), Anne C. Petersen (President), Katariina Salmela-Aro (Secretary General), Jaap Denissen (Incoming Young Scholar), Silvia Koller (EC Member), Wolfgang Schneider (Incoming President), Ingrid Schoon (Treasurer), Robert Serpell (Incoming EC Member), Suman Verma (Incoming EC Member), Liqi Zhu (Appointed EC Member).

Editors present: Marcel van Aken (IJBD), Kerry Barner (SAGE), Josafa Cunha (e-news), Deepali Sharma (Bulletin).

In addition, present for specific issues were: Peter Smith (Developing Country Fellowship: 1:30 p.m.-2:30 p.m.), Nancy Galambos (22nd Biennial Meeting, 12.00 noon-2:00 p.m.), Jonathan Santo (Young Scholars).

Apologies for absence received from: Andrew Collins (Publications Committee), Serdar Degirmencioglu (Member), Brett Laursen (Incoming Member), Ulman Lindenberger (EC Member), Xinyin Chen (Membership Secretary), Elisabeth Susman (Finance Committee), Margarita Azmitia (Member), Karina Weichold (Bulletin).

I. President’s Opening and Report

The President, Anne C. Petersen, welcomed all present as her last time as President. She gave warm thanks to three current EC members who were stepping down after this meeting: Marcel van Aken, Andrew Collins, and Arnold Sameroff. She also congratulated the newly-elected EC members: Brett Laursen, Robert Serpell, and Suman Verma as well as Jaap Denissen, the new Young Scholar Representative to the EC, overlapping and succeeding Zena Mello (who was the previous representative) for two years. In addition, Deepali Sharma was welcomed as a new co-editor of the ISSBD Bulletin.

The President was also very grateful for all committee chairs and members and in particular Toni Antonucci (Awards Committee), Andy Collins (Publications Committee), Ann Sanson (Membership Committee), Peter Smith (Developing Country Fellowships), Liz Susman (Finance Committee), Suman Verma and Catherine Cooper (Regional Workshops), and the Committee members for the Preconference Workshops: Marcel van Aken, Toni Antonucci, Zena Mello, and Liz Susman were thanked for their hard work in reviewing the Young Scholar Applications for the 2010 Preconference Workshops.

The President summarized her vision for the Society as the pursuit of ways for ISSBD to contribute to the work of developmental scholars around the world, with the primary objective to engage a “stable core of committed members around the world, who are engaged in important and effective activities to advance the field of developmental science and to sustain ISSBD.” Together with the EC she has accomplished much of what she envisioned four years ago. She was particularly grateful for contributions from Zena Mello, Josafa Cunha, Suman Verma and Catherine Cooper, as well as Marcel van Aken’s great leadership at IJBD, Kerry Barner (SAGE) and Bonnie Barber as co-editor of the ISSBD Bulletin. In addition, she pointed out that the financial issues of ISSBD have been sorted out and that ISSBD now has a financial office, with Rick Burdick being contracted to manage ISSBD financial transactions in conjunction with the Treasurer, Ingrid Schoon. The President expressed enormous gratitude to Liz Susman for her special efforts to provide access to our accounts, and ultimately to close them.

The President mentioned that the ISSBD Web page needs to be updated; she will send her notes to Wolfgang and Kerry.

A new opportunity for international engagement by ISSBD next year was introduced by the President: SRCD has asked ISSBD to co-sponsor their international reception event at the Montreal 2011 meeting.

ACTION: This suggestion was motioned, seconded, and approved by the EC. ISSBD will co-sponsor an
international reception event together with SRCD in Montreal 2011. In addition, the EC requested that ISSBD be given the opportunity to say something about our organization at this meeting.

The President concluded the report where she began – by thanking everyone who worked on behalf of ISSBD over the past four years. The ISSBD is an organization of volunteers. The effort expended on behalf of the organization is important to its success!

2. Minutes of the EC meeting in 2009

ACTION: The Minutes of the EC Meeting in 2009 in Denver, US were approved unanimously.

3. Secretary’s report

Katariina Salmela-Aro reported that the Secretary’s office has been involved in many activities of the Society, such as preparing agendas and minutes of the Executive Committee meetings, answering a variety of questions from the members of the Society, being involved in on-line voting, disseminating information about the Society to other societies and international journals/volumes, providing the organizers of the Biennial Meetings with information about the Society, and furnishing the President and other officers with information concerning the Society’s By-laws, previous decisions and other organizational matters. Cooperation with President Anne Petersen and the publisher, Kerry Barner, has been very helpful.

In addition to these activities, the Secretary arranged for the election of three new Executive Committee members for 2010 – 2016, in cooperation with the President-Elect, Wolfgang Schneider. The candidates elected to serve were: Brett Laursen, Robert Serpell, and Suman Verma. The Young Scholar representative is Jaap Denissen.

ACTION: The EC unanimously approved the Secretary’s report.

4. Incoming President-Elect Wolfgang Schneider

As chair of the Nominations Committee, the Incoming President thanked Anne Petersen, Katariina, Kerry, and the other EC members for their support. He then described the election procedure which was planned by the President-Elect in close collaboration with the President, the Secretary General, Kerry Barner, and the Membership Secretary, Xinyin Chen. In a first step, a list of potential candidates was generated in an open call which served as an initial orientation. Then eventually nine candidates were invited for the three EC positions, with the proviso that the few non-members all join ISSBD before the election started. One person declined, which left us with 8 candidates for the three EC positions. Moreover, three young scientists were invited as candidates for the open position of a Young Scholar Representative. All of them accepted the nomination. An online ballot was used with simple majority rules to count ballots. Each ISSBD member was asked to vote for up to three EC candidates, and for one of the three Young Scholar Representative candidates. Given that about 50 to 100 ISSBD members do not have e-mail addresses, Xinyin Chen was asked to contact these members by snail mail letters. The following scientists were chosen for EC membership: Brett Laursen, Robert Serpell, and Suman Verma. From the Young Scholar Representative candidates, Jaap Denissen received the majority of votes. Immediately after the elections, Anne Petersen sent out letters to those candidates who were not successful. A decision was made to announce the election results and present the new members at the Business meeting in Lusaka.

Wolfgang Schneider as a new President is aiming to retain several committees for the ISSBD. He would like to continue at least the following: Awards (Toni Antonucci), Finance (Liz Susman), Membership (Ann Sanson), Nominations (Anne Petersen, Past President, as the chair), Publications and Fellowship Award (Peter Smith).

There was a discussion of funding for EC members to travel to the EC meetings (now only one night of accommodation is covered). It was established that the EC members are expected to be present at the meetings, and the Finance Committee will recommend possibilities of further support for EC members.

ACTION: EC members are expected to join in the meetings, and supportive funding will be targeted for those coming from countries not in the World Bank top category. These members should have some additional support to join the EC meetings.

5. Report from the Membership Secretary (Xinyin Chen was not present and Anne Petersen gave his report), Membership Committee (Ann Sanson), and Kerry Barner (SAGE)

The Membership secretary thanked Kerry Barner and Anne Petersen for their continuous support for various activities with regard to membership. SAGE has been taking care of most ordinary duties for renewal and retention of members. Membership typically declines during the years when there are no meetings and thus Anne Petersen and Xinyin Chen have sent e-mails to all those who did not renew their memberships. They also sent a number of personal e-mails to people in North America, Europe and other developed countries to promote ISSBD membership. In addition, ISSBD has Regional Coordinators who have helped to maintain and recruit new members from China: Huichang Chen; India: Suman Verma; Lithuania: Rita Zukauskiene; Russia: Tatiana Ryabova; and Latin America: Silvia Koller. The Membership Secretary has been in contact with all regional coordinators. ISSBD has also successfully recruited several new coordinators in Africa: Paul Oburu (Kenya); Esther Akinsola (Nigeria); Peter Baguma (Uganda); Jacqueline Jere-Folotiya (Zambia); Mambwe Kasese-Hara (South Africa); and Therese Tchombe (Cameroon). They were warmly welcomed by Anne Petersen. Because Suman Verma has now been elected to the EC, a new coordinator is needed for India. Professor Shagufta Kapadia at Maharaja
Sayajirao University of Baroda, Vadodara, Gujarat, has agreed to do this for two years after Suman’s term as EC member begins. Professor Huichang Chen has expressed his intention to step down as a coordinator for China. As a result, Professor Liqi Zhu will take over the responsibilities of the regional coordinator in China. Liqi has been on the EC for two years as an appointed member and has been helping Huichang with regional activities, such as organizing a regional workshop, during this period. Xinyin Chen will continue to recruit regional coordinators for other countries/regions. Chen also expressed his gratitude to Suman and Huichang for their wonderful work in this role for many years.

SAGE will continue working with the ISSBD on membership management issues. ISSBD used to have one regional coordinator from Africa. However, it was discussed that coordinators need to represent a country rather than a continent. Silvia Koller in future will represent Brazil rather than Latin America. It was agreed that ISSBD needs to recruit new coordinators, in particular from North African countries, from the Middle East, and from Europe. Guidelines for regional coordinators are on the Web page. In addition, more regional activities are needed, such as regional workshops.

The EC discussed how to increase the membership. ISSBD is currently allowing one year’s free membership following conference registration. However, various new strategies are needed for recruiting and maintaining members. The EC also discussed the issue of taking into account the real income level of members when considering membership fees.

**ACTION:** ISSBD seeks new regional coordinators and to increase membership numbers.

**Kerry Barner, Membership Management, SAGE,** continued with presenting the membership statistics. It is the Society’s aim and priority to grow and retain the membership of ISSBD, with a focus on persuading lapsed members to renew. Membership at the end of 2009 stood at 787. As per trends, membership tends to dip in the years when there is no Biennial Meeting and 2009 is no exception. It was agreed that the key opportunity to recruit new members is at the Biennial Meetings.

**Ann Sanson, Membership Committee,** continued with her report. Sanson also mentioned that the ISSBD Web site is not updated. She mentioned the difficulties with organizing group meetings for the Membership Committee. Consequently, the committee has used mainly individual e-mail contacts. She was grateful that the Membership Committee has representation across the world.

The following broad issues of concern were noted among committee members: an ageing membership in Europe and the US; low membership in many developing countries; unstable membership (members joining for 1-2 years and then lapsing); a fee structure based on out-of-date World Bank data; regional/country representatives in some places but not others, who operate differently, with no clear roles and responsibilities; lack of knowledge about what members want, need and expect from their ISSBD membership; insufficient member attendance at the biennial conference; and the fact that it is not easy or attractive enough to join the Society when attending the conference. The titles for the three categories of reduced fees should be changed so Category I = low income, Category II = lower-middle income, and Category III = upper-middle income. Eligible countries not currently on the ISSBD list are now added to the Web site. Ann Sanson also mentioned that the dues for Reduced Regional Membership should be re-adjusted in line with the changes in the 2007 World Bank lists. The importance of recruiting and engaging young scholars was strongly endorsed. There was discussion about whether early career researchers (e.g., within 3 to 5 years of completing their PhDs) should be categorized along with students in terms of fees payable. It was noted that some early career researchers have not yet secured employment and are in financial hardship, whereas others are in well-paid positions and may be insulted by being categorized as students. It was suggested that a clause inviting young scholars in financial hardship to make a case for fee reduction to the Membership Secretary could be developed. It was noted that an increase in fees for conference registration may be more important than increases in membership fees. Ann Sanson suggested encouraging older members to explicitly and personally encourage their students to become members and to work with national organizations to arrange joint subscriptions, combined memberships and shared activities. A lot of discussion was carried out concerning the student fee but no action was yet taken. Also it was discussed whether a face-to-face meeting is needed for the regional coordinators.

**ACTION:** The Web site no longer uses number labels for the three categories and Web site needs to be updated. Fees for low income countries ought to be bought into line with World Bank categories with a four year delay from 2007 (motion seconded and agreed).

Following discussion within the Executive Committee, it was determined that no change in the categorization of early career researchers would be made (motion seconded and agreed). However, those researchers who wish to discuss their membership application with the Membership Secretary prior to payment should contact: Xinyin Chen [xchen@uwo.ca]

## 6. Report from the Treasurer

**Secretary, Ingrid Schoon**

As of January 2010 an ISSBD financial office has been created. The office is managed by Rick Burdick (ISSBD Controller, 2950 S. State Street, Suite 401; Ann Arbor MI 48104, telephone 734-926-0620). As a consequence, ISSBD accounts have been moved from Citizens Bank in State College, Pennsylvania to Key Bank in Ann Arbor, Michigan. This new arrangement will guarantee continuous and efficient management of our financial and administrative tasks, under the direction of the Society’s President and its Treasurer. This means that the future task of the treasurer involves close liaison with the financial office, which will provide quarterly updates of the accounts and initiate payments following approval by the treasurer and the President.

On 1 January 1, 2010 ISSBD had the following accounts:
Current US Accounts

Keybank, Ann Arbor, MI (Account: 229681004029)
  Checking
Keybank, Ann Arbor, MI (Account: 229681004037)
  Savings
Bank of America Investment Services (W19-160687)
  Investment Portfolio
  T. Rowe-Price Mutual Fund Account Mutual Fund Portfolio (118289732) Investor Number 520471050

Current UK Accounts

HSBC Community Account, London (GB43MIDL40060721 609564)
  Checking
HSBC Business Money Manager (GB21MIDL40060721 609572)
  Money Market
  ISSBD Income and Expenditure: Summary of the past 3 years’ accounts

  Ingrid Schoon thanked President Anne Petersen for all her help and support in making this new arrangement possible. During the past two years Anne has been carrying out most of the financial transactions, in addition to her role as President, as it was not possible for the treasurer based in the UK to access the ISSBD accounts held in the US. This added a tremendous burden to the President’s time. With the new financial office this burden has been lifted, and we can now look forward to the future – being less affected by variable exchange rates and huge transfer fees.

  No changes were made in the investment portfolios, and ISSBD has recovered from some of the losses we incurred last year as a result of the global banking crisis. Currently the Finance Committee is considering new investment opportunities, with the priority of maintaining a secure financial base for the society. Despite losses in ISSBD investments due to global banking turmoil, the Society’s finances are in good shape. Member dues and royalty payments are expected to decline due to the current economic climate. We might want to monitor our income, expenditure, and investments more closely during such times of economic instability. A financial review and audit would be helpful to gain a better understanding of our financial dealings and options. Ingrid Schoon also thanked Anne Petersen for singlehandedly raising huge amounts of travel grants for Young Scholars, enabling them to attend the meeting in Lusaka.

  The Finance Committee chaired by Liz Susman has also been very helpful in providing advice, and the future financial budget plan should focus more on financial planning issues and investment strategies. ISSBD needs resources to cover two years of running costs, yet at the same time must have scope to develop its investments more strategically. All exchange among Finance Committee members is done via e-mail.

  ACTION: ISSBD needs some mechanism for making strategic financial decisions about the budget and investments. The Finance Committee should have 2 virtual meetings annually, preferably by telephone (or Skype), yet if needed a face-to-face meeting should be arranged as well. Rick Burdick, and Wolfgang Schneider as the new President will replace Anne Petersen in the Finance Committee as ex officio members.

  The report of the Treasurer, budget plan 2010 and the accounts were approved unanimously by the EC and the Business Meeting.

7. Publications

7.1. International Journal of Behavioral Development, Marcel van Aken, editor IJBD; and Kerry Barner (SAGE)

IJBD includes original manuscripts (84.8 %), methodology-oriented manuscripts (11.8 %) and reviews (3.4%). Each
issue has a Methods and Measures section, edited by Brett Laursen.

Focus of Associate Editors: Jaap Denissen: Social/personality development; Nathan Fox: Biological aspect of development; Silvia Sörensen: Life-span development, aging; Olivier Pascalis: Development in infancy and preschool; and Susie Lamborn: Adolescence. Marcel van Aken's idea was to have one review article in each volume. We have published review papers but more active commissioning is needed to guarantee good quality reviews on a regular basis. However, a number of recent journals included a review. 2009 has been a particularly busy and fruitful year for SAGE and the IJBD journal. Everyone has applauded the increasing impact score of the IJBD based on its excellent scientific contributions.

Most submissions currently come from the USA, the Netherlands and the Canada. There was a lot of discussion about immediate rejection of articles, which Marcel van Aken conducts if needed. Silvia Koller remarked that the southern part of the world has only a few submissions and also only few manuscripts accepted and it was agreed that this should be taken into consideration.

7.2. Bulletin editors’ report – Deepali Sharma (Karina Weichold sent the report and her greetings)

The overall satisfaction with the ISSBD Bulletin was rated as “very good” on the survey SAGE conducted last year. In November 2009, a Bulletin on “Intergenerational relationships: Grandparenting” was published and in May 2010 a Bulletin on “Innovative approaches to longitudinal data analyses” appeared (Nesselroade & Molenaar, von Eye, Bergman & Nurm, and Steyer et al.). In addition, several authors were invited to report in the section titled “Reports from the Lab” on examples of excellence in longitudinal studies within behavioral science, such as the Dunedin Longitudinal Study (Poulton & Moffitt) or the Seattle Longitudinal Study (Schaie & Willis). In addition, in the May 2010 issue a new section was introduced: “Country Focus,” which presented developmental research in Guatemala. The upcoming issue of the ISSBD Bulletin (November 2010) will focus on “Mobility, Migration, and Acculturation” – a topic that is highly relevant to our society. Bonnie Barber has resigned as Bulletin co-editor and was thanked for her contributions. Deepali Sharma was elected as a co-editor of the Bulletin. Finally, the team at SAGE was thanked for their close and supportive interactions.

7.3. Publisher’s report, Kerry Barber SAGE

Kerry Barber from SAGE presented a detailed Publisher’s report on the IJBD, including topics such as the Journal’s editorial, production, promotion, marketing, subscription and circulation services. The report stimulated discussion on a variety of topics among the members of the EC.

SAGE thanked the Executive Committee members and Editors for all their support and hard work and in particular Anne Petersen for her tremendous work as President of ISSBD over these past four years.

IJBD articles were downloaded 131,721 times in 2009. The most-downloaded article in 2009 was Jeong Shin An, Psychological well-being in mid to late life: The role of generativity development and parent-child relationships across the lifespan, with 881 downloads. Utrecht University Library was the institution that downloaded International Journal of Behavioral Development’s articles most frequently in 2009. The 2009 Impact Factor for IJBD was 1.416, placing the journal 31 out of 59 in Developmental Psychology journals. A fantastic achievement! The 5-year Impact Factor for IJBD was 1.949 in 2009. The most highly cited paper to date in HighWire is Charles M. Super and Sara Harkness, The Developmental Niche: A Conceptualization at the Interface of Child and Culture, with 45 citations. The European Reference Index for the Humanities ranks IJBD as a B journal in the psychology discipline list. Kerry Barber will work on this issue.

The year 2010 sees the introduction of a new marketing tool to replace the journal postcards – wallet-sized business cards will be produced for IJBD development. The idea of going green was also discussed providing the option of not receiving a paper version and also the possibilities of sending/donating the paper version to another address. It was also discussed if there could be a possibility of creating a virtual issue by putting together articles around a good theme.

The EC applauded Kerry Barber’s and SAGE’s excellent report and their active efforts to find means to promote the IJBD.

7.4. E-newsletters from April 2009, Josafa Cunha e-newsletter Editor

Josafa has dramatically changed the look of the e-newsletter, making it look more professional and in line with ISSBD’s branding. The e-newsletter complements the Bulletin by informing members on time-sensitive issues, in particular issues related to the Biennial Meeting. Currently, there are 735 e-mail addresses in the distribution list, which includes members and corresponding authors of accepted submissions for the Biennial Meeting who are not members yet. The EC applauded Josafa Cunha for his excellent work on the e-newsletter.

8. Young scholars, Zena Mello and Jaap Denissen

Calendar for overlapping young scholar service established: Young Scholar Terms: 2010-2014, 2012-2016, 2014-2018, 2016-2020. Elections: 2009, 2011, 2015, 2019. Election for Young Scholar Representative: Jaap Denissen, Germany, Elected. Travel Team identified and contacted funders to support young scholar travel. Contributing individuals were Chen, Gayles, Mello, Parada, and Santo. In the Meeting there were Scholarly and Professional Development Workshops on Publishing: IJBD editor Marcel A. G. van Aken led a workshop; Young Scholar Community Meeting: Open forum for young scholars to (a) learn about young scholar activities within ISSBD including young scholar governance and the elections results and (b) communicate interests and needs to the Society; Professional Development Workshop: led by Drs. Antonucci and Petersen; Grant Workshop: representatives from funding
9. Biennial Meetings

9.1. Biennial meeting, 21st ISSBD Biennial congress 2010 (July 18-22), Robert Serpell, Congress Convenor, and Chair, Local Organizing Committee, University of Zambia, Lusaka, Zambia. Robert Serpell reported on the final program of the Lusaka meeting, the first Biennial Meeting to take place in Africa. Besides being successful scientifically, 680 presentations will be given by participants from 51 counties. In addition, three excellent preconference workshops took place before the meeting. Serpell was very grateful for the support from the Jacobs Foundation, UNICEF, SAGE and NFA. Also a Maseno-Lusaka fellowship award program was created. In addition, about 20 local businesses helped financially. It has been a major undertaking but very successful. Serpell introduced the Operations of the Proposal Review Panel, On-line management of proposal reviews and registration, Publicity for the Congress, Local management of non-academic aspects of the congress, Financial Management, Funding/sponsorship by international and local organizations, ARAP’s (The African Research Advisory Panel) contributions and future potential roles, LOC members’ roles and future professional development, and the UNZA’s institutional development. The EC applauded Robert Serpell and his team for their splendid efforts in organizing the 21st Biennial meeting.

9.2. Preconference workshop, President Anne Petersen

The EC took the decision for the EC to manage the preconference workshops. This makes sense given the EC’s responsibility, on behalf of ISSBD, to nurture human development research strength, especially for our young researchers. Two EC members and one Committee Chair agreed to serve on the review committee of proposals. Three outstanding preconference workshops were given:

Social Change and Human Development, led by Patricia Greenfield, University of California, Los Angeles, USA; Heidi Keller, University of Osnabrueck, Germany and Camilo Garcia, Veracruz University, Mexico; Introduction to methodology and analyses of longitudinal data, led by Marcel van Aken, Utrecht University, Netherlands and Jaap Denissen, Humboldt University, Germany; and Developmental origins of aggression from an interdisciplinary and comparative perspective, led by Richard Tremblay, University of Quebec, Canada. All took place Saturday July 17th 2010.

The following support was won: the Jacobs Foundation in the amount of $90,000, with a $10K component for Mentored Maseno Fellows drawn from the young scholars who submitted posters that were judged by a group of senior scholars at the ISSBD Regional Workshop at Maseno University in Kenya in November-December 2009 and $10K for Latin American young scholars in an invited symposium for the 2010 meeting (the latter two budgets were managed by Robert Serpell); The National Science Foundation for US young scholars ($36,000); American Psychological Association in the amount of $5,000 and 3,600 Euros from the Gulbenkian Foundation (Portugal) for Lusophone young scholars from Africa. (However, the latter grant could not be used because we had no Lusophone young scholars.)

The review committee (Toni Antonucci, Marcel van Aken, Anne Petersen, and Liz Susman) met via Skype several times; as a result, support was provided to 46 young scholars on Jacobs funding (including 2 Maseno Fellows whom we supported in the amount of $200) and 15 young scholars on NSF funds.

Four young scholars studying in Australia were rated highly by the ISSBD committee, before we knew whether we would have funding. Ann Sanson was able to fund three of them on the remaining funds from ISSBD 2006 profits and the fourth (from Indonesia) was supported by Jacobs. The total attendance of 75 expected for the workshops/young scholar travel grants, to work in part-

Recommendations

ISSBD EC should continue to manage the preconference workshops/young scholar travel grants, to work in partnership with the conference committee. To accomplish this, we should establish a committee of 4-5 people. Eligibility criteria: Those eligible for funding must be doctoral students or no more than 4 years postdoctoral. An issue (though not a problem) is the workshop fee. Deadline: Set the deadline for submission of funding applications after the likely program acceptance date. Funding Distribution: We recommend that we continue to urge travel grantees to make their own bookings (within guidelines based on lowest fares available on the Web) and that those who cannot do this be asked to notify us early so that bookings can be arranged in a timely way. Workshop Fee: Either we should have a meaningful fee that will cover the costs of the workshops and include this fee when submitting proposals to funders, or we should drop the fee altogether. Finally,
evaluation or feedback should be conducted as a routine matter.

9.3. 22nd Biennial meeting in Edmonton, Canada, July 8-12, 2012, Nancy Galambos

Nancy Galambos thanked Anne Petersen for helping her to organize the next meeting. Edmonton Tourism arranged a site visit for Anne Petersen May 14-17, 2010. Anne toured venues, hotels, University of Alberta accommodations, and attractions.

The University of Alberta Conference Services Department for Conference Management Services (CMS) will coordinate the conference. They have an agreement with the Shaw conference center. The Conference office is in the university which is very helpful. There was discussion about the Web; the official Web site for ISSBD2012 is http://www.psych.ualberta.ca/issbd2012/. Local organizing and national advisory committees have been established, with members representing the diversity of human development research across the lifespan. Note: The International Program Committee is the EC plus additional interested participants.

9.4. Progress on recommendations for changes needed in the Biennial Meeting guidelines, including the financial arrangements (Ann Sanson and Wolfgang Schneider)


In 2014 the Meeting might take place in Shanghai. However, there is no further information. The President will contact X. Chen. For the 2016 meeting Oslo, Norway has shown interest. A formal proposal for 2014 needs to be received before the Montreal meeting in March, 2011. Proposals should be received no later than the end of 2010 as there inevitably will be issues to resolve prior to the EC meeting in March, 2011.

ACTION: The EC approved the recommendations from the 2006 and 2008 program chairs that (1) the size of the loan be $50,000 rather than $30,000 and (2) the profits be split 50/50 between local organizers and the society starting from the biennial meeting 2010. It is also an option for the 2012 meeting.

10. Workshops

a) Completed Workshops

10.1. Regional Workshop in Maseno, Kenya, 2009 Dr. Paul Odhiambo Oburu (Chair)

The 8th African regional workshop was held from November 30, 2009 to December 2, 2009 and hosted by Maseno University, Kisumu, Kenya. The Venue was the Kisumu Hotel (Maseno University Conference Centre). The workshop theme was Building African graduate students’ capacity in human development research. A summary was given by Paul Oburu and he also thanked the EC.

10.2. Regional Workshop, June 15-17, 2009, Nanjing, China, by Liqi Zhu

The workshop was very successful. The topic of the workshop was Social and Emotional Development in Changing Societies. The workshop aimed to provide a communication and collaboration platform for the scholars, who are dedicated to research on human development from diverse fields and the application of the resulting knowledge to education. This workshop emphasized an interdisciplinary discussion of new concepts and innovative research methodologies suitable for specific regions. The workshop addressed the current issues, challenges, and future directions in the study of social and emotional development, especially in relation to a changing society. Participants in the workshop included about 120 senior and junior scholars from 13 countries or regions. The participants from the Chinese regions were mainly junior and middle-level scholars who are interested in the study of children’s and adolescents’ social and emotional development. There were 10 invited addresses at the workshop, delivered by Professors Rainer Silbereisen, Nancy Eisenberg, Ron Rapee, Gisela Trommsdorff, Xinyin Chen, Clancy Blair, Hirokazu Yoshikawa, Zentaro Yamagata, Niobe Way and Zuhong Lu.

10.3. Asia Pacific Workshop, Ann Sanson

An Asia Pacific Workshop titled: Human development in the context of movement within and across national boundaries, was held in Adelaide, Australia, July 4-5, 2009. It was held by Julie Robinson, School of Psychology, Flinders University, Australia. This was the first ISSBD workshop held in Australia; it was convened by Ann Sanson (University of Melbourne) and Julie Robinson (Flinders University), and funded by the ISSBD and the local organizing committee of the 2006 ISSBD Meeting held in Melbourne. The workshop focused on the consequences that movement within and across national boundaries has on human development for those who are left behind, those who move, and those who live in receiving communities. A total of 65 people attended the workshop, including delegates from India, Bangladesh, Thailand, Indonesia, Singapore, Papua-New Guinea, the Philippines, China, Korea, and New Zealand. It was a truly multidisciplinary meeting including the disciplines of demography, geography, psychology, sociology, social work, health, population studies, law, education, women’s studies, urban planning, and cultural studies. The workshop organizers actively sought to recruit delegates at diverse points in their careers. The workshop was evaluated very positively, and resulted in a surplus of $AUD 4,153.04; Ann Sanson recommended using the funds to extend the “Textbooks for Africa” project (which has so far distributed almost 300 recently superseded textbooks to universities in African countries that have a high level of literacy in English—thus far all recipients have been ISSBD members). Julie Robinson joined the Thursday meeting to discuss ideas concerning book distribution. The attendees recommended supporting the textbook project and evaluating the workshops.
ACTION: Because workshops are very important for developing new scholars around the world, workshop ideas should be collected and disseminated, and the mentoring process should be supported. Workshops should be evaluated routinely, perhaps using the evaluation sheet developed for a recent Asian workshop. The participants also recommended support of Julia Robinson’s textbook project.

b) New Workshops

10.4. Risk, Protection, and Resilience among Children at-Risk: Research and Action Plans, ISSBD Regional Workshop (Southeast Asia Region), March 2011

Workshop proposal, Suman Verma and Deepali Sharma, Department of Human, Development and Family Relations, Government Home Science College, Panjab University, Chandigarh, India.

The workshop aims at addressing state-of-the-art developments in the field of risk, protection and resilience, especially in India and Southeast Asia, because countries in this region face accelerated processes of change due to such factors as economic transformation, globalization, and migration. The present workshop aims at broadening the scope of the current topic by getting perspectives from India and Southeast Asian countries that are undergoing rapid socio-cultural changes, and facing similar challenging social issues related to child survival and protection, and can thus share mutually beneficial findings related to successful implementation of policies, interventions, and research with relevant cultural implications. The mentoring program initiated with the Developing Countries Fellowship (DCF) awards will be extended in this workshop by identifying young scholars pursuing research who can benefit by being associated with senior mentors. The following are the broad objectives of the workshop: The first objective is to advance comparative cross-national research on child development in India and Southeast Asia, with a special focus on at-risk children. From a comparative perspective, the workshop will investigate the social causes of marginalized juvenile pathways and their consequences for child development. The second aim of the workshop is to address research and methodological issues related to risk, protection and resilience. The third objective is to identify gaps in research, stimulate further research, and establish an international network of policy makers, researchers, and practitioners working for the welfare of children at-risk in India and Southeast Asia. This will also enable us to bring forward the conceptual, ideological, and pragmatic underpinnings that guide intervention, and to plan participatory or evaluation research. The workshop aims at providing an interactive platform for young scholars via poster workshops and related academic sessions. These sessions will provide opportunities for skill development, capacity building, and feedback on their work. The participants for the workshop will include the following: researchers from India and Southeast Asia; and policy-makers and practitioners. The workshop will provide ISSBD with greater visibility and build membership of the Society in India and Southeast Asia. A nominal registration fee of $50 will be charged from the participants. A total of 100 participants are expected to attend the workshop. $4,000 will be contributed by ISSBD India funds and $5,000 will come from registration fees. $40,000 is requested from the ISSBD.

ACTION: $40,000 was approved from the ISSBD to the workshop.

10.5. ISSBD Regional Workshop Study: A Report on the Follow-up Action, Suman Verma and Catherine Cooper

An invited symposium built on the findings of the regional workshop study addressed the following themes: How can ISSBD regional workshops become more effective and culturally relevant? How can ISSBD facilitate regional collaborations and resource sharing? How can ISSBD play a provocative role in capacity building among young scholars? How can we make ISSBD a truly international organization by building human resources at the regional level? What sustainable strategies will work in each region? The symposium convened distinguished leaders of regional workshops to discuss these issues. The speakers included Avi-Sagi-Schwartz, Israel; Rita Zukauskiene, Lithuania; Therese Mungah Shalo Tchombe, Cameroon; Silvia Koller, Brazil; Tao Sha, China; and Suman Verma, India, with reflections from ISSBD President Anne Petersen. The major highlights of this symposium with insights from 19 nations are published in the November 2009 issue of the ISSBD Bulletin. Across the regions recommendations were given for four steps: facilitating regional collaborations by forming research groups and creating opportunities for resource sharing; capacity building among young scholars by providing avenues for professional growth, greater interconnectivity and institutional placements, including mentoring by senior scholars in both regional and global contexts; forming regional centers of excellence that respond to cultural needs; and moving beyond training to develop collaborations. Possible strategies for supporting regional teams include networking, capturing regional perspectives, adopting measures for overcoming financial constraints, and developing an online database to build research infrastructure.

The participants also stated that ISSBD could play a pivotal role in pilot development of an IT platform. Such a platform would be very helpful for undertaking cross-national work and for more effectively engaging colleagues in the developing/majority world.

Ideally such a platform would contain research data, research literature relevant to each study, access to online library services, and research tools (e.g., statistical packages, research writing aids such as ENDNOTE, etc.). Further, there will likely be some demand for research training on the platform. Such a platform would be enormously useful for global philanthropy (and any global nonprofit work). For these collaborations there would also need to be some resource sharing (readings, reports, etc.) but communication support would likely predominate. The committee members are working on a proposal to be submitted to the
Rockefeller Foundation Study and Conference Center at Bellagio, Italy, to convene a meeting including IT professionals and scholars from the developing countries to discuss and finalize the emerging needs and software requirements for cross-national research and collaborations among scholars from both the developed and developing world.

The President appreciated all these suggestions, although no action was taken. The EC thanked Suman Verma and Catherine Cooper for their very informative report. The principles according to which workshops should be organized were also discussed. The EC decided that the Society should produce instructions for organizing workshops and that these should be published on the Web site.

11. Awards

11.1. ISSBD Awards Committee, Toni Antonucci (chair)

Members of the committee: Avi Sagi, University of Haifa, Israel; Jeanette Lawrence, University of Melbourne, Australia; and Nadine Messerli, University of Bern, Switzerland (student member). The chair was appointed by President Anne Peterson when the committee was constituted in 2009, and members communicated by e-mail. By agreement, an announcement about the awards was placed in the ISSBD Bulletin along with various listservs familiar to committee members. The advertisement described the various awards, named the committee members, and invited nominations to be submitted to the chair or to any committee member. Several recommendations were received for the Young Scientist Award. Noting the difficulty of assessment, fine distinctions among young scientists in different parts of the world, and a range of outstanding candidates, the committee decided to bestow two Young Scientist Awards this year to: Jaap Denissen of Humboldt University, Germany; and Su Yeong Kim from the University of Texas, United States. No nominations for any senior award were received by the committee. The Executive Committee discussed the options in the future to receive more nominations in a timely manner. It was also mentioned that the awards committee can act as a nomination committee and that such nominations are advisory. It was also agreed that this process should start very early.

11.2. ISSBD Developing Country Fellowships (DCF), Peter Smith

A Committee was formed of six persons: Smith (Chair), Cooper, Degirmencioglu, Koller, Parada and Verma. They received 20 applications. Main criteria: Academic Scope; Practical Outcomes; Use of Support Grant; Challenges to Success; Sustainability; and Country. The ratings given are from Smith, Cooper, Verma, and Koller. No ratings were received from Degirmencioglu or Parada.

The three candidates selected were: Malanda Noel Mandela, Maseno University, Kenya, Intervention promotion strategies for HIV/AIDS prevention among the youth in secondary schools in Emuhaya district, Kenya; Bestern Kaani, University of Zambia, Zambia, Reading in transparent and opaque orthographies: effects of English and Chitonga languages on reading outcomes in Zambia; and Lauren Gail Wild, University of Cape Town, South Africa, Grandparental involvement and adolescent adjustment in South Africa. Mentors: Mandela: Suman Verma, Anne Petersen; Kaani: Malt Joshi; Wild: Peter Smith. Each Fellow has been awarded free registration at the ISSBD conference in Lusaka, July 2010; travel; a subsistence allowance, and a Support Grant of $1,500 per annum for the duration of the Fellowship, starting in the September immediately following the ISSBD conference. The support grant should be used for research related purposes, such as buying equipment, test materials, books, or computing equipment, or for essential travel within the country. A record should be kept of all expenditure. Any non-consumable items should be considered the property of the project, not the individual, and should stay with the host institution or project unless otherwise agreed.

ACTION: The EC approved a second wave of new Developing Country Fellowship (DCF) awards in 2012 (with attendance required at the conference that year) and agreed to continue with this program. It should be reviewed after one year.

12. Other issues

President Anne Petersen was strongly applauded for her outstanding work with the ISSBD!

Next meeting of the EC

The next meeting will take place one day before the next SRCD conference in Montreal, Canada on March 30, 2011.

13. Other relevant business

No other topics were raised.
Reflections on the Lusaka Congress

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What more is there to tell a readership, many of whom attended the congress? It was a lot of fun, and most of the potential mishaps that the Local Organizing Committee were worried about what didn’t happen. Generally, sessions started on time, microphones and slide projectors worked, and reasonable numbers of participants attended each session. Most of the delegates we expected found their way to Lusaka without losing their baggage and successfully commuted between various hotels and lodges and the conference venue. Responses to the anonymous questionnaire were mostly positive, and we received a ton of very gracious email full of appreciative feedback from senior and early career scholars based in many different parts of the world. Thank you all for your encouragement!

The opportunity to host the first biennial congress of ISSBD on the African continent was a great privilege for the University of Zambia. The University’s Department of Psychology, based in the School of Humanities and Social Sciences, benefited directly in a number of ways, including active participation in a truly global gathering of researchers, productive collaboration with colleagues in other Schools of the University, and showcasing ongoing research for national and international audiences. Indirectly, the University as a whole stands to harvest significant longer-term benefits such as international recognition as a competent institution, staffed with professional scholars engaged with significant issues, and capacity-enhancing partnerships with other institutions in the generation and quality assurance of research and advanced training.

Participation in the Global Activity of Research on Behavioral Development

In African cultural tradition the honour of a visit is considered to be greater for the host than for the visitor. We are really grateful to all of you who made the effort to come and visit us in Lusaka, more than 400 delegates from more than 50 different nations, including 91 delegates from 17 other African countries (the largest groups came from South Africa 19, Nigeria 18, Cameroon 12 and Kenya 12). One hundred and one participants came from the USA; 30 from Canada; 126 from 19 European countries (the largest groups coming from Germany 51, Netherlands, 27 and the UK 18). Thirty-four representatives came from East and South Asia (including 11 from China, 7 from India and 7 from Japan); 25 came from Australia and 12 were from Brazil, as well as smaller numbers from other countries.

The Zambian complement of registered delegates numbered 86, including about thirty UNZA graduate students, to which we added a number of distinguished guests at the Opening ceremony, as well as the undergraduate student ushers (not to mention the ensemble of more than twenty dancers and musicians from the Barefeet Theatre Group (* see photo), recruited from low-income neighborhood youth and managed by UNZA Psychology student Tobias Tembo. So a sizeable and diverse sample of Zambian society met with a sample of established scholars and advanced students of behavioral development from a broad cross-section of the world’s nations.

The scientific program included, in addition to the 20 invited lectures and 14 invited symposia pre-advertised on the website, a slate of more than 60 other symposia and more than 350 poster presentations, scheduled in 6 four-hour sessions. Unfortunately, we did not monitor explicitly how many of the posters for which abstracts were accepted and published on the CD-ROM were actually displayed. “No shows” seem to have been quite numerous, since the number of registered participants fell significantly short of our projections in April when the scientific program was published on the website. Nevertheless, many participants reported having received valuable feedback from others during the poster sessions.

Moreover, the lectures, symposia and posters presented over the period of four and a half days constituted an immensely rich selection of cutting-edge research undertaken from an extremely wide set of regional, cultural and disciplinary perspectives, focused on aspects of behavioral development that included: genetics, evolution, and neuroscience; culture, socio-economic and political context; infant development; language, literacy and schooling; cognitive development, especially in middle childhood; emotional, social and moral development; vulnerability and protective factors; lifespan human development; and theoretical and methodological issues. Pressure of time necessitated compressing most of this material into parallel sessions, so that no single participant could witness all of it. But documentation distributed to participants ensured that much of what they missed “live” was still accessible in the form of abstracts, power-point slide-shows, and bibliographical references. For those of us unfamiliar with this highly condensed conference format, a major challenge will be to ensure that we follow up the live event with careful review of the documents, and, where appropriate, guided search of the published literature and/or correspondence with authors to secure texts that expand the material presented at the congress in summary or abstract form.

Productive Inter-Departmental Collaboration

The shared responsibilities of the Local Organising Committee (LOC) brought eight members of academic staff in the Psychology Department into regular and sustained contact over a period of two years with four members of the
Department of Educational Psychology, Sociology & Special Education, in the School of Education, and two in the Department of Pediatrics & Child Health, in the School of Medicine. It is no secret that in many universities around the world, staff based in different departments are largely isolated from one another’s work, as if they were housed in silos. The work of the LOC taught us the importance of clear division of responsibilities and adherence to agreed time-lines, by manifesting real consequences of procrastination by individuals, and rewarded us as a team with a sense of shared accomplishment when the final event took place according to plan. The benefits of interdisciplinary collaboration in research on behavioral development were amply demonstrated in many of the projects presented at the congress. I hope these three strands of the experience will bear fruit in the form of closer liaison across the three departments in sharing information, and inviting constructive input from one another to emerging project plans. Such liaison stands to enhance the quality of our research and our teaching, and to reduce wasteful duplication of administrative efforts.

Showcasing Ongoing Research for National and International Audiences

Congress delegates visiting Zambia from abroad were exposed to the focus and findings of ongoing Zambian research projects on a wide range of topics, including attachment, bullying, child maltreatment, African indigenous knowledge systems and child-to-child approaches to school curriculum development, early literacy instructional methods and reading problems, estimation of adult mortality, interventions to mitigate the socioeconomic impact of HIV and AIDS on orphans and vulnerable children, maternal & child health services, life experiences of street children, pediatric HIV diagnosis and care, preventive health interventions, ritual and play in children’s upbringing, rural preschool teacher preparation, self-management by adolescents with chronic health conditions, test development, and university student service-learning.

Opportunities for further international collaboration in those areas will doubtless be actively explored over the coming months. Moreover, several of the Zambian projects showcased at the congress were previously unknown to other UNZA scholars with relevant interests and expertise, and to relevant professionals working for the Zambian government and non-governmental agencies. Thus, even within our own national borders, the congress has the potential to enhance the level of mutual understanding between systematic research and professional practices.

International Recognition

The University of Zambia has a mixed reputation in the wider Zambian society and in the international community of scholarship. Outsiders are easily distracted—by highly visible problems such as underfunding, overcrowding, infrastructural decay and industrial strife—from the enduring commitment of the institution to the distinctive university agenda of generating new knowledge through research and disseminating it through technical publications, programs of higher education and international conferences. The confidence expressed by the ISSBD in UNZA’s capacity to host a high-quality congress in 2010 for delegates from around the world will help to boost the institution’s reputation, in Zambia, in the African region and in the wider international forum.

Capacity-Enhancing Partnerships

The reciprocal benefits of international partnerships for generating research addressed to issues of priority significance for humanity has been a key theme of the ISSBD since its establishment in the 1970s. Researchers of behavioral development based in the more affluent societies of the “NoWeMICs” (Northern/Western/More Industrialized Countries) have many reasons for wanting to include populations outside their borders in the scope of their systematic investigations, including validation of their theories and methods. In order to do so, they need to collaborate with institutions and scholars in “Majority World” countries for communicating with that “other” segment of humanity. Conversely, the technical and infrastructural resources of NoWeMIC libraries, laboratories and ICT are of enormous potential value for enhancing the quality of research and higher education curricula in less economically prosperous regions. The international mentoring program, that grew out of preparations for the
2010 congress in Lusaka (Oburu, 2010), is one of several approaches to nurturing such partnerships.

**21st ISSBD Biennial Meeting and Travels throughout Zambia: View from the Publisher**

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The 21st ISSBD Biennial Meeting 2010 was held at the University of Zambia in Lusaka. It was my third ISSBD Biennial Meeting. Before Zambia, I had been to Melbourne and Würzburg. On the first day, as I walked up the palm-lined avenue to the Mulungushi Conference Centre, I saw impalas grazing freely on the grass. I knew then it was not going to be an ordinary Biennial Meeting. It was unique in that it was the first time the ISSBD Biennial Meeting had been held on the African continent and, as significantly, it was the first time that the capital city of Lusaka had held a conference on this scale. Greeted by dancers in traditional dress, we walked into the grand hall for the Welcome Ceremony to the beat of an African drum.

Interspersed between the opening speeches by, amongst others, Professor Robert Serpell, organizer of the conference, Dr Jackie Jere-Folotiya, Master of Ceremonies, Professor Anne Petersen, outgoing President of ISSBD, and the Minister of Education, we were treated to more dancing and acrobatics by Barefeet Theatre, a group of children, who had lifted themselves off the street and out of poverty to create their own dance company. Their performance was quite an eye-opener as many can testify. The 21st ISSBD Biennial Meeting was officially open!

Monday morning, the first official day of the conference, and it was a 7:20 a.m. start for the Young Scholar meeting, headed up by Zena Mello, the outgoing Young Scholars Representative. Despite the early hour, there was an incredible turnout. Zena welcomed around 65 people in total to the meeting and it was wonderful to hear one person say how well ISSBD treated their young scholars. They are the future of the Society, so it was nice to hear such unprompted praise.

As an exhibitor, I had hoped that my SAGE boxes would arrive by Monday morning. I’d been promised them on the Thursday before but they were stuck in a Kafkaesque nightmare at Nairobi airport. On Saturday there was still no sign of them. By Monday afternoon, I was beginning to lose hope. The SAGE stand was looking a bit bare. The materials were still waiting for customs clearance. To my surprise and delight, they arrived on Wednesday at lunchtime, straight after Arnold Sameroff’s excellent keynote speech. From that moment onwards I did not have a moment to spare. People had been promised free copies of IJBD and the ISSBD Bulletin along with other SAGE journals, IJBD pens, post-its, and mouse pads. I couldn’t get the boxes open quick enough before they reached the eager hands of delegates. It was an exhilarating afternoon of exchange. I closed up “shop” around 6:30 in the evening, ready for a well-earned Mosi beer at the Arcades shopping center. On Thursday afternoon, the final day of the conference, whatever books were left were donated to the University of Zambia.

After the closing ceremony all the delegates gathered on the lawn of the Mulungushi Conference Centre to enjoy the work of indigenous craftsmen and women, designers, jewellers and artists while musicians and dancers entertained us. Hand-carved elephants, hippos and zebras were on display, along with beautifully crafted wooden toys and hip-high giraffes. Josafa Cunha, our e-newsletter Editor, was heading back to Brazil with a heavy bag of goodies. Ingrid Schoon, Treasurer of ISSBD, had a traditional dress made for her at City Market which she wore with great pride on the final day. Everyone wanted a memento of this historic meeting.

My hat goes off to Professor Robert Serpell, Jackie Jere-Folotiya and their organizing team for making the Biennial Meeting such a success against the odds. Zambia is country with great natural beauty but some definite challenges. Electricity supplies and Internet access can be sporadic, something of an impediment to those presenters reliant on PowerPoint. Despite these issues, the warmth and hospitality of the organizing team beamed through and I congratulate the ISSBD on being a truly international and welcoming organization.

**Mosi-oa-Tunya and African Wildlife**

It would be wrong to wrap up without mention of two of Zambia’s greatest assets: the Victoria Falls or Mosi-oa-Tunya, which means the Smoke that Thunders, and its diverse wildlife. Mosi-oa-Tunya is classed as one of the seven natural wonders of the world. Tucked away in the southwest part of Zambia, close to the borders of Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia, it is a thundering mass of water tumbling into a dizzyingly deep gorge. Not for the faint-hearted or those suffering from vertigo! It is advisable to hire a raincoat to cross the falls to avoid the downpour of spray. My travelling companions, Ingrid Schoon and Katarina Salmela-Aro, Secretary General of ISSBD, had umbrellas and waterproof clothing. I was not so sensible. Walking through the spray in jeans and T-shirt, I got soaked to the skin. But, for my first visit to the Falls, it felt right to get wet. It was all part of the experience. Besides, the surprisingly warm winter sun soon dried me off.

Our guide – whose name was Elvis – took us to the Boiling Pot, where the Zambian and Zimbabwean falls meet in a swirling mass of water. It was here that you could watch the adrenalin junkies tackle whitewater rafting or throw themselves off the bridge on a terrifying bungee jump. Just as challenging – at least to me – was the steep walk back up the steps to the Victoria Falls as the path was blocked by an aggressive-looking baboon. Baboons were everywhere and it was advisable not to have too much food in your bag as they are notorious pickpockets. Elvis, dressed in a Frank Zappa T-shirt, picked up a rock and that was signal enough. The baboon walked off with his pink bottom in the air.

We had arrived in Livingstone on Friday, the day following the end of the conference, after a 6-hour, 500-km drive down the pot-holed Lusaka Road. We passed pumpkins, pots and piglets by the roadside as well as cyclists carrying staggering loads of charcoal. We drove through the towns and villages of Kabwe, Chiseke, Mazabuka, Monze, and Chomba en route to Livingstone. A cheerful sign for
Zambian railways met us at most places: With You All the Way! At the Munali Hills we witnessed a terrible accident between two heavy trucks. It was a sobering reminder that the infrastructure in this country is still in desperate need of investment.

Our first night was spent at Zig Zag, a very well run motel complete with craft shop, luscious garden and swimming pool. It was there that we booked a sunset cruise on the Zambezi river, along with, it seemed, half the conference delegates. As the fat red sun slowly sank into the croc-filled waters of the Zambezi we saw hippos, elephants, impalas and even a few zebras from a distance.

This was a taste of things to come. The next day we set off for Chobe Safari Park in Botswana, only a 60-km drive away where the wildlife viewing is excellent. The morning was spent on a river safari where we witnessed the wonderful sight of hippos wallowing in the mud, vervet monkeys playing in the trees, fish eagles diving for food, crocodiles bathing in the sun and marabous stalking through the swampy grasses. At the river’s edge we had the privilege of seeing a group of sable antelopes – one of the rarer antelopes in Africa – taking a collective drink. After a spot of lunch at Chobe Safari Lodge, we spent the afternoon in an open-aired jeep, driving through the massive grounds of the safari park. It was great to know that there are no fences whatsoever in this park. If an elephant swims across the river to Namibia (yes, it is that close!), it will then belong to Namibia and vice versa. From the jeep we saw elephants, giraffes, hippos, impalas, wart hogs and buffaloes, to name but a few. It was there that we saw the most awe-inspiring sight of all: a massive group of elephants heading to the river to drink. And I’m not just talking about one or two small herds. There must have been 60-70 elephants in total from the little babies to the great grandmothers, all gathered at the water’s edge with their massive African ears, to wash, to drink, to play. I know we had come to the conference to study behaviour.
to discuss and debate human development but it really was incredible to watch the generations of elephants living together in the wild.

The icing on the cake came as we were heading back to the lodge at the end of the day. A rumor had started amongst the tour guides that a cat had been spotted. Was it a lion? Was it a leopard? Cats on safari are the hardest to spot. We were told that you can drive through a safari park for 6 hours and not see any big cats, so we expected a bit of a crowd for this one. Sure enough, there it was, surrounded by a group of jeeps and excited photographers, sitting in the shade of a bush, licking its paws, probably wondering what all the fuss was about: a leopard. As you can see from the photo, he really was a thing of beauty.

Our day’s safari in Botswana had come to an end. And what a day it had been! As Ingrid, Kata and I climbed into our little pontoon to take us back to Zambia, all three of us had the widest grins on our faces. My face ached from smiling so much. They say elephants never forget. I don’t think I’ll forget this trip either.
News

News from the IJBD Editor

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The November issue of International Journal of Behavioral Development, which you will have received together with this Bulletin, offers another rich variety of papers. Since papers on biological and cognitive development are somewhat less frequent in our journal, it is interesting to see an article by Leppanen et al., who study heart rate and saccadic eye movements and their relation with emotion and attention very early in life, and an article by Rosey on behavioral inhibition and motor skills. Several other papers reflect the increasing number of submissions to IJBD involving (often quite long-lasting) longitudinal studies, and study academic trajectories of immigrant youth, trajectories of depressive symptoms, or goal appraisal and self-esteem during the transition from elementary to secondary school. The international focus of the journal and the society is reflected in the fact that the papers are written by an international group of authors, and involve samples from various countries, including Somalian refugees in Australia, or young adults of various ethnic backgrounds in the United States.

Our Method & Measures article in this issue is a timely one: Jaap Denissen (the new young scholar representative in ISSBD’s Executive Committee and the recipient of ISSBD’s 2010 Young Scientist Award) and his colleagues write about how the internet changes the daily lives of people, but also the way research in behavioral development is (or has to be) done. In a time where the internet is becoming an important factor in our research (both as topic and as method) this article promises to be an influential one. Enjoy reading!
MAJOR CONFERENCES OF INTEREST

2011 March 8–10
Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research on Adolescence
Location: Vancouver, Canada
Website: www.s-r-a.org

2011 March 31–April 2
Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Child Development (SRCD)
Location: Montreal, Quebec, Canada
Website: www.srcd.org

2011 July 4–8
12th European Congress of Psychology
Location: Istanbul, Turkey
Website: www.ecp2011.org

2011 August 23–27
15th European Conference on Developmental Psychology (ECDP)
Location: Bergen, Norway
Website: www.ecdp2011.com