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Contents

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CHILD RIGHTS AND WELL-BEING: PSYCHOLOGICAL, BEHAVIORAL, AND POLICY CONCERNS

Page

- 2 Introduction: Child Rights and Well-Being: Psychological, Behavioral, and Policy Concerns
Suman Verma, Xinyin Chen, and Joan G. Miller
- 3 Street Children's Rights and Well-Being: Psychological, Behavioral and Policy Concerns
Silvia Koller and Marcela Raffaelli
- 5 The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child: The Indian Scenario
Adarsh Sharma
- 7 Child Protection and Development in China
Huichang Chen and Ling Su
- 9 Physical Punishment and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
Linda Rose-Krasnor, Joan Durrant, and Anders Broberg
- 12 The Child as Citizen: Implications for the Science and Practice of Child Development
Mary Carlson and Felton Earls
- 16 Commentary: Children's Rights, Cultural Diversity, and the Law
Christine Liddell
- 16 Commentary: Making the Convention on the Rights of the Child "Real Law"
Gary Melton
- 18 Commentary: Children's Rights and the Conflict between Autonomy and Social Hierarchy
Charles Helwig and Elliot Turiel
- 21 Notes from the President
-
- 22 Minutes of the ISSBD Executive Committee Meeting and General Business Meetings
- 24 General Information and Registration Forms for ISSBD Ottawa-2002
- 31 Position Openings

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Child Rights and Well-Being: Psychological, Behavioral, and Policy Concerns

Introduction

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The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC, United Nations, 1989) is the first human rights treaty that draws attention to the civil, political, social, and economic rights of children. Ratified by all the countries in the world with the exception of the United States and Somalia, the CRC provides an incentive for nations to expand the scope of fundamental human rights, by specifying the obligations of states under international law. Although the resolutions and agreements of the CRC propose a framework for addressing issues involving the rights of children, it remains the case that the extension of greater benefits to children requires that a range of specific efforts be undertaken at legislative levels

In several countries, the Convention is already enhancing many aspects of program delivery. Advocacy efforts are facilitating international co-operation among many governments. The Convention's holistic view of children is also strengthening ongoing work to address the special needs of children in especially difficult circumstances. Within the framework of inter-agency cooperation, UN agencies, like UNICEF, continue to work with other international agencies in assisting governments to transform the provisions of the Convention into programs to protect children's rights and to respond to their urgent and basic needs for survival and development. Government and non-governmental organizations, functioning within and across countries, continue to work with each other to tackle the root causes of problems that children in need are facing. The global goals agreed upon by the international community, and endorsed by the Heads of State and Governments attending the World Summit for Children, are essential first steps towards realizing the rights outlined in the Convention and may prove to be effective strategies to reduce the incidence of abuse and exploitation of children, and to improve protection of street

children, refugee children, victims of war and natural disasters, orphans, disabled children, and those living in adverse circumstances.

Despite these efforts, a variety of problems involving the protection of child welfare and rights still exist in many parts of the world. Many countries face challenges in devising means of creating environments in which all children are able to live securely and realize their potential. These challenges are discussed in the present set of essays. The articles and commentaries provide cross-cultural or cross-national views of the extent to which issues involving child rights and child welfare are being addressed in different regions of the world. Consideration is also given to the central principles and theoretical concepts underlying the CRC and to the challenges that arise in interpreting and implementing the CRC principles in ways that take into account the values, beliefs, and practices emphasized in specific cultural contexts. More generally, the concerns raised in the essays point to the importance of researchers in human development integrating concerns involving the protection of child welfare and of child rights in their academic work, and employing their professional skills to help governments and organizations in their efforts to promote the well-being of children throughout the world.

* Suman Verma served as Guest Co-Editor for this issue.



Street Children's Rights and Well-Being: Psychological, Behavioral, and Policy Concerns

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In recent decades, "street children" have been the focus of considerable attention from researchers, practitioners, policy makers, and the media. In this article we examine issues of rights and well-being, using the Brazilian context to illustrate psychological, behavioral, and policy concerns that arise from working with street youth. We start by describing the sociopolitical reality in Brazil, then move into a discussion of definitions, and examine developmental issues among street youth. In this way, we hope to introduce readers to some of the issues involved in research and practice with street youth.

The Brazilian Context

The social system in Brazil is both turbulent and insensitive as a result of long-standing structural problems resulting from two decades of military rule. During this period, repressive measures were implemented and institutions created to discourage expressions of discontent and to preserve "order."

The *Código de Menores* (Minors' Code), created in 1968, was aimed at controlling and punishing individuals under 18 years old. "Delinquent youth" were held in closed reformatories that made no efforts to re-integrate them into society; instead, they were subjected to intimidation and violence. After civilian rule was restored in 1985, efforts were made to improve the condition of children and adolescents. In 1990, the *Estatuto da Criança e do Adolescente*—ECA [Statute for Children and Adolescents] replaced the Minors' Code.

The ECA is an exceptionally enlightened and comprehensive law that guarantees children certain basic rights, including the right to health, respect, freedom, dignity, family and community support, education, culture, leisure, and job training. It also protects children against economic exploitation, sexual exploitation, and abuse of all kinds. Unfortunately, the legal and social system does not fully reflect the ECA. For example, many juvenile court officers, trained under the Minors' Code, are reluctant to change the way in which they operate (Diversi, Moraes & Morelli, 1999). Moreover, because the Brazilian government never developed a social welfare system, there is an over-reliance on non-governmental organizations and religious agencies that work with street children (Diversi et al., 1999).

Despite the adoption of a progressive and comprehensive law to protect and nurture children and adolescents, Brazil continues to experience high levels of child abuse,

labor exploitation, illiteracy, malnutrition, diseases and delinquency. These same conditions shape the reality of children and adolescents worldwide, and have led to the presence of growing numbers of children on the streets.

Who is a "Street Youth"?

Although it may appear simple to define a street youth as a child or adolescent found on the streets, the definition of street children is a topic of some debate. Children and adolescents who look like drifters can be found in most large cities around the world, begging for food or money, engaging in "street work" (e.g., selling candy, shining shoes), or wandering around. Research has revealed different sub-groups of youth who differ in life histories, family characteristics, street experiences, and prognoses (Dallape, 1996). Some researchers divide street children into two groups based on characteristics such as sleeping location, family ties, school attendance, survival activities, and occupation on the street environment (Hutz & Koller, 1999). Children of the streets live and sleep on the street, do not attend school, and do not have stable family ties. In contrast, children *in* the streets spend all or part of their days working in the streets, but live with their families and may attend school. Leisure and occupation were added by Martins (1996) to identify three groups of street children in Brazil.

However, despite the popularity of categorizing children into distinct groups, this practice is difficult and perhaps even misleading, as the reality appears to be more complex. Hutz and Koller (1999) identified many children who lived at home and worked on the streets but occasionally

slept on the street, and children who periodically left home to live on the streets, going home after weeks or months. The variability within these groups regarding frequency of family contact, sleeping location, occupation, school attendance, and other variables (including physical and sexual abuse) may be so large that group

comparisons may be meaningless or even misleading for research or intervention purposes. These authors suggested categorizing children as a function of the risks to which they are exposed (e.g., contact with gangs, use of drugs, dropping out of school, lack of proper parental guidance, involvement in survival sex) and the protective factors available to them (e.g., school attendance, supportive social networks, contact with caring adults). It would then be possible to determine the appropriate actions that could be taken in each specific case (Koller & Hutz, 2001).

Development on the Street

Street children experience risks and challenges that may jeopardize their development or promote the acquisition of skills. The street poses a risk to children's physical, psychological, and cognitive development. It is important to note that impoverished children are at risk even if they stay at home (Hecht 1998; Matchinda 1999). Street children and low SES children report similar levels of depression and subjective well-being (DeSouza, Koller, Hutz, & Forster, 1995; Koller, Hutz & Silva, 1996). Moreover, most street children left home because their parents failed to provide a safe and nurturing environment, and many also experienced sexual or physical abuse, conflict, and economic exploitation at home (Raffaelli, Koller, et al., 2000). However, street children are at increased risk because they are not only exposed

"the Brazilian government never developed a social welfare system"

to negative physical, social, and emotional factors at home, but also have to deal with the challenges of street life.

On the street, cold weather, lack of food and shelter, traffic accidents, untreated injuries and illnesses, and exposure to potentially harmful activities (e.g., peer violence, drug use, unprotected sexual activity) threaten children's physical well-being (Donald & Swart-Kruger, 1994; Hecht 1998). Adults are often hostile to street children, who may be attacked or harassed by the police as well as by shopkeepers, passers-by, and street adults. Less is known about the psychological development of street youth (Raffaelli, 1999), although high levels of violence, exploitation, and stress pose the potential for psychological damage. Finally, in terms of cognitive development, street children may be affected by malnutrition, drug use, untreated illnesses, and injuries. Language, critical thinking, and intelligence may present deficits because street children interact mostly with their peers and have very little contact with adults. Often, they have difficulty adapting to the formal school system because it requires discipline and attention to specific tasks and schedules. As a result, most street children have negative school experiences and many are illiterate.

Despite these deficits, street children typically develop skills to deal with the challenges of street life (Hutz, Koller & Bandeira, 1996). For example, spatial skills and visual and auditory discrimination are required to detect and avoid street risks. Street vendors display considerable skill when dealing with money (e.g., adding the price of multiple items, making change), although they fail when presented with standard math problems (Carraher, Carraher & Schliemann, 1985). On the social side, street children often form groups (Ennew, 1994) and develop peer relationships to fulfill different needs (e.g., emotional and business groups). Street children are also adept at identifying institutions that provide food, shelter, and other services (Hecht, 1998).

Little is known about the long-term trajectories of street youth. The skills learned on the street are not typically those valued by the larger society (Smollar, 1999), and youngsters face considerable barriers to developing a positive sense of identity (Diversi, Moraes, & Morelli, 1999). Koller and Hutz (2001) observed that street children have the ability to reorganize their lives on the streets, in spite of their risky conditions and their life histories. Nevertheless, the street is not a healthy place for children. Street children in one of our studies were clear about this: when asked to complete the sentence "The street is not ..." over two thirds of one sample (68%) said "good," 14% said "a place to live", and 11% said "a future" (Raffaelli, Koller, et al., 2001).

CONCLUSIONS

Children living on the streets represent a social problem that has to be fought by all means available. In order to make effective action possible, individuals and groups at all levels of the political system will have to take responsibility for developing intervention programs. The ultimate goal of such interventions should be to restore to street children their right to a healthy, safe, and happy childhood. Street youth behave as children when they play or interact with peers on the streets. But, they must also act as adults when they have to provide for their subsistence and safety. In spite of their circumstances, street children are still developing persons that require appropriate health care, education, a nurturing home, safety, and protection of their human

rights to grow with dignity and to become adjusted and productive citizens. We believe that by improving the situation of street children, nations can have an impact not only on the children and their families, but also on the larger society, because nobody can feel happy or be comfortable when they live in a society that creates and tolerates poverty and social injustice.

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The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child: The Indian Scenario

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Children constitute nearly 40 percent of the population of India. India's commitment to the cause of children is as old as its civilization, and is evident from the existing Constitutional provisions, legislation, policies, and programs. Nonetheless, the quest to safeguard children's rights to survival, development, and protection is an unfinished endeavor in India. The situation of children is far from satisfactory. It is befitting to take stock of what has changed for children in the Post-Independence era. This will indicate to what extent we have been able to fulfill the commitments made and the tasks and challenges that still need to be accomplished.

Commendable progress in various child survival and development indicators like infant mortality rate, education, immunization, etc., has been made in the last fifty years. The lowering of mortality, disease rates, and the expansion of immunization coverage and life expectancy has been impressive; although two million infant deaths occur each year, most of which are preventable. Despite the fact that we have a large buffer stock of food grains, almost

"the quest to safeguard children's rights to survival"

47 of percent children below the age of three years are under weight (NFHS-II, 1998-99). Even when literacy rates have more than tripled, from 24 percent in 1961 to 65.4 percent in 2001, there are still 304 million estimated illiterates in the country. Only 65 percent of children in India have reached grade five.

Currently about five million children are living and working on the streets; these children are subject to violence, abuse, and are deprived of basic needs. Similarly, 16.2 million children are suffering from one of the four common types of physical disabilities. Also, 6.6 million children are mildly retarded and suffer from various degrees of motor handicap and one out of 800 live births is a Down's Syndrome case.

India and the Convention on the Rights of the Child

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) awakened nations to devote special focus on children as right holders and to protect and fulfill child rights as a national priority. To date, 193 nations have ratified the Convention, India being one of the signatories. Action to implement the Convention in India is significant in that the country is home to socially and economically disadvantaged children.

The most important implication for India of ratification of the CRC is the question of reviewing the definition of the child in light of Article I, defining the child as anyone below the age of 18 years, whereas per India's Census, a person below the age of 14 is treated as a child. Whether the same human being is or is not a child depends on the law that is being applied in a given case. As a consequence of the practice of children's births not being registered universally, the age of children remains either inadequately or incorrectly estimated in local bodies/ municipalities/ school records. The reliability and impact of the laws relating to transgressions for offences, such as begging, stealing, drug trafficking, crimes, child marriage, and prostitution, thus cannot be fully regulated in terms of age. The Government of India is therefore reviewing existing legislation and, wherever feasible, trying to make it conform to the definition of the child as per the convention.

Ratification of the CRC places an obligation on state parties to review and revise existing laws and to bring them into conformity with CRC standards. Although India has an array of laws relevant to child rights, many of them fall short of the Constitutional objectives and the principles of the CRC.

An undesirable chapter of Indian law today is in the area of family relations. This domain is still governed by a bewildering variety of customary, religion-based, and feudalistic personal laws applicable to persons depending on their birth into one or another religion. There are gaps in that laws relating to health, education, housing, and employment, in many cases are derogatory to the dignity of childhood, human rights, and the principles of the Constitution and the Convention.

Inherent in this commitment to address the needs of children is also an obligation to review the manner in which existing laws are implemented. In an attempt to ensure the protection of children's rights, effort is being made to increase the sensitivity to children's needs that is shown by individ-



A mother is walking with her children in a rural Indian setting.

uals at all levels of the judiciary, the police, as well as by others who deal with children who are in conflict with the law.

In the Indian context, issues requiring special focus are child labor, sexual abuse, and gender bias. The Child Labor Act does not ban child labor but only regulates it. As a result of this practice, children even as young as ages 4 and 5 years can be legally employed as domestic servants, vendors, rag pickers, etc. The National Human Rights Commission has intervened in the eradication of child labor. Child labor-related offences need to be made visible in nature and above all the enforcement machinery has to ensure that compliance with the law is made more effective (Jaitley 1988). Secondly, it is estimated that there are about 4 hundred thousand child prostitutes in our country. In addition to the core group constituted to developing appropriate measures, a systematic effort to report sexual violence against children must involve every segment of society. We need special legislation to deal with this problem, and also to adapt our judicial system to ensure that the courts deal sternly with such cases.

Gender bias continues to manifest itself in Indian society. Religion-based legal systems in India discriminate based on sex. Deep-rooted customary practices and beliefs continue to render girl children vulnerable to feticide and infanticide. The focus of the present policy and programs in this domain is on removing gender bias and improving the status of the female child.

Over the years our concern about children has limited itself to merely providing for their welfare. Development programs treated them as beneficiaries and tended to be sectarian in approach. The development policies and program formulations related to children have been directed by adults and dominated by a top-down, non-participatory approach (Hank 1995), which is not in line with the rights of children to participation, as emphasized in the Convention (Van Beers, 1995). Intervention programs for children are sectarian in nature and focus on education, health, nutrition, and sanitation in a fragmented manner, ignoring the holistic needs of the child. Lateral linkages between sectors and child sensitivity in all sectors, be it housing, economic policy, city planning, and others, is now being given credence both in policies and in the designing of programs.

Status of CRC Implementation: A Critique

Besides a wide range of constitutional and legislative provisions and institutions for the protection of human rights and child rights, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) at the grass-roots level and international bodies are also actively networking and participating in the protection of child rights. In particular, they are interested in combating child labor, child prostitution, sex discrimination, and in improving children's health. CHETNA, an NGO of Gujarat, has taken the lead in promoting the concept of children's participation and has put forward a strategy called Children In-Charge for Change. This concept, in a phased-in manner, is being integrated in both policy and program strategies.

Efforts have been made to formulate a comprehensive Children's Code that incorporates CRC principles, and the essence of all articles of the Convention that is justifiable in the Indian legal context. This Code provides for a uniform law to protect children from offences and denotes standards to be met vis-à-vis children by the Government and civil society.

However, certain constraints stand as obstacles in the total implementation of the CRC in India. The vast size of the Indian population is seen as a major difficulty. India represents an enormous proportion of the world's population (16.7%). To meet the needs of all children under its jurisdiction poses enormous challenges in the economic field, in requiring budgetary allocations, and in social fields, in requiring catering to the needs of children (females in particular) from several ethnic groups. Also, the high rate of population growth (21.3, 2001 Census) makes it hard to sustain the necessary resources.

In addition, extreme poverty affects a significant part of India's population, along with natural disasters, like earthquakes, and floods, etc. These pose serious difficulties in the fulfilment of India's obligations under the Convention. India is a diverse and multicultural society, having traditional customs, a caste system, and social attitudes which act as hindrances to overcoming discrimination, poverty, illiteracy, child labor, sexual exploitation, and children living and working on the streets.

Priority Areas of Action

The identified priority areas for further action to make children's rights a reality in our country are listed below:

- ❖ Reviewing and revising laws, particularly those relating to children.
- ❖ Sensitizing and strengthening law enforcement machinery to ensure translation of rights into reality.
- ❖ Comprehensive review of the Juvenile Justice Act to make it more effective and child-friendly.
- ❖ Promoting affirmative action by the State, communities, and by all concerned sections of society. Formulating a policy on the family.
- ❖ Reviewing and revising the National Policy and Plan of Action for Children to recognize the central role of the family.
- ❖ Facilitating community involvement, particularly through Panchayati Raj institutions (local self-governing organizations), in providing services related to health care, education, nutrition, and building the capabilities of caretakers, etc.
- ❖ Promoting education as an agent of liberation and social transformation. Facilitating linkages between early childhood care and primary education.
- ❖ Building awareness of child abuse as a social problem that must be addressed by collective social action.
- ❖ Formulating appropriate linkages and coordination between various Ministries and Departments of the Central Government and the State Departments to achieve a holistic view of child rights.
- ❖ Using the media, especially TV and newspapers, to raise the consciousness of people about the rights of children to survival, growth, development, and participation.

It may be concluded that the process of sensitizing and mobilizing all sections of society around issues of children's rights has commenced in our country. The Convention revalidates the rights guaranteed to children by the Constitution of India, and is, therefore, a powerful weapon to combat forces that deny these rights. Concerted efforts and actions will surely provide the enabling environment needed in granting Indian children long-deserved human rights.

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Child Protection and Development in China

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Background

According to the census conducted in November of 2000 (Annual Statistics, 2001), China has a total population close to 1.3 billion people; among them, approximately 290 million are children under 14 years old, which is more than



Schools in China have recently emphasized psychological health education. Students and the teacher (in the middle) are engaging in a variety of activities in a psychological health class.

the total population of the United States. Although its economic scale is among the largest in the world today and although there has been a dramatic improvement in the past two decades, China is still a relatively poor country (e.g., the GNP per capita was only US\$ 834 in 2000). Moreover, there are huge differences between urban and rural areas (the annual per capita income was US\$ 758 and US\$ 272 respectively in 2000). As a developing country, China is facing many challenges and difficulties in addressing children's needs in the areas of health, protection, and development.

Achievements in Child Protection and Development

To address these challenges, the Chinese government has put great efforts into improving social and ecological conditions for children's survival, education, and development and has produced outstanding achievements over the past 50 years. For example, whereas the infant mortality rate was 200 per thousand in 1950, it has dropped to 32 per thousand overall and 39.7 per thousand for children under 5 years. The mortality rates of pregnant women and women in labor were 1500 per 100,000 in 1949, while only 47.7 per 100,000 in 2000. Most children (63.5% in 1997) are now delivered in hospitals. Malnutrition for children under 5 years is 10.5 per thousand, with generally no starvation (Annual Statistics, 2001; China Health Yearbook, 2000). These figures are similar to those in most developed countries.

Three major strategies were adopted by China in achieving these successes. These strategies may be useful in other developing countries in the world that share similar social and cultural backgrounds. First, since the establishment of the People's Republic of China, a huge child health care network has been formed across the whole country. Millions and millions of child care professionals and employees are now working in child health care stations, which cover all neighborhoods and villages. The child health care stations provide services for child immunization, prenatal routine examinations, and prevention and treatment of common childhood diseases. Strict supervision has been instituted at different levels. As a result, there is a very high coverage in providing child immunizations in China, and common diseases, such as diarrhoea, polio, schistosomiasis, and pneumonia, have been effectively

controlled. After China ratified the CRC principles in 1990, the government formulated the National Program for Child Development in the 1990s, which emphasized the importance of child survival, protection, and development. Under this program, the “three priority” activities (namely, better health, better childcare, and better education) have been promoted in the country. Accordingly, every province and county has developed its own child protection and development tasks based on the national program. The ten-year effort (1990-2000) has led to significant progress being achieved in various indexes of child well-being and development.

Second, in regard to the protection of children’s rights, the government established the law of Protection of Minors in 1991, which is the most important concrete piece of legislation that has been involved in implementing CRC principles in China. This law consists of 57 items, and has very detailed regulations concerning minors’ survival, education, and criminal prevention.

Third, based on a law issued in 1986, a nine-year compulsory education program has been launched in China. According to this law, children from 6 years of age must enter school for their education and parents have the obligation to support their children so that they can complete a minimum of nine years of education. Statistics have shown that in 1998, the program covered approximately 75% of the total population. The enrollment rate for school-age children was 98.9% at the elementary school level and 87.3% at the junior high school level (see Zheng, 2000).

Challenges and Problems

Despite these successes, some problems remain in China concerning children’s rights (Bu, 2001; Chen, 1999). A major obstacle stems from the traditional Chinese culture. As the culture emphasizes that children must obey adults, most parents still believe that children are their property and that their primary responsibility is to control their children’s behavior. Physical punishment and other forceful strategies are often used in childrearing. Family education focuses on teaching the child to follow adults’ orders. For example, parents place high stress on the child’s school achievement. Due to the “one-child-per-family” policy that was implemented in the 1970s, there is only one child in most families, particularly in urban areas. As a result, parents and grandparents often devote a great deal of time and resources to their child’s education. On the one hand, these caregivers provide good material conditions for the child’s daily life, and, on the other hand, they exert strict control of the child. A variety of psychological and behavioral problems have been reported in children in recent years (Chen, 1999). Children’s interest in learning has been found to decline. Many children do not report happiness in school. Additionally, academic work has become a burden for many children. Research indicates that in general, students spend too much time on academic subjects, and the time increases at higher grade levels in school. Specifically, a student in the third grade of junior high school (i.e., grade 9) typically spends 152 minutes doing schoolwork after school time every day, but only 54 minutes on recreation. Children spend little time on housework – on average 15.6 minutes per day.

With social and economic development, including industrialization and urbanization, occurring in the

country, China is experiencing a series of major challenges. These include shrinkage of useable land, pollution and other environmental problems, increase in social competition and crime, and unbalanced economic growth between regions. As a result, children in China face new problems. Among them, some specific problems need to be solved soon:

- ❖ Although children living in poor areas represent only 4% of the total population, 15% of the deaths and malnutrition found among children occur in this group.
- ❖ Approximately 20,000 children die annually under abnormal conditions. There are 400,000~500,000 children suffering from traffic accidents, poisoning, drowning, electric shock, suicide, etc.
- ❖ A high proportion of rural children suffer from growth retardation.
- ❖ It is estimated that approximately 30% of children in elementary and junior high schools experience different forms of psychological problems; among them, 15% may suffer from mental disorder. In addition, 10.5% of school children are at risk for school violence.
- ❖ It is also found that 20% of school children do not have breakfast.
- ❖ Teachers in kindergarten and schools often treat children in traditional authoritarian manners. At the same time, however, children start to get increasingly dissatisfied with the system and with traditional practices. For example, many children and youngsters feel that they do not receive respect and equal status and treatment as adults. They believe that their rights in regard to social and political involvement are largely neglected. Also, there is no public avenue to express their opinions concerning issues involving their own welfare and interests.

Some of the problems listed above have drawn attention from psychologists, educators, and social workers. These professionals are conducting studies examining possible solutions and, at the same time, making appeals through the media and the Internet to the society. Researchers and educators are also conducting educational reforms in kindergartens and schools. Such reforms are focused on attempting to promote such notions as respect for children and on developing more egalitarian relationships between adults and children. Many schools have set up counseling offices, with trained expertise and consultants providing services for students. We believe that, with the establishment and implementation of policies that are oriented to addressing children’s needs, and with social, economic, and educational reforms, children’s status and well-being, including the protection of their rights, will improve gradually in China.

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Physical Punishment and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child

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Few psychological topics rival physical punishment in its ability to generate passionate debate, whether it be in a university classroom, radio talk show, or parenting workshop anywhere in North America. It is a complex issue that reflects strongly held beliefs about the nature of children's needs, parental rights and responsibilities, and society's role in regulating family life. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child provides an important context in which to consider this controversial but prevalent discipline technique. The 1989 Convention, ratified by all countries except the U.S. and Somalia, contains several principles relevant to the debate surrounding physical punishment. Physical punishment may be considered a violation of the need for "special care and protection" necessitated by children's vulnerability, as well as the principles that children should be raised "in the spirit of peace, dignity, tolerance, freedom, equality and solidarity" and provided with positive and loving family environments.

Article 3 specifies that children's best interests shall be a primary consideration in all actions concerning them. The question of whether physical punishment is in the best interests of children has been of sustained research interest. There is some evidence that the use of physical punishment can increase immediate compliance (Roberts & Powers, 1990). However, there is more evidence that physical punishment is positively correlated with a variety of negative child outcomes (see review by Straus, 1994), including aggression (Strassberg, Dodge, Pettit & Bates, 1994), mental health problems (Turner & Finkelhor, 1996), and disrupted internalization (Lepper, 1983; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Although the relation between physical punishment and child difficulties is likely bi-directional, research suggests that parental discipline has a causal effect on negative child outcomes (Campbell et al., 1996; Kandel & Wu, 1995; Zahn-Waxler, Iannotti, Cummings, & Denham, 1990). Therefore, the use of physical punishment cannot presently be justified empirically as being in the child's best interests.

Article 19 obligates states to protect children from all forms of maltreatment. To the extent that physical punishment is violent, it violates this article. Furthermore, its use may make subsequent abuse more likely (Graziano, 1994; Reid, 1986; Straus, 1991). Child abuse can be viewed as an outcome of escalating physical punishment (Wolfe, 1987). It

is easy to conceive of how spanking, for example, may intensify in the face of continuing noncompliance. The majority of reported and substantiated cases of child physical abuse develop within a punishment context (Gil, 1970; Kadushin & Martin, 1981; Trocmé et al., 2001).

Finally, Article 37 specifies that no child shall be subjected to cruel, inhuman, or degrading punishment. In addition, the Preamble establishes the principle of dignity of treatment. Whereas severe physical punishment clearly is unacceptable, even mild forms may be considered degrading and compromising to the child's dignity. Historically, corporal punishment has been used on relatively powerless groups, at times considered less than full persons (e.g., slaves, women, children). Such punishment has been largely eliminated for all but children. The UN initiative corresponds to a historical shift from viewing children as "property" to recognizing their status as persons (Hart, 1991). In addition, societies have become increasingly concerned with protecting children from abuse, partly by empowering them to take control of their own bodies. Physical punishment "undoes" this empowerment.

The issue of whether physical punishment is degrading or violates the child's dignity as a person cannot be established through research findings. It must be determined on principled grounds, as societies have assessed the acceptability of physical punishment toward other vulnerable groups. Societies have not required empirical proof of the detrimental effects of husbands' physical punishment of their wives, for example, before such behaviors were outlawed. Although physical punishment is not specifically named in the Convention, the international Committee that interprets the Convention's principles "has stressed that corporal punishment of children is incompatible with the Convention" (CRC, 1994) and recommended "that the physical punishment of children in families be prohibited" (CRC, 1995).

Determinants of Physical Punishment

Researchers have investigated numerous potential determinants of physical punishment, focusing largely on individual variables, such as parental education (Ellison & Sherak, 1993) and physical punishment history (Covell, Grusec, & King, 1995). Family variables also are related to physical punishment use, although sometimes in complex ways. Croach and Behl (2000), for example, found that parenting stress positively predicted risk for physical child abuse but only when parents had a positive view of physical punishment.

Macrosystem variables likely will influence physical punishment practices. Cultural beliefs about family power distributions, internal vs. external regulation of behavior, collective responsibility for others' rights, and the relative importance of individual rights vs. family loyalty are of particular relevance to a society's acceptance and interpretation of the Convention's principles (Murphy-Bierman, Levesque, & Bierman, 1996). In broad terms, the extent to which a society values its children and feels collective responsibility for their well-being will affect physical punishment rates. Such values are reflected in societal intolerance for child poverty and in high infant mortality rates, free medical care for children, public funding for daycare, child protection laws, and provision of parental support

"Children's best interests shall be a primary consideration"

services. Based on such criteria, we place Sweden first, Canada second, and the US third on a continuum of valuing children. Rates of physical punishment follow a corresponding sequence, being least frequent in Sweden and most common in the US (see Durrant, 1995). The idea that physical punishment may be influenced by macrosystem variables suggests that physical punishment can be changed by modifying culturally based attitudes and norms.

Macrosystem Attempts to Change the Use of Physical Punishment

Ideological change, social support, and cultural encouragement may be as important as learning alternative discipline methods in helping parents to stop using physical punishment (Davis, 1999). Ateah and Durrant (in preparation) found that approval of physical punishment was a stronger predictor of its use than a range of other predictors, including knowledge of alternatives, parenting goals, punishment history, or affect. Therefore, parenting practices may be altered through macrosystem changes in national legislation and policy. Ten nations, across a wide political spectrum, currently have legally abolished the use of corporal punishment: Sweden (1979), Finland (1984), Denmark (1986/1977), Norway (1987), Austria (1989), Cyprus (1994), Latvia (1998), Croatia (1999), Israel (2000), and Germany (2000). The Swedish initiative is the first and perhaps best-documented macrosystem attempt to reduce physical punishment, as part of a broadly based program to improve children's well-being. A brief summary follows, based on work by Durrant and Olsen (1977) and Hindberg (2001).

In 1971, a young Swedish girl was battered to death by her stepfather, who was acquitted by a court's decision that he was within his right to discipline his child. Strong public reaction followed and a Children's Rights Committee was established to review Swedish law. Its recommendation for a ban on corporal punishment and "other humiliating or injurious treatment" was supported by an almost unanimous legislative vote in 1979. No criminal sanctions were specifically associated with the ban, which was educational in nature and accompanied by an extensive information campaign. In addition, parents were obliged to treat their children "with respect for their persons and individuality" (Parenthood and Guardianship Code, Chapter 6, Section 1). The ban was one of many initiatives, such as parental leaves, which focused on improving child well-being and recognizing children as autonomous individuals (see Durrant & Olsen, 1997).

The Swedish ban has been effective. The percentage of Swedes who regard physical punishment as an essential part of children's upbringing has dropped from 53% in 1965 to 11% in 1996 (Hindberg, 2001). Percentages of Swedish parents who reported hitting their children decreased from 27.5% in 1980 to 1.1% in 2000, along with similar decreases in other forms of physical punishment (Janson, 2001). Furthermore, identification of children at risk for abuse has increased and child abuse mortality is very rare (Durrant, 1999).

Although survey data show the apparent success of the Swedish initiative, few researchers have explored its impact on parental expectations about the effectiveness of physical punishment, attributions about children's misbehaviors,

and relations between expectations, attributions, and physical punishment. One can examine this impact by comparing parental expectations and discipline strategies in Sweden to those in a country in which physical punishment is normative and legally sanctioned. Canada is such a country. In the next section, we summarize a cross-national study of parental beliefs and physical punishment.

Physical Punishment in Canada and Sweden: Maternal Beliefs, Expectations, and Use

We interviewed Swedish and Canadian mothers of preschoolers about their discipline responses to five hypothetical misbehaviors and measured attitudes toward physical punishment, discipline history, and affective and cognitive responses to misbehavior. Physical punishment was defined as striking (e.g., spanking) or otherwise deliberately causing physical pain (e.g., grabbing hard, throwing a child into a room). Details of the research can be found in Durrant, Broberg, and Rose-Krasnor (1999) and Durrant, Rose-Krasnor and Broberg (2001). We sought to determine if Canadian and Swedish mothers differed in physical punishment use, outcome expectations, and responses to misbehaviors. In addition, we assessed whether predictors of physical punishment would be culturally specific.

Our hypothesis that Canadian mothers would use physical punishment more often than Swedish mothers was clearly supported. Overall, 71% of Canadian and 46% of Swedish mothers reported having used physical punishment at some time, and approximately a third of the Canadians used it once a week or more, compared to only 7% of the Swedes.

It should be noted that mothers in both countries expected physical punishment to result in more negative (e.g., physical injury, long term child emotional upset, increased aggression) than positive (e.g., obedience, respect for the parent) outcomes. Surprisingly, *parental* guilt or regret was the most frequently expected negative outcome in both groups. It is important to explore why the majority of Canadian mothers use physical punishment in spite of negative outcome expectations. Our interviews suggested that these mothers tended to physically punish when they did not know what else to do, particularly if they were angry or frustrated, and/or believed that physical punishment was the only discipline strategy that would be effective with young children. In these cases, parental education could help reduce the frequency of physical punishment, by providing parents with effective alternative discipline strategies and anger management techniques.

In both samples, negative outcome expectations were negatively correlated with mothers' reports of how often they used physical punishment in an average week. As predicted, Swedes expected negative consequences to occur more often than did Canadians, but the between-group difference was due primarily to differences in anticipated parental guilt or regret. This variable may be particularly sensitive to cultural variations, since parents likely judge the appropriateness of their own behavior in relation to social norms.

Finally, we were interested in whether physical punishment would be predicted by the same variables in Sweden and Canada. Four groups of predictors were selected, based on previous literature: mothers' physical punishment

"10 nations have legally abolished use of corporal punishment"



history, attitudes toward physical punishment, beliefs about misbehaviors, anger following misbehaviors, and interactions between anger and beliefs. Logistic regression analysis revealed that the best predictive model for whether or not Canadian mothers would use physical punishment consisted of attitudes toward physical punishment and beliefs about the stability of the child's misbehavior. The more strongly Canadian mothers supported physical punishment and the more they believed that the child's misbehavior would continue in the future, the more likely they would prescribe using physical punishment. Surprisingly, none of the models tested succeeded in identifying the small number of Swedish mothers who said that they would use physical punishment. These mothers comprise a special group who may be distinguished by variables not measured in our study (e.g., religious affiliation or ethnic group). The possibility of such group differences will be discussed in the next section, which deals with potential cultural relativity in consideration of physical punishment.

Cultural Relativity, Physical Punishment, and Children's Rights

The UN Convention recognizes the importance of traditional values in the identification and implementation of children's rights. However, interpretations of some of its principles, such as reduction of physical punishment, may conflict with cultural practices. Cultures that emphasize parental power and de-emphasize child autonomy may be relatively unlikely to accept a legal ban. Attempts to restrict physical punishment within these cultures may lead to parental uncertainty, unless targeted parental support programs also are provided. Tension between perceived parental rights (e.g., to choose discipline techniques) and children's rights may be resolved by working within cultures for balanced and sensitive models of child policy (Murphy-Berman, Levesque, & Berman, 1996).

The impact of physical punishment in cultures in which it is normative and seen as a necessary disciplinary technique may not be as negative as when it is met with cultural disapproval and the punisher feels guilt or regret (Gunnore & Mariner, 1997; Rohner, Bourque & Elordi, 1996). Indeed, evidence for cross-cultural consistency in the correlates of physical punishment has been itself inconsistent. Deater-Deckard, Dodge, Bates and Pettit (1996), for example, found positive correlations between physical punishment and mother-rated child aggression in both European-American and African-American groups. However, when school-based aggression was considered, physical discipline and aggression were related only in the European-American sample. Although Stormshak, Bierman, McMahon, and Lengua (2000) found some ethnic specificity in the relation between discipline and child behaviour problems, they concluded that there was relatively high consistency in the outcomes of parenting strategies. Others have reported similar findings in a variety of cultural samples (e.g., Chen, Dang, & Zhou, 1997; DuRant et al., 1993; Rohner, Kean, & Cournoyer, 1991).

SUMMARY

According to our interpretation, physical punishment violates the UN Convention principles of dignity of treatment, loving family environment, children's best interests, and protections from maltreatment and degrading punish-

ment. Support for this interpretation comes from both empirical and principled sources. Research on the effects of physical punishment can address whether this practice is in the best interests of the child and whether it increases the likelihood of subsequent abuse. Empirical research, however, cannot establish whether physical punishment violates the principle of dignity of treatment and protection from degrading punishment. This determination relies on the interpretation of the values put forth by the UN Convention.

The history of the Swedish ban on physical punishment demonstrates that it is possible to change parental attitudes and discipline practices through a comprehensive package of education, policy change, and legislative action. In making such changes, however, it is important to be sensitive to traditional practices and values. Monitoring the frequency of physical punishment within a society, parental attitudes towards its use, and associated child outcomes may be an important first step in the eventual reduction of violence toward children.

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The Child as Citizen: Implications for the Science and Practice of Child Development

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In the closing decade of the Twentieth century, a new era in the history of childhood was ushered in by adoption of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). In the intervening years, the CRC became the most widely accepted human rights treaty in history, as every UN member (except the US and Somalia) ratified this treaty and in doing so recognized children as deserving of citizenship and of fundamental human rights. This essay

explores a philosophical basis of what citizenship does for children in the context of modern democratic societies. This exploration focuses, in particular, on the contributions of two major contemporary social theorists whose writings provide some of the most penetrating critiques and original contributions to theories of democracy, social rights, and distributive justice - Amartya Sen's capability approach and Jurgen Habermas' communicative ethics. Our challenge has been to synthesize these new ethical and social theories into our research programs. Both the rhetoric of rights and the exercise of citizenship represent essential new ways to frame the science and practice of child development and to promote the well-being of children. We begin with a brief orientation to the Convention. The main part of the article reviews concepts related to distributive justice and democratic discourse as they relate to the theories of capability and communicative ethics. We conclude with statements on democracy and on children from Sweden, as examples of the rights perspective that can be taken when the CRC becomes integrated into policy and programs for children in a participatory democracy.

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child

Although children are the last major population group to be integrated into the reach of the international human rights movement of the 20th century, the CRC is considered the most progressive and comprehensive human rights treaty ever adopted. The Convention consists of a Preamble, followed by 40 specific articles addressing different domains that can be roughly divided into the protection, provision, and participation rights. Another 13 articles provide administrative details for implementation and reporting of State Parties. The CRC seeks to promote and protect these rights by specifying minimum standards for the survival, growth, and protection of children. Governments that have ratified the CRC are obliged to take all necessary steps to assure the availability of resources required to meet these standards through the modification of laws, policies, and practices, in accordance with the CRC articles. The overall intent of the CRC is to raise children to full membership in the community (as a person rather than a possession), while protecting their dignity. Within the range of interpretations of the CRC, from an emphasis on child welfare to concern with children's agency, we chose to focus on the latter, with special interest in Article 12: *Parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and maturity of the child.*

At this stage in the evolution of the rights framework, we are most interested in procedures and processes through which children are defined and engaged as citizens. In particular, we are interested in the role for children in the deliberative aspects of democracy (Earls & Carlson, in press), rather than in an electoral role (Peterson, 1993). This position recognizes the CRC as a necessary, but not sufficient, platform for the transformation of childhood and that child researchers, service providers and advocates must work with children to develop both legitimate and effective ways of implementation of the many domains of the Convention.



In March 2000, public school students march through the streets of San Jose, the capital of Costa Rica, to protest the privatization of the utility companies.

The Child as a Deliberative Citizen

How can we begin to envisage what child citizenship looks like in practice? Considerable debate has occurred around which adults are deserving of a political role in democratic societies, ranging from the view that the average citizen is unworthy and incapable of rational public discourse (Schumpeter, 1943; Dahl, 1966), to a model of broad-based citizenship in which democratic participation is for all and viewed as a learning process (Pateman, 1970). If the debate continues around the personal characteristics that render adult citizens deserving of an active role in their democratic societies, then how is "the child who is capable of forming his or her own views" to be evaluated in order to specify their legitimate role at different ages and levels of maturity? We hold that ordinary children and adults are capable and deserving of active and deliberative roles in our democratic societies and base this view both on our theoretical explorations and our deliberative engagements of children of different ages in diverse settings, from Sweden to Romania, and from Tanzania to Costa Rica.

Deliberative democracy is a contemporary enrichment of the belief that democratic legitimacy emerges from the aspirations and public deliberations of citizens. Democratic effectiveness is based on genuine participation of citizens in the discourse over public policies and their implementation (Knight & Johnson, 1997). A normative account of democratic legitimacy evokes the ideals of rational legislation, participatory politics, and civic self-government, all based on the philosophical principle of respect for persons, grounded in a Kantian view of people as ends, not means (Chambers, 1995). Furthermore, the legitimacy of laws and public institutions should be based on the belief that there exists a form of autonomous consent that is reasoned and deliberative. However, the philosophers, economists, and political scientists who fashion these ideas rarely think of children. The assumption that children are too naive and lacking in good judgment to participate in such lofty endeavors must be critically evaluated both by social theorists and developmental scientists. Well-informed and intentioned adults must give serious consideration to the indicators of children's capacities for deliberative engagement in the context of appropriate social opportunities (from the earliest of ages) to participate in democratic activities that promote and refine these capacities. The next two sections on capability and communicative ethics provide

some fundamental principles for the pursuit of truly inclusive democracies that include citizens of all ages in the public deliberation.

Amartya Sen and Capability Ethics

Sen's capability ethic entails both a process for achieving, and a strategy for evaluating, well-being. His theory has the potential to integrate two important aspects of child development that address the capacity for participation and deliberation: agency and resources/opportunities. In our previous work, we adapted this approach to illustrate how the extreme conditions of institutionalized infants and street children violate their rights to develop agency by exposure to profoundly depriving and violent contexts (Earls & Carlson, 1999; Carlson & Earls, 1997, 2000). This approach seems conceptually superior to the enumeration of risk and protective factors that characterize the current language of drug, teen pregnancy, and violence prevention programs (Earls & Carlson, 1995). In recent articles, we outline the importance of a social ecological framework for the study of child well-being, emphasizing the importance of a capability approach in conjunction with recognition of the rights of the child as specified by the CRC (Carlson & Earls, 2000; Earls & Carlson, 2001).

There are three important elements of the capability approach (Sen, 1999). The first is the definition of valued functionings that are constituents of the quality of life. These functionings vary from such elementary activities as being well-nourished or avoiding morbidity to more complex achievements as engagement in one's community or attaining self-respect (all domains of the CRC, as well). The second element is the "capability set", represented as a space of different material or social resources that enable the expression of specific functionings. A favorite example is that of possessing the functioning to ride a bicycle, but requiring a bicycle, a road, and suitable weather as components of a capability set required to engage in that functioning. A third element is possession of the freedom to achieve well-being as reflected in available capability sets. Sen makes the distinction between well-being freedom and well-being achievement, noting that to be free to make a choice does not necessitate that the person will decide to actualize well-being (i.e., achievement). The opportunity implied by a broad range of resources represents a situation of liberty (i.e., freedom) in which an individual can choose (or not choose) to engage or participate. Valued functionings are selected into capability sets as a function of the opportunities and resources available in the environment and circumstances surrounding the child. The measurable outcome of the available choices and actualized engagement is the space of well-being achievement.

One can measure equality in any of these three spaces (functionings, capability sets, or well-being freedom and well-being achievement). Sen stresses (1992) that the equality measured in these different spaces have vastly different meanings and implications for redress. What does this mean for developmental scientists interested in children's development in the context of international law and the ethical framework provided by the CRC? To us it means that it is crucial to study the functionings important in the attainment and practice of citizenship that are central to the development of children's agency. These are represented in

the emotions and motivations that regulate behavior. Within the multiple contexts of neighborhoods, families, schools, and peers the child seeks predictability, control, and security (Carlson & Earls, 2000; Earls & Carlson, 2001, in press). The contexts represent capability sets. Well-being freedom is manifest in the extent to which the child is valued and provided the space and support to have her opinions expressed, and her choices and actions guided.

Jurgen Habermas and Communicative Action

In his Theory of Communicative Action, Habermas (1984, 1987) proposes a clear set of procedures, which are rational, communicative, universal, and empirically sound, and upon which the conditions for discourse and discourse ethics are established. Conditions for what is termed the ideal speech situation requires intersubjective symmetry, assuring that all potential participants have the same opportunities: 1) to employ communicative speech, e.g., to address, reply, question, answer; 2) to make claims and criticize, e.g., to put forward recommendations, explanations, and justifications, to establish, reject; 3) to employ representative speech acts, e.g., to express views, feelings, wishes; and 4) to employ regulative speech acts, e.g., to command, resist, allow, forbid, explain. Habermas makes the important distinction between rational discourse,

“give serious consideration to children’s capacities for deliberate engagement”

characterized by communication and persuasion, and strategic/instrumental actions, characterized by coercion or threat. To address the concern of whether children have the capacities to be equals in an ideal speech situation, a standard of equality in deliberative capacities is critical to democratic practices. Procedural equality can be seen simply as the equal opportunity to speak and be heard. However we agree with those who demand more of equality—to assure that every deliberator has the confidence of a minimal threshold of communicative effectiveness in deliberative encounters (Bohman, 1996,1997). This is where the challenge lies; to define deliberative capability as a developmentally graded set of skills that are afforded equal respect at all stages. We have formulated a deliberative capability set for children that consists of deliberative functionings, capability sets, and well-being achievements that reflect development in the areas of linguistics, cognition, and motivation. Accordingly, in our research, we have composed groups of adolescents and adults in extended discourse sessions about the nature and content of the research. The results point to the potential for epistemic benefits in the generation of knowledge and personal benefits for the maturation of child and adult participants (Earls & Carlson, in press).

Implications for Science and Practice

For reasons similar to those that led us to incorporate the capability approach into our theoretical and empirical approaches to child development, an interest in children's deliberative capabilities at different ages requires methodological and substantive evaluation of the child's level of verbal, cognitive, and social capacities to claim true equality (Earls & Carlson, in press). These theoretical concerns raise several substantive and practical concerns for researchers and practitioners. How do we measure equality among children and between adults and children? Once established, how do we determine what difference the achievement of equality makes to quality of life for the



individual child as well as for groups of children? Does the process of engagement increase the child's sense of mastery in specific ways related to communication? Does this generalize to influence one's overall sense of well-being? Does this achievement protect the child from risks of parental abuse or neglect, pathological behaviors, or academic failure? And finally, does the achievement of the rights of citizenship confer obligations?

To experience what it means to work in a nation in which the CRC and participatory democracy are taken seriously, we have maintained interaction with children and colleagues in Sweden and Costa Rica. Through a process of "reverse transfer", we are learning how to import principles of the CRC into our research in the United States. The following quote from the 1999 Democratic Audit in Sweden brings out several important distinctions, which are crucial in this paper:

Although individuals may have different interests, tastes, talents, and incomes, democracy means that everyone enjoys the same right to participate in making decisions about the common affairs of a society. Government by the people is based on free formation of opinion. This means that a public sphere must exist for exchange of information and for debate and criticism to take place. The citizens must also have the opportunity to participate actively in the shaping of their own futures and that of society. Citizenship is based on a combination of rights and obligations; as a result, democracy imposes requirements of tolerance and respect for differences of opinion (Pettersson, et al., 1999).

This statement emphasizes (as does Sen) that citizens in a democratic society vary by taste, talent, incomes, etc., but that all citizens should have equal rights in the decision-making of their democratic societies. It also emphasizes exchange of information in a public space, debate, criticism, tolerance, and respect for the opinions of others (as does Habermas). This simple statement provides both the rationale for participatory and deliberative democracy and many of the elements of the very active debate about various forms of contemporary democracy. A second document we cite on early childhood education and democracy decisively articulates the ideas and principles that we have discussed to this point:

In Sweden there is a highly developed view of the child based on democratic values, which gives respect for the child as a person in its own right and a belief in the child's inherent skills and potential. As childhood has a value in itself, the preschool years are of great importance in the child's growing understanding of itself, the opportunities it has and its everyday reality. Swedish parents "negotiate" with, rather than dominate their children and in the preschool and school great efforts are made to give children influence and encourage their participation. Sweden has also come far in developing a child perspective that permeates activities and decisions affecting children (Gunnarson et al., 1999).

Over the last decade, there has been a high level of commitment fostered by the CRC. It is now time to deepen the foundation of theory that gave rise to this extraordinary document and put in place a set of strategies that insure that the principles will guide science and practice of child development.

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COMMENTARY: Children's Rights, Cultural Diversity, and the Law

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The authors who have contributed to this special issue of the Newsletter cover a wide range of issues, from the philosophical to the practical, and a wide range of countries, from the developed and the developing world. One of the unifying themes that emerges deals with how legislation on children's rights—whether indigenous or international in origin—can make significant contributions to children's welfare.

Rose-Krasnor, Durrant, and Broberg's paper on physical punishment outlines the successes that have been associated with legislation in countries such as Sweden and Canada. But what of countries which "fail" to deliver these successes? Koller and Raffaelli's paper on street children is frank about the gap between Brazil's Statute for Children and Adolescents—"an enlightened and comprehensive law that guarantees children certain basic rights"—and the delivery of children's services on the ground. They point out that it is the delivery of services, not the ratification of statutes, which will "shape the reality of children". Sharma makes a similar point by contrasting the experiences of children in India, with the aspirations expressed in a long history of Indian constitutional reform. The point is a crucial one, highlighting as it does the limitations of declarations and statutes. Some elements of them at least may be observed more in the breach than the practice. Trying to understand why this is so, and finding ways to ensure that non-adherence does not lead to unfair comparison, rank ordering, or hierarchy, confronts us with significant new challenges in developmental psychology.

Chen and Su's paper outlines convincingly the extent to which government legislation can make a difference to children's health and physical welfare. Although their focus is on China, their point is a generalizable one. Governments all over the world have made substantial inroads into reducing infant mortality and improving children's health. These achievements have taken place not least of all because of charters, conventions, and statutes targeting child health, similar to those being discussed here in the context of children's rights.

But inroads are proving more difficult to achieve in the context of children's rights. Chen and Su, as well as Sharma, argue that the beliefs, values, and childrearing practices dominant in some parts of the world create obstacles for implementation. I wonder whether we could not equally argue that it is these very beliefs, values, and practices which should be the bedrock on which statutes are formulated, and against which they will ultimately stand or fall.

In all cultures, parents who choose to rear a new infant will share aspirations for its survival and robust health; it may be the very pan-cultural nature of this aspiration, which lies at the heart of the success of immunization and other child health programs. A shift of focus to

children's rights takes on a culturally diverse, deeply embedded set of values and beliefs about children that do not share the same pan-cultural qualities.

Rose-Krasnor and her colleagues, through their focus on physical punishment, are skillful in delineating how government legislation can facilitate change in parental beliefs, values, and practices. Carlson and Earls do the same in the context of citizenship. It is worth noting that the governments with which these two papers principally concern themselves are democratically elected, and compete regularly with opposition parties from whom they differ in rather small ways. Perhaps legislation in these sorts of socio-political contexts cannot afford to do much other than move a short distance ahead of changes, which are already emerging in the electorate's macrosystem. The achievements of such legislation are no less real, but they are modest in size. They are also modest in scope, in that the majority of the world's children are not growing up in socio-political contexts of that kind. Both the scale and depth of the work discussed in these two papers are impressive in every respect. But perhaps these two papers also illustrate the extent to which the current topics, concepts, and viewpoints that emerge in debates about children's rights are not only generated by the developed world, but are also most closely scrutinized there. Carlson and Earls make worthwhile reference to the importance of reverse transfer; by which developed learn from developing countries, but this too is a practice more notable in the breach than the practice.

Debates about children's rights in the context of global diversities of culture and childrearing offer developmental practitioners some unique opportunities. There is scope for significant expansion in our theoretical, philosophical, and empirical understanding of how the conditions of childhood can be improved within the emically constructed value systems that particular societies endorse and wish to enculturate their children into. There is scope for changing these values, provided pressures for change are culturally contextualized and modest in ambition. And there is scope for finding mechanisms that bring about these changes through partnership rather than prescription. These would be important contributions to developmental psychology. I would argue, though, that they should be realized by giving more prominence to indigenous psychologists, who are the practitioners and researchers that know more than any of us about the realities of working responsibly within the local constraints of their particular culture.

COMMENTARY: Making the Convention on the Rights of the Child "Real Law"

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This issue presents several provocative essays on the current state of children's rights. The societies discussed are diverse in wealth, religiosity, democratic tradition, and degree of emphasis on civil and political rights relative to social, economic, and cultural rights. All of the authors, however, purport to use the Convention on the Rights of the Child as a foundation for the conceptual framework underpinning their articles. In this commentary, I briefly analyze the current and potential usefulness of the Convention and suggest ways that its practical meaning could be expanded.

Having been on several U.S. law faculties, I can attest that, at least in those circles, international law is not high in academic prestige.



Indeed, few domains or instruments of law are the subjects of such ridicule in law school faculty lounges.

Although the current operation of the Hague tribunal (in relation to war crimes committed in former Yugoslavia) does challenge the skeptics, the primary reason for the denigration of international law is that it is not "real." Even the most ardent devotees of the diplomatic enterprise must acknowledge that the purported strictures of international instruments are often minimally enforceable, if they are enforceable at all.

There are at least five reasons for the perceived emptiness of international law. The first is based on empirical observation. For example, many of the countries that have ratified the Convention have strongly paternalist cultures. Further, the human rights records of many of the states party to the Convention hardly inspire confidence that those governments are giving more than lip service to its tenets. Those facts by themselves give one pause about the usefulness of international legal norms.

Moreover, to the extent that international instruments do have teeth, the abysmal record of some countries that have the legal capacity to participate in treaty enforcement may also raise concern about the legitimacy of decision-making. Historically, the reluctance of the United States to ratify human rights treaties has been based on the assumption that countries with less sensitivity to human rights would judge the U.S. and use the international legal process for purely political purposes.¹ The validity of this argument about illegitimate international intrusions into domestic political matters is questionable in the post-Cold War era. However, it is not difficult to imagine distortion of the international legal process by global politics.

Second, international legal instruments are often devoid of any mechanism for enforcement by the global community. When such a structure is present, its power is often limited to its moral authority. Thus, for example, the Convention established a panel of experts (the U.N. Committee on the Rights of the Child), that is elected by the states' parties of every country except Somalia, a country without a working government, and the United States, a signatory but yet a party to the Convention. However, the committee is unable to adjudicate disputes about the application of the Convention. Its authority is limited to non-binding recommendations in response to periodic reports by the states parties.

1 A contemporary analogue is the Bush administration's reluctance to ratify the treaty establishing an international criminal court. The current U.S. administration fears that its participation in such a forum would invite prosecution of current or former U.S. government officials - for example, the Secretary of State - about accusations derived in substantial part from policy disputes rather than bona fide reprehensible actions against humanity.

2 Ironically, the legal force of the Convention in the United States, a country in which treaties are self-executing to the extent possible, is probably already stronger than in many, maybe even most ratifying nations. Given that the Convention has been so widely adopted, it may fairly be characterized as customary law. Under international law, customary law has force of law. Further, as a signatory (although not yet a party) to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the U.S. is obligated by the Vienna Convention on the Law of Treaties not to take any actions contrary to the children's treaty. Moreover, the U.S. Constitution holds that international law is the supreme law of the land, trumped only by the Constitution itself.

3 For example, the Convention on the Rights of the Child - a treaty that is binding on its parties—was preceded thirty years earlier (in 1959) by the Declaration of the Rights of the Child. Although the latter was not obligatory, its scope and underlying theory were substantially more limited than the Convention. The Declaration focused exclusively on children's immaturity and their corollary need for "special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection...". The child's right to participation was not recognized. Indeed, the Declaration was designed, in part, to promote the child's ability "to become a useful member of society" (Principle 7, emphasis added).

Third, in many countries ratification does not by itself result in an instrument's having the force of law in domestic politics. Parliaments often must adopt statutes to ensure that a treaty is executed.²

Fourth, in part because of the lack of adjudicatory mechanisms under many treaties, legal opinions in international law are relatively scarce and, at least relative to the norms of judicial behavior in U.S. courts, often analytically sparse when they do appear. Thus, the perception of many legal scholars that there is little to analyze in international law has some basis in fact.

Fifth, many international legal instruments are *resolutions, declarations, rules, or guidelines*. Such instruments provide a sense of global norms in regard to a particular issue or population. However, they bring no legal obligation.³

In short, scholars have ample reason to question the practical significance of international law. Nonetheless, I have made clear on numerous occasions (see, e.g., Melton, 1991a, 1991b) that I regard the nearly universal adoption of the Convention as a singularly momentous event in the history of childhood. My optimism about the Convention is based on three facts:

- ❖ In both content (54 articles covering almost every aspect of a child's life) and application (now an instrument with at least some legal force virtually throughout the world), the sheer scope of the Convention provides an unprecedented opportunity to assert the personhood of children. The final and unanimous adoption of the Convention in 1989 could not have occurred prior to the breakup of the Soviet empire. The adoption of an international instrument that is so far-reaching in regard, on the one hand, to civil and political rights and, on the other, to social, economic, and cultural rights required the end of the "us" and "them" approach to East-West relations.
- ❖ Notwithstanding a drafting process that was based on consensus and thus effectively drawn from the least common denominator, the Convention is conceptually coherent. It is built on an understanding of the requisites for children's *dignity*.
- ❖ Although the Convention lacks an enforcement mechanism in the true sense, it does include structures to facilitate implementation. Besides establishing a committee charged with monitoring implementation in the states parties, the Convention gives standing to UNICEF (which is specifically named), other U.N. agencies, and non-governmental organizations ("other competent bodies") to engage in monitoring. The Committee on the Rights of the Child itself has authority not only to review the progress of individual states parties but also to put international issues of concern to children on the agenda of the U.N. General Assembly. States parties are also obligated to publicize the Convention itself and the states parties' own reports among both adults and children - in effect, to make child participation a part of the implementation of the Convention itself.

Despite these important positive characteristics of the Convention, I do not believe that it has yet achieved its potential to re-frame children's policy across much of the globe. In that regard, there are two general and seemingly contradictory problems: The application of the Convention has been unduly narrow and unduly expansive.

The narrowness lies in an unfortunate tendency to regard compliance with human rights instruments as a matter for "check-offs." In such a framework, human rights treaties are significant only

for the countries for which the very rudiments of decency are still at issue. As noted implicitly in the introduction to this commentary, however, it is unrealistic to expect deterrence to work in motivating such behavior; given the weak mechanisms available for enforcement.

On the other hand, human rights treaties do have important value as aspirational documents—guidance for governments about the principles that they ought to be applying (cf. Melton & Saks, 1985). Thus, the Convention on the Rights of the Child is aimed at the countries that want to do good in their relations with their youngest citizens. Seen in such a light, the criticisms of the strength of international law are only minimally valid. The conceptual coherence is more important than the availability of sanctions for non-compliance.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child is an exceptional exemplar of this approach, because it is filled with “constitutional” language that can guide policy development for the long term, even in the most child-sensitive democracies. Thus although the article on juvenile justice (art. 40) does require application of some fundamental civil rights to children (e.g., the presumption of innocence; notice of the charges; the privilege against self-incrimination) that can be checked off, the guts of the article can be found in the primary duty to treat juvenile respondents “in a manner consistent with the promotion of the child’s sense of dignity and worth, which reinforces the child’s respect for the human rights and fundamental freedoms of others and which takes into account the child’s age and the desirability of promoting the child’s reintegration and the child’s assuming a constructive role in society.” Similarly, the Convention obligates states parties to “take all appropriate measures to promote [child victims’] physical and psychological recovery and social reintegration” and to do so “in an environment which fosters the health, self-respect, and dignity of the child” (art. 39).

For the most part, however, neither the Committee on the Rights of the Child nor the states parties themselves have attended carefully to the ways in which such broad principles should re-shape policy in countries that are serious about the Convention and, more generally, their duties to children.

At the same time, the Committee and commentators too often have used the Convention to justify policies that they favor but that the Convention itself does not require as a matter of right. Most notably, a requirement that states parties ban corporal punishment simply cannot be found in the Convention itself (compare Rose-Krasnor, Durrant, & Broberg, this issue). The *travaux préparatoires* (the history of the drafting of the Convention; Detrick, 1992; see also Johnson, 1992; LeBlanc, 1995) give no support to such an interpretation. Although a ban on corporal punishment may be embedded in the obligation to “take all appropriate measures to ensure that school discipline is administered in a manner consistent with the child’s human dignity” (art. 28, § 2), that mandate is expressly limited to the schools.

In that connection, it is important to remember that the Convention regulates *governments*, not families, although it does require governments to strengthen support for family environments - an expectation that governments have the capacity to meet (see Melton, 1996). Placement of the Convention in a position that it appears to intrude on family life in a manner that is neither enforceable nor grounded in the Convention’s own provisions detracts from the extraordinary ways that the Convention *can* strengthen family life in children’s interests and lessens public support for the document.

What then can developmentalists do to maximize the Convention’s positive impact? Three general answers are at the top of my list (see generally Melton & Kaufman, 1997). First, as Carlson and Earls (this issue) argue, we can conduct research designed to test strategies for implementation of the Convention. Second, because

the Convention is drafted, in effect, from the child’s perspective, we can conduct research on the developmental meaning of core constructs in the Convention. Third, as the American Psychological Association recently did, we can adopt the Convention as a set of principles to guide our work. In each of these endeavors, we should remember the big picture and seek to understand the import of the Convention to guide toward child-supportive policies and practices.

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COMMENTARY: Children’s Rights and the Conflict between Autonomy and Social Hierarchy

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An international consensus is emerging that children’s rights are important and deserving of recognition. This is evident in the set of contributions to the current Newsletter, representing a variety of nations, calling for greater attention by researchers and policy makers to the issue of children’s rights. It is also seen in the very fact of the ratification of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child by nations encompassing vast differences in political, cultural, and legal



systems. The international consensus appears to go beyond mere lip service paid to the rhetoric of children's rights, and instead reflects real agreement on many substantive issues, including the areas over which children are seen to require protection (e.g., welfare, health care, freedom from abuse), and the kinds of psychological needs that are recognized as fostering and supporting children's flourishing and development, including children's needs for autonomy and self-expression.

The issues raised by Koller and Raffaelli regarding Brazilian street children are of course extremely important, but transcend the problem of rights. The conditions faced by street children confront nations and their governments with serious responsibilities regarding the welfare of children, and even for protecting their very lives. Although we do not think there is much controversy over ameliorating the situation of street children, there is controversy over children's rights, found both within and across cultures. Often these controversies take the form of conflicts between granting children rights and the implications of these rights for parental and familial authority and for the prerogative of parents to socialize their children as they wish. We believe that this conflict is not peculiar to the issue of children's rights, but reflects a classic tension that has been part of social life throughout history in all societies - that between individual autonomy and the demands of authority, tradition, and social hierarchy. One way this tension has been characterized is in terms of Western and non-Western perspectives on social order, such as individualism versus collectivism. The constructs of individualism and collectivism in characterizations of cultural orientations have been extensively critiqued elsewhere (see Turiel, in press; Turiel & Wainryb, 1994), but one need look no further than the current collection of papers to see how such characterizations of cultures are problematic and may not be all that helpful for shedding light on children's rights. For instance, the society generally regarded as the most individualistic of all, the United States, remains one of only two nations (along with Somalia) not to endorse the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, largely because of concerns expressed by more conservative sectors of society over giving up parental and familial authority over some areas of children's upbringing. Conversely, there is much concern in traditional societies, such as India and China, over children's rights and well-being, with these nations taking serious and substantive steps to address the implementation of the rights identified by the Convention (see the papers by Sharma and Chen & Su). Even in China, a society often held up as a prototypical collectivist culture, the issue of children's rights is receiving important attention by researchers and educational reformers. Chen and Su note, that although the Chinese educational system is often structured along traditional, hierarchical lines, many children themselves desire more egalitarian treatment and greater avenues for voice in decisions that affect them.

Chen and Su's observations have been supported by findings from recent research conducted by one of us (Helwig, Arnold, Dingliang, & Boyd, 2001) in urban and rural regions of China on adolescents' conceptions of the rights of children to make decisions in a variety of social contexts, such as the school, family, and peer group. We have found that adolescents from both rural and urban regions of China often take a critical perspective on existing social practices relating to the rights of children, such as who should make curriculum decisions in the classroom or whether parents should be able to require their child to receive special tutoring to be more competitive in school (a salient concern in contemporary China). Adolescents from both urban regions and the countryside often asserted the legitimacy of children to make these decisions on their own, and in doing so explicitly referred to children's rights, autonomy, and

personal choice. In this and other research (e.g., Turiel & Wainryb, 1998), we have found that notions of rights and individual autonomy are often just as salient in traditional cultures as in North America, and that individuals within these cultures often experience conflicts over individual autonomy and the duties required by hierarchical social structures.

Similar sorts of tensions arise for other individuals besides children, who may be in subordinate positions in some societies, including women or minorities. The rights of females are especially likely to be at issue when granting them rights is in tension with socially prescribed hierarchies, duties of obedience or subservience, and the perceived entitlements of males. Although it was only implied in some of the articles, the issue of the rights of female children especially requires greater attention. It would be very useful to connect the United Nations' Convention on the Rights of the Child to the United Nations' Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), as well as to the *Human Development Report* of the UN Development Programme (see Nussbaum, 2000). All the areas over which children require protection also apply to women - who in much of the world "are less well nourished than men, less healthy, more vulnerable to physical violence and sexual abuse" (Nussbaum, 2000, p. 1). All women, of course, had been children, and, as children,

“granting children rights and the implications of these rights”

often face greater obstacles to well-being and are accorded fewer rights than boys. In many places, infanticide occurs with much greater frequency for females, girls do not receive as adequate nutrition or education, and young girls are often forced into marriage. We agree with Carlson and Earls on the value of applying Sen's capability approach (as well as Habermas's approach) to the problem of children's rights. The human capabilities approach is shared by Martha Nussbaum (1999, 2000), who has done much to explicate the approach as it bears on the rights of women and, at least by implication, to the rights of children.

Controversy over children's rights is not unknown in the West as well. We see this especially in the ways that children's rights can and do come into conflict with parental authority and traditional systems of child control and discipline, as in recent debates in North America over the morality of corporal punishment. Recently, there have been calls in Canada and the U.S. to make corporal punishment illegal, based on both moral arguments that corporal punishment violates children's dignity and respect for them as persons, and on research suggesting negative outcomes for the social development of children who have been spanked. The article by Rose-Krasnor, Durrant, and Broberg reviews some of the evidence indicating negative consequences associated with corporal punishment, and makes a case for legislation prohibiting it. There may be arguments to be made on principled grounds against corporal punishment, as suggested by Rose-Krasnor and her colleagues. However, such arguments are no more and no less the province of social scientists than of anyone else. But since for many this will be an instance where moral conclusions about the permissibility of corporal punishment will turn on assumptions about its harmful effects on children, psychological evidence will inevitably play an important part in the public policy debates. Without taking a stand on this issue pro or con, we simply note that the current state of our knowledge about the outcomes of corporal punishment appears to be inconclusive or mixed - with some surveys of research (e.g., Baumrind, 2001; Larzelere, 2000) reaching an opposing conclusion to that of Rose-Krasnor and her colleagues. Clearly, more research and careful interpretation of complex patterns of findings will be needed to clarify and resolve some of these issues.

However, at this juncture, we should say that we do expect that how individuals interpret and construe negative experiences,

such as punishment, including those interpretations mediated by cultural belief systems, will need to be accounted for. For example, in one study, physical punishment was only found to be associated with psychological maladjustment if punishment was perceived by children as unjust or as indicating caretaker rejection (Rohner, Bourque, & Elordi, 1996). Other research suggests that the effects of corporal punishment may be mediated by cultural belief systems or practices; for example, the negative effects found in white, middle-class populations may be less severe or even non-existent in African-American samples (see Larzelere, 2000). Interestingly, to the extent that perceptions of the justice of corporal punishment play an important role, moral beliefs about corporal punishment may actually interact with (or mediate) negative outcomes, making this a particularly difficult issue ever to "settle" by psychological research (see Helwig, 1995; Helwig, Hildebrandt, & Turiel, 1995, for a general discussion of the role of interpretation in the context of conceptions of psychological harm). This example illustrates the important idea that the effects of experience are mediated by interpretive processes and construals of situations, a point we have stressed at some length elsewhere (Turiel, Killen, & Helwig, 1987). Despite its centrality to the issues raised, research has only recently begun to examine children's own perspectives on rights and the social practices that impact children's autonomy and well-being (Helwig & Turiel, in press). Understanding how children themselves construe and evaluate their own rights and the social order will prove to be a necessary component of the psychological research on which good public policy decisions must rely. The articles in this Newsletter also contribute valuable insights for good public policy decisions regarding children's rights.

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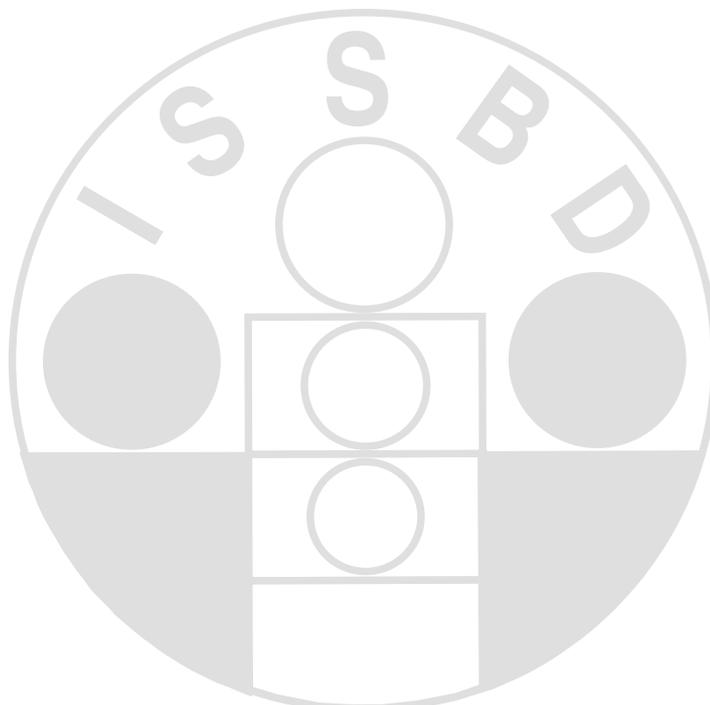
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Notes from The President

In this report, I describe the activities of the President since the publication of the Spring issue (Serial No. 38), 2001 *ISSBD Newsletter*.

The Society has enjoyed a very active six months. A concerted effort to attract new members has resulted in a 10% increase in membership since April 2001. In many respects, this increase in membership derives from: a "recruitment" letter composed by Richard Tremblay and W. Andrew Collins that was included in SRCD Conference material distributed to registrants at the biennial meeting of that society (April 2001); a workshop that successfully took place in Lima, Peru during the month of July; and by personal appeals to colleagues in Europe, Australia, and Asia during my visits in the months of March through June. This membership recruitment drive continues; I ask that each member of the Society be held responsible for attracting at least one new member into the Society prior to the end of 2001. Please help us reach our goal by making copies of the membership form (*enclosed*) and distributing them to your colleagues and graduate students. And remember, registration fees to attend our up-coming biennial meeting in 2002 are significantly lower for members than non-members!

Since the publication of the Spring issue of the *Newsletter*, I chaired the annual meeting of the *Executive Committee* (the Minutes of which are published in this issue). During the meeting, the Committee discussed nominees for Steering and Executive Committee positions. As you will note from the ballot enclosed herein, we have an excellent slate of candidates. The Society will be electing a new President-Elect, a Secretary, and three Executive Committee members. One position on the Steering Committee has only a single nominee—upon receipts of ballots, Barry Schneider (University of Ottawa, Canada) will succeed Brett Laursen as Treasurer/Membership Secretary during the meetings of the Executive Committee in 2002.

It is important to note that ISSBD elections are not well attended to by its members. Typically, we receive ballots from no more than 20 percent of the membership. This means that *all* current (and past) members of the Steering and Executive Committee (including myself) were elected by relative few members of the Society! By not voting in ISSBD elections, your "voice" remains silent. Please take the time to read over the election material included herein and cast your votes for the candidates of your choice. Perhaps the best way to participate in the election is to read the election material as soon as you receive the *Newsletter*, and cast your ballot immediately.

Since the previous publication of the *Newsletter*, the Society held a very successful Workshop in Lima, Peru. And in response to repeated calls for new ISSBD Workshops, I recently received proposals from Russia and Korea. The proposed Workshop in Moscow is currently being revised; it is proposed that the Workshop be held in either June of 2002 or 2003. The proposed Workshop in Seoul, Korea, to be

held in 2003, is focused on the topic of parent-child relationships and parenting. This Asian/ASEAN Workshop proposal is also in the process of revision. It seems likely that the Steering and Executive Committees will approve of these two workshops by the time this Newsletter reaches you.

On the topic of Workshops, you will find described herein, a call for participation in a Workshop on *Observational Methods*. This Workshop will take place immediately prior to the Biennial Meetings of the ISSBD in August 2002. I have been working with the Chair of the Workshop, Xinyin Chen, to make certain that we bring in an excellent group of speakers and participants. Lastly, in addition to the Workshops described above, I have also met with Patricia Settimi of SRCD, who has expressed an interest in developing a joint International Workshop series. There will be more word of this collaboration in future issues of the *Newsletter*.

As you all know, the 2002 Biennial Meeting of ISSBD will take place in Ottawa, the capital city of Canada. Barry Schneider, Chair of the Meeting, has indicated that preparations for the Meeting are coming along splendidly and that we can expect this meeting to attract a large contingent of participants. Ottawa is a lovely city, and early August is a splendid time to visit this part of Eastern Canada. If possible, try to book into the Château Laurier, the host hotel of the conference. This is one of Canada's truly grand old hotels and it will surely be a delightful experience should you choose to stay there.

In recent months, I received a very strong proposal from Leni M.F. Verhofstadt-Denève to host the 2004 meetings in Ghent, Belgium. The Steering Committee is currently working with Leni to revise the proposal and we should know, by year's end, whether Ghent will be the venue of ISSBD 2004.

The major journal of the Society, the *International Journal of Behavioural Development*, has evolved to become a noteworthy publication in the field of life-span and cross-cultural developmental science. Under the stewardship of its out-going *Editor*, Rainer Silbereisen, the journal has made great strides in publishing interesting and highly significant research reports and thought-pieces. On behalf of the society, I offer our collective gratitude to Rainer for his enormous contribution to the development of the Society's archival journal. And now, we welcome Bill Bukowski to the Editorship. Bill has many years of editorial experience and has been a very active member of *ISSBD*. We are looking forward to continued growth in the stature of our journal under Bill's leadership.

In summary, these past few months have been eventful for the Society. We have experienced significant growth in membership and development in each area of societal "business." This adaptive developmental trajectory owes much to its active members and its hard-working executive. Thank you for your continued support.

Ken Rubin

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Minutes of the ISSBD Executive Committee Meeting:

Minneapolis, April 22, 2001

Members of the EC present: Pat Greenfield, Willem Koops (Secretary), Brett Laursen (Treasurer and Membership Secretary), Jari Erik Nurmi, Ken Rubin (President), Rainer Silbereisen (President-Elect).

Editors present: Rainer Silbereisen (IJBD), Bill Bukowski (future editor of IJBD), Joan Miller (Newsletter).

Apologies for absence received from: Anna Silvia Bombi, Barry Schneider (XVIIth Biennial Meetings), Jacqui Smith, Suman Verma, Carolyn Zahn-Waxler (Chair Publications Committee).

In attendance for particular items: Xinyin Chen (Newsletter; pre-conference workshops 2002).

1. Opening

The President, Ken Rubin, welcomed the EC members and editors.

2. Minutes of the EC Meeting in 2000

The Minutes of the EC meeting in Beijing, Peoples Republic of China, 2000, July 11th and 13th, published in the Newsletter 2, 2/2000, Serial No 37, pages 18-21 were approved unanimously.

3. President's Report

The President approached W. Andrew Collins (USA) to request to take on the task of chairing the Membership Committee for the biennium 2001-2002. He agreed and co-wrote a letter with Richard Tremblay, in which members of the Society for Research in Child Development were urged to consider membership in ISSBD. In March 2001, the President composed a similar letter and sent it to developmental scholars in Germany, Austria, and Italy. It is hoped that following the EC meeting in Minneapolis an exhortation to EC members will provide lists of names and addresses to approach prospective members.

The Society has a new Regional coordinator in China, the largest of the regional offices. After many years of dedicated service to the Society, Meng Zhaolan has stepped down. The office is assumed by Professor Huichang Chen, Beijing Normal University.

The president was in regular correspondence with Barry Schneider, chair of the meetings in 2002 (Ottawa, Canada). Preparations are in very good shape. The Society still looks for an institution or group of individuals to organize the ISSBD meetings in 2004. There is a group of scholars in Adelaide, Australia, who are proposing to host the meetings in 2006. The President will meet these individuals in May 2001.

The President has communicated regularly with individuals about the Workshop series: a) *Latin America*: In the year 2001 an ISSBD workshop will be held in Lima, Peru. The Society is grateful for the generous support received from the Kellogg Foundation as well as from the Johann Jacobs Foundation; b) *Middle East Workshop*: For several reasons the workshop had to be postponed and cannot take place in 2001; c) *Africa*: The fifth African workshop, in 2000, was a modest success. ISSBD cannot offer regular support for a biennial event as was proposed by the organizers; neither can ISSBD offer a grant to publish proceedings; d) *ASEA*: Members in Korea propose a workshop for ASEAN countries in 2003. ISSBD is in favor of investing in this region. e) *Eastern Europe*: There is a need to return the Workshop series to Eastern Europe; there would be "room" on the schedule to hold a Workshop in Eastern Europe in 2002; f) *SRCD/ISSBD Workshop Collaborations*: SRCD suggests to initiate a series of joint workshops. The President will explore this possibility. g) *Preconference Workshop(s) in Ottawa/Canada*. Connected to the XVIIth Biennial Meetings Xinyin Chen will organize a preconference workshop on observational methods (on July 31 and August 1st, 2001); h) *Workshop guidelines*: The

Steering Committee created a new Workshop Proposals Guidelines to be found on the ISSBD Website.

Shortly a book will be published, based on the millennium series of essays published in *IJBD*. Royalties of this series will be paid to ISSBD.

The report of the President was approved unanimously.

3. Secretary's Report

The Secretary produced the Minutes of the EC meeting in Beijing, July 2000, and furthermore prepared the call for nominations. Analysis revealed that on average 12 e-mails per day are related to ISSBD matters. Roughly half of them are about e-mail addresses of (other) members, the other half are from professional organizations seeking to organize conferences. In the first case a simple reference to the ISSBD website suffices, in the other case it is explained how the biennial meetings are organized and addressees are referred to ISSBD members in their region. The secretary regularly fills out forms for the Amsterdam Chamber of Commerce where ISSBD is registered.

The report of the Secretary was approved unanimously.

4. Report from the Treasurer/Membership Secretary

4.1 Membership Secretary

Table 1 provides an overview of paid ISSBD membership by membership category for 1997, 1998, 1999, and 2000. ISSBD membership typically fluctuates from conference to nonconference years, so 1998 (a conference year) may be a better point of comparison for 2000 membership than 1999 (a Nonconference year). Total paid membership in 2000 was 945. This represents a decrease of 1.4% (n=13) over 1999 total membership. And a decrease of 12.2% (n=131) over 1998 total membership. The conclusion is that paid membership in all categories continues to stagnate or decline. This trend is profoundly unsettling because it belies the otherwise healthy state of the Society. Additional steps may be required to supplement efforts currently underway to expand full membership.

The six Regional Offices (China, India, Indonesia, Belarus, Russia, Baltic States) still are represented by Regional coordinators. The Society owes a debt of gratitude to each of the Regional Coordinators. It is proposed to close the Baltic States Regional Office, since this office is anachronistic: the three countries involved (Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania) now have their own currencies. This proposal was approved by the EC.

Table 1: 1997 to 2000 Paid Membership

Category	1997	1998	1999	2000
Full	659	741	627	643
Regional	266	217	235	207
Student	35	65	40	35
Spouse	21	23	25	20
Emeritus	29	30	31	40
Totals	1010	1076	958	945



Proposed is to remove the password protection from the on-line membership directory. Too often, the password is a hindrance for members to get access to the membership directory, as it is available at the ISSBD web site: <http://www.issbd.org>. This proposal was approved by the EC.

The EC thanked Brett Laursen for his dedication, and expressed gratitude to the home University of Brett Laursen, Florida Atlantic University, for continued substantial financial and personnel support. In particular the Society owes a debt of gratitude to Dr. Charles White (Dean) and Vice-President Dr. Mary McBride. Mr. William Burk served as the Administrative Assistant; his efforts are greatly appreciated. The membership secretary's report was approved by the EC.

4.2 Treasurer

Table 2 provides a summary of the ISSBD finances. The following narrative contrasts revenues and disbursements from 2000 with that from each of the previous years. Because finances fluctuate considerably from conference to non-conference years, 1998 (a conference year) provides a better point of comparison for 2000 finances than 1999 (a non-conference year). All figures are given in US dollars.

The primary sources of regular (i.e., non-grant) revenue were member dues, royalties and publication rights from the *International Journal of Behavioral Development*. The two largest categories of expense were stipends for officer and publication offices, and member subscriptions for the *International Journal of Behavioral Development*.

To keep the fees for Reduced Regional membership low (\$10 for all members affiliated with Regional Offices; \$ 15 for members from several countries in Latin America and Southern and Eastern Europe) it will be necessary that annual and biennial Full member dues each be increased by \$ 10. This proposal by the Treasurer is approved by the EC. It now must be approved by the ISSBD membership at the Business Meeting in Ottawa, Canada, before taking effect.

ISSBD finances are in excellent shape and the investment strategy being implemented has markedly improved the long-term fiscal stability of the Society.

The report of the Treasurer, Brett Laursen, was approved unanimously by the EC.

5. Report of the Editor of the *International Journal of Behavioral Development*

The extended report of the Editor, Rainer K. Silbereisen, was approved unanimously by the EC. As before, the EC congratulated Rainer Silbereisen for his most successful work for the Society's Journal and again expressed its gratitude to the University of Jena for providing accommodation, technical, secretarial, and assistant support for the Editor.

The editor was involved in negotiations with the publishers to increase the frequency of *IJBD*. Thus, as of January 2001, *IJBD* is published bimonthly. This is both in keeping with other leading international scientific journals and allows a faster through-put of accepted papers. Also in order to broaden outreach and ensure a healthy diversity of specialist representation, the regular revision of editorial Board and Associate Editor membership has continued.

The accept/reject rate for the period between May 1, 2000 and February 28, 2001 has been 52% accept, 48% reject. When the accept/reject rate for the whole editorship (all manuscripts since 1995) is calculated, results show an overall acceptance rate of 37% and a rejection rate of 63%. The Journal remains truly international. The 76 manuscripts submitted during this reporting period have come from across the world, in all from 24 countries. However, again, submissions are predominantly from North America and Western Europe (57), forming just over 75% of all submissions.

IJBD's lead times have been maintained during this reporting period. In fact, the number of days taken from first submission to an editorial decision rejecting a paper has decreased, being on average, 53 days (less than 2 months) during this reporting period, compared to an average of 60 days in the previous report. Lead times from first submission to final editorial decision "accept" have also decreased, being on average just 217 days (approximately 7 months). These improved figures have been achieved despite maintaining *IJBD's* policy of giving extra support to new and sometimes inexperienced authors, which increases the number of revisions called for and also increases the time to final editorial decision.

In the *Journal Citation Report for the Social Sciences* for 1999, *IJBD* is ranked 34 out of 48 with a calculated impact factor of 0.562. This is a slight worsening of the position for 1998 when *IJBD* ranked 29 out of 48. This impact factor is based on the counting of all citations in one year to journal articles published during the previous two years. Since in 1997 *IJBD* published 2 volumes (20 and 21), the number of articles used in the equation for calculating the impact factor for 1999 is unusually high, to the detriment of the impact factor.

The Editorial Office has been busy with a project arising from the special papers commissioned for the 2000 volume of *IJBD*. This will take the form of a book based on the symposium papers and some of the short papers that addressed the issue of developmental psychology within the context of the new millennium. The book will contain app. 400 pages, published under the auspices of Psychology Press, and Bill Hartup and Rainer Silbereisen are acting as joint editors.

The event looming large in the Editorial office is the hand-over to the new Editor when the current Editorship concludes at the end of this year. Notification of the change in Editor, along with information concerning the direction of manuscripts will be published in the May issue of *IJBD*.

6. Nominations/elections

Three members of the EC (Anna Silvia Bombi, Robert Plomin and Jacqui Smith) as well as the president-elect, treasurer/membership secretary, and general secretary have to be replaced in 2002. The results of the nominations by the membership are positive: esteemed candidates for the six positions are available. The General Secretary will prepare the election procedures.

7. Close of Meeting

The President closed the EC meeting by thanking the members for their time and dedication.

Willem Koops
General Secretary

Table 2: 1997–2000 Summary Financial Report

	1997	1998	1999	2000
Opening Balance	\$137.734,24	\$166.000,03	\$251.277,21	\$309.198,60
Revenues	\$93.726,79	\$166.204,04	\$156.485,28	\$191.958,88
Disbursements	\$231.461,03	\$332.204,07	\$407.762,49	\$501.157,48
	\$65.461,00	\$80.926,86	\$98.563,89	\$156.234,63
Closing Balance	\$166.000,03	\$251.277,21	\$309.198,60	\$344.922,85



ISSBD Ottawa 2002

General Information and Registration Forms for ISSBD-2002

On behalf of the International Programme Committee and the Executive Committee of the Society, your colleagues at the University of Ottawa and Carleton University invite you to the 17th biennial meeting to be held in Canada's Capital from August 2-6, 2002. Please visit our website www.issbd.uottawa.ca for updated details on ISSBD-2002.

As Canada's capital, Ottawa offers cultural resources far richer than normally found in a city of its size. Many of its major attractions are within easy walking distance of the conference site. The unique Canadian Museum of Civilization and the National Gallery are world-renowned both for their exhibits and their innovative architecture. At Parliament Hill, five minutes away, participants can tour the Gothic-style buildings or watch the Changing of the Guard. The National Gallery, a few minutes from the conference, is the home of the world's largest collection of Canadian art, with interior garden, extensive international collections and visiting exhibitions. The Canadian Museum of Contemporary Photography, next door to conference headquarters,

features thought-provoking photographs in an elegant reconstructed railway tunnel. Just across the river in Québec, the Canadian Museum of Civilization includes the Great Hall, devoted to West Coast Native peoples, Canada Hall, recreating 1000 years of Canadian History, a creative children's museum, an IMAX cinema/movie theatre, and the Postal Museum. Scattered around town are museums for those with special interests: the Agricultural Museum (including Experimental Farm and rose garden), the Canadian Museum of Nature, the Canadian War Museum, the Currency Museum, the National Aviation Museum, and the National Museum of Science and Technology.

Ottawa is located in an area of great natural beauty. Just outside the door of our conference hotel are the Rideau Canal and Ottawa River, with landscaped paths that continue for many kilometres/miles. Parkland, lakes, and hills can be accessed in a 20-minute ride from the city centre. The outdoor Byward Market, a two-minute walk from the conference site, is a market by day; the neighbourhood surrounding the market is the hub of nightlife in Ottawa.

Venue

A historical landmark, the Château Laurier Hotel, will be the headquarters of the meeting. Conceived as the flagship hotel in a chain of railway hotels stretching across Canada, the Château was commissioned in 1907 by Charles Melville Hays, the flamboyant general manager of the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada. Hays wanted the hotel to reflect the architecture of the French Renaissance, yet harmonize with Ottawa's neo-Gothic Parliament buildings nearby. The Château occupies a majestic setting overlooking Parliament Hill, the Rideau Canal, Confederation Square and Major's Hill Park.

Getting to Ottawa

Recent improvements to the transportation network have made Ottawa a very easy place to get to. In a typical summer week, more than 200 flights arrive at MacDonal-Cartier International Airport from major U.S. points and from London, England, not to mention frequent service from all major Canadian points. Services are expanding rapidly, and we are expecting new non-stop flights to be introduced by conference

time. City buses link the airport to the city centre every 15 minutes.

Montréal's Dorval airport is a convenient alternative. It is two hours away, with direct train and bus connections leaving every few hours (some international airfares can include the short Montreal-Ottawa connecting flight at little or no extra charge). The connection from Montréal-Dorval is particularly convenient for passengers of Air France, Sabena, and KLM, which offer express bus service to downtown Ottawa for their passengers. There is no direct transportation between Ottawa and Montréal-Mirabel, which is used mainly for charter flights.

Air Canada (www.aircanada.ca) is the official airline of the biennial meeting. When booking your Air Canada flight, please remember to provide the Event number **CV858951**. You will be entitled to a discount on the lowest fare available, or to a special conference fare with very few restrictions.

University travel bureaus (www.istc.org) in most countries offer reduced fares not only for students, but also for

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university teachers. Sometimes these fares are considerably lower than the cheapest airline excursion fares. Academic fares are also worth considering because they often come with fewer restrictions regarding advance payment, changes, cancellations, and stopovers (enabling stopovers in such places as New York). Regular charter flights operate in the summertime between Ottawa and London-Gatwick. Several discount airlines now offer low-cost flights between Ottawa and major Canadian airports (details at www.canada300.com and www.westjet.com).

Trains and buses connect Ottawa and Montreal in about two hours. Buses leave each city every hour; there are about 6 trains per day (www.viarail.ca). Trains and buses take just over four hours for the ride between Ottawa and Toronto. There is no direct train or bus service between Ottawa and U. S. points. A new four-lane highway connects Ottawa with the U. S. border near Brockville, Ont. The drive between Ottawa and Syracuse, N. Y. takes about four hours.

Medical Insurance

Foreign visitors from whatever country are not covered by our provincial health plan. Visitors' insurance costs very little and will avoid major difficulties should the unforeseen happen. Details about easy purchase of visitors' insurance are at the website. Travel insurance can also be purchased at travel agencies in most countries.

HOTEL ACCOMMODATION

The Organizing Committee has reserved centrally located rooms at hotels that represent, in our opinion, good value in each price category. All conference accommodation is within walking distance of our conference site, the Château Laurier. Because the conference falls at the height of the summer tourist season, we strongly recommend early reservations. Our room blocks are reserved for ISSBD until 3–4 months before the conference. After that time, they will be sold to the general public, and will be available to ISSBD delegates according to the space available. Note that rooms can be cancelled without penalty up to a few days before the arrival date specified.

All reservations will be processed by the Ottawa Tourism and Convention Authority. The Authority is pleased to offer the convenience of on-line electronic reservations (after all, you are visiting the hub of the high-tech industry in Canada). On-line booking speeds the processing of your reservation. Because the hotels have access to the system, this method reduces the likelihood of human error. **We ask that you use the on-line system unless you have absolutely no way of accessing the Internet.** Watch for the links at both the ISSBD-2002 website www.issbd.uottawa.ca and at the website of the Ottawa Tourism and Convention Authority www.tourottawa.org. Should on-line booking be impossible for you, please contact Margo Rayburn at the Ottawa Tourism and Convention Authority. Margo can be reached by e-mail at mrayburn@tourottawa.org, or by fax at +1 613 237-4748.

The prices below are confirmed 2002 rates per room per day and are in Canadian dollars and do not include taxes.

At press time, on September 28, one Canadian dollar was worth approximately \$0.64 U.S. and approximately 0.70 euros.

When booking Canadian hotels, it is customary to specify smoking or non-smoking. All rooms except the single rooms at the University of Ottawa are air-conditioned. The rooms at the Château Laurier are air conditioned, but the windows do open. All hotel swimming pools are indoors. Some of the hotels allow pets; please inquire. Automobile parking is available at extra cost. Breakfast is not usually included in the room rate (except at the Marriott Residence Inn). Full access for persons with disabilities is available at the Château Laurier, Les Suites, Cartier Place, and Marriott Residence Inn; inquire about the limited access at other hotels.

The Château Laurier: Our Headquarters

The *Château* offers you not only the convenience of staying at the conference site, but also the experience of staying in a historical landmark, with the finest service and food, the large Art-Deco Pool, the Health Club with sauna and steamroom, and a location just 2 minutes' walk from the restaurants and shops of the Byward Market area. Standard rooms are at C\$199; deluxe rooms are priced at C\$209. Premier and "gold" rooms, as well as suites of various sizes, are also available.

Other Hotels within 5-minute Walking Distance of the Château Laurier

The *Novotel* is a modern, functional hotel adjacent to the Rideau Shopping Mall. There is a swimming pool, whirlpool, sauna, and exercise room. The rates are C\$150 for single or double occupancy, C\$165 triple, C\$180 quad.

Les Suites is also adjacent to the Rideau Shopping Mall, and offers fully-equipped apartments with kitchens, complimentary local phone calls and direct data lines. Guests have access to a swimming pool, whirlpool, sauna, and exercise room. The rate is C\$175 for a one-bedroom apartment, \$215 for a two-bedroom apartment.



The Château Laurier

The *Lord Elgin* offers traditional-style hotel rooms at an Elgin Street location opposite Confederation Park. In honour of the hotel's 60th anniversary, the hotel is currently undergoing complete modernization. The rate is C\$113 single or double, C\$123 triple, and C\$133 quad.

Other Hotels within 10-minute Walking Distance of the Château Laurier

The *Ramada* offers attractive rooms on a quiet residential street next to the Rideau Canal at C\$121 single, C\$131 double.

Cartier Place is an apartment hotel on a residential street close to the Elgin Street restaurants and shops. There is a fitness room. The rate for their one-bedroom apartments is C\$132 single occupancy, C\$142. double, C\$152 triple, and C\$162 quad.

The *Marriott Residence Inn* offers luxurious, fully-equipped apartments with kitchens at a convenient downtown location. There is a swimming pool. The rates of C\$169. for a studio apartment and C\$179. for a one-bedroom apartment include Continental breakfast and snacks.

The *Sheraton Ottawa* is located downtown, and provides convenient access to the Transitway and Parliament Hill. There is a swimming pool. The room rate is C\$145, single or double occupancy.

Rooms at the University of Ottawa

The single residence rooms at the University of Ottawa are simply furnished and not air conditioned. Washrooms are located down the corridor. It is a very attractive 10-minute

walk along the Rideau Canal to the conference site. The rate is \$C40; check the website for information about student reductions.

The University also offers accommodation in air-conditioned two-bedroom apartments with living area, kitchen, and washroom facilities at C\$91.

Conference Registration and Fees

Registration forms appear in this issue. A downloadable pdf that you can print and mail or fax is also available at the conference website www.issbd.uottawa.ca. Please send the completed form to: ISSBD, School of Psychology, 120 University Street, Ottawa, Canada K1N 6N5, or fax to +1 613 562-5147. Please register early to take advantage of early-registration discounts.

Payment for advance registration can be made by: 1) cheque in US dollars, Canadian dollars, or euros; 2) bank transfer in Canadian dollars (please attach copy of bank confirmation to your registration form); or 3) VISA or Mastercard. Only Canadian dollars will be accepted for on-site registration (there is an ATM/bancomat at the conference site). The "reduced fee" category in the table below applies to scholars from countries with currency restrictions recognized for ISSBD membership. Those registering as students must attach proof of full-time student status to their registration forms.

We look forward to welcoming you to Canada's capital. Please do not forget to arrange for health insurance for visitors to Canada.

Conference Registration and Fees				
Member Status	Date Received	Canadian \$	U.S.\$	Euro
Regular member	By March 1	300.00	200.00	220.00
Student member	By March 1	135.00	90.00	100.00
Student non-members	By March 1	206.00	137.50	151.00
Reduced-fee member	By March 1	135.00	90.00	100.00
Reduced-fee non-member	By March 1	150.00	100.00	110.00
Other non-member	By March 1	427.50	285.00	315.00
Regular member	March 2–July 15	390.00	260.00	276.00
Student member	March 2–July 15	172.50	115.00	127.00
Student non-member	March 2–July 15	243.00	162.00	178.00
Reduced-fee member	March 2–July 15	150.00	100.00	110.00
Reduced-fee non-member	March 2–July 15	165.00	150.00	121.00
Other non-member	March 2–July 15	517.50	345.00	380.00
Regular member	After July 15	465.00	310.00	341.00
Student member	After July 15	195.00	130.00	143.00
Student non-member	After July 15	265.00	177.00	195.00
Reduced-fee member	After July 15	165.00	110.00	121.00
Reduced-fee non-member	After July 15	180.00	120.00	132.00
Other non-member	After July 15	595.00	395.00	435.00



ISSBD Ottawa 2002

REGISTRATION FORM

Name _____

Complete postal address _____

E-mail _____ Fax: _____

Telephone number _____

ISSBD Membership Status _____

Have you sent a submission to the scientific programme? Yes No

Name(s) of Accompanying person(s) not participating in the scientific programme

Paying in Can. \$ US \$ Euros €

Registration fee (from table on page 26) _____.

Fee for accompanying person(s) at C\$27; US \$18; €20.00 _____.

tickets to banquet on August 1 at C\$75; US\$ 50; €55.00 _____.

Method of payment cheque enclosed
 bank transfer (please e-mail issbd@ottawa.ca
 for instructions
 VISA/Mastercard no. _____ Expiry ____/____

Signature _____ Date _____

Send your form to: ISSBD
 School of Psychology
 University of Ottawa
 120 University St.
 Ottawa, Canada K1N 6N5
 or fax to +1 613562-5147



Financial Aid

Applications for financial aid have been made to help participants from developing countries attend the pre-conference workshop. Please watch the website for details.

Limited financial support is available from the ISSBD Quebec City Meeting Foundation. Please contact maliantk@grip.umontreal.ca for details.

Pre-Conference Workshop on Observational Methodology

This two-day workshop will focus on the current status of observational methodologies in developmental research. Observational codes designed for the study of such topics such as social interaction and expressed emotion in infants and older children, both in naturalistic situations (daycare settings, school playgrounds) and in the laboratory, will be presented. Recent technological advances in recording and coding behaviour will also be reviewed. The importance of culture for observational research will also be examined.

We are applying for grant funding to enable scientists from developing countries to participate in this workshop.

Please check the website for further details about the workshop and about opportunities for financial assistance.

Publishers' Book Display

The major publishers of books in behavioural development are invited to participate in the book display. Publishers interested in registering should contact Professor Alastair Younger (younger@uottawa.ca).

Pre- and Post-Conference Tours

A variety of pre- and post-conference tours are being planned to help participants discover the wonders of the Canadian summer. Please visit the website www.issbd.uottawa.ca or request the special brochure.

Submissions

The deadline for paper symposia proposals was Oct. 15. The deadline for **receipt** of poster submissions is January 15, 2002. Any member or student member of the ISSBD may submit proposals for posters. Non-members are also welcome to submit. Submissions from all fields of behavioural development are welcome.

The scientific programme will span four days, beginning the morning of Saturday, August 3, 2002. Please indicate at the time

of submission any religious reason for being unable to present on any of the four days. Otherwise, submission indicates willingness to present the poster on any of the four days.

Decisions about submissions will normally be transmitted by e-mail. Submitters who do not have access to private e-mail should notify us LINK, so that other arrangements can be made.

Submission address:

Email issbd@uottawa.ca

Electronic submission is strongly encouraged. Please visit us at www.issbd.uottawa.ca, where you will find the electronic submission forms as well as downloadable PDF that you can print and send by mail/post.

Visit us at www.issbd.uottawa.ca

Local Tour and Social Programme

The following information is tentative. Please visit the website for final details and prices.

Many of Ottawa's city attractions, including Parliament Hill and the National Gallery, are within walking distance of our conference site and easy to explore on your own. Our local tour and social programme will bring you to places not easily accessible by public transportation and to events organized especially for ISSBD participants.

The deadline for registration for most events will be July 1, 2002. By then, the scientific programme will have been posted on this website. The advance registration is needed in order to plan the events properly. In early July, we will try to find additional space for events that have generated more interest than planned, and cancel others that do not have sufficient registration. Should there be any space available at an event that remains in the schedule, it will be available during the month of July with a late registration fee of 15% of the price.

The deadline for the ISSBD International Golf Classic is March 1, 2002. Because of the great interest in golf in the Ottawa area, these arrangements must be made then. No late registrations can be accepted for the golf events.

Most of these events are organized by Quintessential Ottawa. Angela Marcus is an art historian with an M.A. in Canadian Studies, focused on Canadian art history. She produced two television documentaries: *The Firestone Art Collection* and *Portrait of Three Ottawa Artists*. This past year, in addition to co-owning Quintessential Ottawa, Angela researched a documentary film on Canadian war artists. Kathleen Walker is the former Food Editor and Restaurant Critic for *The Ottawa Citizen*. She is the author of *The Spice Rack* and *Ottawa's Repast: 150 Years of Food and Drink*. In addition to co-owning Quintessential Ottawa, Kathleen co-ordinates cooking classes at Liquor Control Board of Ontario stores in Ottawa.

Hiking, canoeing, and kayaking tours are organized by the Ottawa Outing Club.

Events Planned for the Afternoon of Thursday Oct. 1

City tour in Japanese (N. B. At your hotel, you can book a variety of bus and boat tours of the city, with commentary in English and French—even a trip on an amphibian bus that converts to a boat. We can arrange tours in other languages for groups.)



ISSBD Ottawa 2002

Individual Poster Face Sheet

Title _____

Key words (up to 3): _____

Surname, Forename, e-mail address

Institutional Affiliation, Country

Author(s)

1st _____

2nd _____

3rd _____

4th _____

5th _____

6th _____

7th _____

8th _____

Corresponding Author: _____

e-mail address: _____

ABSTRACT (maximum 350 words)

Events Planned for Friday August 2
(Ending before the Welcome Reception)

ISSBD International Golf Classic – Part I, at a semi-public, challenging target golf club. Our arrangements include transportation, lunch, clubs, and cart rental.

An Introduction to Inuit (Eskimo) Art –An Inuit art specialist will give an introductory slide-illustrated talk on Inuit Art at the Inuit Art Foundation, which displays stone carvings, prints, and other handicrafts.

Omega Park (family) – A full day visit to a wildlife park. Visitors remain on the bus while it drives slowly through the varied landscape past the habitats of such animals as red deer, beaver, wild boar, Alpine ibex, moose, and black bears.

Whitewater rafting on the Ottawa River – You paddle a 12-person inflatable raft down the churning river. Children must be at least 7 years old and weigh at least 50 lbs/24kg.

A 10-km (6-mile) hike in Gatineau Park – bring hiking boots.

Welcome Reception at the Château Laurier—included with conference registration. Starts at 6 p. m.

Evening Events During the Conference

Canadian aboriginal dinner, dancing, and drumming

Canadian Chamber Music concert – The Ottawa Chamber Music Festival, the world’s largest, ends just as our conference begins. We will invite some of the best musicians for a special ISSBD performance.

Canadian wine-tasting – a pleasant surprise for oenophiles. Try whites and reds from Niagara and British Columbia, including our world-famous icewine.

The World Fireworks Championship

Gatineau Park Drive and Dinner at Les Fougères, one of the areas best restaurants serving contemporary French cuisine

Sunset Paddles Organized by the Ottawa Outing Club – for those with some canoe or kayak experience. Room for one beginner (who can swim) in each canoe.

Banquet at the Château Laurier—featuring Canadian flavours, prepared by David MacGillray, executive chef.

Daytime Events for Accompanying Adults

The Diefenbunker—Canada’s Cold War Museum. A top-secret project built during the Cold-War period to shelter Elite members of Canada’s government and military, it is a fascinating structure, constructed three stories underground.

French cooking demonstration

Ottawa Neighbourhood Tour – Visit several of Ottawa’s historical neighbourhoods for the history, the architecture, the sights and a glimpse of daily life in the Capital

Historic Wakefield Village and artists’ studio visits

Family Events for Accompanying Parents and Children

Eco-Musée and Waterslide – Visit a small museum with displays about the evolution of our planet, global warming, and natural phenomena. Followed by a barbecue lunch and swimming at the Waterslide.

Museum of Science and Technology

Canoe lessons for beginners

Events Planned for the Afternoon of August 6

After the Close of the Scientific Programme

ISSBD International Golf Classic – Part II – at a very attractive private club. Our arrangements include transportation, clubs, cart rental and lunch.

Historic Merrickville, with its antique shops, galleries, and restaurants

A 5-hour hike in Gatineau Park. Bring hiking boots

Apology

The Organizing Committee apologizes to Professor Peter K. Smith of the U. K., whose name was inadvertently omitted from the list of review panel members in the previous issue of this Newsletter.

Contact Us

E-mail: issbd@uottawa.ca

Fax: +1 613 562 5147

*Postal address: ISSBD, School of Psychology
University of Ottawa
120 University St., Ottawa
CANADA, K1N 6N5*



Other Sights to See: The Museum of Civilization



POSITION OPENINGS

The Psychology Department at the University of Saskatchewan is establishing a new, interdisciplinary graduate program in Culture and Human Development. This will be a Ph.D. program offering training in basic and applied research to create a new generation of developmental psychologists who are responsive to emerging questions regarding the cultural processes influencing human development.

We are seeking a tenure-track faculty member at the Assistant Professor rank to contribute to the development, implementation, and integration of this new program with existing strong Ph.D. programs in Clinical, Applied Social, and Basic Behavioral Sciences. Candidates with Ph.D.'s from any relevant discipline in Social Sciences or Humanities are encouraged to apply (e.g., Applied Developmental, Cultural Studies, Women's & Gender Studies,

Anthropology, Sociology, Communication Studies, etc.). All candidates must have an active program of research in an area relevant to Culture and Human Development (e.g., cultural influences, popular media, cross-cultural comparisons). We are particularly interested in individuals with expertise in qualitative research, ethnography, and/or applied developmental methods. Candidates selected for interviews will have clearly demonstrated in a letter of intent how his/her program of research and teaching expertise would fit within a program in Culture and Human Development.

The University is committed to Employment Equity. Members of Designated Groups (women, aboriginal people, people with disabilities and visible minorities) are encouraged to self-identify on their applications. In accordance with immigration require-

ments, this advertisement is directed in the first instance to Canadian citizens and permanent residents. Other qualified applicants, however, are strongly encouraged to apply.

For further information please see www.usask.ca/psychology or contact Dr. Lorrie Sippola at lorrie.sippola@usask.ca.

Applicants should send a curriculum vitae, statements outlining research and teaching interests, and 3 letters of reference to:

Linda McMullen, Head
Department of Psychology
University of Saskatchewan
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan
CANADA, S7N 5A5.

Deadline for applications is 15 January 2002.

Editorial

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Joan G. Miller

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